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3 **Title**

4 Trampling affects the distribution of specialised coastal dune arthropods

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18 **Keywords:** Araneae, grazing, grey dunes, Lepidoptera, multispecies metapopulation, Orthoptera,
19 recreation, trampling

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Postprint version.

Original publication in:

Basic and Applied Ecology (2008) 9: 726-734

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Trampling affects the distribution of specialised coastal dune arthropods

Abstract

From a conservation point of view, species' tolerances towards disturbance are often generalised and lack reference to spatial scales and underlying processes. In order to investigate how average typical species react to habitat fragmentation and disturbance, we adopted a multi-species approach to address occupancy patterns of five specialised dune arthropods (butterflies *Hipparchia semele*, *Issoria lathonia*; grasshopper *Oedipoda caerulescens*; spiders *Alopecosa fabrilis*, *Xysticus sabulosus*) in recently fragmented coastal dune habitats which are subjected to varying levels and modes of local disturbance, i.e. trampling by cattle or people.

Occupancy patterns were assessed during two successive years in 133 grey dune fragments of the Flemish coastal dunes (Belgium, France). By treating species as a random factor in our models, emphasis was placed on generalisations rather than documenting species-specific patterns.

Our study demonstrates that deteriorating effects of local disturbance on arthropod incidence cannot be interpreted independent of its landscape context, and appear to be more severe when patch area and connectivity decrease. When controlled for patch area and trampling intensity, the probability of species occupancy in poorly connected patches is higher under cattle trampling than under recreation. Incidences additionally decrease with increasing intensity of cattle trampling, but increases with trampling by tourists.

This study provides empirical evidence of mode- and landscape-dependent effects of local disturbance on species occupancy patterns. Most importantly, it demonstrates that trampling of sensitive dune fragments will lead to local and metapopulation extinction in landscapes where trampling occurs in a spatially autocorrelated way, but that the outcome (spatial patterns) varies in relation to disturbance mode, indicating that effects of disturbance cannot be generalised.

47 Zusammenfassung

48 Aus Sicht des Naturschutzes werden die Toleranzen von Arten gegenüber Störungen häufig
49 verallgemeinert und lassen einen Bezug zu räumlichen Skalen und den zugrundeliegenden Prozessen
50 vermissen. Um zu untersuchen, wie typische Durchschnittsarten auf Habitatfragmentierung und Störung
51 reagieren, verwendeten wir einen Vielartenansatz um die Nutzungsmuster von fünf spezialisierten
52 Dünenarthropoden (Schmetterlinge: *Hipparchia semele*, *Issoria lathonia*; Heuschrecken: *Oedipoda*
53 *caerulescens*; Spinnen: *Alopecosa fabrilis*, *Xysticus sabulosus*) in kürzlich fragmentierten
54 Küstendünenhabitaten zu behandeln, die unterschiedlichen Arten und verschieden starken lokalen
55 Störungen ausgesetzt waren, wie z. B. Vertritt durch Weidevieh oder Menschen. Die Nutzungsmuster
56 wurden in zwei aufeinander folgenden Jahren in 133 Graudünenfragmenten der flämischen Küstendünen
57 (Belgien, Frankreich) untersucht. Durch die Berücksichtigung der Arten als zufällige Faktoren legten wir
58 den Schwerpunkt eher auf Generalisierung als auf die Dokumentation artspezifischer Muster. Unsere
59 Untersuchung zeigt, dass die negativen Effekte lokaler Störungen auf die Arthropodenvorkommen nicht
60 unabhängig vom Landschaftskontext interpretiert werden können, und dass sie ernster sind, wenn die
61 Flächengröße und -vernetzung abnehmen. Wenn wir die Flächengröße und die Vertrittintensität
62 kontrollieren, ist die Wahrscheinlichkeit des Artvorkommens in wenig vernetzten Flächen bei Beweidung
63 größer als bei Freizeitnutzung. Die Vorkommen nehmen außerdem mit zunehmender Intensität des
64 Weideviehvertritts ab, nehmen jedoch mit zunehmendem Vertritt durch Touristen zu. Diese Untersuchung
65 liefert empirische Belege für art- und landschaftsabhängige Effekte lokaler Störungen auf die
66 Nutzungsmuster von Arten. Besonders wichtig ist, dass gezeigt wird, dass der Vertritt von sensiblen
67 Dünenfragmenten zum Aussterben von lokalen und Metapopulationen in Landschaften führen wird, wenn
68 der Vertritt in einer räumlich autokorrelierten Form stattfindet. Das Ergebnis (die räumlichen Muster)
69 variieren jedoch in Relation zur Störungsart und weist darauf hin, dass die Effekte von Störungen nicht
70 generalisiert werden können.

71

72 Introduction

73 Both natural and anthropogenic disturbances are known to affect the viability of populations (Hansen &
74 Clevenger 2005; Pascual & Guichard 2005). Many studies dealing with disturbance as a driving factor in
75 metapopulation dynamics consider local disturbance as an agent that is directly responsible for local
76 extinction events, so-called “catastrophes”. In these cases, metapopulation extinction is directly affected by
77 the degree of spatial correlation in disturbance processes and habitat geometry (Kallimanis, Kunin, Halley
78 & Sgardelis 2005), with spatially correlated disturbances eventually leading to metapopulation extinction in
79 the absence of long-distance dispersal. Subsequently, deterministic disturbance events may affect patch
80 connectivity by reducing the number of populations within the dispersal range of an organism. The degree
81 to which populations are affected by the magnitude of local disturbance and its interaction with patch
82 geometry, however, remains largely unanswered, although recent theoretical work highlights the
83 importance of habitat availability, disturbance regime and dispersal properties (Kallimanis et al. 2005). If the
84 magnitude of local disturbance is inversely related to habitat quality, then source-sink models predict that
85 patches with increasing local disturbance remain occupied only when connected to patches with a
86 demographic excess (Kawecki 2004).

87
88 Within a conservation framework, species’ tolerance towards comparable disturbances regimes is often
89 generalised (White & Jentsch 2001). However, variation due to different spatial scales and underlying
90 processes (Hobbs & Yates, 2003; Denny, Helmuth, Leonard, Harley, Hunt *et al.*, 2004) is hardly addressed.
91 Earlier theoretical (Henle, Davies, Kleyer, Margules & Settele. 2004) and empirical work (e.g. Krauss,
92 Steffan-Dewenter & Tschardt 2003; Steffan-Dewenter 2003; Brouat, Chevalier, Meusnier, Noblecourt &
93 Rasplus 2004; Dennis, Hodgson, Grenyer, Shreeve & Roy 2004) revealed that distribution patterns are not
94 only affected by differences in dispersal ability (which determine connectivity), but also by (often co-
95 varying) traits related to habitat specialization. In particular, species with different life-histories do not have
96 the same resource demands and may considerably differ in their mode of habitat use (Dennis, Shreeve &
97 Van Dyck 2003). As a consequence, research of multi-species responses towards environmental changes
98 may yield complementary insights for conservation and management purposes as opposed to single-
99 species studies (e.g. Lambeck 1997; Simberloff 1998; Maes & Van Dyck 2005; Maes & Bonte 2006). If a
100 species from a particular ecosystem is at high risk, comparison of its response towards a suite of
101 environmental parameters may enable local managers to predict how conservation efforts targeted at this
102 single focal species can affect other species that are at less risk. However, when multi-species studies
103 reveal contrasting patterns, it is difficult to set management priorities as beneficial actions for one species

104 may be detrimental for another one. Instead, we argue that a compromise which generates insights into the
105 average reaction of the species-group (the assemblage from which representative species are chosen) is
106 more practical and that patterns revealed by the latter can be translated to management priorities that are
107 beneficial to an entire group of species. This compromise can be expected to be a strategy for an optimal
108 and sustainable conservation of local species richness, and not of one specific target species.
109 Consequently, the delineation of management actions based on average reactions of species towards a
110 particular disturbance regime may provide complementary information to the „umbrella’ approach, in which
111 conservation actions are based on responses of one species that is assumed to be representative of an
112 entire species assemblage (Fleishman, Murphy & Brussard 2000; Fleishman, Blair & Murphy 2001).

113

114 In coastal dune ecosystems, trampling is often tolerated because of the assumed adaptation of species
115 towards natural disturbance, i.e. aeolian dynamics (displacement of sand by wind; Bonte, Maelfait & Lens
116 2006). Maes and Bonte (2006) focussed in detail on the habitat demands of the selected species and
117 landscape-related factors that influence their colonisation and extinction dynamics. We here adopt the
118 earlier delineated „compromise’ approach to study the average response of five arthropod species towards
119 trampling variation (intensity and mode) by controlling for these earlier revealed landscape-related variation
120 (see Maes & Bonte 2006).

121

122 **Material and methods**

123 *Studied species*

124 The set of study species comprises two butterfly species, the Grayling *Hipparchia semele* (LINNAEUS 1758)
125 and the Queen of Spain Fritillary *Issoria lathonia* (LINNAEUS 1758), the Blue-Winged Grasshopper *Oedipoda*
126 *caerulescens* (LINNAEUS 1758) and the spiders *Xysticus sabulosus* (HAHN 1832) and *Alopecosa fabrilis*
127 (CLERCK 1757). These species are restricted to dynamic grey dunes in the coastal area (Provoost & Bonte
128 2004). Local distribution patterns in coastal dunes are affected by patch size, patch isolation and the
129 intensity of trampling (Maes & Bonte 2006).

130 All species are active during the (late) summer (Kleukers et al. 1997; Maes & Van Dyck 1999; Bonte &
131 Maelfait 2004, 2005). *A. fabrilis* is a burrowing species during its entire life (Bonte & Maelfait 2005), egg
132 development of *O. caerulescens* takes place in the soil, but larval development is aboveground (Kleukers,
133 van Nieukerke, Odé, Willemse & Van Wingerden 1997), while egg and larval development of both butterfly

134 species (Maes & Van Dyck 1999) and *X. sabulosus* takes place in vegetation above ground-level (Bonte,
135 unpub. data).
136 Species *H. semele* and *I. lathonia* are mobile (Dennis, Shreeve & Sparks 1998; Maes, Ghesquiere, Logie &
137 Bonte 2006), *O. caerulescens* is moderately sedentary although some individuals can move for long
138 distances (Appelt & Poethke 1997; Maes et al. 2006) and both spider species *A. fabrilis* and *X. sabulosus*
139 are believed to be very sedentary although *X. sabulosus* can use ballooning as a dispersal mode (Bonte,
140 Lens, Maelfait, Hoffmann & Kuyken 2003). All five species are of conservation concern in Flanders
141 (Provoost 2004).

142

143 *Methods*

144 The study was carried out in 133 patches of dynamic grey dunes along the coast between Nieuwpoort –
145 Belgium (51°08' N, 2°43' E) and Bray-Dunes – France (51°05' N, 2°33' E; see appendix A: Fig. 1). Like
146 other coastal dunes in Western Europe, they comprise semi-natural landscapes that have been influenced
147 by agro-pastoral use prior to the 1950's. Owing to the withdrawal of agro-pastoral activities, the rise of
148 tourist activities and the dramatic decline in rabbit populations due to viral diseases, the formerly open
149 landscape became urbanised and subject to shrub encroachment, resulting in an accelerated
150 fragmentation of dynamic grey dunes (Provoost & Van Landuyt 2001). Grey dune habitat was
151 discriminated from unsuitable habitat from aerial orthophotographs based on vegetation-specific red (RED)
152 and near-infrared (NIR) reflectance values (Provoost, Ampe, Bonte, Cosyns & Hoffmann 2004). After
153 discrimination, patches were digitised with a Geographic Information System (Arcview 3.1). Mean patch
154 size was 1.44 ha (range: 0.0007 – 22.55 ha).

155 To determine the presence of the two butterfly species and the grasshopper, all sites were censused by
156 standardised (equal search time for patch area) walks through the entire patch during the first two weeks of
157 August in 2003 and in 2004 under suitable weather conditions (cf. Pollard and Yates 1993). Patches,
158 independently surveyed by three different observers revealed identical presence/absence data and, hence,
159 demonstrate the reliability of these data. Presence/absence of the two spider species was determined with
160 pitfall traps between 20 August and 10 September in 2003 and in 2004 (diameter 9 cm, 6% formaldehyde-
161 detergent solution). Earlier research indicated that, because of their high levels of epigeic activity and the
162 open vegetation structure, species incidences can be determined with few pitfalls, randomly located in
163 optimal habitat (Bonte, Baert & Maelfait 2004). Therefore at least five traps were randomly placed with a
164 maximum of 15 pitfalls in larger patches.

165 For all patches, area and proportion of area that showed trampled soil and vegetation (hereafter called
166 trampling intensity) were assessed in addition to species-specific connectivity (see further). Patches were
167 either subjected to trampling by introduced domestical herbivores, to trampling by mass-recreation or
168 excluded from recreation and grazing. Grazed or excluded patches were never frequented by tourists. Grey
169 dune fragments under recreational pressure are predominantly situated within urban areas, while those
170 under grazing are situated within nature reserves. Our measure of disturbance intensity is a relative
171 measure that gives insight into its spatial distribution within sites. Although it does not take temporal
172 aspects of use into account, earlier surveys indicated that its intensity is reflected in the relative proportion
173 of damaged soil, for a specific mode of disturbance (recreation or cattle). Although trampling by tourists or
174 by cattle result in similar trampling patterns (destruction of moss coverage; Bonte 2005), temporal aspects
175 of trampling greatly differ: public recreation mainly occurs during the summer season (season in which
176 specialised arthropods occur as adults) estimated to approximate 300 hours of recreation disturbance
177 during the months July-August on the most accessible grey dunes (Bonte 2005), equalling maximal 0.1
178 hours/year/m² for average patches under recreation. In contrast, cattle spend yearly only 7-9% of their time
179 on dynamic grey dunes resulting in a mean annual disturbance of less than 0.2 hours/year/m² (Lamoot,
180 Meert & Hoffmann 2005). This grazing mainly occurs during winter and spring (Lamoot et al. 2005).

181
182 Because all surrounding habitat can be considered as being hostile, and because of the predominant aerial
183 dispersal of the selected model species, we used simple connectivity indices based on patch-based
184 weighted sums. These have been shown to be biologically relevant in species inhabiting landscapes with
185 discrete habitat patches imbedded in hostile habitat and having aerial, non-directed dispersal modes
186 (Winfree, Dushoff, Crone, Schultz, Budny et al. 2005). More specifically we used Hanski's connectivity
187 measure (Hanski 1994) $S_i = \sum_{j \neq i} \exp(-\alpha d_{ij}) N_j$ where α = a constant describing the strength of the inverse
188 relationship between numbers of migrants from patch j , d_{ij} distance between patches, and N_j = population
189 size at patch j (1 in case of occupancy, 0 in the case of vacancy). We used α -values of 2 for the butterflies
190 *H. semele* and for *I. lathonia* (Maes et al. 2006); 25 for the grasshopper *O. caerulescens* (Appelt and
191 Poethke 1997; Maes et al. 2006) and 4 for the spiders *A. fabrilis* and *X. sabulosus* assuming ballooning
192 dispersal for both species (Bonte et al. 2003). These dispersal kernels are based on previous, independent
193 empirical data sets from coastal dunes (Bonte et al. 2003; Maes et al. 2006) and are very similar to those
194 reported in the literature. Sensitivity analysis and low variation within models of the species*connectivity
195 interaction depict the robust influence of these constants on the patterns investigated, because connectivity

196 is mainly affected by each species' spatial distribution within the landscape, i.e. by occupancy of
197 neighbouring patches (Bonte & Maes, unpub. data) .

198

199 *Statistical analysis*

200 Mixed logistic models with logit-link for binomial data (0: absence; 1: presence; Procedure Glimmix; SAS
201 statistical Package version 9.1, SAS 2003) were applied to investigate occupancy patterns of the species.
202 Species, year and their interactions with fixed factors were included as random factors because we aimed
203 to analyse general occupancy patterns for specialised arthropods. In a first analysis, occupancy patterns
204 were investigated in relation to trampling intensity, patch area and patch connectivity, which were included
205 as fixed factors. As trampling mainly originates from recreation and grazing disturbance, the nature of the
206 disturbance was added in a second analysis as a categorical fixed factor. Because trampling intensity
207 ranged between 0 and 50% trampled soil under grazing and from 0-100% trampled soil under recreation,
208 we selected 75 patches within the common range of 0-50% in order to test effects of trampling
209 (disturbance) mode on species incidence. A backward procedure was applied to eliminate non-significant
210 factors and interactions from both models. Denominator degrees of freedom were approximated using
211 Satterthwaite's procedure in order to correct for the unbalanced design due to species- and year-effects.

212

213

214 **Results**

215 Patch area, trampling intensity and species-specific connectivity measures only show weak ($r^2 < 0.20$)
216 correlations (see Appendix A). Most important is the positive relationship between patch area and
217 connectivity for all species, mainly due to the absence of small patches with high connectivity. Fragments in
218 sites subjected to recreational trampling are smaller than those subjected to cattle (Table 1) and those
219 excluded for both cattle and vacationers. Mean trampling intensity was lowest in the latter, higher in
220 fragments under influence of cattle trampling and highest in those subjected to recreation.

221

222 Species incidence was affected by the interaction between patch area, patch connectivity and intensity of
223 trampling (Table 2). The probability of occupancy increased when patches became larger or better
224 connected. Under increasing trampling intensity, occupancy rates were high in large patches with high
225 connectivity only. The statistical model is depicted in Appendix B.

226

227 When the type of disturbance (recreation versus grazing) was added to the model, the probability of patch
228 occupancy was positively affected by area and the interactions between disturbance mode and connectivity
229 and trampling intensity, respectively (Table 3). As evident from Fig. 1, probabilities of patch occupancy,
230 controlled for mean area and trampling intensity, increased faster for patches trampled by grazing than by
231 people. The mode of trampling, as a function of its intensity (within the common range between 0 and
232 50%), showed contrasting patterns in patches of similar area and connectivity (Fig. 2). In cases where
233 trampling intensity was low, probabilities of patch occupancy were higher for sites under grazing than under
234 recreational disturbance. With increasing trampling disturbance, however, probabilities became relatively
235 higher for sites under recreational pressure.

236

237

238

239 Discussion

240

241 Our selected species clearly show different reactions towards landscape-ecological features and
242 disturbance, as reflected in the high variation components of the random factors. Threshold values to
243 ascertain the presence of these species have been documented in Maes and Bonte (2006). We here show
244 that average occupancy patterns of dune arthropods clearly depend on the landscape structure, but also on
245 its interaction with characteristics of local trampling disturbance. The strength of the applied analytic
246 approach depends, however, largely on the variance among included species and their ecological affinities
247 with the environment of interest. More specifically, only patterns that are common to all included species
248 are retained while species-specific patterns will raise modelled variation components. This approach
249 should therefore not be interpreted as an alternative for the multi-species approach in which patterns are
250 analysed for several species separately. While the latter enables the assessment of necessary additive or
251 complementary information for species conservation (e.g. Fleishman et al. 2000; 2001), our analysis
252 provides a straightforward assessment of the average responses of the local species community towards
253 modelled habitat-related factors.

254

255 Our habitat patches were discriminated on an objective basis that encompasses suitable habitat for all
256 species (as revealed by previous independent research, Provoost & Bonte 2004). However, we cannot
257 completely exclude unknown (and hence unmodelled) differences in habitat quality, which are interpreted
258 as connectivity or disturbance effects. This may be true for e.g. factors related to microclimate and lime
259 richness of the soil, which both show considerable spatial autocorrelation in relation to the distance to the
260 sea (Bonte et al. 2004). The presence of large populations of all selected species both close to the sea and
261 close to the inner dune front renders this autocorrelation, however, unlikely. Because probabilities of
262 species occupancy in patches under high local disturbance are only high within large areas having high
263 connectivity, we can conclude that high levels of local disturbance give rise to mass effects (Leibold,
264 Holyoak, Mouquet, Amarasekare, Chase et al. 2004), influenced by high effective dispersal rates from high
265 towards low quality patches. Under high levels of isolation, high disturbance rates will be responsible for
266 local extinction in small isolated patches. Subsequently, connectivity for the remaining populations will
267 decrease and induce positive feedbacks on overall species incidence in case (even non-catastrophic)
268 disturbances occur in a spatially aggregated way. If the entire metapopulation is subjected to similar levels
269 of substantial disturbance, it will automatically lead to metapopulation extinction, as predicted by the
270 theoretical work of Kallimanis et al. (2005). Similar results were obtained by Dunstan & Fox (1996), who

271 found species richness to decrease with patch remnant size and increasing disturbance. As in our study,
272 the interaction between both factors appeared to be important with small remnants being affected worst by
273 increasing disturbance.

274

275 The magnitude of trampled area differed significantly between patches under direct influence of either
276 mass-recreation, grazing management and those only sporadically visited by humans. Despite the general
277 perception that effects of disturbance on species diversity can be generalised, our study provides clear
278 evidence that different modes of disturbance affect occupancy probabilities of arthropods in a different way.
279 Probably, temporal differences in disturbance intensity, although superficially resulting in similar
280 environments, underly the observed patterns. Under low patch connectivity, occupancy probabilities are
281 higher for sites under grazing management (Fig. 1). Additionally, species occupancy decreased with
282 increased cattle trampling but increased if trampling intensity was associated with recreation (Fig. 2). These
283 patterns may well make biological sense because trampling due to recreation peaks during few days in the
284 summer period, while trampling by cattle appears to be a more continuous, but less intense. Recreational
285 disturbance occurs consequently during the season when our model species are very mobile. In contrast, if
286 cattle-trampling is fairly high in patches with a similar configuration, this indicates more continuous
287 trampling, with peaks during the winter period, when most species are sedentary (early juveniles, eggs;
288 Maes & Van Dyck 1999; Turin 2000) and, hence, most vulnerable to direct trampling effects. Under low
289 trampling intensities, reverse patterns were observed, suggesting that patches under low recreational
290 pressure are characterised by lower occupancy probabilities. Although we controlled for landscape-effects,
291 differences in other habitat deteriorating parameters due to edge effects within different matrix-types can
292 attribute –at least partly- for the observed patterns here. Especially the lack of sufficient amounts of natural
293 dynamics, changes in vegetation composition and biotic interactions due to increasing abundances of
294 invasive and garden species (Provoost 2004), may underlie these patterns, here attributed to disturbance
295 as such. Despite the fact that our findings are purely correlative, they certainly suggest that generalizations
296 of disturbance need to be taken very carefully.

297

298 The introduction of grazing management is a system-approach, in which grazers are introduced within
299 delimited blocks. Spatial autocorrelation of induced trampling disturbance will consequently be responsible
300 for declining occupancy patterns over longer time scales. This will certainly be the case in shrub dominated
301 dune landscapes where open grey dunes are intensively frequented by cattle (Lamoot et al. 2005). Here,
302 even intermediate trampling will have an impact on occupancy patterns because the number of occupied
303 patches (and hence focal patch connectivity) in the surrounding will inevitably decrease due to higher

304 average extinction probabilities. Because similar processes can be expected in urbanised areas,
305 autocorrelated disturbance needs to be avoided by the exclusion of (larger) scattered grey dune fragments
306 from cattle and people. Within grazing blocks, this can also be obtained by creating a sufficient amount of
307 high-quality habitat for domestic grazers in order to lower pressure on grey dune habitats with fragile soil
308 conditions. Additionally, as moderate trampling by people appears to be beneficial for the conservation of
309 grey dune invertebrate habitats, soft recreation should be encouraged and even preferred above grazing in
310 small grey dune fragments.

311

312 **Acknowledgement**

313 Ward Vercruysse provided assistance during fieldwork. We are very grateful to Roger Dennis and Luc Lens
314 for valuable comments and linguistic streaming and to Sam Provoost for his permission to use his digital
315 orthophotographs. Koen De Smet granted us permission to study the legally protected *O. caerulea*
316 (license number AMINAL/NAT/DI.832.172/2275). We are also grateful to three anonymous referees for
317 valuable suggestions to improve the quality of this manuscript. Dries Bonte holds a post-doc fellowship at
318 the Fund for Scientific Research – Flanders (FWO).

319

320 **Appendices A, B:** Supplementary Material. The online version of this article contains additional
321 supplementary data. Please visit XXXXX.

322

323

324

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426 Table 1. Mean values of patch area, connectivity S and relative trampling intensity of grey dune fragments
 427 in relation to mode of disturbance (means \pm SD). Significant differences are indicated by different letters in
 428 superscript (Tukey). Connectivity-values are given only for *O. caerulescens*, but S-values did not differ for
 429 any of the selected species

430

| 431 | | Cattle (N=25) | None (N=14) | Recreation (N=94) | F _{2,130} | P |
|-----|-----------------------------|----------------------------------|---------------------------------|-----------------------------------|--------------------|---------|
| 432 | <i>Area (m²)</i> | 9.43 (\pm 1.71) ^a | 9.25 (\pm 1.81) ^a | 8.09 (\pm 1.65) ^b | 8.052 | 0.0005 |
| 433 | <i>S (O. caerulescens)</i> | 0.33 (\pm 0.55) | 0.48 (\pm 0.48) | 0.46 (\pm 0.48) | 0.693 | 0.523 |
| 434 | <i>Trampling intensity</i> | 27.29 (\pm 14.5) ^a | 7.5 (\pm 5.92) ^b | 49.24 (\pm 24.15) ^c | 17.03 | <0.0001 |

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436

437 Table 2. Estimates, standard errors of estimates (se), denominator degrees of freedom (den. df.), F and P-
 438 values of mean effects as derived from the mixed logistic model with patch occupancy as dependent
 439 variable and patch area (area), patch connectivity (S) and trampling intensity (TI) as independent variables.
 440 Nominator degrees of freedom = 1. Species, species*environment and year-interactions were included as
 441 random factors in the model. Only those variance components lower than 0.001 are listed in the table.

442

| Effect (fixed) | Estimate | se | den. df. | F | P | Effect (random) | s ² | SE |
|----------------|----------|-------|-------------|-------|------------------|-----------------|----------------|-------|
| Intercept | -11.022 | 1.405 | 181.3 | | | Year | 0.048 | 0.082 |
| Area | 1.198 | 0.144 | 1300 | 69.04 | <0.001 | Species | 0.202 | 0.435 |
| S | 1.928 | 0.681 | 1305 | 8.01 | 0.005 | Species*S | 0.418 | 0.59 |
| TI | 0.084 | 0.03 | 313.9 | 7.59 | 0.006 | Species*Area | 0.013 | 0.014 |
| Area*S | -0.159 | 0.072 | 1320 | 4.79 | 0.029 | Species*S*Area | 0.007 | 0.009 |
| Area*TI | -0.011 | 0.003 | 1308 | 12.28 | <0.001 | Residual | 0.823 | 0.032 |
| S*TI | -0.024 | 0.012 | 1315 | 3.89 | 0.048 | | | |
| Area*S*TI | 0.003 | 0.001 | 1320 | 4.25 | 0.039 | | | |

443

444

445 Table 3. Estimates, standard errors of estimates (se), denominator degrees of freedom (den. df.), F and P-
 446 values of mean effects as derived from the reduced mixed logistic model with patch occupancy as
 447 dependent variable and patch area (area), patch connectivity (S), trampling intensity (TI) and source of
 448 trampling (TS: grazing versus recreation) as independent variables. Estimates are not given for backwards
 449 deleted effects that contributed in a non-significant way. Only patches under grazing or recreational
 450 pressure with trampling intensity less than 50% were selected (for reasoning, see text). Nominator degrees
 451 of freedom = 1. Species, species*environment and year-interactions were included as random factors in
 452 the model. Only those variance components lower than 0.001 are listed in the table.

| Effect (fixed) | Estimate | se | den. d.f. | F | P | Effect (random) | s ² | se |
|----------------|----------|------|-----------|-------|------------------|-----------------|----------------|-------|
| Intercept | -9.32 | 1.28 | - | - | - | Year | 0.244 | 0.371 |
| Area | 0.85 | 0.13 | 4.92 | 10.31 | 0.002 | Species | 5.341 | 5.688 |
| S | 1.21 | 0.32 | 3.42 | 9.89 | 0.041 | Species*S | 0.364 | 0.373 |
| TI | 0.02 | 0.01 | 3.11 | 0.1 | 0.772 | Species*Area | 0.596 | 0.595 |
| TS | 1.77 | 0.55 | 743 | 11.51 | <0.001 | Residual | 0.871 | 0.046 |
| S*TS | -0.40 | 0.19 | 729.4 | 7.75 | 0.030 | | | |
| TI*TS | -0.04 | 0.01 | 653.8 | 6.54 | 0.004 | | | |
| Area*S | - | - | 88.62 | 0.22 | 0.641 | | | |
| Area*TI | - | - | 3.75 | 1.81 | 0.407 | | | |
| Area*TS | - | - | 742 | 1.33 | 0.249 | | | |
| S*TI | - | - | 53.98 | 1.05 | 0.311 | | | |
| Area*S*TI | - | - | 736 | 0.09 | 0.761 | | | |
| Area*S*TS | - | - | 738 | 1.60 | 0.278 | | | |
| S*TI*TS | - | - | 737 | 0.77 | 0.382 | | | |
| Area*S*TI*TS | - | - | 735 | 3.83 | 0.051 | | | |

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456 Figure legends:

457

458 Figure 1. Modelled probability of patch occupancy as a function of connectivity for patches under the
459 influence of either grazing (left panel) or recreation (right panel). Occupancy probabilities and 95%
460 confidence limits are derived from the logistic model $\ln(p/(1-p)) = \text{int} + b_1x_1 + b_2x_2 + \dots$ for which parameters
461 estimates are given in Table 3 (for mean values of trampling intensity and area).

462

463 Figure 2. Modelled probability of patch occupancy as a function of trampling intensity for patches under
464 influence of either grazing (left panel) or recreation (right panel). Occupancy probabilities and 95%
465 confidence limits are derived from the logistic model $\ln(p/(1-p)) = \text{int} + b_1x_1 + b_2x_2 + \dots$ for which parameters
466 estimates are given in Table 3 (for mean values of S and area).

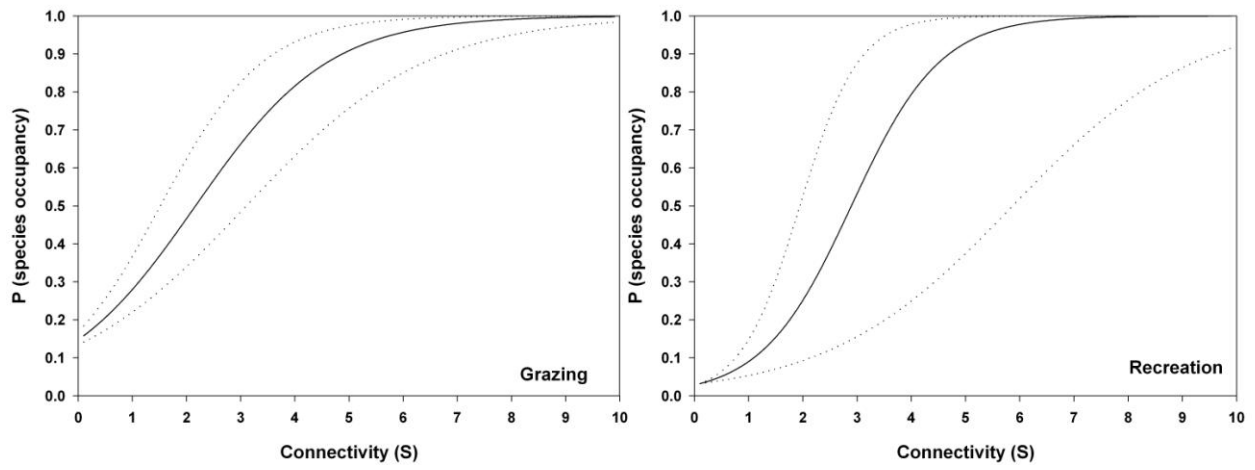
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470 Figure 1.

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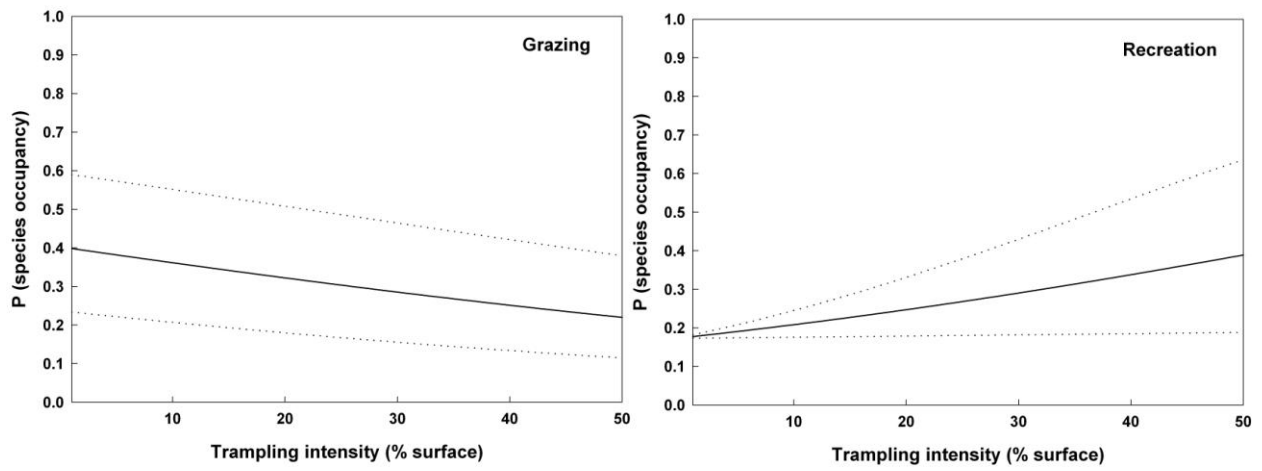


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474 Figure 2.

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