Ecological assessment of the effects of hydrology and flooding events on floodplain meadow species and their potential habitats

Dissertation

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Johannes Paul Gattringer, Bakk. rer. nat. MSc

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Division of Landscape Ecology and Landscape Planning Research Centre for Biosystems, Land Use and Nutrition (iFZ) Justus Liebig University Giessen, Germany

Supervisor:

Prof. Dr. Dr. habil. Dr. h. c. (TSU) Annette Otte Division of Landscape Ecology and Landscape Planning Research Centre for Biosystems, Land Use and Nutrition (iFZ) Justus Liebig University Giessen

Second supervisor:

Prof. Dr. Volkmar Wolters

Department of Animal Ecology and Systematics

Research Centre for Biosystems, Land Use and Nutrition (iFZ)

Justus Liebig University Giessen

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List of publications

This thesis is based on the following three papers:

- Gattringer JP, Donath TW, Eckstein RL, Ludewig K, Otte A, Harvolk-Schöning S (2017) Flooding tolerance of four floodplain meadow species depends on age. PLoS ONE 12:e0176869. doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0176869
- 2) Gattringer JP, Ludewig K, Harvolk-Schöning S, Donath TW, Otte A (2018) Interaction between depth and duration matters: flooding tolerance of 12 floodplain meadow species. Plant Ecology 219:973–984. doi: 10.1007/s11258-018-0850-2 #
- 3) Gattringer JP*, Maier N*, Breuer L, Otte A, Donath TW, Kraft P, Harvolk-Schöning S (submitted manuscript) Modeling of rare flood meadow species distribution by a combined habitat-surface water-groundwater model.

For the first and second paper, I had the main responsibility for conceptualization, data analysis, and writing. I conducted most of the experimental work. For the third paper, N. Maier and I contributed equally to the work and we both had the main responsibility, including conceptualization of the study and writing. I conducted most of the ecological fieldwork, the statistical habitat modeling and analysis. N. Maier computed the hydrological modeling and collected hydrological field data. All coauthors contributed constructive suggestions and helpful comments.

Furthermore, I contributed to the conceptualization, data analysis, and writing of the following article:

4) Volk XK, Gattringer JP, Otte A, Harvolk-Schöning S (2018) Connectivity analysis as a tool for assessing restoration success. Landscape Ecology 33:371–387. doi: 10.1007/s10980-018-0611-6

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^{*} These authors contributed equally to the work

CHAPTER 1

Ecological assessment of the effects of hydrology and flooding events on floodplain meadow species and their potential habitats: a synthesis

Introduction

Floodplain meadow species

Natural floodplains serve as regional biodiversity hotspots since they are characterized by an unusual high diversity of species and environmental processes (Naiman et al. 1993; Tockner and Stanford 2002). For centuries, floodplain ecosystems have been strongly influenced by human actions such as river regulation (Giller and Malmqvist 1998). As a consequence, floodplain habitats are among the most threatened habitat types in Central Europe (Joyce and Wade 1998; Finck et al. 2017). These habitats harbor numerous rare and endangered species and thus are of high nature conservation value (Tockner and Stanford 2002). In particular, species-rich floodplain meadows of the plant community Cnidion dubii (Burkart et al. 2004) have been in the focus of conservationists for decades (Kiehl et al. 2010). The big part of these meadows was converted to arable land or transferred to intensive land management (e.g., increased cutting frequency, fertilizer application) during the 20th century (Joyce and Wade 1998). Nowadays, only few remnants of the floodplain meadows still occur along the river valleys of Europe's large rivers; for example along the Rhine, Danube, and Elbe Rivers (Burkart 2001) and thus are protected throughout Europe (EU Habitats Directive; Council Directive 92/43/EEC Annex I; habitat type 6440: alluvial meadows of river valleys of the Cnidion dubii). Therefore, numerous restoration campaigns focused on the restoration of these meadows and therewith on the reestablishment of the often endangered plant species they harbor (e.g., Donath et al. 2007; Kiehl et al. 2010; Engst et al. 2016). However, restoration success was not equally high on all target sites due to the complex habitat requirements of the floodplain meadow species (Donath et al. 2003; Harnisch et al. 2014).

These floodplain meadow species are a set of plant species that grow predominantly (or exclusively) along large rivers in Central European lowlands. Interestingly, this observed distribution pattern is a biogeographic description as the plants show a high ecological heterogeneity owing to the great diversity of environmental processes in riparian grassland (Burkart 2001). In general, only little is known about the mechanism that cause the biogeographic distribution pattern of the floodplain meadow species. Therefore, experimental studies that reveal the autecological characteristics of species are particularly necessary (Burkart 2001). Several studies already focused on the experimentally testing of hypothesis to investigate possible functional traits (Geissler and Gzik 2008; Burmeier et al. 2010; Burmeier et al. 2011; Ludewig et al. 2014b; Hanke et al. 2014; Ludewig et al. 2018). Up to now, a grouping based on functional traits of the species still is missing. In order to improve the conservation planning of floodplain meadow species and for the understanding of this particular distribution pattern, determining a functional grouping is essential (Burkart 2001). Investigating functional traits has been on the agenda for researchers for decades, since floodplain meadow plants possess manifold strategies to tolerate the specific conditions in floodplains; they are able to cope with the complex hydrological and disturbance regimes, such as the interplay of flooding and drought (Burkart 2001).

The role of hydrology and flooding

Today, floodplain meadow vegetation is mainly shaped by land use and hydrological conditions, which represent the key disturbance factors in recent riparian grassland (Giller and Malmqvist 1998; Bunn and Arthington 2002; Ludewig et al. 2014a). River regulation has led to significant changes in water regime (e.g., reduced water level fluctuations) with substantial alterations of species composition and spatial distribution of floodplain plants (Leyer 2005). Nevertheless, the strong interannual variation of flood and drought is still an important driver of vegetation dynamics in floodplain meadows (Mathar et al. 2015). Drought stress affects grassland communities often by reducing plant growth (Gilgen and Buchmann 2009) and also drought duration and frequency seem to determine plant zonation in floodplain meadows (Ludewig et al. 2018). Regular flooding influences the distribution and diversity of floodplain plant species in several ways (Malanson 1993); it facilitates the recruitment of less competitive species by the formation of bare soil for germination niches and inhibits floodsensitive competitors (Hölzel and Otte 2004). Thereby, flooding maintains the diver-

sity of rare species through the recruitment of seedlings from the soil seed bank (Hölzel and Otte 2001).

As a consequence of the ecological heterogeneity of the floodplain meadow species, on a micro-habitat scale, these plants segregate in accordance to their hydrological niches (Silvertown et al. 1999; Silvertown et al. 2015); flood sensitive species occupy elevations, whereas flood tolerant species occur in depressions (Vervuren et al. 2003; Jung et al. 2008). This microhabitat preference could even be detected in differing germination strategies in floodplain meadow species indicative of wet or dry habitats (Ludewig et al. 2014b). Accordingly, it seems clear that plants are sensitive to hydrology at a fine scale (Silvertown et al. 1999). The microrelief, which is primarily the result of riverine sedimentation through flooding (Malanson 1993), leads to strong differences in hydrological conditions on a micro-habitat scale (e.g., flooding depth and duration) with little-known consequences to plants.

In general, but also specifically for floodplain meadow species, flooding represents a phenomenon with multiple components that all influence plant growth (Vervuren et al. 2003). Among those components, the timing, duration and depth of a flooding event are the key factors affecting plant growth in riparian ecosystems (besides several other components, e.g., flooding frequency, floodwater temperature, and suspended load) (Cronk and Fennessy 2001; Vervuren et al. 2003; Magee and Kentula 2005). The timing of a flooding event (i.e., when the flooding event occurs, e.g., winter or summer) is known to influence plant growth and plant diversity in wetland ecosystems (Greet et al. 2011; Webb et al. 2012). In floodplain meadows, predominantly summer floods determine plant zonation, as summer floods have a stronger impact on vegetation than winter floods (Van Eck et al. 2006). Besides, the timing in terms of plant age during flooding is also a decisive factor; mature plants cope better with floods than juveniles (Nabben et al. 1999). The component flooding duration is generally regarded as an important factor for floodplain habitats. Cumulative flooding days per year is the common parameter to deduce plant distribution patterns in floodplains and is used, for example, for predicting the transition zone between hardwood and softwood floodplain forests (Ellenberg 2009). Studies of floodplain meadow species detected that plant survival and growth decreases with increasing flooding duration (Blom et al. 1994; Van Eck et al. 2004). Also the component flooding depth has severe consequences on plant performance; increasing flooding depth reduces survival and biomass production of floodplain grassland species (Mauchamp et al. 2001; Vervuren et al. 2003). However, interactive effects of the mentioned flooding components have rarely been studied, although they seem to be of particular importance to plant growth (Madsen and Sand-Jensen 1994; Van Eck et al. 2005). Regarding the restoration of floodplain meadow species, the detailed knowledge of the flooding tolerance of target species is of particular importance in restoration planning and should also be integrated when assessing habitat suitability of potential target sites.

Assessment of habitat suitability

Taking the above-mentioned aspects into consideration, flooding events as well as the hydrological conditions in general seem to have a complex role in the reestablishment of floodplain meadow species and thus in restoration management (Bissels et al. 2004). The habitat requirements of target species might not match with the site conditions if those factors are neglected during target site selection. In this regard, detailed habitat-suitability analyses of target species that incorporate the complex environmental conditions (i.e., hydrological situation) could enhance restoration planning (Guisan et al. 2013).

Such habitat models are the most common method to obtain spatially explicit predictions of environmental suitability for species (Guisan and Thuiller 2005; Elith and Leathwick 2009; Peterson et al. 2011; Guisan et al. 2017). Therefore, mainly statistical relationships between the species observations and their environmental descriptors are analyzed in order to quantify the range of suitable habitat conditions for the species (Guisan et al. 2017). This step represents the calibration of the model. In a next step, this fitted habitat-suitability model is evaluated, mostly in terms of a split-sampling procedure. In practice, those two steps are often combined and the model is calibrated with 80% of the data and evaluated over the remaining 20% for multiple times (Peterson et al. 2011). This enables to calculate model quality indices such as the area under the receiver operating characteristic curve (AUC) (Hanley and McNeil 1982) or the true skills statistic (TSS) (Allouche et al. 2006), which assess the accuracy for the predictions of the model in comparison to the actual situation. Finally, the model is used to calculate a spatial projection of the model in geographic space based on maps of the environmental predictors. This projection represents the species' potential distribution (Guisan et al. 2017).

In the last decades, habitat modeling has become a common tool in biodiversity management. Still, the modeling of rare and endangered species was regarded as a challenge for a long time (Guisan and Thuiller 2005; Elith and Leathwick 2009). Datasets of rare and endangered species often have only few occurrence records. To sufficiently include the key environmental conditions in the species model, mostly a high number of explanatory variables (i.e., predictors) is necessary. That might lead to model overfitting, if too many predictors for the limited number of available observations are included (Guisan and Zimmermann 2000). The overfitting may result in

decreased generalizability of the models and thus should be avoided (Vaughan and Ormerod 2005). In the last years, several novel approaches to overcome this obstacle were proposed (e.g., Lomba et al. 2010; Shcheglovitova and Anderson 2013; Breiner et al. 2015). In particular, the method described by Breiner et al. (2015; 2018) is promising; this method is based on building an ensemble model of several small bivariate models (ensembles of small models, ESM). This procedure avoids overfitting without reducing the number of predictor variables and thus without the loss of explanatory power. Recently, Di Febbraro et al. (2017) have shown that the ESM strategy is a beneficial approach in their modeling of rare megafaunal species. The ESM approach is able to improve the reliability of SDMs of rare and endangered species and can thus support conservation decisions (Breiner et al. 2018).

For floodplain vegetation modeling, few studies have tested the integration of hydrological information into habitat models (Leyer 2005; Büchele et al. 2006; Mosner et al. 2011; Mosner et al. 2015). However, until now, only simple hydrological variables have been considered in habitat models – studies that incorporate detailed hydrological parameters with high spatial and temporal resolution are not at hand. Such models should provide higher accuracy and thus better predictability of habitat suitability for restoration target species. That could facilitate target site selection and, correspondingly, cost efficiency of floodplain meadow restoration projects.

Objectives

In summary, the described background underlines that flooding and the hydrological conditions have substantial influence on the establishment of floodplain meadow species and, therewith, on floodplain restoration. Since the mechanisms that cause the species' distribution pattern are still unknown, this thesis aims at gaining a deeper understanding of the factors hydrology and flooding in this context. I present experiments and a subsequent analysis of the effects of the hydrological situation on the ecology, distribution, and habitat suitability of this species group.

The main objectives of this thesis were to assess the effects of flooding events in floodplain meadow species and to analyze their potential habitats in order to deduce recommendations for restoration practice in regularly flooded grassland habitats. Specifically, this thesis focused on the following objectives:

- 1. Analysis of the role of timing of a flooding event in relation to the plant life cycle (i.e., seedling age) and soil composition in flooding tolerance of floodplain meadow species (experimental study; Chapter 2)
- 2. Evaluation of the interplay between the components flooding depth and duration with respect to flooding tolerance of floodplain meadow species (experimental study; Chapter 3)
- Investigation of the influence of numerous environmental in particular hydrological – variables on the distribution of floodplain meadow species and therewith determination of the key variables (habitat modeling; Chapter 4)
- 4. Habitat-suitability analysis of potential floodplain meadow restoration target sites (habitat modeling; Chapter 4)

Study area

The study area encompasses the Hessian part of the floodplains along the northern Upper Rhine, which is located approximately 30 km southwest of Frankfurt, Germany (UTM: 32U 453000 5525000-32U 463000 5514000) (Fig. 1.1A). The climatic conditions in this region are relatively warm and dry, with a mean daily temperature of approximately 10.4 °C (1996–2016) and a mean annual precipitation of 725 mm (1996–2016) (Deutscher Wetterdienst DWD, Offenbach, Germany). Fine-grained calcareous alluvial soils, often in combination with sandy sediments of the Rhine, can predominantly be found in the area (Böger 1991). The study area was particularly altered during the straightening of the Rhine River - by the engineer Johann Gottfried Tulla in the 1820s – resulting in the formation of an eastern Rhine island (Kühkopf) bordered by the Rhine and its ancient river bed (Old Rhine) (Fig. 1.1B) (Böger 1991). Furthermore, a winter dike divides the area into a functional floodplain riverwards the dike and a fossil floodplain; the functional floodplain is frequently directly flooded whereas the fossil floodplain is only indirectly submerged in low depressions by ascending groundwater during high water levels of the Rhine River (Hölzel and Otte 2001; Brunotte et al. 2009). The area is characterized by strong seasonal and interannual fluctuations of the Rhine water level (maximum amplitude > 6 m) leading to substantial groundwater table fluctuations (Böger 1991; Bissels et al. 2005).

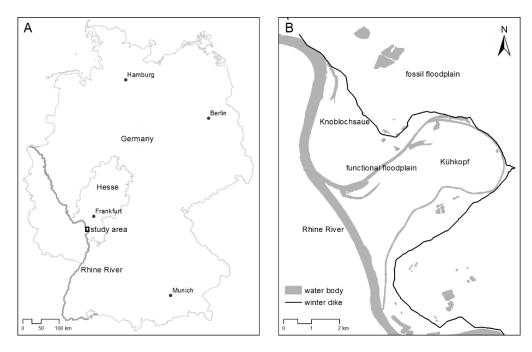


Fig. 1.1 Geographic location of the study area in Germany (A), and the study area with its hydrological compartments (functional and fossil floodplain) (B). Data source: © GeoBasis-DE 2018, Federal Agency for Cartography and Geodesy (Bundesamt für Kartographie und Geodäsie, BKG), and Brunotte et al. (2009).

Along the Hessian Upper Rhine, only a small number of old, species-rich meadows still exists. Those meadows were under continuous non-intensive use (i.e., 1–2 times cutting per year, including cut material removal) and have not been converted to arable land, such as the bigger part of the grassland in this region (Böger 1991). Since the 1980s, numerous species-rich floodplain meadows have been reestablished (Donath et al. 2007; Schmiede et al. 2009; Harnisch et al. 2014). This has been achieved through the transfer of freshly cut, seed-containing plant material on former arable land or species-poor grassland sites. Today, the floodplain meadows of this area are among the last and most important strongholds of several rare and endangered floodplain meadow species in Central Europe (Burkart 2001; Mathar et al. 2015). Therefore, this study area at the Hessian Upper Rhine and its grassland species are ideal to investigate the effects of flooding events on floodplain meadow species.

For the experimental part of this thesis (Chapters 2 & 3), defining a study area in the strict sense is not applicable as these common garden experiments focus on plant species commonly occurring in floodplain meadows (EU habitats directive habitat type 6440: alluvial meadows of river valleys of the *Cnidion dubii*). However, sampling of seeds for the second experiment (Chapter 3) was partially performed in floodplain grassland of the Hessian Upper Rhine Valley. Similarly, all vegetation surveys incor-

porated in the habitat modeling (Chapter 4) were conducted in the Hessian Upper Rhine floodplain.

Chapter outline

This thesis is based on three manuscripts which have all been submitted to international peer-reviewed scientific journals and form the Chapters 2, 3, and 4 of this thesis. Two of the manuscripts have been published (Chapters 2 & 3), and one has been submitted and is currently under peer-review (Chapter 4). The studies in the Chapters 2 & 3 aimed at gaining basic knowledge of flooding tolerance patterns of floodplain meadow species, in order to deduct implications for restoration management. Subsequently, this knowledge served as a basis for the identification of explanatory variables in the study that focuses on the habitat modeling of numerous floodplain meadow species (Chapter 4).

This section gives a brief outline of the contents of the manuscripts and provides an overview of the applied methods. The main findings and conclusions are presented in the subsequent section (Main results and conclusions).

Chapter 2 Flooding tolerance of four floodplain meadow species depends on age

This manuscript presents an investigation of the effects of flooding on seedlings of different ages of four typical floodplain meadow plant species. To this end, I flooded seedlings of two familial pairs of species with preference for wetter (Sanguisorba officinalis and Veronica maritima) and drier microhabitats (Sanguisorba minor and Veronica teucrium) for 2 weeks each. The flooding procedure started 2, 4, 6, and 8 weeks after seedling germination, respectively. Furthermore, to test for the effect of sand content on the flooding tolerance, I employed two types of soil composition (i.e., soil:sand ratios of 3:1 vs. 1:1) in the flooding experiment. In total, 400 plant individuals were studied in this experiment: 4 plant species \times 5 age groups (4 groups differing in seedling age at start of flooding period, and 1 unflooded control) \times 2 types of soil composition \times 10 replicates. The survival, plant height, leaf number, aboveground biomass, and specific leaf area were assessed. Finally, to examine the effects of seedling age, species, microhabitat preference, and soil composition on survival and performance of plants, I conducted Kaplan-Meier survival analyses, accelerated failure time models, and ANOVAs.

Chapter 3 Interaction between depth and duration matters: flooding tolerance of 12 floodplain meadow species

This manuscript presents a study that aims to reveal the effects of flooding duration and flooding depth, as well as their interaction, on seedlings of 12 floodplain meadow plant species. Therefore, I performed flooding procedures for the duration of 2 and 4 weeks with no, partial and complete submergence (i.e., flooding depth). Seedlings of floodplain meadow species in six familial pairs with a preference for relatively wetter or drier microhabitats were utilized for this experiment. Here, I studied a total of 648 experimental plants (12 plant species × 3 flooding depths × 2 flooding durations × 9 replications). The response variables total plant height, root length, aboveground biomass, belowground biomass, total biomass, specific leaf area, and root mass fraction were quantified. To account for the effects of species, microhabitat preference, flooding depth, flooding duration, and their interactions, I conducted multifactorial ANCOVAs for each response variable by including the covariate plant height before the start of the flooding treatment. Subsequently, I computed post hoc Tukey's HSD tests for pairwise comparisons between the treatment groups.

Chapter 4 Modeling of rare flood meadow species distribution by a combined habitat-surface water-groundwater model

This manuscript presents a newly developed modeling framework for 23 floodplain meadow plant species, which have been in the focus of floodplain meadow restoration. The framework consists of a combination of a physically-based, surface watergroundwater model, and a habitat model and presents a methodology that has not been tested so far. The surface water-groundwater model represented the hydrological conditions of the floodplain and served as the basis for the hydrological predictors of the habitat model. It was generated using hydrological information from groundwater and river water levels, meteorological data, and a digital elevation model. Apart from the hydrological predictors, also meteorological and morphological predictors were included in the habitat model to simulate the occurrence of the target species. After the identification of the best and most powerful predictors, the best 100 predictor sets (i.e., computed using a standard species distribution model strategy) were used for the calculation of ensembles of small models (i.e., ESM strategy as described by Breiner et al. 2015). To benchmark the new framework, results were compared to a conventional approach with simple hydrological information generated from readily available observation data alone (river water level, groundwater level). Subsequently, several linear mixed-effects models and ANOVAs were calculated to analyze the differences in modeling results of these approaches. In addition, the results were compared by grouping the species with respect to their Red List status in Hesse, and the classification as a floodplain meadow species according to Burkart (2001).

Main results and conclusions

Flooding tolerance of floodplain meadow species

In general, floodplain meadow species are known to be able to withstand the particular conditions to which they are exposed during flooding events (Burkart 2001). Nevertheless, in comparison to several other wetland plants (e.g., reed species, Webb et al. 2012) the floodplain meadow species I studied usually suffer from the detrimental effects of flooded conditions, which results in decreased survival or performance: I showed that a 2-week-flooding treatment had a negative effect on survival and performance of seedlings younger than 6 weeks and that summer floods with high floodwater temperatures may have particular detrimental effects (Chapter 2). Surprisingly, soil composition did not affect plant performance in the experiment (Chapter 2; this issue will be addressed in the next section). Furthermore, I gave evidence that an increased flooding duration and flooding depth, as well as the interactive effect of these two factors negatively affect the performance of plants (Chapter 3).

The species' sensitivity to the combination of these two components of a flood seems to play a crucial role in their capacity to establish in riparian grassland. The investigation of interactions of individual factors seems to be underestimated in experimental studies focusing on flooding effects in plants (e.g., Webb et al. 2012). In addition, the results of such studies are often difficult to evaluate or compare if only one key factor (e.g., flooding depth) was taken into account. Hence, interactive effects of flooding components, in particular combinations that include flooding depth and duration, should be studied in more detail to further understand plant responses to flooding events.

In the experiments, several plant performance indicators were diminished with increasing flooding stress (i.e., young plant age, high flooding duration and depth; Chapters 2 & 3). This reduced plant performance is a result of the diminished oxygen and light availability during floods, which leads to limited aerobic respiration and photosynthesis rates (Bailey-Serres and Voesenek 2008). However, several species show phenotypically plastic reactions on the flooding stress by using processes such as underwater photosynthesis or increased shoot elongation for reducing flooding-stress

limitations (Voesenek et al. 2006). These mechanisms represent morphological, metabolic, and anatomical adaptation of plants (Bailey-Serres and Voesenek 2008).

The tested floodplain meadow species are ecologically rather heterogeneous (Burkart 2001) and thus it is not surprising that different species are known to show divergent responses to flooded conditions (Van Eck et al. 2004; Van Eck et al. 2006; Jung et al. 2008). Likewise, I showed that the flooding tolerance regarding several factors was species specific in both experimental studies (Chapters 2 & 3). The different responses of species seem to reflect the various strategies that species pursue to overcome the submergence. Voesenek and Bailey-Serres (2013) conceptualized two opposing strategies, which characterize the extremes on a continuum of survival strategies to flooding. In the "low-oxygen escape syndrome", triggered by partial submergence, plants try to escape through elongation of aerial organs and thus try to avoid total submergence (Voesenek and Bailey-Serres 2013). Under complete submergence plants show quiescence of metabolism and growth to protect organs, which has been named "low-oxygen quiescence syndrome" (Voesenek and Bailey-Serres 2013). In both experiments, I found evidence for the mentioned strategies; Veronica maritima (8 weeks age group, Chapter 2) and Allium angulosum, Silaum silaus, and Selinum carvifolia (partial flooding group, Chapter 3) responded with a slight (though not significant) elongation of shoots, which could be interpreted as an escape strategy. Most of the species with preference to drier microhabitats (e.g., Veronica teucrium (Chapter 2), and Veronica teucrium, Sanguisorba minor, and Galium wirtgenii (Chapter 3)) reacted with suppressed elongation, in particular when flooding stress is high (i.e., young age of plants, long flooding duration, high flooding depth), which seems to indicate a quiescence strategy. Interestingly, some plant species are able to switch their strategies depending on flooding depth (Chapter 3; Manzur et al. 2009). Manzur et al. (2009) hypothesize that this ability might define the species' success in environments with unpredictable floodwater depths. Regarding floodplain meadow species this assumption not only underlines the species' suitable adaptation to cope with regular flooding, but also could be one common functional trait of floodplain meadow species that has been missing for decades (cf. Burkart 2001). Burkart (2001) concludes that a classification of functional groups of floodplain meadow species would be an essential element to enhance their conservation strategy on a continental scale. To further explore this topic, an experiment with, for instance, fine gradation of flooding depth levels could provide confirmation for this evidence I revealed in my research.

As expected, the species showed flooding tolerance patterns that correspond to their Ellenberg indicator value for moisture (EIV m, Ellenberg et al. 1991) in both

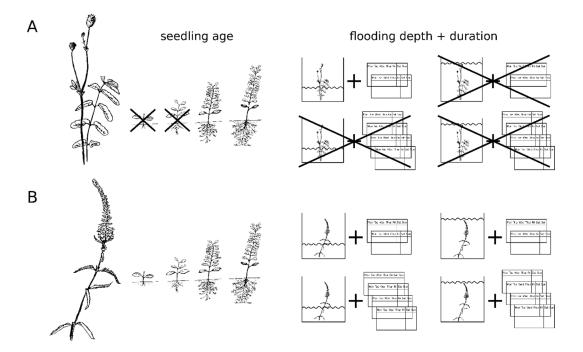


Fig. 1.2 Flooding tolerance of Sanguisorba officinalis (A), and Veronica maritima (B) studied in flooding experiments for the factors seedling age (Chapter 2), and flooding depth and duration (Chapter 3). In a first experiment, the effect of seedling age was studied using a 2-week flooding treatment, starting 2, 4, 6, and 8 weeks after seedling germination, respectively. Furthermore, in a second experiment the factors flooding depth (i.e., partial and complete submergence) and duration (2 weeks and 4 weeks) were analyzed. Saint Andrew's crosses indicate factor levels / factor-level combinations that the plants could not tolerate and that led to severe damage.

experiments (Chapters 2 & 3). For Sanguisorba and Veronica species, which were studied in the two experiments, also a similar pattern in both studies was detected; Veronica maritima (EIV m: 8), for instance, is able to cope with submergence even with young age and can withstand floods with a duration of 4 weeks under complete submergence relatively well. By contrast, Sanguisorba officinalis (EIV m: 7) has problems to survive a flood before the age of 6 weeks after germination and struggles when a flooding event continues for longer than 2 weeks and with complete submergence (Fig. 1.2; Chapters 2 & 3). Also Brotherton and Joyce (2015) noted that EIV m seem to be a very meaningful indicator to classify and rank species of wet grasslands.

Overall, the microhabitat preference of species proved to have a strong effect on flooding tolerance patterns of species (Chapters 2 & 3). Likewise, numerous studies have shown the important role of species' preference towards wetter or drier locations with respect to their flooding tolerance and, correspondingly, their differences in the

distribution on a microscale (Vervuren et al. 2003; Van Eck et al. 2004; Lenssen and De Kroon 2005; Van Eck et al. 2006; Jung et al. 2008). Flood tolerant species inherit a number of specific traits in order to overcome flooding (e.g., aerenchyma production, leaf and root anatomy, plant height, and starch storage Voesenek and Bailey-Serres 2015). Especially, root anatomy differs substantially with regard to the species' microhabitat preference; for example, Sanguisorba officinalis has relatively short roots (~50–100 cm) with unusually wide secondary phloem (i.e., where nutrients are transported from the shoots towards roots), high amounts of starch storage, and is equipped with aerenchyma tissue in the endodermis (Kutschera and Lichtenegger 1992; Hegi 1995). On the other hand, Sanguisorba minor is characterized by long roots (~150 cm) with a thin secondary phloem and a thick cork layer (i.e., protection against drying out). These traits enable Sanguisorba officinalis to easily tolerate flooded conditions whereas Sanguisorba minor is drought resistant (Kutschera and Lichtenegger 1992). Regarding flooding tolerance, Wright et al. (2017) observed increased plant performance and recovery after a flooding event with increased root aerenchyma content. Aerenchyma tissue enables gas exchange and thus could sustain fundamental plant functioning throughout the flooding event (Visser et al. 2000). In terms of drought resistance, several studies revealed that also the specific adaptations of floodplain meadow species towards limited water availability differ strongly with respect to their microhabitat preference (Ludewig et al. 2014b; Ludewig et al. 2018).

The observed microhabitat gradient from flood tolerance to drought resistance was furthermore described as hydrological niche segregation by Silvertown et al. (2015). It is not only observable in riparian grassland (Silvertown et al. 1999) but also in a number of other ecosystems, such as steppes, deserts, and tropical forests (Silvertown et al. 2015). However, as the hydrological niches seem to define species distribution in floodplain grassland they should be taken into account when planning restoration at these sites.

Modeling species distribution of floodplain meadow species

Several studies focused on the modeling of plant species distribution in floodplain habitats, although only few studies have modeled floodplain species on a local scale (Leyer 2005; Büchele et al. 2006; Mosner et al. 2011; Mosner et al. 2015). In Chapter 4, I present such a habitat model for 23 riparian species. I showed that model performance differed substantially across these species. Red List species as well as typical floodplain meadow species according to Burkart (2001) showed mostly better modeling performance than other species. Furthermore, different species required a different set of predictor variables in their best modeling runs. Apart from several

hydrological predictors also the meteorological and morphological predictors were among the most frequently utilized predictors. Even the least common predictor (PH15; Table 4.2) contributed to about 10% of the habitat models. In general, including hydrological predictors significantly improved model quality of the habitat model.

Since the hydrological niche segregation plays a crucial role in riparian ecosystems (Silvertown et al. 2015), it is clear that such models should incorporate hydrological information. Hitherto, only simple hydrological predictors (e.g., average water level, average high water level, average standard deviation) from groundwater or river water level gauges have been included in such models (e.g., Leyer 2005; Mosner et al. 2015). Vervuren et al. (2003) pointed out that basic hydrological parameters are not sufficient to incorporate extreme flooding events in the analysis of species distributions. The study in Chapter 4 presents a habitat modeling, which includes several specific hydrological predictor variables that describe, e.g., extreme discharge events (predictors PH10 and PH11; Table 4.2) but also drought periods (predictors PH03-PH05, PH12–PH14; Table 4.2). Furthermore, the calculation of numerous predictors was based on autecological information gained in experiments (Chapters 2 & 3); for instance, the predictor PH10 describes the sum of days on which the inundation height was a minimum 50 cm, which corresponds to the tested interaction of factors flooding duration and depth in the study in Chapter 3. To define variables based on experiments is a beneficial method in the preselection of predictors for habitat models (Guisan et al. 2017). Indeed, several predictors from the final set of 19 predictors (Table 4.2) are linked with the results of the experiments, which confirms the crucial role of the tested effects and might also validate the results.

An interesting outcome of the study in Chapter 4 was regarding the comparison of different databases for the calculation of the hydrological predictors. Apart from the high resolution, coupled surface water-groundwater model (Maier et al. 2017) I also used databases for groundwater and river water level as a basis to calculate the hydrological predictors for the habitat model. The results show that over all species, for rare and endangered species, and for species that are on the list of floodplain meadow species according to Burkart (2001) the predictors derived from the surface water-groundwater model significantly outperform other databases (Chapter 4). So far, only few studies used groundwater or river water data to model riparian species (Leyer 2005; Büchele et al. 2006; Mosner et al. 2011; Mosner et al. 2015). A floodplain habitat model that based on a surface water-groundwater model has not been published so far. This new approach describes the complexity of habitat requirements of the particular group of floodplain meadow species better than interpolated, measured hydrological data. Despite the increased computational effort of the spatially

explicit hydrological modeling (Maier et al. 2017), the new method provides improved model quality. Furthermore, therewith it is possible to calculate scenarios by incorporating data based on land-use or climate change projections (e.g., Volk et al. 2018; Maier et al. 2018).

Riparian habitat models at a regional or continental scale often include other parameters to incorporate the hydrological situation, e.g., topographic wetland index or solely climate variables (Besnard et al. 2013; Ikeda et al. 2014; Fink et al. 2017). In the modeling presented in Chapter 4, I also calculated models including the topographic wetland index in a first modeling step. However, this predictor showed weak explanatory power and thus was removed from the subsequent modeling procedure. In general, habitat models incorporate large scale climate variables such as the WorldClim data (Hijmans et al. 2005) or topographic variables to model species' niches at ecoregional, continental or global scales (Guisan et al. 2017). When modeling at the local level, such variables might not sufficiently describe the species niches (Seo et al. 2009). Likewise, Besnard et al. (2013) showed that models based on the topographic wetland index lead to better goodness of model fit at coarse resolution (250 m pixel size) compared to fine resolution (50 m pixel size). Consequently, predictors such as the topographic wetland index are useful in models at ecoregional scale or higher but should be avoided when modeling with a high spatial resolution.

Although, in general, the soil composition strongly affects vegetation composition (Ellenberg 2009; Blume et al. 2016), the results from the habitat modeling suggest that soil composition only marginally influences plant distribution of floodplain meadow species; the predictor soil type was excluded in the first modeling step due to very low explanatory power for all species (Nagelkerke's R² < 0.12, Chapter 4). Similarly, in the experiment presented in Chapter 2, differing soil composition (i.e., sand content) did not affect plant survival or performance under flooded conditions. Even though these experimental findings cannot be directly transferred to the field (Poorter et al. 2016), they are in line with previous findings that mainly hydrological parameters define plant zonation in riparian ecosystems whereas soil parameters play a subordinate role in this respect (Castelli et al. 2000; Leyer 2006). The interplay of the soil moisture content and soil particle size seems to be intercorrelated with hydrological parameters (Castelli et al. 2000). Hence, these aspects might be better integrated in habitat modeling through hydrological predictors than by using soil maps, which are often generated on a too coarse resolution (Guisan and Zimmermann 2000).

Only few studies have tested the applicability of the "ensembles of small models" approach for rare species modeling (Breiner et al. 2015; Di Febbraro et al. 2017;

Breiner et al. 2018). I provide a habitat model for 23 riparian species, which represents another application example for this method (Chapter 4). In conclusion, this method seems to be a feasible approach to model rare and endangered target species of restoration projects. The enlarged transferability and model performance are highly advantageous compared to standard habitat models of rare species, even though computation time is increased (Breiner et al. 2018). Therefore, I can encourage scientists as well as practitioners to compute models for restoration purposes using this method.

Implications for restoration management and perspectives

From a restoration ecological perspective, the results of this thesis suggest that flooding during the vegetation period might act as an obstacle for restoration management on floodplain meadows; particularly, the reestablishment of rare plant species (e.g., via the transfer of seed-containing plant material) is susceptible to floods as favorable outcome of those measures depends on successful seedling establishment in the year after the measure (Kiehl et al. 2010). In general, microsite conditions – including hydrological – play a crucial role in the restoration of floodplain grassland (Donath et al. 2007; Engst et al. 2016). Consequently, the impact of flooding on the establishment of restoration target species – and thus restoration success – should be considered.

In both experiments, hints for the existence of tipping points could be detected; floodplain meadow plants are more likely to survive a flooding event, if (1) they are older than about 6 weeks after germination (Chapter 2), and if (2) the combination of flooding duration and depth is below a species specific level (Chapter 3). In this thesis, I present the first published study (Chapter 3) that recognized tipping points with regard to extreme climate events (i.e., flooding events) in riparian grassland, which also Brotherton and Joyce (2015) identified as urgently necessary to investigate. The knowledge of the tipping points of species in focus of conservationists could facilitate conservation management, especially on sites with ecological (i.e., managed) flooding (e.g., Cyffka et al. 2016). The schedule of gate openings on those sites could be adjusted in order to avoid exceeding the tipping point conditions in the year after restoration measures. That would improve the recruitment of target species as well as the restoration outcome. Consequently, tipping points in floodplain meadow species should be studied in further detail.

Although flooding might raise difficulties for restoration management during planning and realization of restoration measures, regular flooding plays a vital role for the persistence of the particular floodplain meadow species in their habitat. There-

fore, habitat-suitability maps are an ideal tool in order to determine sites with environmental conditions (i.e., flooding duration, depth, frequency, etc.) that match with the habitat requirements of the target species (Guisan et al. 2013). I generated such habitat-suitability maps based on the habitat model presented in Chapter 4 for flood-plain meadow plants in the study area (Fig. 1.3). For future restoration projects, these habitat-suitability maps could serve as a tool to select restoration sites and thus facilitate the restoration management. Furthermore, a well-directed selection of target sites enables saving economic and other restricted resources (e.g., freshly-mown, seed-containing plant material) through a reduction of false investments (i.e., restoration on unsuitable locations).

When using habitat models in restoration planning, it is crucial that modelers and conservationists are working closely together and that as a result, model and decision process are tightly interwoven (Guisan et al. 2013). Hence, the integration of the intrinsic knowledge of stakeholders of floodplain meadow restoration (e.g., conservation practitioners, nature conservation authorities) as well as the autecological characteristics of the target species (e.g., the experimentally studied flooding tolerance of the target species; Chapters 2 & 3) seems to be essential in the modeling of floodplain meadow species. For this reason, data and knowledge of local management authorities and colleagues from the Division of Landscape Ecology and Planning – who have been restoring floodplain grassland since more than 20 years – were included in the modeling (Chapter 4). Therefore, the generated habitat maps (Fig. 1.3) should be able to serve as a solid baseline in the selection of target sites for upcoming restoration projects.

For the enhancement of long-term restoration success, it might not be sufficient to solely focus on habitat suitability when selecting target sites. In a recent study, colleagues and I developed a new, easily applicable methodology to estimate restoration success through connectivity analysis (Volk et al. 2018). We showed that small isolated populations of target species have an increased risk of extinction and therefore the development of larger populations with high connectivity should be in focus of restoration planning (Volk et al. 2018). By combining the habitat model (Chapter 4) with a connectivity analysis of already populated habitats, sites with low connectivity but high habitat suitability could be detected. On these locations, colonization initials of the target species should be reestablished to increase the chance for establishing viable, self-sustaining populations. This approach could further strengthen the decision-making process in restoration planning.

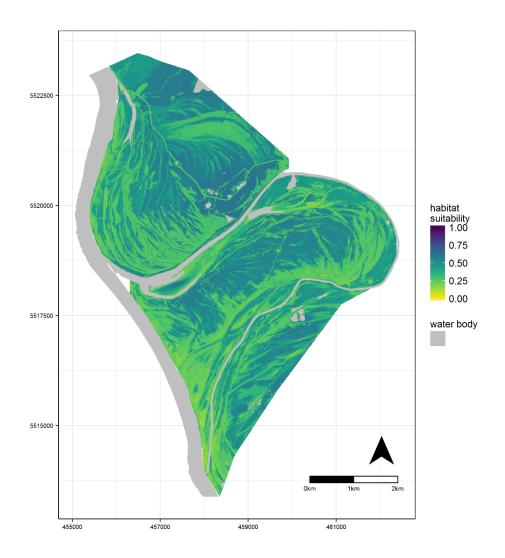


Fig. 1.3 Exemplary map of habitat suitability for the floodplain meadow species Sanguisorba officinalis in the study area. Based on the habitat model presented in Chapter 4, projections of the habitat suitability of species can be generated. Consequently, target sites for floodplain meadow restoration projects – with a high habitat suitability and thus increased restoration success – can be identified.

In the face of global change, it could be advantageous to examine the habitat suitability of the species based on future environmental conditions. Using the well-calibrated habitat model (Chapter 4) I generated habitat-suitability maps for projected future (hydrological) conditions (Fig. 1.4). The maps are based on modified data from Maier et al. (2018), which also incorporate several climate models and concentration pathways. Therewith, despite the high uncertainty of the underlying climate models (Bosshard et al. 2013), sites with a high probability of suitability in the future could be detected. (e.g., where several climate models project high habitat suitability).

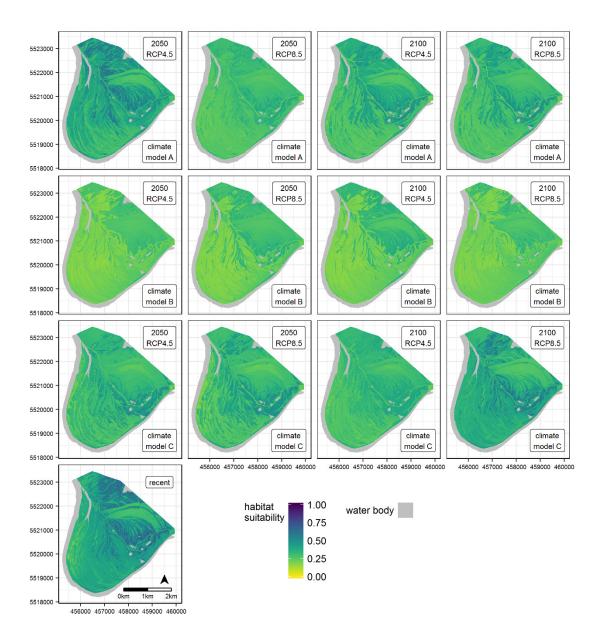


Fig. 1.4 Exemplary map of habitat suitability of Sanguisorba officinalis for projected future (2050, 2100), and recent conditions in the northern part of the study area (Knoblochsaue). Results are shown for two representative concentration pathways (RCP4.5, RCP8.5) and three climate models (A: ICHEC-EC-EARTH-RACMO22E, B: MOHC-HadGEM2-ES-CCLM4-8-17, C: CNRM-CERFACS-CNRM-CM5-CCLM4-8-17). The maps were generated based on modified data from Maier et al. (2018) using the habitat model from Chapter 4.

The expected substantial changes in altered discharge regimes of large rivers (Middelkoop et al. 2001; Görgen et al. 2010) are supposed to threaten plant species diversity in Europe (Thuiller et al. 2005). Hence, it might be reasonable to incorpo-

rate these alterations in upcoming restoration measures using maps, such as presented in Figure 1.4.

As shown in this thesis, the predicted pronounced changes in environmental conditions (e.g., increase in flooding intensity; Sperna Weiland et al. 2012) will strongly affect seedling establishment and the outcome of restoration campaigns. Planning of restoration projects on species-rich floodplain meadows will become increasingly difficult but necessary more than ever: Wright et al. (2015; 2017) reported that maintaining high species diversity could buffer against ecosystem function losses due to flooding events in grassland ecosystems.

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CHAPTER 2

Flooding tolerance of four floodplain meadow species depends on age

Johannes P. Gattringer, Tobias W. Donath, R. Lutz Eckstein, Kristin Ludewig, Annette Otte & Sarah Harvolk-Schöning

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Abstract

Numerous restoration campaigns focused on reestablishing species-rich floodplain meadows of Central Europe, whose species composition is essentially controlled by regular flooding. Climate change predictions expect strong alterations on the discharge regime of Europe's large rivers with little-known consequences on floodplain meadow plants. In this study, we aim to determine the effects of flooding on seedlings of different ages of four typical flood meadow species. To this end, we flooded seedlings of two familial pairs of flood meadow species of wetter and drier microhabitats for 2 weeks each, starting 2, 4, 6, and 8 weeks after seedling germination, respectively. We show that a 2-week-flooding treatment had a negative effect on performance of seedlings younger than 6 weeks. Summer floods with high floodwater temperatures may had especially detrimental effects on seedlings, which is corroborated by previous findings. As expected, the plants from wet floodplain meadow microhabitats coped better with the flooding treatment than those from drier microhabitats. In conclusion, our results suggest that restoration measures may perform more successfully if seedlings of restored species are older than the critical age of about 6 weeks before a spring flooding begins. Seasonal flow patterns may influence vegetation dynamics of floodplain meadows and should, therefore, be taken into account when timing future restoration campaigns.

Introduction

Natural floodplains are among the ecosystems with the highest biodiversity on earth (Naiman et al. 1993; Tockner and Stanford 2002). Their azonal vegetation is shaped by a broad hydrological gradient, regular flooding and soils of diverse composition, resulting in high habitat and species diversity (Ellenberg 2009). Floodplain vegetation is also strongly influenced by humans (Allan 2004; Tockner et al. 2010). Species-rich floodplain grassland, in particular, plays a crucial role in maintaining regional biodiversity but has also experienced a dramatic decline in Central Europe (Joyce and Wade 1998) mainly due to altered hydrological conditions through river training (Brunotte et al. 2009). In particular floodplain meadows are amongst the most threatened plant communities in Europe (Joyce and Wade 1998; Riecken et al. 2006). They harbor typical and often endangered flood meadow species, also called river corridor plants, which are adapted to the specific disturbance regimes of floodplains (Burkart 2001). To maintain the diversity of these species-rich Cnidion dubii grasslands, protected by the EU Habitats Directive (Council Directive 92/43/EEC, habitat type 6440: alluvial meadows of river valleys of the Cnidion dubii) numerous restoration measures, mainly focusing on the reestablishment of rare species, have been conducted along the Rhine and Elbe Rivers, e.g., (Donath et al. 2007; Engst et al. 2016).

A challenge for such restoration projects is to consider and incorporate the effects of regular flooding, which represents a key factor in these dynamic floodplain meadows (Malanson 1993; Van Eck et al. 2004). Plant species zonation of these grasslands is mainly driven by hydrological conditions and land use (Bunn and Arthington 2002; Ludewig et al. 2014; Harvolk et al. 2015) but also on a micro-habitat scale flood sensitive species are located on elevated microsites, whereas species with higher flooding resistance occupy depressions (Vervuren et al. 2003; Jung et al. 2008). Flooding promotes recruitment of less competitive species through creation of open soil patches and suppression of flood-sensitive competitors (Hölzel and Otte 2004) and plays a crucial role for maintaining diversity of rare species through recruitment of seedlings from the soil seed bank (Hölzel and Otte 2001; Schmiede et al. 2009).

Additionally, vegetation dynamics are strongly driven by inter-annual-variation of flooding and drought (Mathar et al. 2015). Van Eck et al. (2006) showed that summer flooding predominantly determines plant zonation in flood meadows, due to the more intense impact of summer floods vs. winter floods on plants. Hence, the timing of flooding events in relation to the plant life cycle strongly influences the occurrence and distribution of plant species. In particular, seedling establishment is the critical phase in the life cycle of many plants due to high mortality through diseases, injuries,

and flooding or water deficit (Eriksson and Ehrlén 2008). The age of seedlings at which these are exposed to flooding may play a crucial role for survival (Mauchamp et al. 2001) and higher flooding tolerance may be related to species specific growth timing (Merlin et al. 2015). Nabben et al. (1999) studied the effect of flooding on juvenile vs. mature *Rumex* plants (i.e., 5 vs. 14 weeks after germination) and confirmed the higher flooding tolerance of two-months-older plants. Since the timing of flooding events during the life cycle is of crucial importance for survival, a shift in the flooding regime might have large consequences. Other experimental studies focused on the duration of flooding events but did not take the age of plants into consideration (Hosner 1958; Vervuren et al. 2003; Van Eck et al. 2004; Van Eck et al. 2006).

Flooding dynamics in present-day floodplains are highly transformed by humans and through ongoing climate change. Multiple anthropogenic stressors and their impacts on flow regime are hard to distinguish and quantify (Bunn and Arthington 2002; Tockner et al. 2010). Direct human alterations of rivers, such as construction of dams and dikes, trigger changes in water level fluctuations, which lead to alterations in terrestrial plant species composition (Leyer 2005). Furthermore, possible large-scale floodplain restoration, such as dike relocation projects or ecological flooding (also known as managed flooding) (State Ministry of the Environment Baden-Württemberg 2007; Stammel et al. 2012) could additionally alter hydrological conditions of floodplain meadows (Müller et al. 2014) and subsequently their terrestrial plant diversity.

In addition, effects of climate change are supposed to alter plant species diversity in Central Europe (Thuiller et al. 2005) through altered discharge regimes of rivers (Sperna Weiland et al. 2012). For the river Rhine, a seasonal change of the discharge regime with increasing discharge in winter and decreasing discharge in summer is projected for the current century (Middelkoop et al. 2001; Görgen et al. 2010; Nilson et al. 2014). Additionally, intensity and frequency of extreme discharge events will increase (Görgen et al. 2010; IPCC 2013). Accordingly, zonation of floodplain ecosystems and similarly plant composition of flood meadow habitats might change through these multiple alterations in the discharge regime (Mosner et al. 2015).

These alterations might also influence sediment deposition in the floodplain, since their soil composition strongly depends on frequency and magnitude of flooding events (Miehlich 2000). Models project considerable changes in sedimentation regime for the Rhine basin already within the current century (Asselman et al. 2003). Generally, sandy sediments can be found closest to the river channel whereas sites further away from the river are characterized by sediments with higher amounts of clay and organic matter (Miehlich 2000; Schipper et al. 2011). Changes in these patterns may

also influence vegetation since, e.g., the growth of woody floodplain plants depends on soil composition and is limited on coarse substrates after water table alterations (Mahoney and Rood 1992). However, effects of sediment grain size have not been studied with respect to flood meadow species in an experimental setup so far.

In summary, the increased unpredictability of habitat conditions under climate change induced shifts in the flow and sediment regime may act as obstacles for flood-plain meadow restoration. To tackle this problem, the effects of flooding on survival and performance of plants should be investigated in more detail, to ensure success of future restoration campaigns. A recent study on flooding tolerance of wetland plants suggests that seasonal timing of flooding events plays a crucial role in flooding tolerance (Hidding et al. 2014). While the effects of flooding on adult plants have been studied before (Vervuren et al. 2003; Van Eck et al. 2004; Van Eck et al. 2006; Jung et al. 2008), studies of seedling establishment are scarce (but see Nabben et al. 1999).

Therefore, we investigate the impact of a 2-week flooding period on seedlings of different age (i.e., between 2 and 8 weeks after germination) of four characteristic species of flood meadows. To this end, we employed a completely randomized multifactorial experiment to elucidate the impact of the factors species, microhabitat, seedling age, and soil composition on the performance of seedlings. We inundated seedlings of different ages and analyzed the impact of different factors on seedling survival and establishment.

Specifically, we tested the following hypotheses: Under a 2-week flooding period,

- 1. older seedlings perform better than younger seedlings,
- 2. the performance of seedlings decreases with increased sand content, and
- 3. plant species from wet microhabitats perform better compared to those of dry microhabitats.

Materials and methods

Study species

We chose two familial pairs of floodplain meadow species with preference for wetter and drier microhabitats: Sanguisorba officinalis L. and Veronica maritima L. vs. Sanguisorba minor Scop. and Veronica teucrium L. (Table 2.1; the plant species nomenclature follows Jäger (2017)). This balanced design avoids phylogenetic bias of the results (Gitzendanner and Soltis 2000). All four species are perennials typically occurring on floodplain meadows along the Upper Rhine valley. The species charac-

Table 2.1 Differences in the survival of four floodplain meadow species among five age groups.

anagina	family	micro-	EIV	chisq	df	р	survival differences				
species		habitat	m				age2	age4	age6	age8	noFl
Sanguisorba officinalis L.	Rosaceae	wet	7 ~	31.5	4	< 0.001	a	a	b	с	b
$Sanguisor ba\ minor\ {\bf Scop}.$	Rosaceae	dry	3	94.5	4	< 0.001	a	b	c	d	\mathbf{c}
$Veronica\ maritima\ L.$	Plantaginaceae	wet	8 ~	0.0	4	1	a	a	a	a	a
Veronica teucrium L.	Plantaginaceae	dry	3	66.2	4	< 0.001	ab	a	\mathbf{c}	b	c

Differences were tested using a Wilcoxon-Mann-Whitney test (chi-square statistic), and subsequently, each paired combination was tested using a log-rank test with scores of Sun (1996) for interval censored data (Z statistic). Four groups differed in seedling age at start of flooding period (age2-age8) and one group was the unflooded control (noFl). EIV m, Ellenberg indicator value for moisture; \sim , indicator for alternating moisture conditions (F value, Ellenberg et al. (1991)); chisq, chi-square value; df, degrees of freedom; p, error probability; p values < 0.05 are in bold; survival differences, significant differences (p < 0.05) in survival of plants between age groups according to log-rank test; for each species-seedling age combination: n = 20

teristic of drier microhabitats typically grow on slightly higher elevation than the species of wetter microhabitats. The plant species' preferences for wetter and drier micro niches are underlined by their Ellenberg indicator values (EIV) for moisture (F value, EIV m in Table 2.1) (Ellenberg et al. 1991). The species are target species in floodplain meadow restoration projects along the northern Upper Rhine (Donath et al. 2007). In this experiment, they serve as umbrella species in the sense of Groom et al. (2006) for the plant community of the *Cnidion dubii* meadows (Burkart et al. 2004). Here, that also comprises species from the EU Habitats Directive Annex I habitat type 6510: Lowland hay meadows. Seed material of a producer of autochthonous seeds (Rieger-Hofmann GmbH, Blaufelden-Raboldshausen, Germany) was used for the experiment.

Experimental design

The experiment was carried out from March to July 2015. The combination of four species, two types of soil composition, and five age groups (four groups differing in seedling age at start of flooding period, and one unflooded control) with ten replicates per combination resulted in a total number of 400 experimental plants. Seeds were cold-wet stratified for 21 days at 3 °C in trays with potting soil in a climate chamber (Rumed type 3401; Rubarth Apparate GmbH, Laatzen, Germany).

Seeds germinated after 7 days (*V. teucrium* and *S. minor*) and after 10 days (*V. maritima* and *S. officinalis*) in a greenhouse (20 °C by day / 15 °C by night; photoperiod: 12 hours daily). Eleven days after germination 100 plants of every species,

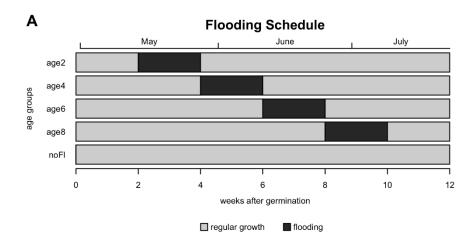
having almost the same size, were planted into pots (diameter: 9 cm on top, height: 7.8 cm). All these 400 plants had the same age of 11 days due to synchronous germination on day one.

Half of the plants were planted in a mixture of standard potting soil (F.-E. Typ P, HAWITA Gruppe GmbH, Vechta, Germany) and sand with a ratio of 3:1 and the other half in a soil:sand mixture of 1:1. We obtained nutrient equivalency in both soil treatment levels by adding slow release osmocote (Osmocote Exact Standard 3-4M, Everris International B.V., Geldermalsen, The Netherlands; 7.1% NO₃-N, 8.9% NH₄-N, 9% P₂O₅, 12% K₂O) to the pots. With respect to Hidding et al. (2014) we choose an intermediate nutrient scenario for this experiment with an osmocote equivalence (i.e., nutrients in standard potting soil + osmocote) of 100 grams osmocote per square meter.

At day 15 after germination, each of the 400 pots were placed inside a 1.2 L transparent polypropylene cup (diameter: 11.4 cm on top, height: 17 cm) and randomly distributed on a paved area at the research station Linden-Leihgestern (Hesse, Germany, UTM: 32U 478260 5598300, Annex 2 Fig. 2.A1). Plants were placed under a rain shelter (height: 0.6 m, PE greenhouse grid film "Original Delta Folie SUV") to avoid accidental flooding of the cups by precipitation. Under regular growth conditions plants were watered according to their daily demand (approx. 20-50 mL day⁻¹).

To test the response of seedlings of different age to a 2-week flooding period we performed five different treatments. Four groups of seedlings were flooded 2, 4, 6, and 8 weeks, respectively, after germination (age2, age4, age6, age8). One control group (noFl) was grown for 12 weeks without any flooding (Fig. 2.1A). The flooding procedure comprehended 2 weeks of complete inundation: the cups each with one plant pot inside were filled completely with tap water (Annex 2 Fig. 2.A1). Water levels were kept constant during the flooding period.

Survival (dead or alive) was assessed every 2 to 3 days based on physical appearance of plants: plants with green, turgid leaves and green buds were regarded as alive (Nabben et al. 1999). Total height of the plants and number of leaves were measured at the end of the experiment, i.e., after 12 weeks. We quantified specific leaf area (SLA) and aboveground biomass from measurable and living plants. For SLA, three fully expanded leaves with average size were collected of every plant, scanned and leaf area was measured with the software ImageJ (Schneider et al. 2012). The leaves were dried (48 hours at 60 °C) and weighed, SLA was calculated as leaf area per leaf dry mass (m²·kg⁻¹). Aboveground biomass was dried (24 hours at 100 °C) and weighed and the biomass of the three leaves (SLA measurement) was added. Tem-



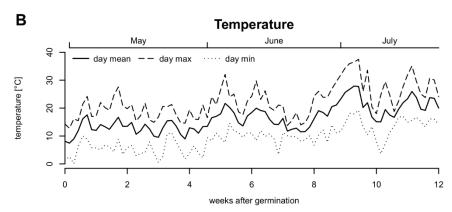


Fig. 2.1 Time schedule and air temperatures for the flooding experiment of four floodplain meadow species. (A) Time schedule of age groups: four age groups with a 2-week flooding treatment starting 2, 4, 6, and 8 weeks after germination (age2, age4, age6, age8) and one unflooded control group (noFl) with regular growth through 12 weeks. (B) Temperature trend during time of the experiment (solid line: daily mean temperature, dashed line: daily minimum temperature, dotted line: daily maximum temperature). Temperature data from HLNUG (Hessian Agency for Nature Conservation, Environment and Geology, http://www.hlnug.de), weather station Linden (distance from experimental site: 700 m).

perature data was obtained from Hessian Agency for Nature Conservation, Environment and Geology, weather station Linden (distance from experimental site: 700 m) (HLNUG 2016).

Analysis

In a first analysis, we tested the effects of seedling age on the cumulative seedling survival of the four species separately. To this end, a Kaplan-Meier survival analysis for interval censored data was done (i.e., measurements were taken at intervals of 2 to 3 days) (Fox 2001). We computed the non-parametric maximum likelihood esti-

mate for the distribution from interval censored data to plot cumulative survival distributions for each species-seedling age combination with the R-package *interval* (Fay and Shaw 2010). To test for differences among species, we calculated a Wilcoxon-Mann-Whitney test with generalized Wilcoxon-Mann-Whitney scores (chi-square statistic). Subsequently, differences between treatments were tested applying a log-rank test, which uses the most commonly used log-rank scores for right-censored data and reduces to the scores of Sun (1996) for interval censored data (Z statistic).

In order to evaluate the effects of species, microhabitat, seedling age, and soil composition on survival of the plants, we computed accelerated failure time models (Kalbfleisch and Prentice 2002). We compared whether results from these analyses, containing all 400 plants, showed similar results as ANOVAs with only survived plants (n = 259). We fitted models with six error distributions (i.e., Weibull, exponential, gaussian, logistic, log-normal and log-logistic) of which the Weibull distribution, able to deal with non-constant hazards, produced the minimum error deviance and thus was preferred (function survreg, R-package survival (Therneau 2015)). The scale parameter of this analysis describes the form of the hazard function: scale parameter < 1: risk of death decreases with time; scale parameter > 1: risk of death increases with time (Crawley 2013). To rule out other effects on survival (i.e., plant height and number of leaves before beginning of treatment) we computed Wilcoxon-Mann-Whitney tests, which did not show differences in plant height or number of leaves between surviving and dead plants.

In a next analysis, we tested for importance of the above factors on response variables: plant height, number of leaves, biomass and SLA of survived individuals using ANOVAs. We excluded dead plant individuals from this analysis to avoid detrimental effects of zero values on ANOVAs. Before analysis, the variables plant height, number of leaves and biomass were standardized using a natural logarithmic response ratio (RR) as suggested by (Goldberg and Scheiner 2001).

$$RR = \ln(P_T/\overline{P_C})$$

This standardization of the parameter value of the treated sample (P_T) with the mean value of the control treatment $(\overline{P_C})$ for each species allows species comparisons. Effects of flooding treatments on survived plants were considered significant (i.e., different from the controls) when 95% CI did not overlap with zero in Figs 2.2A-2.2C. As SLA values already represent a ratio, we skipped the RR procedure for this response variable.

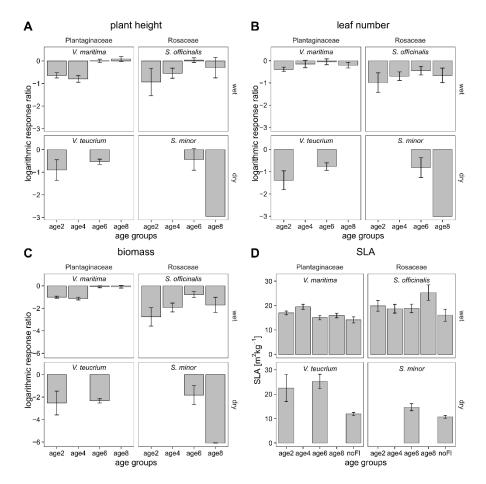


Fig. 2.2 Performance of four floodplain meadow plant species after a 2-week flooding period. Mean (± 95% confidence interval) logarithmic response ratio of plant height (A), leaf number (B) and biomass (C), and mean (± 95% confidence interval) specific leaf area (SLA, D) for each species-seedling age group combination: Veronica maritima L., Veronica teucrium L., Sanguisorba officinalis L., and Sanguisorba minor Scop.; flooding started 2, 4, 6, and 8 weeks after germination (age2-age8), and control group with no flooding (noFl). Effects of flooding treatments on survived plants were considered significant (i.e., different from the controls) when 95% CI did not overlap with zero. Missing bars represent groups with a mortality of 100%.

Thereafter, one-way ANOVAs with the factor plant family were computed for every response variable, to account for potential phylogenetic effects (plant height: F = 0.692, p = 0.407; number of leaves: F = 21.14, p < 0.001; biomass: F = 20.55, p < 0.001; SLA: F = 0.012, p = 0.914). The residuals of these ANOVAs were used for the subsequent analyses. We calculated ANOVAs for each response variable (RR plant height, RR number of leaves, RR biomass and SLA) with the factors species (nested in microhabitat preference), seedling age and soil composition. To calculate the relative contribution of each factor or interaction to the total variance, we used the ratio: sum of squares of a factor/interaction divided by total sum of squares. Re-

quirements to conduct ANOVA analyses (e.g., normality) were visually checked using diagnostic plots. All statistical analyses were carried out using R (R Core Team 2016).

Results

Survival of plants

Of the 400 seedlings at the start of the experiment, 259 (64.75%) survived until the end. Survival across all treatments (4 seedling ages + control) was 14% in V. teucrium, 100% in V. maritima, 44% in S. minor, and 74% in S. officinalis (n = 100 plants per species). In the control group, i.e., no flooding treatment, overall only one individual of V. teucrium died (Fig. 2.3).

Results of the survival analysis showed that the 2-week flooding treatment had a significant negative effect on cumulative survival of seedlings of three plant species (i.e., S. minor, S. officinalis, and V. teucrium) that belonged to the age groups age2, age4, and age8 (Table 2.1). All individuals of V. maritima survived until the end of the experiment; hence, our flooding treatments had no effect on this species (Fig. 2.3). In the two species from dry microhabitats (S. minor, V. teucrium) two age groups showed 100% mortality (S. minor: age2, age4; V. teucrium: age4, age8). Contrarily, in species from wet microhabitats (S. officinalis, V. maritima) about half of the plants survived the flooding (e.g., S. officinalis lowest cumulative survival 0.45 and 0.5, Fig. 2.3).

The risk of death in our experiment decreases with age, as indicated by the scale parameter of the accelerated failure time models of 0.31 being less than one. As expected, the significance of individual factors and interactions on survival showed a similar picture as the ANOVA analyses (Table 2.2). The effects of the flooding treatment showed similar impact on plant survival and on plant performance of survived plants. The survival of the species was affected by factors microhabitat (survival rates dry: 28.75%, wet: 83.75%) and seedling age (survival rates age2: 42.5%, age4: 37.5%, age6: 96.25%, age8: 48.75%), as well as species (nested in microhabitat) and species (nested in microhabitat) x seedling age interaction (Table 2.2).

Performance of plants

The performance of seedlings was not affected by differences in soil compositions (ANOVA analyses and accelerated failure time models: all p > 0.05). Negative flood-

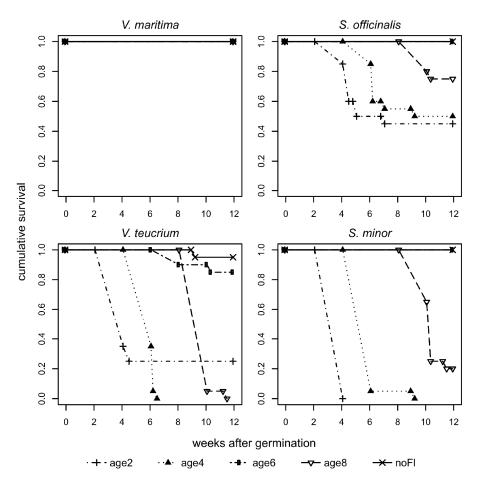


Fig. 2.3 Effects of a 2-week flooding treatment on survival of four floodplain meadow plant species. Cumulative survival of *Veronica maritima* L., *Veronica teucrium* L., *Sanguisorba officinalis* L., and *Sanguisorba minor* Scop. after a 2-week flooding treatment, starting 2, 4, 6, and 8 weeks, respectively, after germination (age2-age8), and a control group with no flooding (noFl). age2, dot-dashed line & plus; age4, dotted line & filled triangle point up; age6, two-dashed line & circle; age8, long-dashed line & triangle point down; noFl, solid line & cross.

ing effects on plant growth i.e., reduced plant height, leaf number, and biomass production were significant for age groups age2 and age4 of all plants except $S.\ minor$, where both groups showed 100% mortality (Figs 2.2A-2.2C). This effect did not clearly decrease with age, but for the two species from wet microhabitats (i.e., $V.\ maritima$ and $S.\ officinalis$) fitness of flooded plants was mostly not significantly different from the control for older seedlings (6 and 8 weeks after germination). Similarly, a slight but non-significant trend of increasing plant height with age was visible for $V.\ maritima$ and $S.\ officinalis$ (Fig. 2.2A).

 ${\bf Table~2.2~Performance~of~four~floodplain~meadow~plant~species~after~a~2-week~flooding~period}$

	survi	val		plan	t height	t		number of leaves				
	df	dev	p	df	F	p	vc	df	F	p	vc	
microhabitat (M)	1	96.1	< 0.001	1	18.1	< 0.001	5.6	1	53.2	< 0.001	17.2	
seedling age (A)	4	270.3	< 0.001	3	23.1	< 0.001	21.4	3	12	< 0.001	11.7	
soil (S)	1	1.5	0.214	1	0.6	0.427	0.2	1	0.9	0.347	0.3	
species(microhabitat)~[Sp(M)]	6	55.7	< 0.001	2	1.2	0.302	0.7	2	0.6	0.532	0.4	
МхА	4	1.5	0.823	2	29.3	< 0.001	18.1	2	22.5	< 0.001	14.5	
MxS	1	1.4	0.234	1	0.4	0.512	0.1	1	1.9	0.165	0.6	
ΑxS	4	8.2	0.084	3	1.2	0.326	1.1	3	1.6	0.188	1.6	
$Sp(M) \times A$	24	56.4	< 0.001	3	2.4	0.072	2.2	3	0.3	0.798	0.3	
$Sp(M) \times S$	6	0.3	0.999	2	0.8	0.462	0.5	2	0.6	0.555	0.4	
$M \times A \times S$	4	1.2	0.884	2	0.7	0.500	0.4	2	2.8	0.065	1.8	
$Sp(M) \times A \times S$	24	1.0	1.000	3	1.4	0.239	1.3	3	0.9	0.443	0.9	
Residuals	319			156			48.2	156			50.4	

	biom	ass			SLA			
	df	F	p	vc	df	F	p	vc
microhabitat (M)	1	82.4	< 0.001	20.9	1	13.5	< 0.001	2.4
seedling age (A)	3	22.2	< 0.001	16.9	4	30.7	< 0.001	22.1
soil (S)	1	0	0.976	0	1	2.2	0.135	0.4
$species(microhabitat)\ [Sp(M)]$	2	4	0.020	2	2	45.4	< 0.001	16.4
$M \times A$	2	30.2	< 0.001	15.3	2	16.9	< 0.001	6.1
$M \times S$	1	1.4	0.232	0.4	1	0.1	0.718	0
$A \times S$	3	0.4	0.747	0.3	4	0.5	0.706	0.4
$Sp(M) \times A$	3	3	0.030	2.3	5	13	< 0.001	11.7
$Sp(M) \times S$	2	0.5	0.607	0.3	2	0.1	0.904	0
$M \times A \times S$	2	2.2	0.117	1.1	2	0.4	0.647	0.2
$Sp(M) \times A \times S$	3	1.2	0.314	0.9	5	0.6	0.696	0.5
Residuals	156			39.6	220			39.7

Effects of factors microhabitat, species nested in microhabitat, seedling age, and soil composition on the survival of all plant individuals, and on plant height (logarithmic response ratio), number of leaves (logarithmic response ratio), biomass (logarithmic response ratio), and specific leaf area (SLA) of survived plant individuals were tested performing a likelihood-ratio test of an accelerated failure time model using a Weibull error distribution and four ANOVA Analyses. df, degrees of freedom; dev, deviance; F, variance ratio; p, error probability; vc (%), relative contribution of individual factors and their interactions to total variance; p values < 0.05 are written in bold.

Microhabitat preference of the species, as reflected in Ellenberg indicator values (EIV) for moisture, had a significant impact on plants (over all four response variables, and on survival, Table 2.2): Plants from wet microhabitats showed less reduction in plant height and leaf number, higher biomass, and slightly higher SLA than plants from drier microhabitats (all p < 0.001).

At the end of the experiment, the seedlings flooded at younger age (i.e., age groups age2 and age4) were smaller, had fewer leaves, and lower biomass than older seedlings (except for *S. minor*). Thus, also the factor seedling age explained a high amount of the total variance (vc, Table 2.2). Similarly, in the accelerated failure time models analysis, we found a significant effect of seedling age on the survival of the plants (Table 2.2).

Response of plants on flooding treatments was species-dependent, as indicated by the significance of species (nested in microhabitat) x seedling age interaction in accelerated failure time models and ANOVAs (Table 2.2). Inundated plants produced thinner leaves, which resulted in slightly higher SLA (not significant) compared to non-flooded plants from the control group (Fig. 2.2D).

Discussion

The effects of age on the survival and performance of seedlings in response to flooding

Our experiment revealed that 2 weeks of flooding lowered survival of three of the four tested species (i.e., S. officinalis, S. minor and V. teucrium) and that survival increased with the age of the seedlings, as risk of death decreased. Our first hypothesis that under a 2-week flooding period, older seedlings perform better than younger seedlings, therefore was accepted. These results are in line with a study by Nabben et al. (1999), who found that juvenile plants of three Rumex species showed lower survival (approx. by factor four) than mature plants. In accordance to this study, we expected survival increasing with age of the seedlings over individual age groups. However, for the oldest group, with flooding start at an age of 8 weeks after germination, survival was lower than expected. This outcome can be explained by particularly high temperatures during this flooding treatment (age8, Fig. 2.1B). Summer floods may result in heating of the slow flowing, ponded water on the floodplain meadows and this probably also happened to our experimental plants. This rise in water temperature most likely forced additional damage of flooded plants, as warm tempera-

tures increase enzyme activity and limit oxygen solubility (Rapacz et al. 2014). Detrimental flooding effects on mature grasses are known to be greater at high water temperature (30 °C) compared to low temperature (10 °C) floods (Beard and Martin 1970). Hence, summer floods are likely more harmful than flooding events earlier in the year. Likewise, Van Eck et al. (2006) showed that mainly summer flooding defines zonation of plants on flood meadows. Our data may suggest an age threshold for flood meadow species from wet microhabitats between 4 and 6 weeks after which the negative effects of a 2-week flooding event appears to be significantly reduced. Likewise, Hidding et al. (2014) recently suggested that flooding outcome (i.e., promotion of plant growth vs. severe damaging of plants) depends strongly on the timing of flooding. In their experiment, wetland plants, with an age of approx. 5 weeks at the start of the flooding treatment, showed elongation of plant growth (7 out of 8 species) but also unclear responses in horizontal expansion and biomass production after flooding. Also for *Phragmites australis* seedlings the tolerance to submergence increased with age (Mauchamp et al. 2001), hence this effect may be ubiquitous for plants from riparian ecosystems.

The effects of substrate on the survival and performance of seedlings in response to flooding

Differences in soil composition (i.e., soil:sand ratio of 3:1 vs. 1:1) had no effect on the response variables (Table 2.2). Thus, our second hypothesis that under a 2-week flooding period, the performance of the seedlings decreases with increased sand content, was rejected. Interestingly, Lenson et al. (1999) showed that wetland species produce more biomass on soils with organic sediments compared to mineral sediments. They concluded that this was caused by the low nutrient availability in the mineral-sediment soil. In our study, maintaining nutrient equivalence in the two soil:sand ratio groups resulted in similar plant performance, which supports the conclusions of Lenson et al. (1999). Likewise, in a study on floodplains along the Middle Elbe, sand content only weakly explains species composition (Leyer 2006).

Differences in the survival and performance of seedlings from wet vs. dry microhabitats in response to flooding

We found evidence that under flooding treatment, species preferring wet microhabitats grow higher and survive longer compared to species from dry microhabitats. This confirmed our third hypothesis that under a 2-week flooding period, plant species from wet microhabitats perform better compared to those of dry microhabitats. Higher survival and plant growth of V. maritima compared to S. officinalis within the wet

microhabitat is consistent with differences in Ellenberg indicator values between the two species (Table 2.1) (Ellenberg et al. 1991). More generally, our findings cohere with the expectations that flood sensitive species are located on higher parts of the floodplain where flooding impacts are limited. In contrast, flood tolerant species survive at areas with more frequent flooding at lower elevations (Van Eck et al. 2004; Lenssen and De Kroon 2005; Van Eck et al. 2006). Likewise, leaf thickness of plants varies between species with different microhabitat preferences. SLA of plants adapted to wet microhabitats is higher than of plants from dry microhabitats (Table 2.2). Also Koike et al. (2003) found contrasting SLA values for birch species with different microhabitat preferences under wet soil moisture conditions. In addition, our result that leaf plasticity differs between treatment and control (i.e., SLA of flooded plants is slightly higher than for plants from control group, Fig. 2.2D) is in accordance with previous findings. Plants under submergence develop thinner, elongated leaves and therefore show increased SLA (for review see (Mommer and Visser 2005)).

Synopsis for restoration management

From a restoration ecological perspective, our finding that seedlings of flood-meadow species respond differently to flooding events at young age show the difficulties of measures that aim to reestablish floodplain vegetation (e.g., via the transfer of seed-containing plant material) (Kiehl et al. 2010). The forecasted increase in extreme discharge events owing to climate change will simultaneously raise the risk for restoration measures in terms of costs and logistic effort. To increase restoration success, habitat requirements of the individual target plant species and microhabitat characteristics of restoration sites have to match. Habitat-suitability maps on a microhabitat scale for the target species could incorporate all these factors and enhance restoration planning (Guisan et al. 2013). In case of planning large-scale restoration projects, especially regarding ecological (i.e., prescribed) flooding, our findings should also be taken into account. After a floodplain restorations, the schedule of gate openings at ecological flooding sites should be adapted to germination timing of target species to enhance survival and establishment of target species.

Conclusions

In conclusion, our results demonstrated the importance of seedling age and microhabitat preference of plants on their flooding tolerance, whereas soil composition had no effect. Based on our data, we predict that for future restoration measures of flood-plain meadows (e.g., the transfer of freshly cut seed-containing plant material) the restoration success after a medium flooding event will be higher, if the plants have

reached the critical threshold age of about 6 weeks after germination. Besides, flooding in summer may also lead to stronger damages of plants due to higher floodwater temperatures. Vegetation of floodplain meadows indeed is affected by seasonal flow patterns (for review see (Greet et al. 2011)). All these aspects demonstrate the increasing vulnerabilities of floodplain meadow species under the predicted alterations of climatic and thus hydrological conditions (Mosner et al. 2015). Hence, the complexity regarding timing of floodplain meadow restorations and of conservation planning in floodplain landscapes in general is increasing.

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Competing Interest

The authors have declared that no competing interests exist.

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Annex 2

 ${\bf Dataset}$ Dataset of the experiment. Available online: doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0176869.s002



Fig. 2.A1 Photograph of experimental setup. Photograph showing experimental plant pots placed inside of 1.2L transparent polypropylene cups and distributed randomly on a paved area at the research station Linden-Leihgestern (Hesse, Germany, UTM: 32U 478260 5598300) in May 2015. Photo: Johannes P. Gattringer

CHAPTER 3

Interaction between depth and duration matters: flooding tolerance of 12 floodplain meadow species

Johannes P. Gattringer, Kristin Ludewig, Sarah Harvolk-Schöning, Tobias W. Donath & Annette Otte

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Abstract

In riparian landscapes, regular flooding plays a crucial role in the distribution and diversity of plant species. Particularly in floodplain grassland, the microrelief, which is often the result of riverine sedimentation through flooding, leads to differing flooding depths and durations on a microscale, with little-known impacts on plants. Here, we aim to reveal the effects of flooding duration and flooding depth, as well as their interaction, on seedlings of 12 floodplain meadow plant species. To this end, we performed flooding procedures for 2 and 4 weeks with no, partial and complete submergence using seedlings of floodplain meadow species in six familial pairs with a preference for relatively wetter or drier microhabitats. We show that an increased flooding duration and flooding depth negatively affect the performance of seedlings. The interactive effect of these two factors appears to play an essential role in the flooding tolerance of plant species. In conclusion, our results suggest that the studied factors and their interaction have high importance in determining the flooding tolerance of floodplain meadow plant species. Despite its crucial function, the effect of the depth \times duration interaction seems to be underestimated in experimental studies focusing on flooding effects in plants. Thus, this interaction, as well as its combination with other factors, should be studied in more detail to further understand plant responses to flooding events.

Introduction

Regular flooding substantially affects the distribution and diversity of species in riparian and wetland ecosystems in multiple ways (Malanson 1993; Silvertown et al. 1999); it facilitates the establishment of less competitive species by means of the exposure of bare soil for germination and inhibits flood-intolerant competitors (Hölzel and Otte 2004). From an ecophysiological perspective, flooding represents an environmental stress with detrimental effects on the survival and growth of plants in many ecosystems (Bailey-Serres and Voesenek 2008). However, as many plant species depend on specific conditions with more or less regular flooding, the loss of such habitats resulted in a strong decline in these species (Joyce and Wade 1998). In Europe and North America, large amounts of riparian habitat have been degraded by human actions, such as river regulation (Tockner and Stanford 2002). Indeed, species-rich floodplain meadows, such as those of the type Cnidion dubii, are among the most threatened habitat types in Central Europe (Joyce and Wade 1998; Finck et al. 2017) and are therefore protected by the EU Habitats Directive. These grasslands harbor numerous, often endangered, plant species that are able to cope with the particular disturbance regimes (e.g., flooding) of floodplains (Burkart 2001). For the protection of these species, specific knowledge regarding their flooding tolerances, and moreover their niches, is essential (Engst et al. 2016). On a micro-habitat scale, these grassland species segregate in accordance to their hydrological niches (Silvertown et al. 1999; Silvertown et al. 2015); species with higher flooding tolerance are located in depressions, whereas more flood-sensitive species occur at higher elevations (Vervuren et al. 2003; Jung et al. 2008). Habitat-specific germination strategies were found in 20 floodplain grassland species indicative of wet or dry habitats (Ludewig et al. 2014). Nevertheless, despite their fine ecological differentiation (along a microhabitat preference gradient), those species occur in basically identical habitats due to the microrelief in the meadows (Mathar et al. 2015).

Flooding is a phenomenon with multiple components that all influence plants (Vervuren et al. 2003). The components duration, depth and timing of flooding events (in addition to several others, e.g., floodwater temperature, suspended load, and flooding frequency) are the key factors affecting plant growth in wetland ecosystems (Cronk and Fennessy 2001; Vervuren et al. 2003; Magee and Kentula 2005). Several studies have investigated the separate impacts of the components flooding duration and flooding depth; in general, in grassland species, plant survival and biomass decrease with increasing flooding duration (Blom et al. 1994; Van Eck et al. 2004) and increasing water depth during a flooding event (Vervuren et al. 2003). The

combined effect of these two factors among floodplain meadow species has not yet been studied in an experiment under controlled conditions. Van Eck et al. (2005) showed that interactions between flooding duration and oxygen concentration and between flooding duration and water temperature have significant influences on biomass reduction in three plant species under flooding (Rumex crispus, Rumex acetosa, and Daucus carota). Hence, the interactive effect of two or more components during flooding is of particular importance to plant growth. Likewise, Madsen and Sand-Jensen (1994) demonstrated that multifactor limitations of growth under submergence are a common phenomenon in flooded (aquatic) plants. To our knowledge, the effect of duration has been disregarded in flooding depth experiments until now, which might have led to the differing findings in the literature; in a systematic review of wetland plant studies focusing on water regime, Webb et al. (2012) concluded that shoot length increases with increasing water depth, whereas belowground biomass decreases. At the same time, they concluded that the total plant biomass neither increased nor decreased with increasing water depth, and the evidence for aboveground biomass was inconsistent (Webb et al. 2012). Nevertheless, a study focusing on four riparian grassland species from the Rhine River demonstrated a significant decline in survival with increasing flooding depth (Vervuren et al. 2003). Similarly, Phragmites australis showed decreasing biomass production and length growth with a deeper experimental flooding depth (Mauchamp et al. 2001). The interaction between flooding depth and duration seems to play a crucial role, which previous studies have largely neglected (e.g., Byun et al. 2017; Nicol et al. 2018).

Here, we provide such an analysis for 12 species from species-rich floodplain meadows with differing sensitivities to flooding and high nature conservation value. We aim toward a better understanding of the interplay between flooding duration and flooding depth in combination with the microhabitat preference of the species. We study the response of young flooded meadow plants to partial and complete submergence for a duration of 2 and 4 weeks. Therefore, we performed a multi-factorial flooding experiment to analyze the main effects and interactions of the factors flooding duration, flooding depth, and microhabitat preference on several performance parameters of plants. Since we expected constraints to plant performance in association with increasing flooding depth and duration, as well as an influence of their interaction, we tested the following hypotheses:

 The combination of the expected (negative) effects of increased flooding depth and flooding duration results in non-additive (i.e., interactive) detrimental effects on plants. 2. Flooded plants with a preference for wet microhabitats show better performance than those with a preference for dry microhabitats.

Materials and methods

Study species

The focal plant species here (Table 3.1) have been target species in floodplain restoration projects along the Upper Rhine since the 1980s (Donath et al. 2007). In this study, they act as umbrella species (according to Groom et al. 2006) for the plant community of *Cnidion dubii* grassland (Burkart et al. 2004), which is also under protection by the EU Habitats Directive (Council Directive 92/43/EEC Annex I; habitat type 6440: alluvial meadows of river valleys of the *Cnidion dubii*). Furthermore, the experimental species are representative of the habitat type 6510: lowland hay meadows. We selected six congeneric pairs of floodplain meadow species characteristic of wet vs. dry microhabitats (Table 3.1). The phylogenetically balanced design improves the explanatory power of the results (Gitzendanner and Soltis 2000).

The species with a preference for drier microhabitats are generally located at slightly higher elevations than those with a preference for wetter microhabitats. These preferences are highlighted by their Ellenberg indicator values (EIVs) for moisture (Ellenberg et al. 1991) (Table 3.1). The EIV is a common tool in applied plant ecology in Europe (Diekmann 2003). For Silaum silaus, the original indicator value for moisture after Ellenberg et al. (1991) calibrated for Central Europe is indifferent (i.e., having no preference). To be able to assign S. silaus to a microhabitat preference group (i.e., wet or dry), we compared the EIVs for moisture recalibrated for Great Britain (Hill et al. 1999), France (Julve 1998) and Italy (Pignatti et al. 2005). As these values were between five and seven (GB: 5, F: 7, I: 7), we interpreted this species as having a slight tendency toward wetter microhabitats and therefore assigned it to the wet microhabitat preference group to obtain a balanced experimental design. Although making use of EIVs outside their calibrated range is sometimes not recommended (Godefroid and Dana 2007), they have been widely and successfully applied across numerous areas, even outside Central Europe (Diekmann 2003). The plant species nomenclature followed Jäger (2017).

Design and setup of experiments

To evaluate the effect of flooding depth on the response of plant performance under flooded conditions, we employed 3 depth groups: (1) partial submergence (paFl),

Table 3.1 The 12 plant species studied in the flooding experiment (six species with a preference for either wet or dry microhabitats: wet & dry, respectively).

Species	Family	Microhabitat preference	EIV m
Allium angulosum L.	Alliaceae	wet	8 a
Allium vineale L.	Alliaceae	dry	4 a
Silaum silaus (L.) Schinz et Thell	Apiaceae	wet	$5^{\rm b}, 7^{\rm c}, 7^{\rm d}$
Pimpinella saxifraga L.	Apiaceae	dry	3 a
Selinum carvifolia (L.) L.	Apiaceae	wet	7 a
Peucedanum officinale L.	Apiaceae	dry	4 a
Veronica maritima L.	Plantaginaceae	wet	8 a
Veronica teucrium L.	Plantaginaceae	dry	3 a
Sanguisorba officinalis L.	Rosaceae	wet	7 a
$Sanguisor ba\ minor\ Scop.$	Rosaceae	dry	3 a
Galium boreale L.	Rubiaceae	wet	6 a
Galium wirtgenii F.W. Schultz	Rubiaceae	dry	4 a

EIV m, Ellenberg indicator value for moisture. Superscript letters indicate reference for EIV value: ^a, (Ellenberg et al. 1991); ^b, (Hill et al. 1999); ^c, (Julve 1998); ^d, (Pignatti et al. 2005).

flooding of plant pots to approx. 1 cm above the soil surface level, total flooding depth approx. 8 cm; (2) complete submergence (coFl), flooding depth = soil surface level + 50 cm, total flooding depth approx. 58 cm; and (3) controls with no flooding (noFl), total flooding depth 0 cm.

To analyze the effect of flooding duration, we used 2 duration groups; after 2 weeks of flooding, we removed half of the plants from the flooding treatment (2-week flooding group, 2w), and the other half remained in the flooding treatment for another 2 weeks (4-week flooding group, 4w). The combination of 12 plant species, 3 flooding depths, 2 flooding durations, and 9 replicates led to a total of 648 experimental plants.

The methodological approach of this study follows Gattringer et al. (2017): The seed material was collected from floodplain meadows along the northern Upper Rhine in Germany (UTM: 32U 455000 5523500 – 32U 462000 5518200) between August and November 2015 depending on the maturity of the seeds, or they were obtained from a producer of autochthonous seeds (Rieger-Hofmann GmbH, Blaufelden-Raboldshausen, Germany). For *Allium vineale*, reproduction via aerially produced asexual bulbils exceeds sexual reproduction (Ronsheim and Bever 2000), and thus bulbils instead of seeds were used in this experiment.

We cold-wet stratified seeds for 28 days at 4 °C in potting soil using a climate chamber (Rumed type 3401; Rubarth Apparate GmbH, Laatzen, Germany). Germination of seeds peaked after 7 days (Veronica maritima, Pimpinella saxifraga, Sanquisorba officinalis, Allium angulosum, Galium wirtgenii, Selinum carvifolia, Veronica teucrium, Sanguisorba minor) and after 11 days (Galium boreale, Peucedanum officinale, S. silaus), and the sprouting of bulbils (A. vineale; a preceding stratification procedure was skipped for bulbils) peaked after 7 days in a greenhouse (20 °C by day/15 °C by night; photoperiod: 12 hours/day). On day 14 after the germination/sprouting peak, we transplanted all seedlings (that had synchronously germinated/sprouted on one day) into pots (diameter: 9 cm on top, height: 7.8 cm) in a 1:2 ratio of sand and perlite (Knauf Aquapanel GmbH, Dortmund, Germany). We chose this substrate to allow for the minimal destruction of roots during the root washing procedure. A nutrient supply was ensured by adding slow-release Osmocote (100 g·m⁻²; 7.1% NO₃-N, 8.9% NH₄-N, 9% P₂O₅, 12% K₂O; Osmocote Exact Standard 3-4M, Everris International B.V., Geldermalsen, The Netherlands), which represents intermediate nutrient conditions (Hidding et al. 2014)

At day 30 after the germination or sprouting of plants, 6 pots per species were randomly distributed within each of 9 outdoor ponds (positioned in 3 rows), and the flooding procedure began for all groups except the unflooded groups. Therefore, three ponds per row (i.e., block) were randomly assigned to a flooding depth group. The ponds consisted of wooden boxes lined with white silage foil (length: 1 m; width 1 m; height: 0.6 m) and were located outside on a paved area under unshaded conditions (Giessen, Germany, UTM: 32U 478260 5598300). Before the start of the flooding procedure, we measured the total plant height of all experimental plants. Three days after the end of each flooding procedure, we quantified the other variables. Total plant height was measured from the soil surface to the longest shoot of the plant. The roots were washed, and the length of the longest root was measured. For the calculation of specific leaf area (SLA), we scanned three fully expanded, average-sized leaves from every plant and measured the size using the R package EBImage (Pau et al. 2010). The biomass of the shoots and roots and three leaves for determination of SLA were dried (48 hours at 60 °C) and weighed. We calculated the SLA as the leaf area per kg of leaf dry mass $(m^2 \cdot kg^{-1})$ (Poorter et al. 2012) and the root mass fraction (RMF) as the root dry mass per g of total plant dry mass $(g \cdot g^{-1})$ (Poorter et al. 2012). The experiment was performed from March to June 2016.

Analysis

Before the analyses, plant height, root length, aboveground biomass, belowground biomass, and total biomass were standardized using the natural logarithmic response ratio (RR) as suggested by Goldberg and Scheiner (2001):

$$RR = \ln(P_T/\overline{P_C})$$

The RR was calculated as the ratio of the treated sample (P_T) to the mean value of the unflooded group (i.e., control; $\overline{P_C}$) for each species for each flooding duration combination. This standardization allows comparisons across species and flooding duration groups. As the RMF and SLA already represent ratios, we skipped the RR procedure for these variables. For analyses with these response variables, we excluded individuals for which ratio calculation was not possible (i.e., division by zero; RMF: 2 individuals) or the SLA was not measureable (i.e., leaf area below the detection limit for the scanning procedure; SLA: 73 individuals). All other response variables were calculable for all plants (n = 648).

In the first step, we calculated one-way ANOVAs with the factor plant family for every response variable, as different subsets of species were nested within each family and each microhabitat (species pairs from the same family (often genus) were selected owing to their morphological similarity but difference in microhabitat preference). Thus, the factors microhabitat preference and family could not be incorporated in the same statistical model. This study mainly focuses on determining the response of species with different microhabitat preferences to different flooding depths and flooding durations. Therefore, we accounted for the inherent effects of family identity by computing these one-way ANOVAs (RR of plant height: F = 8.9, P < 0.001; RR of root length: P = 12.1, P < 0.001; P < 0.001. We used the residuals of these ANOVAs for the subsequent analyses.

Second, we computed multifactorial ANCOVAs for each response variable including the main effects and all interactions of the factors flooding duration, flooding depth, species (nested within microhabitat preference), and microhabitat preference and the main effect of the covariate RR of initial height (i.e., the total plant height before the flooding procedure began). By including this covariate in the analyses, we accounted for differences in plant individuals at the beginning of the experiment, which may reduce unexplained variation and increase the statistical power of the tests (Quinn and Keough 2002). The random factor block was excluded from the analyses after we had checked using ANCOVAs that it only explained a negligible

amount of the total variance and almost did not affect the significance of the main effects and interactions (Newman et al. 1997) (Annex 3 Table 3.A1). For pairwise comparisons, we conducted post hoc Tukey's HSD tests. We visually checked requirements to conduct ANOVA/ANCOVA analyses (e.g., normality) by using diagnostic plots. We used the ratio of the sum of squares of a factor/interaction to the total sum of squares to obtain the relative contribution of each factor or interaction to the total variance. The significance threshold was set at 0.05. All statistical analyses and data visualizations were performed using R 3.4.1 (R Core Team 2017) and ggplot2 2.2.1 (Wickham 2009).

Results

All response variables were significantly affected by the interaction of flooding depth and flooding duration (Table 3.2). With increasing flooding depth, the effect of flooding duration was even more detrimental than that resulting from the addition of the two individual effects (Fig. 3.1a). The total biomass of S. carvifolia, P. saxifraga, Veronica species, Sanguisorba species, and Galium species dropped dramatically under 4 weeks of flooding compared to that under 2 weeks of flooding with increasing depth (Fig. 3.2b, note the logarithmic scale). This duration-depth effect was species specific (i.e., species (nested within microhabitat preference) \times flooding depth \times flooding duration interaction); for several species, a considerable reduction in total biomass – and for some species, a shift in RMF and SLA – was already observed at lower levels of the combined effect (e.g., for P. saxifraga at partial/4 weeks and V. teucrium at partial/2 weeks), while other species showed such a change only at high combination levels (e.g., S. carvifolia at complete/4 weeks and V. maritima at complete/4 weeks; Fig. 3.2b-d).

Species from drier microhabitats seemed to be more susceptible to flooding effects on their performance than species from wetter microhabitats, especially in the 4-week and partial flooding groups (Fig. 3.1b-c; Fig. 3.2). Plants with a preference for wet microhabitats showed higher biomass, longer root length and higher SLA than plants from dry microhabitats (Table 3.2).

Table 3.2 ANCOVA results for 12 floodplain meadow plant species in the flooding experiment.

	Total plant height			Root length				Aboveground biomass				Belowground biomass				
	df	F	sig	vc	df	F	sig	vc	df	F	sig	vc	df	F	sig	vc
Microhabitat preference (MH)	1	0.7	ns	0.1	1	24.4	***	2.2	1	6.9	**	0.3	1	9.5	**	0.4
Flooding depth (DE)	2	101.0	***	15.0	2	73.9	***	13.4	2	422.2	***	34.8	2	621.9	***	49.7
Flooding duration (DU)	1	60.9	***	4.5	1	30.5	***	2.8	1	205.4	***	8.5	1	110.7	***	4.4
Species (MH) [S (MH)]	10	4.9	***	3.6	10	6.9	***	6.3	10	6.8	***	2.8	10	7.2	***	2.9
$MH \times DE$	2	3.5	*	0.5	2	10.0	***	1.8	2	5.9	**	0.5	2	18.8	***	1.5
$MH \times DU$	1	0.1	ns	0.0	1	10.0	**	0.9	1	6.9	**	0.3	1	11.3	***	0.5
$DE \times DU$	2	49.9	***	7.4	2	8.6	***	1.6	2	119.8	***	9.9	2	36.8	***	2.9
$S (MH) \times DE$	20	6.4	***	9.5	20	5.3	***	9.7	20	12.4	***	10.2	20	10.2	***	8.2
$S (MH) \times DU$	10	6.2	***	4.6	10	4.8	***	4.4	10	6.6	***	2.7	10	6.1	***	2.4
$\mathrm{MH} \times \mathrm{DE} \times \mathrm{DU}$	2	1.0	ns	0.1	2	3.3	*	0.6	2	1.4	ns	0.1	2	5.0	**	0.4
S (MH) \times DE \times DU	20	6.3	***	9.3	20	2.3	**	4.1	20	5.6	***	4.6	20	4.1	***	3.3
Covariate: initial height	1	37.3	***	2.8	1	0.0	ns	0.0	1	37.0	***	1.5	1	10.8	**	0.4
Residuals	575			42.6	575	i		52.2	575			23.7	575			23.0

	Total biomass				Root	mass fr	action (I	RMF)	Specific leaf area (SLA)				
	df	F	sig	vc	df	F	sig	vc	df	F	sig	vc	
Microhabitat preference (MH)	1	7.0	**	0.3	1	0.2	ns	0.0	1	52.5	***	5.2	
Flooding depth (DE)	2	589.9	***	45.8	2	44.9	***	6.9	2	46.7	***	9.2	
Flooding duration (DU)	1	189.0	***	7.3	1	97.3	***	7.4	1	42.9	***	4.2	
Species (MH) [S (MH)]	10	5.2	***	2.0	10	6.0	***	4.6	10	9.6	***	9.4	
$MH \times DE$	2	9.4	***	0.7	2	2.0	ns	0.3	2	4.9	**	1.0	
$MH \times DU$	1	8.0	**	0.3	1	0.2	ns	0.0	1	0.2	ns	0.0	
$DE \times DU$	2	98.1	***	7.6	2	41.5	***	6.3	2	3.5	*	0.7	
$S (MH) \times DE$	20	9.1	***	7.1	20	12.9	***	19.8	20	8.8	***	17.3	
$S (MH) \times DU$	10	5.7	***	2.2	10	2.3	*	1.8	10	0.5	ns	0.5	
$\mathrm{MH} \times \mathrm{DE} \times \mathrm{DU}$	2	2.4		0.2	2	1.0	ns	0.2	2	0.0	ns	0.0	
$S (MH) \times DE \times DU$	20	3.9	***	3.0	20	5.3	***	8.1	16	1.2	ns	1.9	
Covariate: initial height	1	30.3	***	1.2	1	10.2	**	0.8	1	8.2	**	0.8	
Residuals	575			22.3	573			43.8	506			49.8	

The effects of the factors microhabitat preference, species (nested within microhabitat preference), flooding duration, and flooding depth on the logarithmic response ratio (RR) of total plant height, RR of root length, RR of aboveground biomass, RR of belowground biomass, RR of total biomass, root mass fraction (RMF), and specific leaf area (SLA) of experimental plant individuals were tested using ANCOVA with the covariate RR of height of plants at the beginning of the flooding procedure.

df, degrees of freedom; F, variance ratio; sig, significance levels of error probability (p < 0.001 = ***, p < 0.01 = **, p < 0.05 = *, p < 0.1 = ., p > 0.1 =ns); vc (%), relative contribution of individual factors and their interactions to total variance.

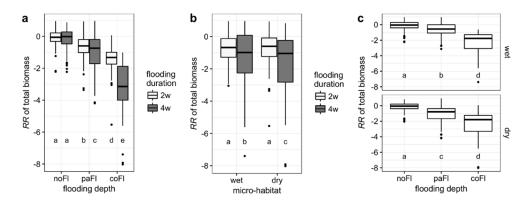


Fig. 3.1 Two-way-interaction boxplots of the logarithmic response ratio (RR) of total biomass at the end of the flooding experiment: 12 plant species (six species with a preference for either wet or dry microhabitats: wet & dry, respectively) under a flooding duration of 2 and 4 weeks (2w & 4w) and in flooding depth groups of no flooding (i.e., control), partial flooding, and complete flooding (noFl, paFl, coFl). Flooding depth \times flooding duration interaction (a); microhabitat preference \times flooding duration interaction (b); flooding depth \times microhabitat preference interaction (c). Different letters denote significantly different groups (post hoc Tukey's HSD tests, p < 0.05); boxes represent the 25th and 75th percentiles and the median value (line); whiskers indicate 1.5 times the interquartile range (or the largest/smallest value in the data if it is lower than 1.5 IQR); points represent outlying data beyond the whiskers.

Flooding depth significantly affected plant performance for all response variables and explained large amounts of the total variance for several response variables in the ANCOVA analyses (Table 3.2). Further, the effect of flooding depth was species specific, as indicated by the species (nested within microhabitat preference) \times flooding depth interaction (Table 3.2). The RMF, total biomass and plant height of several species were more reduced after complete compared to partial flooding (Fig. 3.2a-c). Furthermore, A. angulosum, S. silaus, and S. carvifolia showed a slightly higher (though not significantly different; Tukey's HSD test: p > 0.9) plant height under partial flooding compared to non-flooded conditions (Fig. 3.2a; original data in Annex 3 Fig. 3.A2a). Under complete flooding, this effect vanished, and the plants reacted with decreased performance.

The factor flooding duration also explained part of the variation in plant performance and proved to be species specific (Table 3.2). An additional two weeks of flooding led to a significant decrease in height and biomass (Fig. 3.1) as well as shifts in the RMF and SLA of plants. The higher SLA values in our experiment were mostly a result of thinner leaves, as leaf biomass decreased more than leaf area in most species.

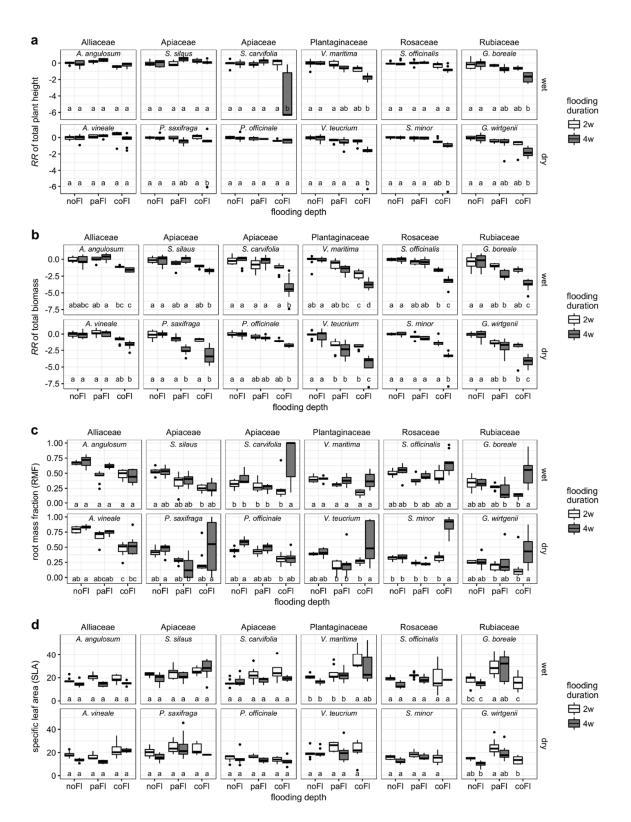


Fig. 3.2 Boxplots of the logarithmic response ratio (RR) of total plant height (\mathbf{a}) , RR of total biomass (\mathbf{b}) , root mass fraction $(RMF; \mathbf{c})$, and specific leaf area $(SLA; \mathbf{d})$ at the end of the flooding experiment: 12 plant species (six species with a preference for either wet or dry microhabitats: wet & dry, respectively) under a flooding duration of 2 and 4 weeks (2w & 4w) and in flooding depth groups of no flooding (i.e., control), partial flooding, and complete

flooding (noFl, paFl, coFl). Different letters denote significantly different groups (post hoc Tukey's HSD tests, p < 0.05) within each species; boxes represent the 25th and 75th percentiles and the median value (line); whiskers indicate 1.5 times the interquartile range (or the largest/smallest value in the data if it is lower than 1.5 IQR); points represent outlying data beyond the whiskers. Missing boxes in (d) represent groups for which the SLA was not measurable (i.e., below the limit of detection).

A general trend independent of the flooding procedure was observed for SLA: older plants from the 4-week group showed lower SLA values than plants from the 2-week group (i.e., thicker leaves, as leaf weight increases more than leaf area). Some individuals suffered considerable losses of aboveground biomass under 4 weeks of flooding, and hence the SLA could also not be detected for some individuals (Fig. 3.2).

Discussion

Combination of flooding depth and duration

Our experiment revealed the importance of the combined effect of flooding duration and depth on the performance of species during submergence (Table 3.2). Further, the results imply non-additive (i.e., interactive) effects for this combination, and we can thus accept our first hypothesis. This finding is in line with Vervuren et al. (2003), who note that the impact of floods is determined by the interplay among several components of a flood. Although several other factors might influence the impacts of flooding on plants, the two determinants depth and duration are among the key flooding regime factors determining the flooding tolerance of species (Cronk and Fennessy 2001; Vervuren et al. 2003; Magee and Kentula 2005). Accordingly, the species' sensitivity to the combination of flooding depth and duration plays a crucial role in their capacity to establish in floodplain grassland.

In floodplain meadow species, the flooding tolerance of a species seems to be linked with the ability of the species to cope with the depth × duration interaction effect (i.e., intensity of the flooding treatment). For the experimental flooding groups, this effect could be sorted from low to high as (1) partial/2 weeks, (2) partial/4 weeks, (3) complete/2 weeks, and (4) complete/4 weeks (Fig. 3.1a). For several of the experimental species, our results might suggest the existence of a tipping point in terms of the depth-duration combination at which plants can no longer cope with the stress through their usual adaptation cascade and suffer severe damage. Indications of such tipping points were observable, for instance, for the response variables total

plant height and biomass (although not always significant; Fig. 3.2a-b); for example, S. carvifolia and Galium species showed a considerable decrease in height and biomass between the complete/2-week and complete/4-week groups, Allium species showed a substantial decrease in biomass between the partial/4-week and complete/2-week groups, and P. saxifraga showed a decrease in biomass in the partial/4week and complete/4-week groups. Some species were more vulnerable to deterioration through depth effects (e.g., V. maritima; Fig. 3.2b), while others were more vulnerable via duration effects (e.g., P. saxifraga; Fig. 3.2b). For several species, these patterns also seemed to persist in other response variables (e.g., Galium species for the RMF and SLA; Fig. 3.2c-d). In addition, Blom et al. (1994) found species specific thresholds in eight floodplain grassland species after which flooding effects become detrimental. In contrast, for some response variables and some species, tipping points were not visible (e.g., S. silaus for the total height, RMF, and SLA; V. maritima for the RMF; P. officinale for the total height and RMF; Fig. 3.2). In these cases, our treatment may not have exerted enough stress on the plants. Therefore, to demonstrate the existence of such thresholds in the effect of the depth \times duration interaction on riparian species, an experimental design with finer scaling of the depth and duration gradients would be necessary.

Microhabitat preference

We found evidence that flood-sensitive species with a preference for drier microhabitats show limited performance under flooding compared to species from wet microhabitats (Fig. 3.2). This result corresponds with those from several previous studies; for example, under flooded conditions, floodplain meadow species preferring wet microhabitats survived longer and grew taller than species from dry microhabitats (Jung et al. 2008; Gattringer et al. 2017). Moreover, our results show that the differences in the flooding tolerance of species with differing microhabitat preferences are determined by the factors duration and depth. In terms of flooding duration, the microhabitat preference groups responded differently only under the 4-week-flooding treatment (Fig. 3.1b). Regarding flooding depth, partial flooding resulted in different outcomes in the microhabitat preference groups, whereas complete flooding did not show such an effect (Fig. 3.1c). Thus, we can partly accept our second hypothesis that flooded plants with a preference for wet microhabitats show better performance than those with a preference for dry microhabitats. Nevertheless, it seems clear that hydrological niche segregation exists – not only on coarse and fine scales in floodplain meadows (Silvertown et al. 1999) but also in numerous other ecosystems (for a review, see Silvertown et al. 2015). In general, water availability locally influences the distribution and composition of vegetation. Accordingly, plant niches can be attributed to species specific ranges of soil water conditions (Silvertown et al. 2015). However, Silvertown et al. (2015) also mentioned that plants might be phenotypically plastic under stresses, such as flooding events, which could explain the evidence regarding microhabitat preference found in this study.

Flooding depth

As expected, the effects of flooding on the performance of plants were more severe under complete submergence than under partial flooding. These results agree with the previous findings of Vervuren et al. (2003), in which the survival of riparian grassland species decreased with an increase in flooding depth. In several species, we found that plant performance was more reduced after complete flooding in comparison to partial flooding (Fig. 3.2a-c). This reaction is partly in line with the findings of Mauchamp et al. (2001): juveniles of *Phragmites australis* showed largely diminished biomass production and growth under complete submergence but also enhanced performance under a partial submergence treatment. These patterns have been described as "lowoxygen quiescence syndrome" when plants respond with the protection of meristem or organs (i.e., diminished biomass production) and "low-oxygen escape syndrome" when plants try to escape submergence (i.e., elongated shoots) (Voesenek and Bailey-Serres 2013). Likewise, our findings of suppressed elongation and a reduced RMF under complete submergence indicate a quiescence strategy. This was also true of most of the species with a preference for drier microhabitats under the partial flooding treatment (Fig. 3.2a). Interestingly, some species from wet microhabitats (A. angulosum, S. silaus, and S. carvifolia) showed slight (though not significant) elongation (Fig. 3.2a; Annex 3 Fig. 3.A2a), which could be interpreted as an escape strategy under partial submergence but a quiescence strategy under the complete submergence treatment. Similarly, Manzur et al. (2009) detected that Lotus tenuis switches strategies depending on flooding depth. Further, they suggested that the documented ability to change survival strategies could explain the success of species in environments facing unpredictable floodwater depths. Transferring this to the floodplain meadow species in our experiment strongly highlights their suitable adaptation to cope with regular flooding. Hence, this evidence also emphasizes their ability to outcompete flood-sensitive (mostly ubiquitous) species.

Flooding duration

An increased flooding duration (2 weeks vs. 4 weeks) had increasingly detrimental effects on plants and their performance, as expected. This result is in accordance with

findings for numerous floodplain grassland species (Blom et al. 1994; Van Eck et al. 2004). However, the decrease in biomass and the RMF from 2 weeks to 4 weeks may partly reflect the dying of root tissue (Poorter et al. 2012). Other experiments have shown that root tissue dies rather fast under submergence, which might lead to biomass losses through reduced nutrient uptake (Visser et al. 2016). Webb et al. (2012) indicated that an increase in flooding duration does not increase the establishment of wetland plant species (i.e., mainly plants from semi-aquatic habitats, such as Phragmites australis and Phalaris arundinacea). However, our results clearly demonstrate that flooding duration plays an important role in the response of floodplain meadow species to a flooding event. The fact that the 4-week group (which was 2 weeks older at harvest than the 2-week group) showed lower SLA values in this experiment (particularly for the no-flooding group; Fig. 3.2d) is in line with previous findings of decreased SLA with increasing plant age (Reich et al. 1991; Milla et al. 2008). Some plant individuals in the 4-week flooding treatment showed a considerable loss of aboveground biomass. In this case, the flooding procedure had a strong effect on plants (e.g., on Apiaceae species, such as S. carvifolia and P. saxifraga under complete flooding) that were partially still in the rosette stadium (Eriksson and Ehrlén 2008)). Therefore, in those individuals, the SLA could usually not be determined, as leaf size was below the limit of detection for the scanning procedure (Poorter et al. 2012).

Conclusions

We conclude that increases in flooding depth, flooding duration, and the combination of the two factors result in severe limitations to seedling establishment. Based on our results, we think that the interactive effect of flooding depth and duration on the flooding tolerance of species has been underestimated in plant ecological experiments. Although numerous (experimental) studies have focused on the effects of flooding on plants (e.g., Webb et al. 2012), their results are often difficult to compare or evaluate if only one key determinant (such as flooding duration only) was taken into account. In future studies, other flooding components (e.g., flooding frequency or floodwater temperature) could be combined with flooding depth and duration to further understand plant responses to flooding events.

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Conflict of Interest

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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Annex 3

Table 3.A1 ANCOVA results (including the random factor block) for 12 floodplain meadow plant species in the flooding experiment.

	Tot	Total plant height			Root length			Aboveground biomass				Belowground biomass				
	df	F	sig	vc	df	F	sig	vc	df	F	sig	vc	df	F	sig	vc
Microhabitat preference (MH)	1	0.7	ns	0.1	1	25.0	***	2.2	1	7.1	**	0.3	1	9.8	**	0.4
Flooding depth (DE)	2	101.6	***	15.0	2	75.6	***	13.4	2	432.9	***	34.8	2	639.2	***	49.7
Flooding duration (DU)	1	61.2	***	4.5	1	31.2	***	2.8	1	210.6	***	8.5	1	113.8	***	4.4
Species (MH) $[S (MH)]$	10	4.9	***	3.6	10	7.1	***	6.3	10	7.0	***	2.8	10	7.4	***	2.9
$MH \times DE$	2	3.6	*	0.5	2	10.3	***	1.8	2	6.1	**	0.5	2	19.4	***	1.5
$MH \times DU$	1	0.1	ns	0.0	1	10.2	**	0.9	1	7.1	**	0.3	1	11.6	***	0.5
$DE \times DU$	2	50.2	***	7.4	2	8.8	***	1.6	2	122.8	***	9.9	2	37.8	***	2.9
$S (MH) \times DE$	20	6.4	***	9.5	20	5.5	***	9.7	20	12.7	***	10.2	20	10.5	***	8.2
$S (MH) \times DU$	10	6.2	***	4.6	10	4.9	***	4.4	10	6.7	***	2.7	10	6.3	***	2.4
$\mathrm{MH} \times \mathrm{DE} \times \mathrm{DU}$	2	1.0	ns	0.1	2	3.4	*	0.6	2	1.5	ns	0.1	2	5.2	**	0.4
$S (MH) \times DE \times DU$	20	6.3	***	9.3	20	2.3	***	4.1	20	5.8	***	4.6	20	4.2	***	3.3
Covariate: initial height	1	38.4	***	2.8	1	0.1	ns	0.0	1	37.8	***	1.5	1	11.7	***	0.5
Block: initial height	1			0.0	1			0.4	1			0.0	1			0.0
Block: residuals	1			0.3	1			0.9	1			0.7	1			0.6
Residuals	573			42.2	573			50.9	573			23.1	573			22.3

The effects of the factors microhabitat preference, species (nested within microhabitat preference), flooding duration, and flooding depth on the logarithmic response ratio (RR) of total plant height, RR of root length, RR of aboveground biomass, RR of belowground biomass, RR of total biomass, root mass fraction (RMF), and specific leaf area (SLA) of experimental plant individuals were tested using ANCOVA with the covariate RR of height of plants at the beginning of the flooding procedure. In addition, the random effect for block was included to account for possible effects of position of 9 ponds within 3 rows. This analysis proved that the block (i.e., rows) only explained a very small amount of total variance. Hence, we excluded this factor for further analyses.

df, degrees of freedom; F, variance ratio; sig, significance levels of error probability (p < 0.001 = ***, p < 0.01 = **, p < 0.05 = *, p < 0.1 = ., p > 0.1 = ns); vc (%), relative contribution of individual factors and their interactions to total variance.

Table 3.A1 continued

	Tot	Total biomass		Root mass fraction (RMF)				Specific leaf area (SLA)				
	df	F	sig	vc	df	F	sig	vc	df	F	sig	vc
Microhabitat preference (MH)	1	7.3	**	0.3	1	0.2	ns	0.0	1	53.3	***	5.1
Flooding depth (DE)	2	610.9	***	45.8	2	44.8	***	6.9	2	48.5	***	9.2
Flooding duration (DU)	1	195.7	***	7.3	1	97.1	***	7.4	1	44.9	***	4.3
Species (MH) [S (MH)]	10	5.4	***	2.0	10	6.0	***	4.6	10	9.9	***	9.4
$MH \times DE$	2	9.7	***	0.7	2	2.0	ns	0.3	2	4.8	**	0.9
$MH \times DU$	1	8.3	**	0.3	1	0.2	ns	0.0	1	0.3	ns	0.0
$DE \times DU$	2	101.6	***	7.6	2	41.4	***	6.3	2	3.4	*	0.7
$S (MH) \times DE$	20	9.4	***	7.1	20	12.9	***	19.8	20	9.1	***	17.3
$S (MH) \times DU$	10	5.9	***	2.2	10	2.3	*	1.8	10	0.6	ns	0.5
$\mathrm{MH} \times \mathrm{DE} \times \mathrm{DU}$	2	2.5		0.2	2	1.0	ns	0.2	2	0.0	ns	0.0
S (MH) \times DE \times DU	20	4.0	***	3.0	20	5.3	***	8.1	16	1.2	ns	1.8
Covariate: initial height	1	31.6	***	1.2	1	9.9	**	0.8	1	7.0	**	0.7
Block: initial height	1			0.0	1			0.0	1			0.9
Block: residuals	1			0.8	1			0.0	1			1.5
Residuals	573			21.5	571			43.8	504			47.8

The effects of the factors microhabitat preference, species (nested within microhabitat preference), flooding duration, and flooding depth on the logarithmic response ratio (RR) of total plant height, RR of root length, RR of aboveground biomass, RR of belowground biomass, RR of total biomass, root mass fraction (RMF), and specific leaf area (SLA) of experimental plant individuals were tested using ANCOVA with the covariate RR of height of plants at the beginning of the flooding procedure. In addition, the random effect for block was included to account for possible effects of position of 9 ponds within 3 rows. This analysis proved that the block (i.e., rows) only explained a very small amount of total variance. Hence, we excluded this factor for further analyses.

df, degrees of freedom; F, variance ratio; sig, significance levels of error probability (p < 0.001 = ***, p < 0.01 = **, p < 0.05 = *, p < 0.1 = ., p > 0.1 = ns); vc (%), relative contribution of individual factors and their interactions to total variance.

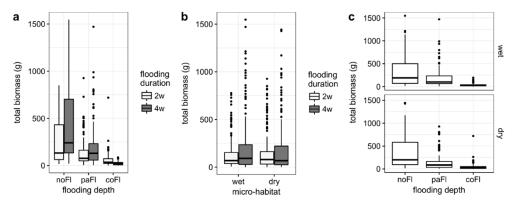


Fig. 3.A1 Two-way-interaction boxplots of total biomass (g) at the end of the flooding experiment: 12 plant species (six species with a preference for either wet or dry microhabitats: wet & dry, respectively) under a flooding duration of 2 and 4 weeks (2w & 4w) and in flooding depth groups of no flooding (i.e., control), partial flooding, and complete flooding (noFl, paFl, coFl). Flooding depth × flooding duration interaction (a); microhabitat preference × flooding duration interaction (b); flooding depth × microhabitat preference interaction (c). Boxes represent the 25th and 75th percentiles and the median value (line); whiskers indicate 1.5 times the interquartile range (or the largest/smallest value in the data if it is lower than 1.5 IQR); points represent outlying data beyond the whiskers.

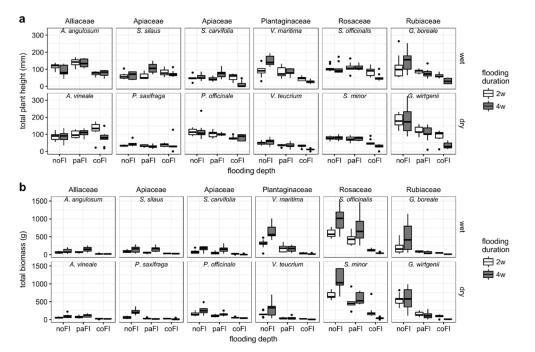


Fig. 3.A2 Boxplots of total plant height (mm, a) and total biomass (g, b) at the end of the flooding experiment: 12 plant species (six species with a preference for either wet or dry microhabitats: wet & dry, respectively) under a flooding duration of 2 and 4 weeks (2w & 4w) and in flooding depth groups of no flooding (i.e., control), partial flooding, and complete flooding (noFl, paFl, coFl). Boxes represent the 25th and 75th percentiles and the median value (line); whiskers indicate 1.5 times the interquartile range (or the largest/smallest value in the data if it is lower than 1.5 IQR); points represent outlying data beyond the whiskers.

CHAPTER 4

Modeling of rare flood meadow species distribution by a combined habitat-surface water-groundwater model

Johannes P. Gattringer*, Nadine Maier*, Lutz Breuer, Annette Otte, Tobias W. Donath, Philipp Kraft & Sarah Harvolk-Schöning Submitted manuscript (Ecohydrology)

Abstract

Floodplains are highly complex and dynamic systems in terms of their hydrology. Thus, they comprise a wide habitat heterogeneity and therefore harbor highly-specialized species. For future projections of habitat and species diversity, process-based models simulating ecohydrological conditions and resulting habitat and species distributions are needed. We present a new modeling framework that includes a physically-based, surface water-groundwater model coupled with a habitat model. Using the model framework, we simulate the occurrence of 23 flood meadow plant species in a Rhine River floodplain. To benchmark the data, results are compared to a conventional approach with simple spatial hydrological information. Our results show that models with predictors obtained from the surface water-groundwater model are significantly more accurate for rare and endangered species, as well as for typical flood meadow species. Therefore, we recommend including more specific hydrological information in habitat models of species in complex floodplain ecosystems.

^{*} These authors contributed equally to the work

Introduction

River floodplains comprise a large species diversity, and at the same time, they belong to the most endangered ecosystems worldwide (Ward et al. 1999; Tockner and Stanford 2002; Funk et al. 2013). In regards to their hydrology, they are highly dynamic and complex, because many different components, including surface water, groundwater, and precipitation, are interacting on high temporal and spatial resolution. The driving factor of eco-hydrological functions in floodplains is the connectivity and interaction of shallow groundwater with the surface water due to inundations (Hayashi and Rosenberry 2002; Krause et al. 2007).

In river-fed floodplains, the main driving factor of the water table is the river stage (Acreman and Holden 2013). The response time of the water table to changes in the river stage can be very rapid on a wide spatial extent (Jung et al. 2004). The antecedent soil moisture condition alters the water storage capacity of the soil and thus drives the flood extent, flood duration, and inundation height of water in the floodplain. The actual soil water conditions are not only affected by flood events, but also by previous weather conditions and the ability of the wetland to lose water through soil drainage, evaporation, and transpiration (Acreman and Holden 2013). This complexity in hydrological fluxes and stages is reflected in floodplain's habitat and species diversity.

Species composition in floodplains is influenced by the tolerance of and assimilation to inter-annual-variation of flooding and droughts, the duration and depth of flooding (David 1996; Mathar et al. 2015), as well as the groundwater regimes (Newbold 1997) not only within one year but also during the previous years. Flood meadows are amongst the most threatened plant communities in Central Europe (Joyce and Wade 1998; Finck et al. 2017). Numerous flood meadow species, also called river corridor plants, grow on such flood meadows. These species have adapted to the specific disturbance regimes of floodplains, but they are often rare and/or endangered (Burkart 2001).

Flood meadows are often protected, e.g., by the EU Habitats Directive in Europe, not only because of their diversity and threat of extinction, but also the additional ecosystem services they provide, including flood control. Numerous restoration measures have been implemented to help maintain the diversity of species-rich meadows. These measures primarily focus on the reestablishment of rare species (Donath et al. 2007; Engst et al. 2016). However, the complex hydrological conditions of the target areas (Malanson 1993) often pose a challenge to such restoration projects.

Plant distribution is strongly related to hydrologic conditions that should be considered during restoration, e.g., flood sensitive species occupy elevated microsites, whereas flood tolerant species occur in depressions (Vervuren et al. 2003; Jung et al. 2008; Ludewig et al. 2014). Thus, hydrologic conditions should be incorporated in the planning of flood meadow restoration projects (Gattringer et al. 2017).

Planning, decision-making, and projections for the future require models. Such models need to simulate hydrological processes, and based on this information, define potential habitat characteristics and species abundances. The requirements are high for a hydrological model to simulate the complex hydrodynamic interactions of a floodplain as outlined above. These models need to be capable of simulating water fluxes of and between different landscape components (surface water, groundwater, river water, soil storage, vegetation, and atmosphere) on a high temporal and spatial resolution (Lewin and Hughes 1980). Recently, Maier et al. (2017) presented a parsimonious floodplain model that includes these mechanisms. They used the Catchment Modeling Framework (Kraft et al. 2011) to set up a tailor-made, fully-distributed surface water-groundwater interaction model for the simulation of the height and duration of inundations as well as the flooding frequency, and they applied it to a nature reserve in the Rhine Valley, Germany.

Habitat models have proven to be an ideal tool for enhancing conservation decisions, especially when modelers and conservationists are working closely together, and thus modeling and decision processes are tightly interwoven (Guisan et al. 2013). However, in the past, it was considered a challenge to model the distribution of rare and endangered species (Elith* et al. 2006; Guisan et al. 2006); rare species datasets are mostly characterized by low occurrences, resulting in potentially over-fitted models when multiple predictors are included (necessary for describing the species' niches) (Lomba et al. 2010). A promising step forward to overcome this obstacle was made by considering model ensembles of small models (ESM) to improve the reliability of habitat models (Breiner et al. 2015; Breiner et al. 2018). Few studies have tested this novel approach, but not for rare flood meadow species (Di Febbraro et al. 2017; Breiner et al. 2018).

So far, only a few studies have used hydrological information to simulate the distribution of riparian vegetation or the occurrence of plant species in these regions. Mosner et al. (2011) employed average water level und water level fluctuation to model the distribution of *Salix* species on 400 km² along the Elbe River, and Leyer (2005) utilized a similar approach to simulate the abundance of 30 common grassland species in the Elbe River floodplain. Mosner et al. (2015) computed habitat models by

relating up to five hydrological variables with occurrence records of several floodplain plants along the Upper Rhine River. However, these studies only included static, interpolated hydrological information, such as average groundwater level or its standard deviation. Nevertheless, this does not reflect the actual dynamic hydrological conditions for the plants with varying length and height of inundation.

This study aims to overcome the static approach implemented in most habitat models. Instead, we propose an integrated model approach with biotic and dynamic abiotic processes. With this method, we are able to project species occurrences and habitat suitability in the light of decision-making, management, or global change studies. This study is based on almost 20 years of practical experience in flood meadow restoration, modeling of species distribution, and process-based hydrological model development. We hypothesize that

- dynamic hydrological predictors improve the credibility of habitat models for floodplains, and
- detailed hydrological predictors are necessary to accurately model species occurrence, particularly that of rare and endangered species.

Materials and methods

Study area and database

The study area (34.5 km²) is located in a Holocene floodplain in the Upper River Rhine approximately 30 km southwest of Frankfurt, Germany (N 49° 49′, E 8° 26′). The nature reserve Kühkopf-Knoblochsaue is the largest of its kind in the federal state of Hesse and is declared as a Special Area of Conservation (Council Directive 92/43/EEC) because of its particular importance for rare and endangered flora and fauna. The meander cutoff of the Rhine forms a loop around the Kühkopf island (19.5 km²), with a length of about 16 km (Fig. 4.1). Embankments for river regulation were installed in the 19th and 20th centuries. They divide the area into functional (8.5 km², west of the embankment) and fossil (6.4 km², east of the embankment) floodplain. The two parts vary in their river hydrological connectivity and characteristics, as well as soil types (Böger 1991).

The mean daily temperature is about 10 °C, and the mean relative humidity is 78% (2000–2015). The average annual precipitation is 700 mm (2000–2015). 2006 was a wet year with 925 mm, and 2015 a dry year with only 235 mm precipitation.

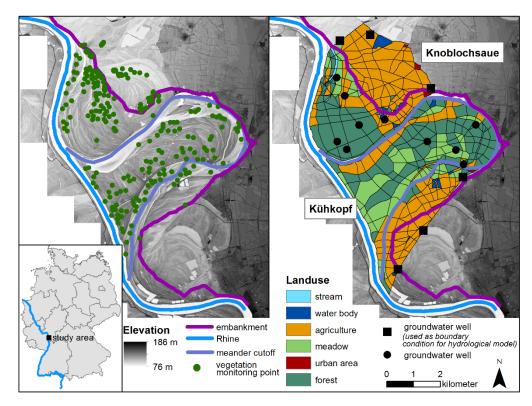


Fig. 4.1 Geographic location of the study area in Germany (lower left corner), digital elevation (Hessian Administration for Soil Management and Geographical Information, HVBG, Wiesbaden, Germany) of the study area with the location of vegetation observations (middle) and setup of the surface water-groundwater model (catchment modeling framework, CMF) with its irregular grid and land use, containing the locations of the groundwater wells (right).

The study area is dominated by a strong seasonal change between floods and droughts. Flooding occurs mainly from February to June and rarely in summer (Böger 1991; Hölzel and Otte 2004). The fine-grained calcareous alluvial soils have high clay contents. Soils desiccate rapidly after the drawdown of floods or high groundwater levels and available soil water content decreases (Burmeier et al. 2010). Flood duration and height vary considerably between the years as well as seasonally. The highest water levels between 2002 and 2013 were reached in April 2003 (87.1 m a.s.l) and March 2003 (86.62 m a.s.l, gauging station Nierstein-Oppenheim, 3 km downstream). All years during the study period had a flood event in the winter.

Meteorology

The meteorological data are provided by the Deutscher Wetterdienst (DWD) in daily time steps and include minimum and maximum temperature, mean relative humidity, mean wind speed, and precipitation. The meteorological data are used to force the surface water-groundwater model. Five meteorological predictors for the habitat model are directly generated from the daily precipitation records.

Hydrology

Weekly measurements of 15 groundwater wells are available for the study area (Hessian Agency for Nature Conservation, Environment and Geology (HLNUG)). Six groundwater wells are installed in the fossil floodplain and there are nine wells in the functional floodplain (Fig. 4.1). The groundwater level time series of the groundwater wells in the floodplain correlate, with a short time lag, with the water level time series of the Rhine. The flood signal smooths out with increasing distance from the river. In case daily water levels are needed, linear interpolation is used.

The water level of the Rhine River is obtained from the FLYS software (Flusshydrologischer Webdienst, German Federal Institute of Hydrology, BfG, Koblenz, Germany) for every 100 m along the Rhine River (values for river-kilometers 468 to 480 were considered).

Plant species

The 23 plant species used for modeling in this study (Annex 4 Table 4.A1) were target species in numerous restoration projects focusing on the reestablishment of species-rich flood meadows along the northern Upper Rhine (Donath et al. 2007). In total, 226 vegetation plots with information on presence and absence of target species served as basis for the habitat modeling (for further information on vegetation data, see Annex 4 Table 4.A1).

Integrated model setup

In the following section, the different steps implemented in this study are explained in detail. Figure 4.2 represents the main steps in the modeling process. The surface water-groundwater model depicts the main component for the hydrological representation of the floodplain and the basis for the hydrological predictors of the habitat model. The model is fed by data from the meteorological database and the digital elevation model, as well as other hydrological data (groundwater levels and river water stages). Alongside the hydrological predictors, meteorological and morphological predictors were also derived. After the identification of the best and most powerful predictors, the best 100 predictor sets were used for the calculation of ensembles of small models (ESM strategy).

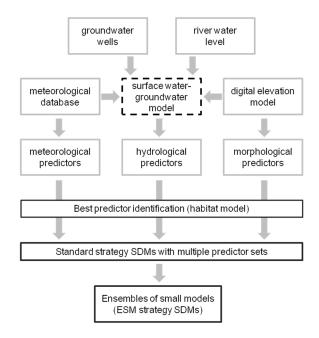


Fig. 4.2 Representation of the main steps of the integrated model setup. ESM=Ensembles of Small Models, SDM=Species Distribution Model. The grey boxes depict input data for the following steps. The black boxes indicate modeling steps. The surface water-groundwater model is described in the Methodology section (dashed black box). The solid black boxes depict the main results and are described in the results section.

Surface water-groundwater model

In order to simulate the high-resolution input data (temporal and spatial) of groundwater levels and inundation events required for the habitat model, we developed a spatially explicit, fully-distributed dynamic surface water-groundwater model. Full details about the hydrological model setup are described in Maier et al. (2017). In short, the model is built with the Catchment Modeling Framework (CMF) (Kraft et al. 2011) and includes the interaction of surface water and groundwater flow. As input data, the model requires daily stream water levels (in our case study, data from the Rhine River) and weekly groundwater levels at the upslope, daily minimum and maximum temperature and relative humidity for the estimation of potential evapotranspiration, and daily precipitation. The floodplain is split into the two regions Kühkopf and Knoblochsaue (Fig. 4.1). These are further subdivided into polygons (n=657) of different sizes (114-480,000 m²), based on similar elevation and land use. For simplicity, the polygons are not further discretized vertically. For each region, the water level of the Rhine and groundwater levels of three monitoring wells are used as input data (Dirichlet boundary conditions). Initial conditions, i.e., the water level of each polygon at the first day of simulation, are calculated using external drift kriging (Goovaerts 1997). To evaluate the surface water-groundwater model, we use observation data from four to six groundwater monitoring wells in each region. We ran 5,000 simulations following a Latin Hypercube sampling procedure to derive behavioral model runs. We receive a mean root-mean-square error of 0.25 m (Knoblochsaue) and 0.39 m (Kühkopf) for the different groundwater wells for the calibration period of 2.5 years (7.1.2002–30.6.2004), and 0.23 m (Knoblochsaue) and 0.36 m (Kühkopf) for the validation period of 9.5 years (1.7.2004–31.12.2013). As model output, we obtain the water level for the center of each polygon. We use the mean of all behavioral model runs to further estimate the hydrological predictors for the habitat model. The daily water level of each vegetation plot is estimated by inverse distance weighting. Hydrological predictors for the habitat model were calculated from the obtained daily time series of each vegetation plot.

Habitat model

Due to the large number of potential hydrological predictors, we follow a three-tiered approach in our modeling cascade to reduce the high computational effort of the final habitat model. As the first step, we identify predictor variables with high explanatory power. Second, we identify the best predictor sets using standard strategy SDMs (species distribution models). Third, we compute ensembles of small bivariate SDMs using the best predictor sets from the second step to overcome possible limitations of standard strategy SDMs due to low presence levels of the modeled species.

1) Best predictor identification

To identify relevant predictors for species distribution, we established single predictor SDMs for seven target species (i.e., Arabis nemorensis, Centaurea jacea, Inula silicina, Leucanthemum vulgare, Ranunculus acris, Sanguisorba officinalis, and Veronica maritima) with acceptable occurrence levels within the study area. These seven target species are representative for the total list of the 23 target species (Annex 4 Table 4.A1). We selected species with low (< 26) or high (> 50) occurrences in the database in combination with species of high relatedness to flood meadows (Burkart=1) or ubiquitous distribution ranges (Burkart=0). We computed generalized linear models (GLMs using the BIOMOD framework (Thuiller et al. 2009)) by relating predictors separately with presence-absence of the seven target species. To evaluate the models, we calculated Nagelkerke's R² value (Nagelkerke 1991) for the single predictor SDMs to identify predictors with a large explanatory power. Based on these results, we rejected predictors with little to no explanatory power (i.e., not among the best 50% for most species) or predictors with almost identical information.

The environmental variables used for the species distribution modeling are time invariant (Mieszkowska et al. 2013), whereas the water table and the meteorological conditions vary over time. The meteorological conditions are assumed to be the same over the entire study area. In contrast, the groundwater water table is not static over time or space. To overcome this issue, we transformed the time series into hydrological predictors.

For each vegetation plot, we generated 81 hydrological predictors (Annex 4 Table 4.A2). These predictors are based on various experimental studies (e.g., Van Eck et al. 2004; Gattringer et al. 2017, Gattringer et al. 2018) or observational studies (e.g., Leyer 2005; Mosner et al. 2015). We derived the hydrological predictors either for the entire year or only for the vegetation period, and we considered up to six years before the monitoring year, thus resulting in n=14 different variations. Beyond that, we identified five meteorological and nine morphological predictors. We used all predictors and time periods to perform single predictor SDMs. Consequently, we computed 1,213 single predictor SDMs per species ((81 hydrological predictors) x 14 time periods + 9 morphological predictors).

2) Standard strategy SDMs with multiple predictor sets

In the next step, we computed standard strategy SDMs with multiple predictor sets from the selected best predictor variables from the single predictor SDMs. Therefore, we calculated GLMs using the BIOMOD framework (Thuiller et al. 2009) for all 23 species. We used all possible combinations of predictors (i.e., predictor sets) that were not correlated according to the rule of thumb as set by Dormann et al. (2013), i.e., correlation coefficients of predictors from a set of 10,000 random points should not exceed 0.7. We calculated Nagelkerke's R² value (Nagelkerke 1991) based on a repeated (3 times) split-sampling approach, in which models were calibrated with 80% of the data and evaluated over the remaining 20%. We chose the best 100 predictor sets of each species for the subsequent modeling based on the mean R² over the three data splits.

3) Ensembles of small models (ESM strategy SDMs)

When computing models for rare and endangered species, which are fitted with a high number of predictors, model overfitting may occur. This overfitting can result in decreased generalizability of the models (Vaughan and Ormerod 2005). To overcome these limitations of standard strategy SDMs of rare species, we computed ensembles of small bivariate SDMs (ESM strategy SDMs) as described by Breiner et al. (2015), which means ESM strategy SDMs are based on a two-step approach. First, bivariate

models of all possible twofold combinations of predictors are calibrated and evaluated separately (i.e., by means of the area under the receiver operating characteristic curve; AUC (Hanley and McNeil 1982)). Second, ensemble models are computed and evaluated (by means of AUC and true skills statistic (TSS)) as a weighted average by means of Somers' D with a threshold of 0, where Somers' D = $2 \times AUC - 1$ of the bivariate models. This approach avoids overfitting without reducing the number of predictor variables and thus without loss of explanatory power (Breiner et al. 2015). We used predictor sets with up to ten predictors and computed ESM strategy SDMs for the target species. We utilized the R-package ecospat (Broennimann et al. 2016) and a 80:20 cross validation procedure (ten data splits) to calculate the AUC and the TSS (Allouche et al. 2006).

Model evaluation

As we hypothesized that the integrated surface water-groundwater-species distribution model would be superior in simulating species distribution of flood meadows, we rigorously tested our approach. Therefore, we compared model results calculated with hydrological predictors from the surface water-groundwater model with results of a habitat model using similar hydrological predictors, which have been derived from other data sources (i.e., different predictor calculation databases). In one case, we derived the hydrological predictors from daily water levels of the Rhine River and extrapolated to the floodplain (riv, Table 4.1). In the second case, we used the weekly measured groundwater data, and interpolated to daily time steps and extrapolated to the floodplain (gww, Table 4.1). This benchmark approach followed the same procedure as for the surface water-groundwater model. The meteorological and morphological predictors remained the same for both applications. Additionally, to account for the explanatory power of the hydrological variables alone, we also ran the habitat model without any hydrological predictors (nhy, Table 4.1).

To test for differences in modeling results between the predictor calculation databases, we calculated linear mixed-effects models according to Zuur et al. (2009) (function *lme* in the R-package *nlme*) (Pinheiro et al. 2017). Here, we chose a subset of the seven best predictor sets for every species and every predictor calculation database, because we wanted to identify the best predictor sets – and in the next step, the best explaining predictors. We used – as proxies for quality of habitat models – Fisher-Z-transformed AUC and Fisher-Z-transformed TSS as response variables, the hydrological calculation method as fixed effect, and the factor species as a random effect in the mixed models. We subsequently computed post hoc Tukey contrasts for pairwise comparisons (function *glht* in the R-package *multcomp*) (Hothorn et al. 2008). To

Table 4.1 Definition of the four predictor calculation databases used for the evaluation of the habitat model. The superscript indicates for which predictor the input data are relevant.

	Hydrological predictor	Included predictors	Used input data
	derived from		
sgm	surface water-	(1) hydrological	water levels of the Rhine River ⁽¹⁾ ,
	groundwater model	(2) meteorological	groundwater levels $^{(1)}$, DEM $^{(1),(3)}$,
		(3) morphological	meteorological data $^{(1),(2)}$
gww	groundwater wells (observation data, n=16, Fig. 4.1)	(1) hydrological(2) meteorological(3) morphological	${\rm groundwater~levels^{(1)},DEM^{(1),(3)},}$ ${\rm meteorological~data^{(2)}}$
riv	simulated water levels of the Rhine Riv er (FLYS)	(1) hydrological(2) meteorological(3) morphological	water levels of the Rhine River $^{(1)}$, $DEM^{(1),(3)}$, meteorological data $^{(2)}$
nhy	(no hydrological data)	(2) meteorological(3) morphological	meteorological data $^{(2)},$ $\mathrm{DEM}^{(3)}$

compare the influence of the predictor calculation database on model success for individual species, we then calculated ANOVAs for every species separately and subsequently computed post hoc Tukey HSD tests for pairwise comparisons.

Additionally, we accounted for possible impacts of rarity and Red List status of plants on model quality. To do this, we tested whether or not including the factors (i) Red List status in Hesse (Hemm et al. 2008), and (ii) the classification as a flood meadow species according to Burkart (2001) (Annex 4 Table 4.A1) considered as fixed factors in linear mixed-effects models lead to differences in AUC or TSS values.

Finally, yet importantly, we evaluated the relative frequency of hydrological predictors in the best seven predictor sets per species to account for their relevance. The habitat modeling, analysis, and data visualization were carried out in R 3.4.2 (R Core Team 2017) and ggplot2 2.2.1 (Wickham 2009).

Results

Best predictor identification

Based on the modeling results with the 95 a priori defined predictors (81 hydrological, 5 meteorological, and 9 morphological predictors, Annex 4 Table 4.A2), we selected 19 significant and differentiating predictors for multi-predictor SDMs. The

hydrological predictors can be grouped by their indication of drought, wetness, or inundation. A detailed description of the selected predictors is given in Table 4.2. The largest explanatory value for the individual predictors was obtained if the vegetation period of the previous six years (before the vegetation survey date) was considered. As a result, we used only this period for the 16 time-dependent predictors (PH01–PH15 and PM16).

From the 19 predictors (Table 4.2), we defined predictor combinations following the rule of thumb as defined by Dormann et al. (2013). As predictor correlations are likely different for each of the three predictor calculation databases (Table 4.1), we defined individual predictor sets for each predictor calculation database. The maximum number of predictors for a set was 10, 9, and 8 predictors for the sgm, gww, and riv predictor calculation databases, respectively. In total, 25,252 (sgm), 9,052 (gww), and 7,540 (riv) predictor sets were possible.

Evaluation of habitat model

Overall, the mean AUC was highest for the sgm predictor calculation database (0.83 \pm SE 0.006), followed by gww (0.82 \pm SE 0.006), riv (0.81 \pm SE 0.006), and nhy (0.72 \pm SE 0.008) (Fig. 4.3A). Evaluations of habitat models based on AUC were highly correlated with evaluations based on TSS (Pearson correlation coefficient = 0.94; p < 0.001); therefore, we present only AUC results. Linear mixed-effects models showed that models with hydrological predictors result in better evaluation scores than models without hydrological predictors (nhy, p < 0.001, Fig. 4.3A). Furthermore, AUC was higher for the sgm predictor calculation database in comparison to the riv and gww predictor calculation databases (p < 0.05). Habitat model performance also differed significantly for endangered and vulnerable Red List species (Fig. 4.3B), as well as when only flood meadow species according to Burkart were assessed (Fig. 4.3C).

Table 4.2 Selected predictors used as input data for the multi-predictor species distribution models.

Predictor	Description	Indication
PH01	Standard deviation of the groundwater level (m)	
PH02	Absolute range of the groundwater level (m)	
PH03, PH04, PH05	Longest period during which the groundwater level was less than 1 m / 1.5 m / 2.5 m below ground (days)	Drought
PH06, PH07	Longest period during which the groundwater level was more than 2.5 m $/$ 0.5 m below ground (days)	Wetness
PH08, PH09	Sum of days on which the groundwater level is more than $2.5~\mathrm{m}$ / $0.7~\mathrm{m}$ below ground (days)	Drought (Wetness)
PH10	Sum of days on which the inundation height was a minimum 50 cm (days)	Inundation
PH11	Longest period during which the inundation height was a minimum 50 cm (days)	Inundation
PH12, PH13, PH14	Sum of days on which the groundwater level was less than 50 cm below ground and the daily precipitation was less than 1 mm during the first $60 / 80 / 100$ days of the vegetation period (days)	Drought
РН15	Sum of days on which the groundwater level was less than 50 cm below ground and the daily precipitation was above 1 mm during the first 100 days of the vegetation period (days)	Wetness
PM16	Longest period of wet days (daily precipitation $> 1 \text{ mm}$) (days)	
PN17*	Height above sea level, derived from the digital elevation model (m)	
PN18*	Distance to the Rhine or the meander cutoff (m)	
PN19*	Distance to any water surface (distance to Rhine, the meander cutoff or lake) (m)	

 $PH=hydrological\ predictors,\ PM=meteorological\ predictors,\ PN=morphological\ predictors,\ ^*=time\ independent\ predictors\ (i.e.,\ same\ value\ for\ all\ years\ and\ periods)$

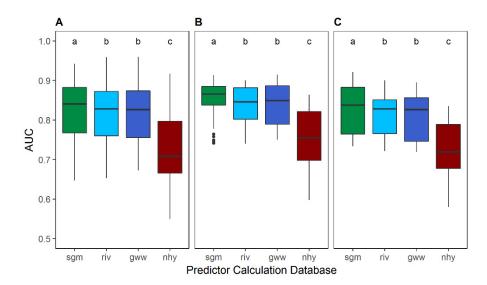


Fig. 4.3 Simulated area under the receiver operating characteristic curve (AUC) for flood meadow species without using hydrological predictors (nhy), using hydrological predictors derived from the surface-groundwater-model (sgm), measured groundwater data (gww), and simulated water level of the Rhine River (riv). (A) Results for all 23 species. (B) Results for endangered and vulnerable species listed on the Red List in Hesse (Hemm et al. 2008). (C) Results for flood meadow species according to Burkart (2001). Letters denote significant differences across predictor calculation databases (p < 0.05).

For single species, habitat models with predictors from the sgm database outperform other predictor calculation databases in almost half of the modeled species (10 of 23), followed by models with predictors from the gww (9 of 23) and riv databases (4 of 23) (Annex 4 Fig. 4.A1). ANOVA revealed that 2 out of the 10 species showed significantly better habitat model quality for the sgm input data. In general, models with hydrological predictors (sgm, riv, gww) significantly outperformed the models without hydrological predictors (nhy). Including hydrological predictors, and in particular, those resulting from the surface water-groundwater model, lead to better habitat model results. Therefore, from here on, we present only results of the habitat model based on the hydrological predictors obtained from the surface water-groundwater model.

Significance of individual predictor variables

A set of 19 predictors for the simulation of species habitats may seem large; however, given that we simulate vulnerable, endangered, and flood meadow species, specific predictors might be needed to project the occurrence for specific individual species. We therefore analyzed the occurrence of predictors for each of the 23 species. For both species groups (flood meadow species, and vulnerable and endangered Red List

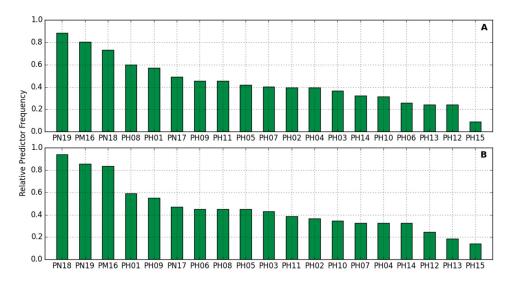


Fig. 4.4: Relative predictor frequency for all model runs separated for the (A) flood meadow species according to Burkart and (B) species on the Red List (vulnerable and endangered).

species), five predictors are used in over 50% of the model runs (Fig. 4.4), of which four are the same (PN19, PN18, PH16, PH01). For the flood meadow species, the predictor PH08 was used, and for the vulnerable and endangered Red List species, the predictor PH09 is used more frequently. Both predictors are based on the same measurement, i.e., the sum of days on which the groundwater level exceeds a certain level (PH08: 2.5 m below ground; PH09: 0.7 m below ground). The least common predictors for both species groups are predictors PH12, PH13, and PH15 (< 25%; Fig. 4.4). Nevertheless, predictors PH12 and PH13 are relevant in models of 5 Red List and 7 flood meadow species, and even the least common predictor PH15 contributes to about 10% of the habitat models (in 1 flood meadow and 3 Red List species).

Discussion

Relevance of hydrological predictors for flood meadow habitat simulations

The aim of our study was to assess possible options to include hydrological information in habitat modeling of flood meadow species. The significance of water level fluctuations and water level variability for ecological modeling of wetlands has been emphasized by several studies (e.g., Leyer 2005; Kopeć et al. 2013). We included hydrological predictors from a dynamic surface water-groundwater model in a habitat

model, and found a significant improvement of the model quality compared to habitat models derived only from morphological data (Fig. 4.3).

Only few studies have linked detailed hydrological variables to habitat models (e.g., Mosner et al. 2011; Mosner et al. 2015). Mosner et al. (2011) derived their hydrological predictors from a combination of river water level and groundwater data from the adjacent river (similar to our gww database), while variables in Mosner et al. (2015) were derived from a model of the adjacent river (similar to our riv dataset). Our results showed a significant model improvement when utilizing hydrological predictors from the surface water-groundwater model (sgm database) over the two other possibilities. We conclude that for rare species the complexity of habitat requirements can be better described with predictors from a detailed and spatially explicit hydrological model than with interpolated, measured hydrological variables.

Specialized species need specific predictors

As for most modeling approaches, it seems desirable to reduce the complexity of model input data to help simplify models. Mosner et al. (2011) and (2015) modeled species occurrence with only two predictors, i.e., water level and water level fluctuations of the adjacent river. Our results suggest that more (i.e., from 6 to 10) specific predictors are needed to simulate habitats and occurrences for the rare and endangered species. In comparison to the study by Mosner et al. (2011), we included more specified predictors (e.g., longest period of days with a specific water level or specific inundation height), and we showed that those predictors are used relatively often. For flood meadow species and vulnerable and endangered Red List species, two morphological, one meteorological, and two hydrological predictors (standard deviation and sum of days with low ground water level) are used in over 50% of all final habitat model runs (Fig. 4.4). Only three of the 19 predictors we identified are used less frequently than in one-fourth of all model runs. Nevertheless, they are relevant to predict the occurrence of all flood meadow and Red List species. Those three predictors refer to periods with dry soil in the first days of the growing period. Reversely, this means wet soil conditions are relevant for flood meadow species and especially for vulnerable and endangered Red List species. This is in line with Boswell et al. (2007), who designated the duration of saturation at the surface and at the saturation in the root zone, as well as the distribution of open water, as essential hydrological variables for modeling groundwater-dominated wetland habitats.

Our most frequently used hydrological predictors included values indicating dry conditions, wet conditions, or inundation length. This provides evidence that the habitat requirements of flood meadow species are complex. They are not only able to cope with flooding, but also with drought periods (Burkart 2001), and thus one requires multiple variables in order to properly represent this complex environment. Other than the hydrological predictors, two morphological predictors (i.e., distance to the river or water surfaces) are frequently considered in our habitat models. In literature, these predictors are seen as proxies for several factors (e.g., soil texture) (He and Walling 1998; Leyer 2005), which affect species distribution and are linked to the distance to the river. Thus, those morphological predictors are generally useful for floodplain species' modeling in case there is an absence of other data (Mosner et al. 2015). Furthermore, in our study, the distance to water seems to reflect the land-use legacies: The target species mostly occur on "original" sites (i.e., in close proximity to the river) where the ancient habitat conditions were sufficient for the plants to colonize, and they could persevere on these sites to the present, despite the strong impacts of land use in the past centuries (Böger 1991).

This study revealed that more specified hydrological predictors should be considered when modeling species' distribution, and that it is important from which data sources these hydrological predictors are generated. Chui et al. (2011) stated the importance of models for generating hydrological predictors, considering surface hydrology and surface water-groundwater interactions. Boswell et al. (2007) also believed in the great implication of hydrological modeling for planning and prioritization of wetland restoration. However, despite their suggestions, we are not aware of any integrated model approach that has been developed and successfully applied to simulate not only flood meadow species in general, but also the occurrence of rare and endangered species.

Conclusion and further applications

We conclude that habitat models achieve better results when hydrological predictors of a detailed surface water-groundwater model are included. Averaged over all species, the results are marginally, yet still significantly, better when compared to habitat models based on readily available observation data alone (groundwater level, river water level). However, a clear advantage of utilizing complex hydrological models for predictor generation is obvious for rare specialist species with complex habitat requirements. Particularly for such species, habitat models should include detailed hydrological predictors with high temporal and spatial resolution. We recognize two prominent fields, in which spatially explicit habitat models, like those developed in this study, are needed: (1) conservation planning and (2) global change studies.

In today's conservation planning, the decisions about whether a specific site is suitable and promising for restoration are often based on soft data and subjective appreciation. This method often neglects elevation or small-scale spatial variation in soil conditions. We question whether the current method of spending large amounts of money for such restoration without considering site-specific characteristics is the way forward. Applications of complex habitat models possess the power to improve conservation outcomes (Guisan et al. 2013), by identifying suitable habitats prior to management activities.

To evaluate the global change impact, such as land management and/or climate change, process-based hydrological models are a good choice. Our habitat model is capable of simulating changes in vegetation cover (selection of species, changes in land management), morphological characteristics (floodplain reconstruction, construction of embankments, river regulation) and climate (precipitation amounts and seasonal patterns, temperature affecting evapotranspiration). For example, it is possible to run the model with different land-use change scenarios (Maier et al. 2018). The resulting water levels can be integrated in the habitat models, and predictions can be made for species occurrence and recommendations for wetland restoration under the hypothetical and predicted land use changes. Furthermore, the hydrological model can be forced by climate change projections. Thus, hydrological predictors over several years in the near and distant future can be derived. The species distribution model can then be used to make predictions for future species occurrence (Elith and Leathwick 2009) and particularly for rare and endangered species.

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Annex 4

Table 4.A1 The 23 target species and indices used for the SDM.

Species	Burkart	RLS Hesse	DB presence	ELL F	ELL WF
Achillea millefolium L.	0	LC	95	4	0
Agrimonia eupatoria L.	0	LC	49	4	0
$Arabis\ nemorensis$ (Hoffm.) W. D. J. Koch	1	EN	20	7	0
Bromus racemosus L.	0	VU	25	8	1
Centaurea jacea L.	0	LC	25	indifferent	0
Galium boreale L.	1	VU	14	6	1
Inula salicina L.	0	NT	23	6	1
Iris pseudacorus L.	0	LC	15	9	0
Iris spuria L.	0	VU	15	7	0
$Leucanthemum\ vulgare\ (Vaill.)\ Lam.$	0	LC	51	4	0
Linum catharticum L.	0	LC	10	indifferent	0
Lotus corniculatus L.	0	LC	49	4	0
Lysimachia vulgaris L.	0	LC	21	8	1
Peucedanum officinale L.	1	VU	19	4	1
Prunella vulgaris L.	0	LC	43	5	0
Ranunculus acris L.	0	LC	64	6	0
$Rhin anthus\ a lector olophus\ {\bf Pollich}$	0	NT	11	4	0
Sanguisorba officinalis L.	1	LC	57	6	1
Serratula tinctoria L.	0	EN	13	indifferent	0
Silaum silaus (L.) Schinz & Thell.	1	LC	30	indifferent	1
Thalictrum flavum L.	1	LC	16	8	1
Veronica maritima L.	1	VU	20	8	1
${\it Vincetoxicum\ hirundinaria\ Medik.}$	0	LC	12	3	0

Burkart: classification as river corridor plant or floodplain meadow species (Burkart 2001); RLS Hesse: Red List status in Hesse (Hemm et al. 2008), Endangered = EN, Vulnerable = VU, Near Threatened = NT, Least Concern = LC; DB presence: species' presence in database (number of occurrences); ELL F: Ellenberg indicator value (EIV) for moisture (Ellenberg et al. 1991); ELL WF: EIV for alternating moisture conditions (Ellenberg et al. 1991). Species nomenclature followed Jäger (2017). In total, 226 vegetation plots served as a basis for habitat modeling; 78 vegetation plots (sampled 2011–2012) were taken from the KLIWAS project (Horchler et al. 2012) and 31 plots (sampled 2014) were derived from a resampling of restoration sites of the City of Riedstadt. To gain a spatially equaled number of plots over the whole study area we sampled 117 plots in 2015 and 2016. To avoid a modeling bias through spatial autocorrelation, we assured that the minimum distance between plots was higher than 50 m (Dormann et al. 2007).

 ${\bf Table~4.A2~{\rm All~a~priori~hydrological,~meteorological~and~morphological~predictors}$

Nr.	Description of hydrological predictor
01	Mean of groundwater level (m)
02	Maximum of groundwater level (m)
03	Minimum of groundwater level (m)
04	Standard deviation of groundwater level (m)
05	Range of groundwater level (m)
06	Sum of days with inundation (days)
07	Longest inundation period (days)
08	Maximum height of inundation (m)
09	Day after start of growing season, on which longest inundation period starts (m)
10	Day of year, on which longest inundation period starts (m)
11–13	Sum of inundation days in the first 60, 80, 100 days after start of growing season (days)
14–16	Longest inundation period in the first 60, 80, 100 days after start of growing season (days)
17–23	Sum of days with groundwater level below 30, 50, 70, 100, 150, 200, 250 cm below ground (days)
24-30	Sum of days with groundwater level above 30, 50, 70, 100, 150, 200, 250 cm below ground (days)
31-37	Longest period with groundwater level below 30, 50, 70, 100, 150, 200, 250 cm below ground (days)
38-44	Longest period with groundwater level above 30, 50, 70, 100, 150, 200, 250 cm below ground (days)
45–52	Sum of days with inundation height more than 5, 10, 15, 20, 30, 50, 100, 150 cm (days)
53-60	Longest period with inundation height more than 5, 10, 15, 20, 30, 50, 100, 150 cm (days)
61–63	Sum of days with groundwater level below 50 cm below ground in the first 60, 80, 100 days after start of growing season (days)
64–66	Longest period with groundwater level below 50 cm below ground in the first 60, 80, 100 days after start of growing season (days)
67–69	Days with groundwater level below $50~\rm cm$ below ground and precipitation $<1~\rm mm$ in the first $60,80,100$ days after start of growing season (days)
70-72	Days with groundwater level below 50 cm below ground and precipitation >= 1 mm in the first 60, 80, 100 days after start of growing season (days)
73–75	Longest period with groundwater level below 50 cm below ground and precipitation < 1 mm in the first 60, 80, 100 days after start of growing season (days)
76–78	Longest period with groundwater level below 50 cm below ground and precipitation >= 1 mm in the first 60, 80, 100 days after start of growing season (days)
79–81	Number of periods with inundation periods longer than 5, 7, 10 days

Table 4.A2 continued

Nr.	Description of meteorological predictor
01	Sum of precipitation (mm)
02	Sum of wet days (Precipitation $>= 1$ mm) (days)
03	Sum of dry days (Precipitation $< 1 \text{ mm}$) (days)
04	Longest period of wet days (Precipitation $>= 1 \text{ mm}$) (days)
05	Longest period of dry days (Precipitation $< 1 \text{ mm}$) (days)

Nr.	Description of morphological predictor
01	Height above NN (derived from the digital elevation model) (m)
02-03	Northness and Eastness
04-05	Northing and Easting
06	Distance to the Rhine River (m)
07	Distance to the Rhine or the meander cutoff (m)
08	Distance to any water surface (distance to Rhine or the meander cutoff or lake) (m)
09	Topographic wetness index

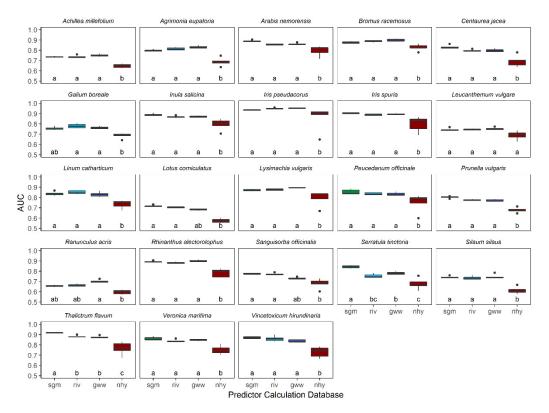


Fig. 4.A1 Comparison of model quality (area under the receiver operating characteristic curve, AUC) of 4 different predictor calculation databases for species distribution models for 23 target species of floodplain restoration projects. Predictor calculation databases: surface-groundwater model, sgm; interpolated water level Rhine River data, riv; interpolated groundwater level data, gww; non hydrological, nhy. Letters denote significant differences of hydrological calculation method (p < 0.05) according to ANOVA post hoc Tukey tests for each species.

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Abstract

Floodplain meadow plant species are particularly adapted to the specific environmental conditions (e.g., the interplay of flooding and drought) in the floodplains of Europe's large rivers. Numerous species of this set of species often jointly occur at floodplain grassland despite their ecological heterogeneity. The traits that cause the joint distribution pattern still have hardly been studied. This thesis deals with the flooding tolerance of selected floodplain meadow species with a focus on different key factors of floods. Furthermore, the spatial distribution of species based on (mainly hydrological) environmental variables was studied. Two experiments showed that increases in flooding duration, flooding depth and the combination of the two factors (i.e., intensity of the flooding effect) as well as the occurrence of a flooding event at young plant age (younger than ~4–6 weeks) result in severe limitation to seedling establishment. The combined effect of flooding duration and depth and often interactions in general have been underestimated in experimental studies so far. Hence, the results of these studies are difficult to compare. Using an interdisciplinary approach (disciplines: hydrology and ecology) a habitat model of 23 floodplain meadow species was developed. The species distribution was modeled by relating occurrence of species to several environmental variables (i.e., morphological, meteorological, hydrological). The hydrological predictor variables (e.g., flooding depth and duration) were generated from a hydrological model, which simulates the surface water-groundwater interactions with a high temporal resolution. Habitat models that include hydrological parameters from the hydrological model show better results for floodplain meadow species' distribution than models based on simple hydrological parameters. Habitat-suitability maps based on the habitat modeling were computed for the 23 target species. These maps could serve as a baseline for the target site selection of upcoming restoration projects (e.g., the reestablishment of typical floodplain meadow species). That enables an estimation of the restoration success in advance. Consequently, false investments of limited resources (e.g., freshly-cut, seed containing plant material, financial resources) through the restoration on unsuitable sites can be prevented.

Zusammenfassung

Stromtalpflanzen sind ideal an die Umweltbedingungen in den Auen der großen Ströme Europas (z. B. das Wechselspiel aus Überflutung und Trockenheit) angepasst. Viele Arten aus dieser Artengruppe kommen meistens gemeinsam auf den Auenwiesen vor, sind jedoch ökologisch überaus heterogen. Die Eigenschaften, die das gemeinsame Verbreitungsmuster erklären, sind noch weitgehend unerforscht. Die vorliegende Dissertation behandelt zum einen die Überflutungstoleranz von ausgewählten Stromtalpflanzen mit Fokus auf unterschiedlichen Faktoren und zum anderen die räumliche Verteilung der Arten auf Basis von insbesondere hydrologischen Umweltvariablen. Mit zwei Experimenten wurde gezeigt, dass eine längere Überflutungsdauer, eine höhere Überflutungshöhe und die Interaktion der beiden Faktoren (d. h. Intensität des Überflutungseffektes) sowie das Auftreten einer Überflutung bei geringem Alter der Pflanzen (jünger als ca. 4-6 Wochen) in starker Einschränkung der Jungpflanzenentwicklung resultiert. Der kombinierte Effekt aus Überflutungsdauer und -höhe bzw. Interaktionen generell, wurden in vielen experimentellen Studien bisher unterschätzt und diese leiden daher an fehlender Vergleichbarkeit. Anhand eines interdisziplinären Ansatzes aus Hydrologie und Ökologie wurde eine Habitatmodellierung von 23 Stromtalpflanzen erstellt. Das Vorkommen der Pflanzenarten wurde basierend auf verschiedenen Umweltvariablen (morphologischer, meteorologischer und hydrologischer Variablen) modelliert. Die hydrologischen Prädiktorvariablen (z. B. Überflutungshöhe und -dauer) wurden aus zeitlich hochaufgelösten Simulationen eines hydrologischen Modells, das die Interaktion zwischen Oberflächenwasser und Grundwasser darstellt, abgeleitet. Habitatmodelle, die hydrologische Variablen berücksichtigen, die aus dem hydrologischen Modell abgeleitet wurden, können die Artenverteilung von Stromtalpflanzen besser erklären als Modelle, die stark vereinfachte hydrologische Variablen enthalten. Auf Basis des Habitatmodells wurden Habitateignungskarten für die 23 Stromtalpflanzen erstellt. Diese Karten können zukünftig als Grundlage für eine Flächenauswahl bei Renaturierungsprojekten zur Wiederansiedlung der typischen Stromtalpflanzen dienen. Der Renaturierungserfolg kann dadurch besser abgeschätzt werden und Fehlinvestitionen (z. B. von begrenzt zur Verfügung stehendem Mahdgut bzw. finanziellen Mitteln) durch eine Renaturierung an ungeeigneten Standorten, können dadurch minimiert werden.

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Declaration

I declare that I have completed this dissertation single-handedly without the unauthorized help of a second party and only with the assistance acknowledged therein. I have appropriately acknowledged and cited all text passages that are derived verbatim from or are based on the content of published work of others, and all information relating to verbal communications. I consent to the use of an anti-plagiarism software to check my thesis. I have abided by the principles of good scientific conduct laid down in the charter of the Justus Liebig University Giessen "Satzung der Justus-Liebig-Universität Gießen zur Sicherung guter wissenschaftlicher Praxis" in carrying out the investigations described in the dissertation.

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Johannes P. Gattringer