UNIVERSITY of York

This is a repository copy of *Agri-environment conservation set-asides have co-benefits for connectivity*.

White Rose Research Online URL for this paper: <u>https://eprints.whiterose.ac.uk/161380/</u>

Article:

Threadgill, Katrina, McClean, Colin John orcid.org/0000-0002-5457-4355, Hodgson, Jenny A. et al. (2 more authors) (Accepted: 2020) Agri-environment conservation set-asides have co-benefits for connectivity. Ecography. ISSN 0906-7590 (In Press)

Reuse

Items deposited in White Rose Research Online are protected by copyright, with all rights reserved unless indicated otherwise. They may be downloaded and/or printed for private study, or other acts as permitted by national copyright laws. The publisher or other rights holders may allow further reproduction and re-use of the full text version. This is indicated by the licence information on the White Rose Research Online record for the item.

Takedown

If you consider content in White Rose Research Online to be in breach of UK law, please notify us by emailing eprints@whiterose.ac.uk including the URL of the record and the reason for the withdrawal request.



eprints@whiterose.ac.uk https://eprints.whiterose.ac.uk/

Agri-environment conservation set-asides have co-benefits for

2 connectivity

3	Katie R. D. Threadgill*
4	Department of Biology, University of York, Wentworth Way, York YO10 5DD, UK,
5	krdt500@york.ac.uk, ORCID iD: 0000-0003-3021-7465
6	Colin J. McClean
7	Environment and Geography Department, University of York, Heslington, York YO10
8	5DD, UK, colin.mcclean@york.ac.uk, ORCID iD: 0000-0002-5457-4355
9	Jenny A. Hodgson
10	Department of Evolution, Ecology and Behaviour, University of Liverpool, Biosciences
11	Building, Crown Street, Liverpool, L69 7ZB UK, jenny.hodgson@liverpool.ac.uk, ORCID
12	iD: 000-0003-2297-3631
13	Naomi Jones
14	Fera Science Ltd., Sand Hutton, York, YO41 1LZ, UK, naomi.jones@fera.co.uk
15	Jane K. Hill
16	Department of Biology, University of York, Wentworth Way, York YO10 5DD, UK,
17	jane.hill@york.ac.uk, ORCID iD: 0000-0003-1871-7715
18	*Corresponding author: krdt500@york.ac.uk

19 Abstract

Widespread declines in farmland biodiversity have led to state-funded schemes which take 20 land out of production to create (semi-)natural habitats for biodiversity (e.g. EU agri-21 environment schemes; US Conservation Reserve Program). Common features of such 22 schemes are grassland strips at the edges of agricultural fields, and we examine potential 23 co-benefits of these biodiversity set-asides for contributing to grassland connectivity. 24 Although set-aside strips had negligible impact on landscape-scale species persistence 25 (using metapopulation models parameterized for flying insects run on 267 landscapes of 26 \sim 30,000 ha across England), they nonetheless improved connectivity in 74% (198/267) of 27 landscapes (comparing landscapes with and without set-asides), as shown by range 28 expansion rates increasing by up to 100%. Benefits of set-aside strips varied according to 29 species type (high/low dispersal, high/low population density), but had little benefit for 30 species with low dispersal and small population sizes, which generally failed to expand. 31 High dispersal/high density species were already successful expanders regardless of set-32 asides (>75% of simulations were successful without set-asides) although expansion rates 33 were still improved when set-asides were added. Whilst alternative strategies for 34 placement of set-aside strips (more/less aggregated), revealed no consensus 'better' 35 strategy across species types, set-aside benefits were generally greatest in landscapes with 36 intermediate availability of semi-natural grassland (0.5-4% cover). We conclude that 37 small-scale set-asides have the potential to improve connectivity, which we expect to help 38 some species track climate change, and connect habitat patches within existing climate 39

space for others. However, set-asides are unlikely to benefit low dispersal species which
are probably at greatest risk from agricultural intensification.

42 Keywords:

43 Connectivity, agri-environment schemes, range expansion, metapopulation, persistence

44 Introduction

Recent centuries have seen a global transformation in land use as a consequence of large 45 scale land conversion of (semi-) natural habitats to croplands and pasture, which now 46 cover \sim 37% of land surface worldwide (Goldewijk 2001, Ramankutty et al. 2008). Changes 47 in land use towards agricultural production not only threaten biodiversity within 48 converted land (Foley et al. 2005, 2011, Newbold et al. 2015), but can also threaten 49 biodiversity found in remaining, isolated fragments of natural habitat (Crooks and 50 Sanjayan 2006, Hanski 2015). Biodiversity responses to habitat fragmentation are less 51 predictable than responses to habitat loss (Fahrig 2003, Hodgson et al. 2009), but habitat 52 networks which exhibit high fragmentation are at particular risk from threats from climate 53 change (Travis 2003, Oliver et al. 2015). Designing conservation strategies which increase 54 habitat connectivity should help mitigate these environmental stressors (Opdam and 55 Wascher 2004, Hodgson et al. 2011, Saura et al. 2014, Scriven et al. 2015), helping species 56 respond and adapt to climate change. In addition to distributional effects, increasing 57 connectivity is expected to be beneficial for many other important ecological processes, 58 such as facilitating gene flow (Cushman et al. 2006; Keyghobadi 2007) and allowing inter-59

patch movements so that individuals may acquire appropriate resources within their
lifetimes (Taylor et al. 1993).

The question of how best to arrange habitat within agricultural landscapes to conserve 62 biodiversity is difficult. Whilst much theoretical and empirical evidence suggests that large 63 blocks of continuous habitat are best for supporting viable populations under current 64 environments (Diamond 1975, Margules and Pressey 2000, Hodgson et al. 2009, but see 65 Ovaskainen 2002), this arrangement may not be optimal for conserving species under 66 climate change (i. e. species undergoing distributional shifts) if large blocks of habitat are 67 isolated from one another and dispersal between locations is therefore extremely rare. The 68 size and location of habitat patches is central to the persistence of metapopulations of 69 species in habitat networks (Hanski 1999), but the spatial location of patches which is best 70 for population persistence may not be the best landscape design for enabling range shifting 71 (Hodgson et al. 2011). Range shifts along latitudinal and elevational gradients (Parmesan 72 and Yohe 2003, Hickling et al. 2006, Moritz et al. 2008) are linked to habitat connectivity 73 (Krosby et al. 2010), and the addition of stepping stone habitat patches can facilitate range 74 75 expansion by linking larger blocks of habitat (Uezu et al. 2008, Kramer-Schadt et al. 2011, Leidner and Haddad 2011, Saura et al. 2014) despite contributing a relatively low total area 76 of habitat. Habitat connectivity may also help species adapt to climate change within their 77 current ranges, for example, if better connectivity increases gene flow and so facilitates the 78 spread of climate tolerant traits (Sexton et al. 2011; Kremer et al. 2012, although gene flow 79 can also have negative impacts on local adaptation – e.g. see Lenormand 2002). 80

Agri-environment schemes (AESs) are policy initiatives which aim to reduce negative 81 environmental impacts of agriculture by financially incentivizing farmers to carry out 82 specified management practices, and schemes of varying forms can be found across the 83 world, including in Europe (Arnalds 2011, Batáry et al. 2015), North America (Robinson 84 2006); Central America (Sierra and Russman 2006), East Asia (Zhang et al. 2008, Kim and 85 Banfill 2012, Nomura et al. 2013) and Australasia (Sobels et al. 2001, Wilson 2004). Many 86 AESs include provision for setting aside small patches of land within the agricultural matrix 87 such as set-aside buffer strips at the edges of agricultural fields, which provide habitat and 88 foraging resources for wild birds, pollinating insects and other agriculturally beneficial 89 arthropods (Landis et al. 2000, Marshall and Moonen 2002, Olson and Wäckers 2006), as 90 well as reducing runoffs of agrochemicals and soil erosion (Haycock et al. 1996, Snoo and 91 Wit 1998, USDA 2000). In addition, it has been suggested that these types of AES set-asides 92 93 could offer secondary connectivity co-benefits (e.g. Donald and Evans 2006), which could support species' persistence within current distributions, and/or improve species' 94 capacities to track climate changes across landscapes. 95

Here, we examine the connectivity effects of set-aside strips for species within semi-natural 96 grasslands in England. We examine connectivity within each of 267 20 km diameter 97 circular landscapes by modelling metapopulation persistence within each landscape 98 (metapopulation capacity; Hanski and Ovaskainen, 2000), and range expansion across each 99 landscape (progression of a simulated expansion from one edge of the landscape to the 100 other, using the Incidence Function Model; Hanski, 1994). Our models are parameterized 101 for flying insects, such as butterflies, which are sensitive to habitat fragmentation (Hanski 102 et al. 1995, Summerville and Crist 2001, Hill et al. 2001), threatened by agricultural 103

intensification (Thomas 2016, Habel et al. 2019), and have the potential to benefit from 104 small-scale AESs e.g. via availability of nectar and larval host-plant resources (Feber and 105 Smith 1995). We examine benefits of AESs for each landscape by comparing landscape-106 107 scale persistence and expansion in landscapes with and without the inclusion of set-aside strips, according to 2015 locations of AES options in England (Natural England, 2016). 108 Specifically, we examine the hypotheses that set-aside strips provisioned through AESs can 109 have a positive impact on the persistence and range expansion of metapopulations of 110 grassland species. We also test the hypothesis that the effectiveness of set-aside strip 111 patches is greatest at intermediate quantities of of non-AES semi-natural grassland habitat 112 within the landscape. Finally, we examine whether alternative spatial arrangements 113 (e.g. varying the spatial aggregation/increasing the area; see Table 1) of these small scale 114 set-aside patches could be more beneficial, testing the hypothesis that the current 115 distribution of set-asides is not optimal, because positioning was not designed with 116 connectivity in mind. 117

118 Materials and Methods

119 Study area

We assessed connectivity impacts of set-aside strips for grassland species within England,
UK. To split England into regional landscapes, we defined 267 non-overlapping 20 km
diameter (31,400 ha) circular landscapes arranged on a regular grid (Figure 1). The size of
our landscapes was chosen to be large enough to observe ecologically meaningful rates of
range expansion (recent northwards range expansion of UK butterflies has been calculated
at an average rate of 14.3 – 17.6 km per decade, Hickling et al. 2006), whilst small enough

to provide sufficient replication of study landscapes across England. We only included
landscapes for which the entire area is located within England's land border.

128 Mapping semi-natural grassland habitat and set-aside strip locations

Grassland habitat data were derived from the 2015 Land Cover Map (Rowland et al, 2017).
The LCM2015 provides 25 m resolution land cover data across Britain and from this we
extracted cells corresponding to semi-natural grassland (SNG) classes ('Neutral Grassland',
'Calcareous Grassland', 'Acid Grassland' and 'Fen, Marsh and Swamp') across England. We
aggregated these to produce a 500 m resolution raster representing the area of SNG within
each grid cell. The precision of AES data (see below) required the habitat data to be at 500
m resolution.

136 We mapped the positions of AES habitat recreation sites subsidized under the

Environmental Stewardship Scheme (ESS). The ESS was the agri-environment scheme in 137 England open to applications from 2005-2015, with landowner agreements (5-10 years in 138 length) running until 2025. We conducted all analyses on data for agreements live as of 1st 139 July 2015, before any agreements under the replacement post-2015 scheme came into 140 operation, therefore avoiding any hand-over effects on AES abundance or distribution. We 141 used a spatial dataset (Environmental Stewardship Scheme Options (points); Natural 142 England, 2016) which identifies specific management options operating within each ESS-143 managed field in England. We selected uncropped set-aside strips (41 separate set-aside 144 strip codes, Table S1) as a key type of commonly implemented AES option which creates 145 grassland habitat within agricultural land in England and which feature in AES across the 146 world. Within the ESS dataset, each field parcel containing an AES option (such as a set-147

aside strip) is recorded as a single point located at the centroid of the field. Each point is 148 associated with additional information, including the total area of the AES option within 149 that field. We extracted points representing locations and areas of all types of ESS set-aside 150 151 strip and mapped the area of set-aside strip within each 500 m grid cell across England. From these data it is not possible to identify the precise location of set-aside strips within 152 each field, but it is possible to quantify the total set-aside strip area per land parcel. 153 Therefore, we ran models at 500 m grid cell size, a resolution which allowed models to run 154 at as fine a scale as possible without introducing unjustified precision due to the 155 uncertainty in the precise locations of set-aside strips within fields (most fields in England 156 are <500 m). 157

158 Quantifying benefits of set-aside strips for landscape-scale species' persistence

We used the concept of metapopulation capacity (λ_M) (Hanski and Ovaskainen (2000); see 159 Appendix S1 for additional details) to assess species persistence within each of our 267 160 study landscapes. λ_M is a spatially explicit measure of the ability of a network of habitat 161 patches to support an equilibrium metapopulation, based on the size and position of 162 patches and the dispersal ability of a species. A non-extinct equilibrium occupancy solution 163 164 exists for the landscape if and only if $\lambda_M > \delta$, where δ is the persistence threshold value as determined by the extinction and colonization properties of the species. λ_M can be 165 compared between landscapes to assess the relative ability of networks of habitat patches 166 to support persistent metapopulations. We expect the addition of set-aside strips to have a 167 consistently positive impact on λ_M , but the magnitude of this impact will be dependent on 168 the amount and spatial context of habitat addition. Calculations of metapopulation capacity 169

are dependent on species dispersal ability and so we calculated λ_M for each landscape and set-aside strip scenario, for each of two species types varying in their dispersal ability, selecting values likely to span sedentary and mobile flying insects (low: mean dispersal of 0.5 km per generation; high: mean dispersal of 2 km; see Appendix S1 for details of parameter selection).

175 **Quantifying benefits of set-aside strips for range expansion**

We simulated the expansion of species across each of the 267 landscapes using the
Incidence Function Model (IFM; Hanski (1994); see Appendix S1 for additional details of
IFMs). Range expansions have been observed to occur in many directions depending on the
ecological context e.g. along climate gradients or in-filling within a species' range, and so
we simulated range expansion across each landscape along eight equally-spaced compassdirections (method adapted from Hodgson et al. 2011 & Scriven et al., 2019; Figure 1).

For each simulation (individual model run of expansion in a single direction), we created 182 'source' and 'target' habitat patches at either edge of the landscape, each of which consisted 183 of a single grid cell with 100% habitat cover. At the beginning of each simulation, the 184 'source' was the only occupied patch in the landscape. The simulation was run until the 185 'target' was colonized, or alternatively the metapopulation had gone extinct within the 186 landscape, up to a maximum of 200 generations (time steps; i.e. 100 years for bivoltine 187 species, or 200 years for univoltine species). Range expansion of British butterflies is 188 189 reported at an average speed of 14.3 – 17.6 km per decade (Hickling et al. 2006), and so we deemed 200 generations to be a sufficient timeframe within which to observe range 190 expansion across a 20 km landscape, if it was to occur. 191

The total grassland and AES habitat area within each grid cell was multiplied by the 192 population density to give a carrying capacity for each habitat patch. Once colonized, a 193 patch was assumed to be occupied at its carrying capacity by the next time step. As such, 194 the extinction probability of each occupied patch was defined as 1/n where n is the 195 carrying capacity of that patch. Within the IFM, the addition of set-aside strip patches has a 196 consistently positive impact on the range expansion; situations in which the 'no set-aside 197 strips' scenario performs better than scenarios which include set-asides are indicative of 198 the stochasticity of the model. 199

The progression of IFM simulations is dependent upon species dispersal ability as well as population density, and so we ran our simulations for four different 'species types'; high and low dispersal (see above; 'low' = mean dispersal distance of 0.5 km per generation; 'high' = mean dispersal distance of 2 km per generation) and high and low density ('low' density = 10 individuals ha⁻¹; 'high' density = 1,000 individuals ha⁻¹ (see Appendix S1 for details of parameter selection). Simulations were repeated five times for each of the eight source-target pairs (40 simulations per landscape).

The outcome of each simulation run was characterized as either a 'success' (the target cell was successfully colonized), an extinction (the metapopulation went extinct), or a 'timeout' (the metapopulation survived but failed to colonize the target cell in 200 generations). We re-ran simulations under reduced set-aside carrying capacity (50% of semi-natural grassland carrying capacity per unit area) to test the sensitivity of our results to our assumption that the quality of set-aside habitat was equivalent to other areas of seminatural grassland within the landscape (Figure S7). These results show that reducing the carrying capacity of set-asides reduces expansion success to some extent, but this is
dependent upon species traits and landscape scenario. Low quality set-asides (50% of SNG
per-area carrying capacity) provide very little benefit to the range expansion of low density
species (successful simulations increase by <1.2%). However, they can be effective at
improving expansion for high density species, increasing expansion success by 14.8% and
18.2% in low and high dispersal species respectively, compared to increases of 23.0% and
19.2% for 100% carrying capacity set-asides.

Assessing the importance of local habitat availability for small scale set-aside

222 effectiveness

We examined the relationship between semi-natural grassland cover within each 20 km 223 diameter landscape and the effectiveness of set-aside strips using a generalized linear 224 mixed-effects model (GLMM, binomial error distribution and logit link function, using the 225 *lme4* package in *R* software version 3.5.1). Due to the very minimal effects of set-aside 226 strips on metapopulation persistence (see *Results*), we only analyzed the impact of local 227 (within-landscape) grassland habitat availability on range expansion. We modelled the 228 response of the logit of the ratio of successes to failures of 40 simulations (five repeats in 229 each of eight directions) for each landscape/species type combination to the total area of 230 231 SNG and set-aside strip within a landscape. We only analysed landscapes with <0.6% setaside strip cover and <6.4% SNG cover due to extreme values driving negative covariance 232 between total set-aside strip area and total habitat area (188 of 267 landscapes studied). 233 Our GLMM had a random effects structure (random intercept only) featuring landscape 234 identity (to account for pseudoreplication because each landscape contributed two sets of 235

success/failure responses – simulations run with and without set-aside strips) and an 236 observation-level random effect to account for overdispersion. We then selected a 237 candidate fixed effects structure including effects of: % SNG cover (transformed by 238 239 log(x+1), % set-aside strip cover, species type, and the two-way interactions between these terms. We then performed backward stepwise model selection using likelihood-ratio 240 tests to determine the fixed effects structure. We found no spatial autocorrelation in model 241 residuals, examined by Moran's I where nearest neighbours are defined as the nearest 1,9 242 or 25 landscapes. We used the best-fitting GLMM to assess the benefit of set-aside strips 243 along a gradient of SNG cover by calculating the differences between expansion success 244 probabilities with set-aside strips (i.e. at 0.2, 0.4, 0.6% cover), and without. 245

Assessing the extent to which set-aside strip effects are proportionate to area

We further examined whether the contribution of set-aside strips to range expansion 247 success was disproportionate to their area or whether it was simply in line with 248 expectations given the scale of habitat addition. We plotted our GLMM to represent success 249 probability as a function of % cover of all grassland habitat (set-aside strips plus SNG), and 250 plotted alternative curves representing success probabilities for different proportions of 251 252 set-aside (0%, 1%, 5% and 10% of total grassland being made up of set-aside strips). Where effects are proportionate to area, we would expect success probabilities to be the 253 same, regardless of the composition of grassland in terms of SNG and set-aside strips. 254

In order to examine if alternative placement of AESs could deliver greater benefits for 256 connectivity, we assessed the persistence and expansion of metapopulations under five 257 different AES configuration scenarios: a baseline SNG-only scenario containing no set-aside 258 strips, and four scenarios with different placement of set-aside strip habitat patches (Table 259 1). Three scenarios ('current', 'random', 'aggregate') had the same area and frequency of 260 set-asides but varied their placement, whilst the forth scenario ('double') tested the effect 261 of increasing the area of each set-aside strip in its current location (equivalent to doubling 262 the width of every set-aside strip). There are many different scenarios we could test, but 263 these four allow us to examine both aggregation and area effects of habitat provisioning 264 through AESs. Details of set-aside strip scenario construction are outlined in Appendix S1. 265

All analyses were performed in R software version 3.5.1 (R Core Team 2018). 266

Results 267

268

Area of land managed as AES set-aside strips

Across England, 34,127 ha of land were managed as set-aside strips under the 269

Environmental Stewardship Scheme, equivalent on a national scale to 5.2% total grassland 270

area when mapped in combination with semi-natural grassland areas (total area = 624,598 271

- ha). Under the 2015 distribution of set-aside strips, total areas of land within study 272
- landscapes classified as set-aside strip varied from 0 to 368 ha, with a median of 63.8 ha (0 273
- to 1.17 % cover, median = 0.203%; Figure S1a), with other semi-natural grassland making 274
- up 0 to 23,652 ha with a median of 175 ha (0 to 75.3 % cover, median = 0.557%; Figure 275

S1b). The proportion of total grassland amount made up of set-aside strips had a median of
28.4% (Figure S1c).

278 Impact of small scale set-asides on metapopulation persistence

We found no sizeable benefits of set-aside strips for metapopulation persistence for either 279 low or high dispersal species (Figure 2A, 2B; median increase in metapopulation capacity = 280 0.003%). Regardless of exact position of the persistence threshold value (which depends 281 on the reproductive rate of a species), the inclusion of set-aside strips would not increase 282 metapopulation capacity sufficiently to facilitate landscape-scale persistence in otherwise 283 non-persistent landscapes in any more than 1% (3/267) of landscapes for any given 284 threshold, assuming a threshold > 0.00001 (a threshold which would represent extremely 285 high rates of colonization relative to extinction). 286

287 Impact of small scale set-asides on range expansion

Set-aside strips provided sizeable benefits for range expansion for three out of four species 288 types modelled (Figure 2C, 2D). Species with low dispersal and low density did not benefit 289 considerably from set-aside strips, with only 2% of landscapes exhibiting increased rates of 290 successful range expansion of >5%. By contrast, the other three species types benefitted 291 considerably from set-asides, with 30 to 48% of landscapes (n=267) showing improved 292 range expansion when compared with no set-asides, with some landscapes showing 293 increased rates of range expansion of up to 100% (Figure 2D, upper right, lower left and 294 *lower right*). We set our threshold for reporting set-aside benefits at 5% improvement to 295

range expansion success, but our conclusions remain qualitatively similar at higher
thresholds of 10% and 25% improvement.

298 Importance of grassland availability for set-aside effectiveness

We found that set-aside strips had a positive impact on range expansion for three of the 299 four species types we modelled, although the magnitude of benefit was dependent upon the 300 availability of non-set-aside grassland within the study landscape (Figure 3; Table S2). The 301 greatest benefits of set-asides were generally in landscapes with intermediate quantities of 302 grassland, as revealed by humped relationships between grassland cover and expansion 303 benefit (Figure 3B, *upper left* and *lower right*). However, strong colonizers (i.e. high density 304 and high dispersal species) showed greatest expansion benefits from set-aside strips where 305 grassland cover was low (all landscapes where benefits were observed had <1% grassland 306 cover) (Figure 3B, *lower right*). Even though species with low density and low dispersal 307 generally failed to benefit from set-asides, benefits were observed in a few landscapes 308 where grassland cover was highest (>3% grassland cover; Figure 3B, *upper left*). 309

310 **Proportionality of set-aside strip effects**

Using our GLMM, we examined the extent to which the effect of set-aside strips on range expansion was disproportionate to their area, by plotting success probabilities according to total grassland area under alternative SNG/set-aside strip compositions (Figure 3c). This illustrated that for one species type (low dispersal/high density), the effect of set-aside strips is disproportionate to area (at the same total area of all grassland habitat, success was higher when this was made up of a greater proportion of set-aside strips). For the other three species types, set-aside strips had no greater impact on expansion success than
an equivalent quantity of SNG.

319 **Testing alternative placement scenarios for set-asides**

The metapopulation persistence benefits of set-aside strips remained negligible regardless 320 of the placement of set-aside strips (i.e. aggregated, random or doubled; Figure S2). We also 321 examined how much additional set-aside strip area is required to substantially increase 322 metapopulation capacity given the current spatial placement of set-asides, by multiplying 323 areas of current set-aside strips by factors of 2, 5 and 10. We found that sizable increases in 324 λ_{M} are only found at 10 times the current set-aside areas, and these increases are limited to 325 landscapes with low values of λ_M in the absence of set-asides (i.e. those with low SNG 326 cover) (Figure S3). However, it may be that increases in metapopulation capacity could be 327 achieved through much lower total areas of set-aside strips if the spatial allocation of set-328 asides could be optimized among landscapes, rather than relying on the existing pattern of 329 set-asides across England. 330

By contrast, range expansion benefits were improved by alternative placement scenarios of 331 set-asides, compared with current locations, for species with high dispersal and/or species 332 which occur at high densities (Figure 4, *upper right* and *lower left*). However, there was no 333 consensus strategy for achieving improvements across species types because responses to 334 spatial arrangement were species-specific (Figure 4); extinction-limited species (low 335 336 density/high dispersal) benefited most from aggregated patterns of set-aside strips, whilst colonization-limited species (high density/low dispersal) benefited most from random 337 placement of set-asides. Doubling the area of set-aside strips proved the best strategy for 338

only one species (low density, high dispersal type). Thus, the optimal strategy for

³⁴⁰ placement of AESs to improve range expansion was highly dependent on species

341 characteristics, and increasing set-aside area was outperformed by strategies to improve

the spatial positioning of existing set-aside habitat (Figure 4, *lower left* and *lower right*).

343 **Discussion**

Increasing intensification of agricultural landscapes is reducing biodiversity (Foley et al. 344 2005, Reidsma et al. 2006, Newbold et al. 2015), and continuing habitat fragmentation is 345 reducing the resilience of populations in these landscapes (Thomas et al. 2004, Moritz and 346 Agudo 2013). Here, we find evidence to support our hypothesis that small scale 347 conservation set-asides, such as set-aside strips provisioned through state-funded AESs, 348 can improve landscape connectivity. Range expansion is observed at leading edges of 349 species ranges in many species responding to climate change (Hickling et al. 2006; Mason 350 et al. 2015) and our results suggest that set-aside strips could help facilitate shifts of this 351 nature. Connectivity is also important for many other processes such as in-filling within 352 species ranges, maintaining gene flow (Cushman et al. 2006; Keyghobadi 2007) and 353 allowing individuals to persist under challenging conditions within their existing range e.g. 354 355 moving to find suitable microclimates (Woods et al., 2015). By contrast to range expansion benefits and contrary to our predictions, set-aside strips did not benefit metapopulation 356 persistence within our landscapes. Metapopulation capacity closely approximates the sum 357 of contributions from individual habitat patches (Hanski and Ovaskainen 2000); our results 358 show that the inclusion of set-aside strips within landscapes has very little effect on 359

metapopulation capacity, and so we conclude that set-asides are insufficiently large tocontribute to increasing the equilibrium occupancy of landscapes.

Our metapopulation capacity analysis illustrates that set-aside strips have only negligible 362 impacts on landscape-scale persistence, whereas our range expansion simulations show 363 reduced rates of extinction for low density species when landscapes contain set-aside 364 strips. This apparent discrepancy is probably due to different spatial and temporal 365 processes in our expansion versus persistence models. Our expansion model simulates the 366 dynamics of a metapopulation given an initial pattern of occupancy, which in this case is 367 localised to only one grid cell at one edge of a landscape. This low, localised occupancy can 368 inflate initial extinction rates (90% of extinctions occur when populations have moved < 3369 km across the landscape and when no more than three individual grid cells have been 370 colonized; Figure S6). Under these extreme initial conditions, small scale-set asides do 371 appear to reduce localised extinctions for some species. Metapopulation capacity, on the 372 other hand, is used to calculate extinction thresholds and does this with no consideration of 373 initial occupancy, instead it considers the *equilibrium* occupancy expected in the long term 374 regardless of starting conditions. Our findings show that set-aside strips may stave off local 375 extinctions in small, isolated populations for long enough for range expansion to take hold, 376 but that set-asides do not facilitate long-term equilibrium persistence in whole landscapes 377 where metapopulations would otherwise be unable to persist. The mechanisms by which 378 set-aside strips benefit range expansion differ according to species' traits. For species 379 which are limited by high extinction rates (i.e. our low density/high dispersal species), the 380 presence of set-aside strips can prevent the localized extinction of small populations, likely 381 through a rescue effect. This allows range expansion to progress past the stringent initial 382

conditions of our simulations and, more widely, allows individual patches to resist 383 extinction long enough to contribute towards the progression of expansion. This is 384 supported by our finding that, with no change in total area, the 'aggregated' spatial scenario 385 improves upon the 'current' distribution of set-aside strips for range expansion rates for 386 this species because fewer, larger patches are better at resisting extinction. Further, it is for 387 these species that reducing the quality of set-aside patches has the greatest impact, because 388 it increases localized extinction rates. For species which are limited by their ability to 389 colonize new patches (i.e. our high density/low dispersal species), set-aside strips appear 390 to act as stepping stones of breeding habitat during range expansion. Stepping stones are 391 useful because they reduce the distances over which individuals must disperse to colonize 392 new patches, and we see that for this species, the 'random' scenario, which minimizes 393 inter-patch distances, is indeed the most effective. This benefit comes despite the fact that 394 the probability of extinction for low density species in individual set-aside strips is 395 relatively high (0.43 for each time step/generation for a median set-aside of 0.23 ha). It is 396 for this species only that set-aside strips have an impact over and above what is expected 397 based on their area alone (Figure 3c), likely due to the less aggregated spatial arrangement 398 of set-asides relative to SNG. 399

Range shifts in response to climate change are well documented (e.g. Walther et al. 2002,
Chen et al. 2011) and habitat availability has been shown to be a key factor influencing
rates of range shifting (Hill et al. 1999, Platts et al. 2019). Integrating stepping-stone
habitat within landscapes has been identified as an effective way of facilitating range shifts
(Hodgson et al. 2012, Saura et al. 2014, Hannah et al. 2014) and our study shows that agrienvironment options such as set-aside field margin strips can serve this stepping-stone

function for dispersal-limited species. However, it is clear that expansion is also dependent 406 on other species traits which influence localized extinction rates (Burton et al., 2010; 407 Lawson et al, 2012) and indeed we observe that for density-limited species, reducing 408 409 patch-wise extinction rates is most beneficial for expansion success. Whilst our models did not examine whether or not the expansion benefits of set-aside strips will be sufficient to 410 enable species to track climate fully (we do not model shifts in climate envelopes), our 411 simulations illustrate that AES options which introduce large numbers of small habitat 412 patches into agricultural landscapes can make a sizable contribution to connectivity. We 413 expect that current policies which incentivize the establishment of small-scale set asides 414 within agricultural land may help reduce climate-driven declines of farmland species by 415 facilitating range shifts and movement of individuals across landscapes, despite not 416 affecting landscape-scale persistence within a species' current range. 417

However, our results show that small-scale set asides are not universally beneficial across 418 different types of species. For species which are strong dispersers and occur at high 419 densities, range expansion is generally successful regardless of set-asides. For species 420 which are both poor dispersers and occur at low densities, set-aside strips are too small 421 and inter-patch distances too great to provide substantial benefit. We expect that many 422 rare species of conservation concern are poor dispersers with low density (e.g. 75% of 423 declining UK butterflies Fox et al. (2015) have been classed as sedentary by Pollard and 424 Yates (1994)). Therefore, small scale set-asides are unlikely to help conserve the most 425 threatened species, which will require species-specific habitat recreation and conservation 426 management. Hence, small scale set-asides may primarily benefit species with sufficient 427 dispersal ability (> 500 m mean dispersal per generation in our models) to colonize these 428

additional patches or sufficient resistance to extinction to survive within very small 429 patches (e.g. due to high population densities; >10 individuals ha⁻¹ in our models). 430 Connectivity benefits also vary according to the quantity of habitat within landscapes. 431 Previous studies (Tscharntke et al. 2012), have proposed that conservation management 432 activities such as habitat recreation (e.g. set-aside strips) should be most effective in 433 landscapes with intermediate structural complexity, i.e. landscapes with an intermediate 434 quantity of habitat availability. Our findings broadly support this hypothesis for range 435 expansion and show that focusing set-asides in landscapes with intermediate quantities of 436 semi-natural habitat is a good strategy for efficient allocation of conservation resources 437 (Concepción et al. 2008, 2012, Jonsson et al. 2015). Whilst targeting habitat addition to 438 intermediate landscapes may not be the best strategy for all species, very strong expanders 439 (high density/high dispersal species) are already successful without additional habitat, and 440 very poor expanders (low density/low dispersal species) struggle regardless of habitat 441 addition. Therefore, prioritizing set-aside strips within intermediate landscapes ($\sim 0.5-4\%$ 442 habitat) is a good strategy for maximizing range expansion benefits for those species for 443 which it is beneficial. 444

Our analysis uses patch-based metapopulation models which consider individual dispersal
events to occur without bias in direction, and without explicit dispersal mortality (except in
so much as dispersal frequency declines with distance), and these models have been
criticised for not explicitly considering these processes (e.g. Ruxton et al., 1997; Conradt et
al., 2000). As a consequence, our results will probably apply best to those species for which
habitat boundaries do not represent a significant barrier to movement and for which rates

of mortality during dispersal are low. The impact of matrix quality on movements between
habitat patches is complex; whilst for many species habitat-matrix boundaries may act as
barriers to movement (Mair et al. 2015; Scriven et al. 2016) and increase dispersal
mortality (Nowicki et al., 2014), for others, non-habitat matrix can increase movement
speeds (Crone et al. 2019). However, given that the relative importance of these processes
is unclear for most species, we ran our models under the conservative assumption that the
matrix did not affect dispersal or mortality processes.

Our models assume that spatial configuration, as well as the amount of habitat, is important 458 for determining metapopulation processes and species persistence. There is considerable 459 debate regarding the relative importance of habitat amount and configuration (the 'habitat 460 amount hypothesis'; reviewed by Villard & Metzger, 2014), with some suggesting that 461 habitat amount alone can explain patterns in e.g. species persistence (Fahrig, 2013). 462 463 However, there is also empirical evidence to support the importance of spatial configuration for both species persistence and range expansion in many circumstances (e.g. 464 Lawson et al., 2012; Saura et al., 2013; Hanski et al., 2017). Arguably, much of the 465 disagreement may be driven by changes in the relative effect of configuration versus 466 amount along gradients of habitat quantity (Villard & Metzger, 2013). Patch-based 467 metapopulation models of the kind used in this study have been used to predict the 468 occupancy and movement of real-life species, particularly butterflies, within landscapes 469 where habitat cover is relatively low and highly fragmented (e.g. Hanski & Ovaskainen, 470 2000; Wilson et al., 2010; Hanski et al., 2017), and so we expect these models to also 471 produce realistic predictions in our study system. 472

This study represents a theoretical analysis of the contributions of AES set-aside strips to 473 species persistence and connectivity. Our analysis is based only on those set-aside strips 474 provisioned through AESs; doubtless there are many field margins and grassy verges that 475 476 may also contribute to connectivity, but these have yet to be comprehensively mapped across England. An empirical validation of our findings could be achieved by examining 477 changes in species distributions over time, using citizen science occurrence records (e.g. 478 UKCEH Biological Records Centre data), specifically examining changes in landscape 479 occupancy and rates of range expansion in relation to local set-aside availability. Our range 480 expansion results do align with empirical assessments of distributional shifts within the UK 481 which highlight the importance of additional habitat at the leading edge of expansions for a 482 diverse range of taxa including grassland flying insects (Platts et al., 2019), and that for 483 certain species, small amounts of extra habitat can have big effects on range expansion (Hill 484 485 et al., 2001). National AES programs are expensive and environmental subsidies should be carefully designed to make best use of public funds. In testing how well the existing 486 distribution of set-aside strips fares against alternative strategies of spatial distribution, we 487 found that altering the aggregation or area of set-aside strips could substantially improve 488 range expansion, but there was no clear consensus on which strategy was universally 489 better. Previous studies surveying biodiversity in AES habitat restoration sites have shown 490 that sites located close to source habitat (i.e. with reduced isolation) show greater species 491 abundance and diversity (Knop et al., 2010; Alison et al., 2016) but it is generally unclear 492 493 whether AES sites act as ecological sinks, or support source populations. Our simulations illustrate that reduced inter-patch distances are beneficial for dispersal limited species (i.e. 494 our random scenario), but in situations where trade-offs are necessary between inter-patch 495

distances and aggregation, prioritising proximity could be costly for low density species.
Species-specific responses to set-asides are likely to affect conclusions about the extent to
which land set-aside for nature is better integrated within or aggregated away from
agricultural production (e.g. Fischer et al. 2008, Phalan et al. 2011), and we suggest that
issues of landscape connectivity should be better considered in these discussions.

501 **Conclusions**

Our results show that agri-environmental conservation interventions can have important 502 biodiversity co-benefits for connectivity and improve the extent to which species are able 503 to traverse landscapes and thus respond to changes in environmental conditions despite 504 having minimal impact on metapopulation persistence. The magnitude of range expansion 505 benefits are not universal across species or landscapes, but can be considerable (e.g. up to 506 100% improvement in range expansion in highly dispersive species). Thus, land 507 management activities can have important landscape connectivity co-benefits which 508 should be carefully weighed up in the evaluation of environmental policies and the design 509 of future schemes. 510

511 Acknowledgements

We thank the Subject Editor and two anonymous reviewers for their valuable comments
which helped to improve the manuscript. We also thank Peter Mayhew and Colin Beale for
useful discussions and Chris Thomas for his valuable comments on a previous draft of this
paper. KRDT was supported by the Natural Environment Research Council (NERC) UK
(Grant No. NE/L002450/1).

517 Author contributions

- 518 KRDT, JKH, CJM, JAH and NJ designed the research. JAH provided code for metapopulation
- 519 models. KRDT ran the models, analyzed the data. KRDT wrote the initial draft of the paper
- 520 with contributions from all authors.

521 Tables

- 522 Table 1: Summary of the five habitat configuration scenarios, including one baseline (no set-
- 523 aside strip) scenario and four alternative set-aside strip configuration scenarios. (SNG: semi-
- 524 natural grassland; ESS: Environmental Stewardship Scheme).

Scenario	Description	Total set-aside strip area (Ha)	Mean nearest neighbor distance (set- aside strip patches only, km)
No set-aside strips	SNG only	0	n.a.
Current set- aside strips	SNG + ESS set-aside strips	34,127	1.221
Randomized set- aside strips	SNG + ESS set-aside strips redistributed randomly	34,127	0.941
Aggregated set- aside strips	SNG + ESS set-aside strips aggregated into a single patch positioned in the location of one of the existing set-aside strips (selected randomly)	34,127	2.526
Doubled set- aside strips	SNG + ESS set-aside strips doubled in area (i.e. doubled width of every set-aside strip)	68,254	1.221

525

526 Figures

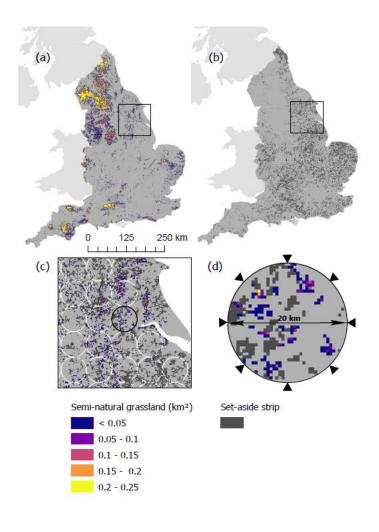


Figure 1: Maps of study design and landscape contexts (500m resolution). (a) The
distribution of semi-natural grassland (SNG) cover within England, UK. (b) The distribution
of set-aside strip-containing gridcells. (c) An example region indicating the layout of 20 km
diameter circular landscapes (n=267). (d) An example landscape. Arrows indicate the eight
compass directions in which expansion is tested within simulations (5 repeats per
direction).

527

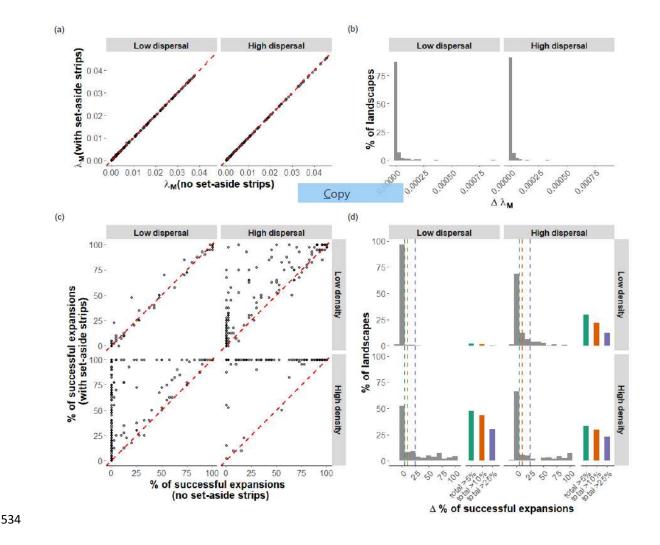
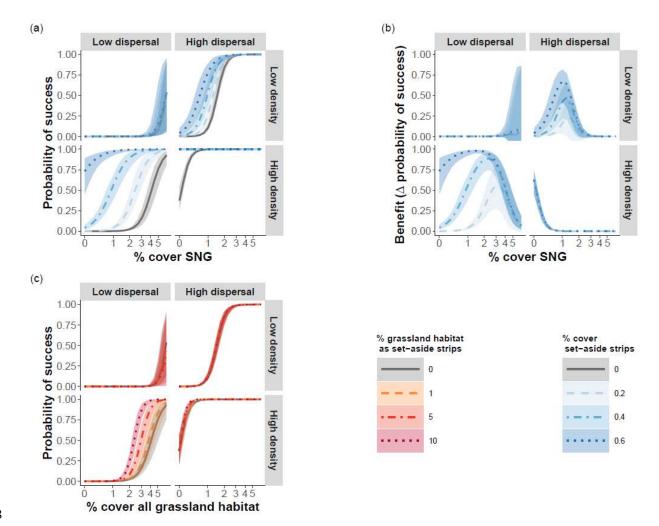


Figure 2. The impacts of the current distribution of set-aside strips on species persistence 535 (a-b) and range expansion (c-d) for each species type (low/high dispersal = mean dispersal 536 of 0.5km / 2 km; low/high density = 10 / 1,000 individuals ha-1). (a) Metapopulation 537 capacity (λ_{M}) of landscapes in the presence and absence of set-aside strips. Red dashed line 538 indicates 1:1 line of no change. (b) Distribution of changes in metapopulation capacity 539 540 across landscapes ($\Delta \lambda_{M} = \lambda_{M}$ [with set-aside strips])- λ_{M} [without set-aside strips]). (c) Range expansion (measured as percentage of successful cross-landscape expansions within the 541 IFM; 40 simulations per landscape) in the presence and absence of set-aside strips for each 542 species type. Red dashed line indicates 1:1 line of no change. (d) Distribution of changes in 543

- 544 expansion success across landscapes. Green, orange and purple dashed lines indicate
- thresholds of 5%, 10% and 25% respectively, and the total percentage of landscapes
- exhibiting increases in expansion success above these thresholds are indicated by green,
- 547 orange and purple bars.



548

Figure 3. The impact of habitat cover on range expansion benefits of set-aside strips. (a) 549 The relationship between cover of semi-natural grassland (SNG) and the probability of 550 successful landscape crossing, as modelled using a generalized linear mixed-effects model, 551 across four species types and for different quantities of set-aside strip addition. (b) The 552 benefit of set-aside strip addition, where benefit is defined as the change in the probability 553 of successful crossing after set-aside strip addition, calculated by subtracting the success 554 probability of 0% set-aside strip addition from each of the other curves. (c) Probability of 555 successful range expansion plotted as a function of % cover of all grassland habitat (SNG 556

- and set-aside strips). Alternative lines illustrate grassland habitat made up of a varying
- proportions of set-aside strips relative to SNG (0%, 1%, 5% and 10% set-aside strips).
- 559 Shaded areas indicate 95% confidence intervals calculated by bootstrapping with 1,000
- 560 resamples.

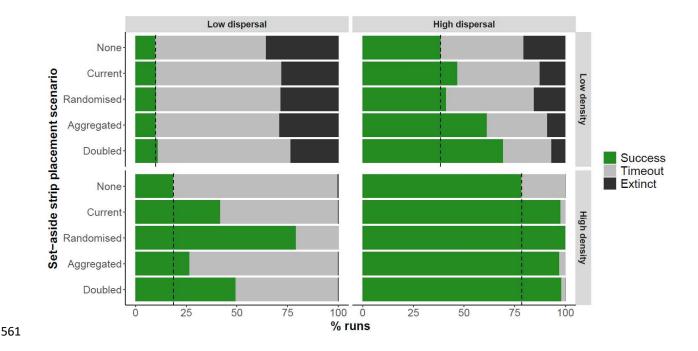


Figure 4. The effect of alternative set-aside strip configuration scenarios on the outcome of 562 simulation runs, for each of the four species types. The outcome of each run was classified 563 as either an extinction (the metapopulation went globally extinct), a timeout (the 564 metapopulation survived the 200 generations of the simulation but failed to colonize the 565 'target' cell) or a success (the metapopulation successfully colonized the 'target' cell). Each 566 species type was simulated 10,680 times under each scenario (267 landscapes x 8 567 directions x 5 repeats). Dashed lines indicate the baseline proportion of successful 568 simulation runs when no set-aside strips are present. 569

570 **References**

Alison, J. et al. 2016. Spatial targeting of habitat creation has the potential to improve agrienvironment scheme outcomes for macro-moths (J Scott MacIvor, Ed.). - J. Appl. Ecol. 53:
1814–1822.

- Arnalds, A. 2011. Farmers heal the land: a social license for agriculture in Iceland. In:
- 575 Williams, J. and Martin, P. (eds), Defending the social licence of farming: Issues, challenges

and new directions for agriculture. ERA collection. CSIRO PUBLISHING, ppp. 83–92.

- 577 Batáry, P. et al. 2015. The role of agri-environment schemes in conservation and
- environmental management: European Agri-Environment schemes. Conserv. Biol. 29:

579 1006–1016.

- Chen, I.-C. et al. 2011. Rapid Range Shifts of Species Associated with High Levels of Climate
 Warming. Science 333: 1024–1026.
- 582 Concepción, E. D. et al. 2008. Effects of landscape complexity on the ecological effectiveness
- of agri-environment schemes. Landsc. Ecol. 23: 135–148.
- 584 Concepción, E. D. et al. 2012. Interactive effects of landscape context constrain the
- effectiveness of local agri-environmental management. J. Appl. Ecol. 49: 695–705.
- 586 Conradt, L. et al. 2000. Non-random dispersal in the butterfly Maniola jurtina: implications
- for metapopulation models. Proceedings of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences 267:
- 588 1505–1510.Crone, E. E. et al. 2019. Faster movement in nonhabitat matrix promotes range
- shifts in heterogeneous landscapes. Ecology 100: e02701.

- 590 Crooks, K. R. and Sanjayan, M. 2006. Connectivity conservation: maintaining connections
 591 for nature. Connectivity Conservation: 1–20.
- 592 Cushman, S. A. et al. 2006. Gene flow in complex landscapes: Testing multiple hypotheses
- with causal modeling. Am. Nat. 168: 486–499.
- Diamond, J. M. 1975. The island dilemma: Lessons of modern biogeographic studies for the
 design of natural reserves. Biol. Conserv. 7: 129–146.
- 596 Donald, P. F. and Evans, A. D. 2006. Habitat connectivity and matrix restoration: The wider
- implications of agri-environment schemes. J. Appl. Ecol. 43: 209–218.
- Fahrig, L. 2003. Effects of habitat fragmentation on biodiversity. Annu. Rev. Ecol. Evol.
 Syst. 34: 487–515.
- Fahrig, L. 2013. Rethinking patch size and isolation effects: the habitat amount hypothesis
- 601 (K Triantis, Ed.). J. Biogeogr. 40: 1649–1663.
- Feber, R. E. and Smith, H. 1995. Butterfly conservation on arable farmland. In: Pullin, A. S.
- (ed), Ecology and conservation of butterflies. Springer Netherlands, ppp. 84–97.
- ⁶⁰⁴ Fischer, J. et al. 2008. Should agricultural policies encourage land sparing or wildlife-
- friendly farming? Front. Ecol. Environ. 6: 380–385.
- Foley, J. A. et al. 2005. Global Consequences of Land Use. Science 309: 570–574.
- Foley, J. A. et al. 2011. Solutions for a cultivated planet. Nature 478: 337–342.

- Fox, R. et al. 2015. The State of the UK's Butterflies 2015. Butterfly Conservation and the
- 609 Centre for Ecology & Hydrology, Wareham, Dorset. URL: https://butterfly-
- conservation.org/sites/default/files/soukb-2015.pdf. Accessed: 16/01/2020
- Goldewijk, K. K. 2001. Estimating global land use change over the past 300 years. Global
- 612 Biogeochem. Cycles 15: 417–433.
- Habel, J. C. et al. 2019. Agricultural intensification drives butterfly decline (R Didham and P
- Batary, Eds.). Insect Conserv. Divers. in press.
- Hannah, L. et al. 2014. Fine-grain modeling of species' response to climate change:
- Holdouts, stepping-stones, and microrefugia. Trends Ecol. Evol. 29: 390–397.
- Hanski, I. 1994. A Practical Model of Metapopulation Dynamics. J. Anim. Ecol. 63: 151–162.
- Hanski, I. 1999. Habitat Connectivity, Habitat Continuity and Metapopulations in Dynamic
- 619 Landscapes. Oikos 87: 209–219.
- Hanski, I. 2015. Habitat fragmentation and species richness. J. Biogeogr. 42: 989–993.
- Hanski, I. and Ovaskainen, O. 2000. The metapopulation capacity of a fragmented
- 622 landscape. Nature 404: 755–758.
- Hanski, I. et al. 2017. Ecological and genetic basis of metapopulation persistence of the
- Glanville fritillary butterfly in fragmented landscapes. Nat. Commun. 8: 14504.Hanski, I. et
- al. 1995. Metapopulation persistence of an endangered bytterfly in a fragmented landscape.
- 626 Oikos 72: 21–28.

- 627 Haycock, N. et al. 1996. Buffer zones: Their processes and potential in water protection. -
- The proceedings of the international conference on buffer zones: 33.
- Hickling, R. et al. 2006. The distributions of a wide range of taxonomic groups are
- expanding polewards. Glob. Chang. Biol. 12: 450–455.
- Hill, J. K. et al. 2001. Impacts of landscape structure on butterfly range expansion. Ecol.
 Lett. 4: 313–321.
- Hodgson, J. A. et al. 2009. Climate change, connectivity and conservation decision making:
- 634 Back to basics. J. Appl. Ecol. 46: 964–969.
- Hodgson, J. A. et al. 2011. Habitat re-creation strategies for promoting adaptation of species
 to climate change. Conservation Letters 4: 289–297.
- Hodgson, J. A. et al. 2012. The Speed of Range Shifts in Fragmented Landscapes. PLoS One,
 7, e47141.
- Jonsson, M. et al. 2015. Experimental evidence that the effectiveness of conservation
- biological control depends on landscape complexity (Y Clough, Ed.). J. Appl. Ecol. 52:
- 641 1274–1282.
- Keyghobadi, N. 2007. The genetic implications of habitat fragmentation for animals. Can. J.
 Zool. 85: 1049–1064.
- 644 Kim, C.-G. and Banfill, J. 2012. A policy evaluation of Environmentally Friendly Direct
- Payment Programme in Korea. In: Oecd (ed), Evaluation of agri-environmental policies.
- 646 OECD Publishing, pp. 254p.

- Knop, E. et al. 2011. Effect of Connectivity Between Restoration Meadows on Invertebrates
 with Contrasting Dispersal Abilities. Restor. Ecol. 19: 151–159.
- 649 Kramer-Schadt, S. et al. 2011. Analyzing the effect of stepping stones on target patch
- colonisation in structured landscapes for eurasian lynx. Landsc. Ecol. 26: 501–513.
- Kremer, A. et al. 2012. Long-distance gene flow and adaptation of forest trees to rapid
- climate change. Ecol. Lett. 15: 378–392.
- Krosby, M. et al. 2010. Ecological connectivity for a changing climate. Conserv. Biol. 24:
 1686–1689.
- Landis, D. A. et al. 2000. Habitat management to conserve natural enemies of arthropod
 pests in agriculture. Annu. Rev. Entomol. 45: 175–201.
- Lawson, C. R. et al. 2012. Local and landscape management of an expanding range margin

under climate change. - J. Appl. Ecol. 49: 552–561.

- Leidner, A. K. and Haddad, N. M. 2011. Combining measures of dispersal to identify
- 660 conservation strategies in fragmented landscapes: Dispersal in fragmented landscapes. -
- 661 Conserv. Biol. 25: 1022–1031.
- Lenormand, T. 2002. Gene flow and the limits to natural selection. Trends Ecol. Evol. 17:183–189.
- Mair, L. et al. 2015. Quantifying the activity levels and behavioural responses of butterfly
- species to habitat boundaries. Ecol. Entomol. 40: 823–828.Margules, C. R. and Pressey, R.
- L. 2000. Systematic conservation planning. Nature 405: 243–253.

- Marshall, E. J. P. and Moonen, A. C. 2002. Field margins in northern europe: Their functions
 and interactions with agriculture. Agric. Ecosyst. Environ. 89: 5–21.
- 669 Moritz, C. and Agudo, R. 2013. The future of species under climate change: Resilience or
- 670 decline? Science 341: 504–508.
- 671 Moritz, C. et al. 2008. Impact of a century of climate change on small-mammal communities
- in yosemite national park, USA. Science 322: 261–264.
- Newbold, T. et al. 2015. Global effects of land use on local terrestrial biodiversity. Nature
 520: 45–50.
- Nomura, H. et al. 2013. Framework for improvement of farmland biodiversity in Japan. J.
- Environ. Planning Manage. 56: 743–758.
- Nowicki, P. et al. 2014. Butterfly dispersal in inhospitable matrix: Rare, risky, but long-
- 678 distance. Landsc. Ecol. 29: 401–412.
- Oliver, T. H. et al. 2015. Interacting effects of climate change and habitat fragmentation on
- drought-sensitive butterflies. Nat. Clim. Chang. 5: 941–946.
- Olson, D. M. and Wäckers, F. L. 2006. Management of field margins to maximize multiple
- ecological services: Field margins and maximizing ecological services. J. Appl. Ecol. 44: 13–
- 683 21.
- 684 Opdam, P. and Wascher, D. 2004. Climate change meets habitat fragmentation: Linking
- landscape and biogeographical scale levels in research and conservation. Biol. Conserv.
- 686 117: 285–297.

- Ovaskainen, O. 2002. Long-term persistence of species and the SLOSS problem. J. Theor.
 Biol. 218: 419–433.
- Parmesan, C. and Yohe, G. 2003. A globally coherent fingerprint of climate change impacts
 across natural systems. Nature 421: 37–42.
- ⁶⁹¹ Phalan, B. et al. 2011. Reconciling Food Production and Biodiversity Conservation: Land
- 692 Sharing and Land Sparing Compared. Science 333: 1289–1291.
- ⁶⁹³ Platts, P. J. et al. 2019. Habitat availability explains variation in climate-driven range shifts
- across multiple taxonomic groups. Sci. Rep. 9: 15039.
- Pollard, E. and Yates, T. J. 1994. Monitoring butterflies for ecology and conservation: The
- ⁶⁹⁶ british butterfly monitoring scheme. Springer Science & Business Media.
- Ramankutty, N. et al. 2008. Farming the planet: 1. Geographic distribution of global
- agricultural lands in the year 2000. Global Biogeochem. Cycles 22: 1–19.
- Reidsma, P. et al. 2006. Impacts of land-use change on biodiversity: An assessment of
- agricultural biodiversity in the European Union. Agric. Ecosyst. Environ. 114: 86–102.
- Robinson, G. M. 2006. Canada's environmental farm plans: Transatlantic perspectives on
- agri-environmental schemes. Geogr. J. 172: 206–218.
- Rowland, C.S.; Morton, R.D.; Carrasco, L.; McShane, G.; O'Neil, A.W.; Wood, C.M. (2017). Land
- Cover Map 2015 (25m raster, GB). NERC Environmental Information Data
- ⁷⁰⁵ Centre. https://doi.org/10.5285/bb15e200-9349-403c-bda9-b430093807c7

Ruxton, G. D. et al. 1997. Mortality During Dispersal and the Stability of a Metapopulation. -

J. Theor. Biol. 186: 389–396. Saura, S. et al. 2014. Stepping stones are crucial for species'

long-distance dispersal and range expansion through habitat networks. - J. Appl. Ecol. 51:
171–182.

- Scriven, S. A. et al. 2015. Protected areas in Borneo may fail to conserve tropical forest
- ⁷¹¹ biodiversity under climate change. Biol. Conserv. 184: 414–423.
- Scriven, S. A. et al. 2017. Barriers to dispersal of rain forest butterflies in tropical
- agricultural landscapes. Biotropica 49: 206–216.Scriven, S. A. et al. 2019. Testing the
- benefits of conservation set-asides for improved habitat connectivity in tropical
- agricultural landscapes. J. Appl. Ecol. 56: 2274–2285.
- Sexton, J. P. et al. 2011. Gene flow increases fitness at the warm edge of a species' range. -
- 717 Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A. 108: 11704–11709.
- Sierra, R. and Russman, E. 2006. On the efficiency of environmental service payments: A
- forest conservation assessment in the Osa Peninsula, Costa Rica. Ecol. Econ. 59: 131–141.
- Snoo, G. R. de and Wit, P. J. de 1998. Buffer zones for reducing pesticide drift to ditches and
 risks to aquatic organisms. Ecotoxicol. Environ. Saf. 41: 112–118.
- Sobels, J. et al. 2001. The role of Landcare group networks in rural Australia: exploring the
- contribution of social capital / O papel das redes de grupos de cuidar da terra na Austrália
- rural: explorar a contribuição do capital social. J. Rural Stud. 17: 265–276.
- Summerville, K. S. and Crist, T. O. 2001. Effects of experimental habitat fragmentation on
- patch use by butterflies and skippers (Lepidoptera). Ecology 82: 1360–1370.

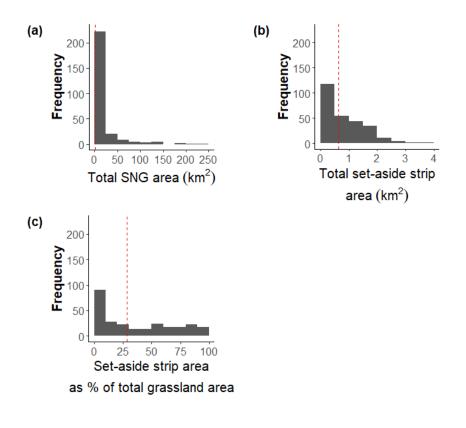
- Taylor, P. D. et al. 1993. Connectivity is a vital element of landscape structure. Oikos 68:
 571–573.
- Thomas, J. A. 2016. Butterfly communities under threat. Science 353: 216–218.
- Thomas, C. D. et al. 2004. Extinction risk from climate change. Nature 427: 145–148.
- 731 Travis, J. M. J. 2003. Climate change and habitat destruction: A deadly anthropogenic
- 732 cocktail. Proc. Biol. Sci. 270: 467–473.
- 733 Tscharntke, T. et al. 2012. Landscape moderation of biodiversity patterns and processes -
- eight hypotheses. Biol. Rev. Camb. Philos. Soc. 87: 661–685.
- ⁷³⁵ Uezu, A. et al. 2008. Can agroforest woodlots work as stepping stones for birds in the
- Atlantic forest region? Biodivers. Conserv. 17: 1907–1922.
- 737 USDA 2000. Conservation buffers to reduce pesticide losses. URL:
- https://www.nrcs.usda.gov/Internet/FSE_DOCUMENTS/nrcs144p2_030970.pdf. Accessed:
 16/01/2020
- Villard, M.-A. and Metzger, J. P. 2014. Beyond the fragmentation debate: a conceptual model
 to predict when habitat configuration really matters (S Saura, Ed.). J. Appl. Ecol. 51: 309–
 318.
- Walther, G.-R. et al. 2002. Ecological responses to recent climate change. Nature 416: 389–
 395.
- Wilson, G. A. 2004. The Australian Landcare movement: Towards 'post-productivist' rural
 governance? J. Rural Stud. 20: 461–484.

- 747 Wilson, R. J. et al. 2010. Linking habitat use to range expansion rates in fragmented
- ⁷⁴⁸ landscapes: a metapopulation approach. Ecography 33: 73–82.
- 749 Zhang, L. et al. 2008. Payment for environmental services: The Sloping Land Conversion
- Program in Ningxia Autonomous Region of China. China World Econ. 16: 66–81.

751 Supplementary materials

752 Supplementary Figures

753 Figure S1. Summary of habitat quantity and composition within landscapes



- Figure S1: The frequency of landscapes (n=267) according to (a)total quantity of semi-
- natural grassland (SNG), (b) set-aside strip, and (c) the % of total habitat amount made up

⁷⁵⁷ of set-aside strips.

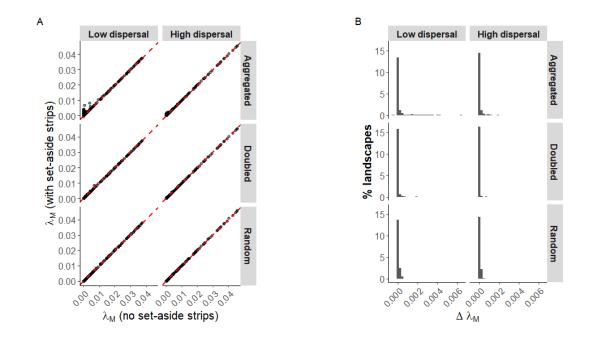


Figure S2: The impact of alternative set-aside strip spatial scenarios on metapopulation persistence. (A) Comparison of the metapopulation capacity λ_M of landscapes (n=267) under scenarios in the absence and presence of set-aside strips. Red dashed line indicates 1:1 line of no change in λ_M between scenarios. Blue dotted lines indicate hypothetical persistence thresholds. (B) Distribution of the effect of set-aside strips on metapopulation capacity under each scenario ($\Delta\lambda_M = \lambda_M$ [scenario with set-aside strips present] - λ_M [scenario with setaside strips absent]).

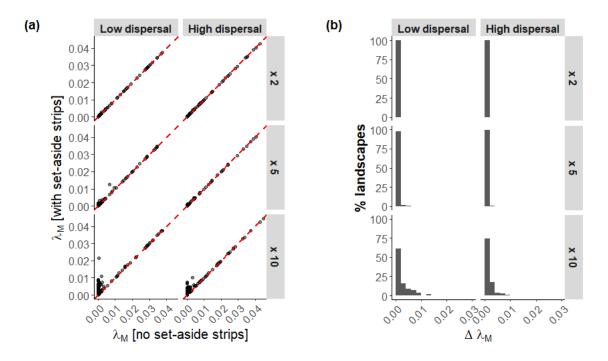
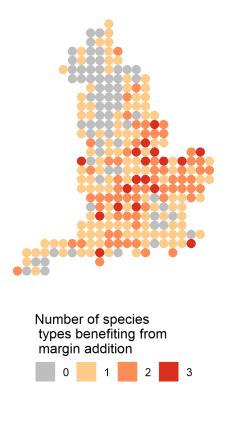


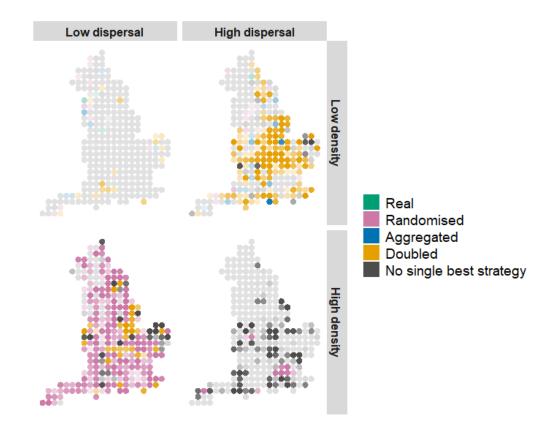


Figure S3. Metaopulation capacity (λ_M) values of landscapes under increasing quantities of set-aside strips, equivalent to multiplying the areas of existing strips in their current locations by 2, 5 and 10. (a) Metapopulation capacity of landscapes with and without setaside strips. Red dashed line indicates 1:1. (b) The frequency distribution of $\Delta\lambda_M$, calculated as the difference between λ_M with and without set-aside strips

- 775 Figure S4. Number of species types for which set-aside strips benefit range expansion in each
- 776 landscape
- 777



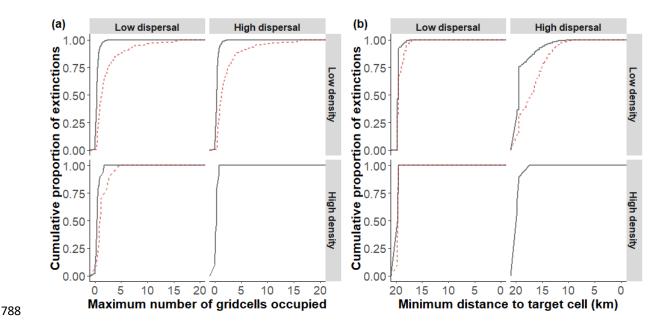
- 778
- Figure S4: The number of species types (out of four) benefiting in range expansion from set-
- aside strips across all landscapes (n=267). Benefit is defined as >5% improvement in
- responsion success. At least one species benefited in 74% of landscapes (198/267).



782 Figure S5. Maps indicating the 'best scenario' for range expansion in each landscape

- 784 Figure S5: The best scenario for facilitating range expansion for each of the species types.
- 785 Color illustrates the best scenario and transparency illustrates the magnitude of the benefit of
- 786 the best scenario when compared to the 'no margins' baseline.



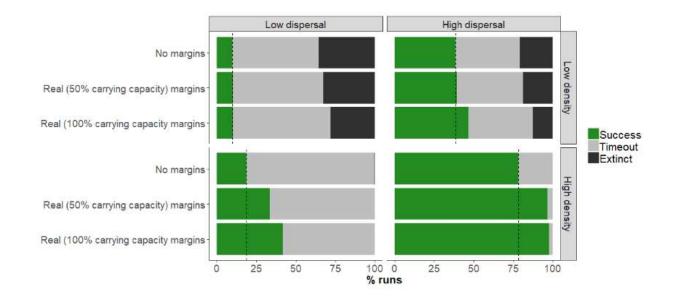


789 Figure S6: Cumulative proportion of extinctions within Incidence-Function Model (IFM)

- simulations related to (a) the maximum number of gridcells (500 m) which are ever occupied
- 791 within the simulation and (b) the minimum distance between occupied cells and the target
- cell (edge of landscape) at the timestep (generation) before extinction occurs. Solid black line
- *indicates simulations under the 'no set-aside strips' scenario. Dashed red line indicates*
- *simulations under the 'current set-aside strips' scenario.*

797 Figure S7. Impact on range expansion of varying the carrying capacity of set-aside strip

798 habitat



799

Figure S7: Range expansion simulations assuming full and half carrying capacity in set-aside 800 strip patches for each of the four species types. The outcome of each run was classified as 801 either an extinction (the metapopulation went globally extinct), a timeout (the 802 metapopulation survived the 200 generations of the simulation but failed to colonize the 803 'target' cell) or a success (the metapopulation successfully colonized the 'target' cell). Each 804 805 species type was simulated 10,680 times under each scenario (267 landscapes x 8 directions x 5 repeats). Dashed lines indicate baseline proportion of successful simulation runs when no 806 807 set-aside strips are present.

808 Supplementary tables

Scheme	Code	Option Type	Option
ELS	EE1	Buffer strips	2m on cultivated land
ELS	EE2	Buffer strips	4m on cultivated land
ELS	EE3	Buffer strips	6m on cultivated land
ELS	EE4	Buffer strips	2m intensive grassland
ELS	EE5	Buffer strips	4m intensive grassland
ELS	EE6	Buffer strips	6m intensive grassland
ELS	EE12	Buffer strips	Supplement to add wildflowers to field corners and buffer strips on cultivated land
ELS	EF4	Arable land	Nectar flower mixture
ELS	EF11	Arable land	Uncropped cultivated set-aside strips for rare plants
ELS	EK1	Grassland outside the Severely Disadvantaged Areas (SDAs)	Take field corners out of management
HLS	HE10	Arable land	Floristically enhanced grass buffer strips (non-rotational)
OELS	0E1	Buffer strips	2m on rotational land
OELS	OE2	Buffer strips	4m on rotational land
OELS	OE3	Buffer strips	6m on rotational land
OELS	OE4	Buffer strips	2m organic grassland
OELS	OE5	Buffer strips	4m organic grassland
OELS	OE6	Buffer strips	6m organic grassland
OELS	EE12	Buffer strips	Supplement to add wildflowers to field corners and buffer strips on cultivated land
OELS	OF4	Arable land	Nectar flower mixture

809 Table S1. Set-aside strip option codes (Environmental Stewardship Scheme)

OELS	OF11	Arable land	Uncropped cultivated set-aside strips for rare plants
OELS	OK1	Grassland outside the Severely Disadvantaged Areas (SDAs)	Take field corners out of management

811 Table S2. GLMM model results

- 812 Table S2: Summary of fixed effects from generalized linear mixed effects model:
- 813 logit(success/failure) ~ log(% SNG cover + 1) * % set-aside strip cover * species type (p <
- 814 0.05^* , $p < 0.01^{**}$, $p < 0.001^{***}$).

Fixed effect	Coefficient	SE	z value	р
log(% SNG cover + 1)	12.670	1.785	7.099	<1.26e-12***
% set-aside strip cover	10.868	3.182	3.415	0.000638***
species2	16.353	2.791	5.858	4.68e-09***
species3	13.844	2.778	4.984	6.22e-07***
species4	24.668	2.840	8.685	<2e-16***
log(% SNG cover + 1): % set-aside strip cover	-5.370	1.307	-4.109	3.97e-05***
<pre>log(% SNG cover + 1) : species2</pre>	-3.093	1.737	-1.780	0.075014
<pre>log(% SNG cover + 1) : species3</pre>	-5.713	1.717	-3.328	0.000873***
<pre>log(% SNG cover + 1) : species4</pre>	-2.916	2.022	-1.442	0.149165
% set-aside strip cover : species2	-1.405	2.935	-0.479	0.632078
% set-aside strip cover : species3	9.715	2.937	3.308	0.000939***
% set-aside strip cover : species4	45.536	6.753	6.743	1.55e-11***

815 Species1 corresponds to the low density, low dispersal species type (density = 1,000 km⁻²; mean dispersal = 0.5 km).

816 Species2 corresponds to the low density, high dispersal species type (density = 1,000 km⁻²; mean dispersal = 2 km).

817 Species3 corresponds to the high density, low dispersal species type (density = 100,000 km⁻²; mean dispersal = 0.5 km).

818 Species4 corresponds to the high density, high dispersal species type (density = 100,000 km⁻²; mean dispersal = 2 km).

819 Supplementary appendices

820 Appendix S1. Additional methodological details

821 Details of construction of alternative scenario layers

822 No set-aside strips

Raster layer at 500m resolution where the value of each cell represents the area of seminatural grassland (SNG) (according to the 2015 Land Cover Map; Rowland et al. 2017)
within that cell.

826 **AES set-aside strips**

- Raster layer at 500m resolution where the value of each cell represents the area of SNG
- plus area of set-aside strip within that cell. Set-aside strip areas/locations were sourced
- from the Environmental Stewardship Scheme (ESS) Options (points) dataset by Natural
- England (accessed November 2016, https://data.gov.uk/dataset/6c0f19e7-9a2d-4c50-
- 831 b548-3b7d4b9c18bb/environmental-stewardship-scheme-options-points). Only set-aside
- strips in place as of July 2015 were included in analyses and this date was chosen because
- 833 2015 represented the peak of ESS agreements.

834 Randomized set-aside strips

- As for 'AES set-aside strips', except for the spatial location of set-aside strip patches. Set-
- aside strips as present in the ESS dataset were redistributed by randomly assigning set-
- aside strips to grid cells across England.

838 Aggregated set-aside strips

As for 'AES set-aside strips', except that for each individual farm/holding (as identified by 'AGREF' agreement codes in the ESS dataset) all set-aside strip patches were aggregated such that the total set-aside strip area on each farm was assigned to a single patch at the centroid of the farm.

843 **Doubled set-aside strips**

As for 'AES set-aside strips', except the area of set-aside strip within each grid cell is

doubled. Equivalent to, for example, doubling the width (or carrying capacity) of each set-

846 aside strip.

847 Construction of metapopulation models

848 *Metapopulation capacity*

Specifically, the metapopulation capacity is defined as the leading eigenvalue of the
landscape matrix, M, consisting of elements

$$m_{ij} = \begin{cases} f(d_{ij})A_i & i \neq j \\ 0 & i = j \end{cases}$$

where A_i is the area of patch *i* and $f(d_{ij})$ is a function describing the effect of inter-patch distance (d_{ii}) on dispersal. Dispersal is defined here as a negative exponential function,

$$f(d_{ij}) = \frac{\alpha^2}{2\pi} A_i A_j exp(-\alpha d_{ij})$$

where α is the parameter setting the slope of the curve and therefore the dispersal ability of the species and the mean dispersal distance is $2/\alpha$.

857 Incidence Function Model

The effect of inter-patch distance (d_{ij}) on dispersal, $f(d_{ij})$, was defined by a negative exponential function as follows:

$$f(d_{ij}) = \frac{\alpha^2}{2\pi} A_i A_j e^{-\alpha d_{ij}}$$

where A_i and A_j are the areas of patch i and j respectively and α is the parameter setting the slope of the curve and therefore the dispersal ability of the species (the mean dispersal distance is $2/\alpha$).

864 Selection of species parameters

865 **Dispersal**

Mean dispersal distances calculated from negative exponential dispersal kernels fitted to 866 mark-release-recapture (MMR) data from European butterflies can be as high as 1.3 km 867 868 within individual studies (less than one generation) (1). As MMR data underestimate dispersal (2, 3) and because colonization distances at the leading edge of the expanding 869 range of UK butterflies have been shown to be as high as 12 km over $\sim 10 \text{ years}$ (from 870 1995-1999 to 2005-2009; 4), we set our 'high' mean dispersal to 2 km. We set our lower 871 mean dispersal value at 0.5 km; this value approximately corresponds to mean dispersal 872 values calculated for more sedentary European butterflies (1) and below this value 873 metapopulations generally failed to expand their ranges at all in our IFM simulations. 874

875 **Population density**

- 876 Published literature estimates population densities of European butterfly species as low as
- <5 individuals ha⁻¹ (5) and as high as >4,000 individuals ha⁻¹ (6); in our models we define
- ⁸⁷⁸ 'low' density at 10 individuals ha⁻¹ and 'high' density at 1,000 individuals ha⁻¹ to capture
- 879 this variation.

```
Appendix S2. MPC code
```

```
#####function for unscaled metapopulation capacity
882
     # x & y: coordinates of patches (km)
883
     # area: areas of habitat patches (km2)
884
     # alpha: parameter which sets slope of negative
885
               exponential dispersal kernel
886
      #
887
     mpc<-function(x,y,area,alpha=0.2){</pre>
888
889
        d<- as.matrix(dist(cbind(x,y)))</pre>
890
        M<- alpha<sup>2</sup>/2/pi*exp(-alpha*d)*outer(area<sup>2</sup>,area,'*')
891
        diag(M) < -0
892
        eg<-eigen(M, symmetric=F, only.values = FALSE)</pre>
893
        1_M=eg$values[1]
894
        return(1_M=eg$values[1])
895
     }
896
```

898 Appendix S3. IFM code

899	*********	###
900	# ifm()	#
901	#	#
902	# Adapted from Hodgson et al. (2011)	#
903	#	#
904	# IFM function. Seeds occupancy in single cell at base of invasion axis,	#
905	# which it gives 100% habitat cover, and simulation continues until cell	#
906	# at opposite edge of landscape (also given 100% cover) is occupied, or	#
907	# else number of generations > 'simtime', the population goes globally	#
908	# extinct, or global occupancy >95%.	#
909	#	#
910	*****	##
911	# Arguments:	#
912	#	#
913	# x - vector of x-coordinates of habitat patches (in km)	#
914	# y - vector of y-coordinates of habitat patches (in km)	#
915	# n - vector of carrying capacity of habitat patches (calculated as	#
916	# patch area * density)	#
917	# alpha - slope of negative exponential dispersal kernel	#
918	<pre># density - population density (in individuals per km2)</pre>	#
919	# simtime - number of generations at which to cut off simulations	#
920	# rot - angle of invasion (0 = South to North)	#
921	# cellsize - cell size of gridded data (used for creating habitat start	#
922	# and end cells), measured in km	#

923	<pre># Landscapesize - radius of Landscape in km #</pre>
924	******
925	
926	
927	<pre>ifm <- function(x,y,n,alpha,density,</pre>
928	<pre>rot, simtime=200, cellsize=0.5, landscapesize=10){</pre>
929	
930	<pre>x <- x-min(x)-landscapesize # make all coordinates relative, where the</pre>
931	<pre># centre of the Landscape is (0,0)</pre>
932	y <- y-min(y)-landscapesize
933	<pre>le <- length(x)</pre>
934	<pre>D <-(-sin(rot)*x + cos(rot)*y) # distance along invasion axis</pre>
935	# (start at low end)
936	far <- max(D)
937	W <- x*cos(rot) + y*sin(rot) # width-ways distance from centre of axis
938	dw <- data.frame(D, W)
939	
940	<pre>start_edge_cand <- dw[which(dw\$D == min(D)),] # cells at starting edge</pre>
941	# of Landscape
942	
943	# Where there are multiple cells at starting edge, pick the one that is
944	# nearest the centre of axis of invasion. Where the axis goes between 2
945	# cells, pick the one adjacent & offset anti-clockwise from the axis.
946	
947	<pre>if (nrow(start_edge_cand > 1)){</pre>

```
start_edge_cand$Wplus <- start_edge_cand$W - 0.1</pre>
948
          start <- as.numeric(</pre>
949
                     rownames(start_edge_cand)[
950
                       which(
951
                         abs(
952
                           start_edge_cand$Wplus) == min(
953
                             abs(start_edge_cand$Wplus)))])
954
955
        } else {
          start <- as.numeric(rownames(start_edge_cand))</pre>
956
        }
957
958
        # start = cell number of starting cell (of all cells incl. zeros)
959
960
        # x- and y-coordinates of starting cell
961
962
        start_x <- x[start]</pre>
        start_y <- y[start]</pre>
963
964
        # Where there are multiple cells at ending edge, pick the one that
965
966
        # is nearest the centre of axis of invasion. Where the axis goes
        # between 2 cells, pick the one adjacent & offset anti-clockwise from
967
        # the axis.
968
969
        endedge <- D[rank(D) == max(rank(D))]</pre>
970
        end_edge_cand <- dw[which(dw$D == max(D)),]</pre>
971
        if (nrow(end_edge_cand > 1)){
972
```

```
end_edge_cand$Wplus <- end_edge_cand$W + 0.1</pre>
973
974
          end <- as.numeric(</pre>
                      rownames(
975
                        end_edge_cand)[
976
                          which(
977
                            abs (
978
                              end_edge_cand$Wplus) == min(
979
                                 abs(end_edge_cand$Wplus)))])
980
        } else {
981
          end <- as.numeric(rownames(end_edge_cand))</pre>
982
        }
983
984
        # end = cell number of ending cell (of all cells incl. zeros)
985
986
        # x- and y-coordinates of ending cell
987
988
        end_x <- x[end]</pre>
989
        end_y <- y[end]</pre>
990
991
        # Set up starting occupancy (all cells)
992
        occ0 <- rep(FALSE, times=le)</pre>
993
        occ0[start] <- TRUE</pre>
994
995
        # Give starting and ending cells 100% habitat cover
996
997
        n[start] <- cellsize^2 * density</pre>
```

```
n[end] <- cellsize<sup>2</sup> * density
 998
 999
         # Get rownumbers of non-habitat containing cells
1000
         zeros <- which(n==0)</pre>
1001
1002
         # Get rid of x, y, n elements with no habitat & redefine objects
1003
         x <- x[-zeros]</pre>
1004
         y <- y[-zeros]</pre>
1005
1006
         n <- n[-zeros]</pre>
         occ0 <- occ0[-zeros]</pre>
1007
         D <-( -sin(rot)*x + cos(rot)*y )</pre>
1008
         le <- length(x)</pre>
1009
1010
1011
         # Dataframe of non-zero cell coordinates
         xy <- data.frame(x,y)</pre>
1012
1013
1014
         # Non-zero index of ending cell
         end_new <- which(xy$x==end_x & xy$y==end_y)</pre>
1015
1016
1017
1018
         # Baseline probability of extinction
1019
         pex<- pmin(1,1/n)</pre>
1020
1021
```

1022	<pre>conn<-rep(0,le)#the connectivity</pre>
1023	<pre>for(j in 1:le){</pre>
1024	if (occ0[j]){
1025	<pre>conn[-j] <- conn[-j]+(n[-j]/density)*alpha^2/2/pi*</pre>
1026	n[j] *exp(- alpha *
1027	<pre>sqrt((x[-j] - x[j])^2 + (y[-j] - y[j])^2)</pre>
1028)#close kernel
1029	}#close if
1030	}#close j loop
1031	
1032	###########output for t=0####################################
1033	<pre>tis<- data.frame(t=0,no=sum(n*occ0)/sum(n),co=mean(occ0),</pre>
1034	<pre>do=far-max(D[occ0])</pre>
1035)
1036	
1037	######here is the actual simulation#######
1038	<pre>for(i in 1:simtime){</pre>
1039	<pre>pcol<- 1-exp(-conn)</pre>
1040	<pre>pext<- pex*(1-pcol)#extinction prob with rescue effect</pre>
1041	<pre>occ1<- (occ0*(1-pext) + (!occ0)*(pcol)) > runif(le)#the new occupancy</pre>
1042	<pre>tis<- rbind(tis,c(t=i,no=sum(n*occ1)/sum(n),co=mean(occ1),</pre>
1043	<pre>do= if(mean(occ1)>0){far-max(D[occ1])}else{</pre>
1044	<pre>far-min(D)}</pre>
1045))#the results
1046	##########test for ending###################################

1047	<pre>if(sum(occ1)==0){break}</pre>
1048	<pre>if((mean(occ1)>=0.95)){break}</pre>
1049	<pre>if(occ1[end_new]==TRUE) {break} # end id not same here - NAs removed</pre>
1050	###########update connectivity#######
1051	<pre>for(j in 1:le){</pre>
1052	if (occ0[j] & !occ1[j]){
1053	conn[-j] <- conn[-j] - (n[-j]/density)*
1054	alpha^2/2/pi*n[j]*exp(-alpha*
1055	<pre>sqrt((x[-j] - x[j])^2 + (y[-j] - y[j])^2)</pre>
1056)#close kernel
1057	}#close if
1058	<pre>if(!occ0[j] & occ1[j]){</pre>
1059	<pre>conn[-j] <- conn[-j] + (n[-j]/density)*</pre>
1060	alpha^2/2/pi*n[j]*exp(-alpha*
1061	<pre>sqrt((x[-j] - x[j])^2 + (y[-j] - y[j])^2)</pre>
1062)#close kernel
1063	}#close if
1064	}#close j loop
1065	#######################################
1066	occ0<- occ1
1067	}#end time series
1068	<pre>return(list(tis=tis,time=i,rot=rot))#return this</pre>
1069	}#end the function

1071 Supplementary references

- 1072 Franzén, M. and Nilsson, S. G. 2007. What is the required minimum landscape size for
- 1073 dispersal studies? J. Anim. Ecol. 76: 1224–1230.
- 1074 Hanski, I. and Thomas, C. D. 1994. Metapopulation dynamics and conservation: A spatially
- explicit model applied to butterflies. Biol. Conserv. 68: 167–180.
- 1076 Krauss, J. et al. 2003. How does landscape context contribute to effects of habitat
- 1077 fragmentation on diversity and population density of butterflies? J. Biogeogr. 30: 889–
- 1078 900.
- 1079 Mair, L. et al. 2014. Abundance changes and habitat availability drive species' responses to
- 1080 climate change. Nat. Clim. Chang. 4: 127–131.
- 1081 Rowland, C.S.; Morton, R.D.; Carrasco, L.; McShane, G.; O'Neil, A.W.; Wood, C.M. (2017). Land
- 1082 Cover Map 2015 (25m raster, GB). NERC Environmental Information Data
- 1083 Centre. https://doi.org/10.5285/bb15e200-9349-403c-bda9-b430093807c7
- 1084 Schneider, C. 2003. The influence of spatial scale on quantifying insect dispersal: An
- analysis of butterfly data. Ecol. Entomol. 28: 252–256.
- 1086 Stevens, V. M. et al. 2010. A meta-analysis of dispersal in butterflies. Biol. Rev. Camb.
- 1087 Philos. Soc. 85: 625–642.

1088