

Czech University of Life Sciences Prague

Faculty of Environmental Sciences



Diploma Thesis

**Using Open-Source citizen science biodiversity data to
determine spatial associations between native/exotic flora
and specialist/non-specialist avian species within an urban
setting**

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CZECH UNIVERSITY OF LIFE SCIENCES PRAGUE

Faculty of Environmental Sciences

DIPLOMA THESIS ASSIGNMENT

B.Sc. Jesse Stanford

Landscape Planning

Thesis title

Using Open-Source citizen science biodiversity data to determine spatial associations between native/exotic flora and specialist/non-specialist avian species within an urban setting

Objectives of thesis

To examine the influence of native flora and floristic communities on the distribution of specialist bird species along a gradient of urban density.

Methodology

The distribution data of avian and flora species distribution was extracted from open-source: iNaturalist. All data are georeferenced. The limit of the study area is the Prague municipal boundary.

Classification of avian species as specialist or nonspecialist based on the diet specialization index, which was calculated as the GINI coefficient for avian species' dietary preferences within European cities in a prior project. The observed avian species were then assigned the value previously established. Unclassified species were given the average GINI coefficient value of all other members of their genus within the study area.

We distinguished flora as native species or nonnative species (including both naturalized and exotic species) according to their listing in the Pladias. If there was incongruency between naming conventions, it was then determined through the use of Plants of the World Online.

To examine urban density, impervious surface data was obtained from Copernicus.eu.

We then created a fishnet covering the Prague municipality and incorporated the distribution and classification of species, as well as imperviousness, into individual cells. Linear Regression will be used to determine spatial relationships between the aforementioned variables.

The proposed extent of the thesis

45-50 pages

Keywords

avian diet; exotic species; native species; plant species; specialization; urbanization

Recommended information sources

- Benedetti, Y., F. Morelli, C. T. Callaghan, and R. Fuller. 2021. Distribution and protection of avian specialization in Europe. *Global Ecology and Biogeography* 31:10–24.
- Morelli, F., Y. Benedetti, A. P. Møller, and R. A. Fuller. 2019. Measuring avian specialization. *Ecology and Evolution* 9:8378–8386.
- Reif, J., D. Hořák, A. Krištín, L. Kopsová, and V. Devictor. 2016. Linking habitat specialization with species' traits in European birds. *Oikos* 125:405–413.

Expected date of thesis defence

2022/23 SS – FES

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Electronic approval: 7. 3. 2023

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Using Open-Source citizen science biodiversity data to determine spatial associations between native/exotic flora and specialist/non-specialist avian species within an urban setting

ABSTRACT

Urbanization is associated with the decline of biodiversity from consequent habitat conversion into urban fabrics. How taxa respond to this urbanization is contingent on the novel risks and resources created by the urban matrices and the ability of those species to utilize the new conditions. This study used open-source Citizen Science data to identify differing responses of native and nonnative flora species and avian dietary specialist species to Prague municipality's urban matrix. Native and Nonnative flora species appeared to have both habitat overlap and distributions distinct from each other while native flora species richness decreased with increasing imperviousness and nonnative species increased. Similarly, avian dietary specialists and nonspecialists were not perfectly codistributed, but both declined with increasing imperviousness while nonspecialist species had a greater tolerance of high urban density. Avian specialists also had a higher preference for areas with greater native species richness and higher overall proportions of native flora species. Differences emerged when distinguishing between invertebrate and endotherm specialists with endotherm specialists tolerating areas with greater imperviousness and reduced abundances of flora species. Examining the protection status of avian species within the Czech Republic also revealed that protected species were more likely to have a high degree of dietary specialism and more sensitive to urbanization.

Keywords: avian diet; exotic species; native species; plant species; specialization; urbanization

Použití Open-Source dat o biologické rozmanitosti z občanských věd k určení prostorových asociací mezi původní/exotickou flórou a specializovanými/nespecializovanými ptačími druhy v městském prostředí

ABSTRAKTNÍ

Urbanizace je spojena s úbytkem biodiverzity z následné přeměny stanovišť na městské struktury. Jak taxony reagují na tuto urbanizaci, závisí na nových rizicích a zdrojích vytvořených městskými maticemi a na schopnosti těchto druhů využívat nové podmínky. Tato studie použila data Citizen Science s otevřeným zdrojovým kódem k identifikaci různých reakcí původních a nepůvodních druhů flóry a druhů specializovaných na ptačí výživu na městskou matici pražského magistrátu. Zdálo se, že původní a nepůvodní druhy flóry se překrývají a distribuce se od sebe liší, zatímco bohatost původních druhů rostlin se s rostoucí nepropustností snižovala a nepůvodní druhy rostly. Podobně, ptačí dietní specialisté a nespecialisté nebyli dokonale kodistribuíváni, ale oba klesali s rostoucí nepropustností, zatímco nespecializované druhy měly větší toleranci k vysoké městské hustotě. Specialisté na ptáky také více preferovali oblasti s větší původní druhovou bohatostí a celkově vyšším podílem původních druhů rostlin. Rozdíly se objevily při rozlišování mezi specialisty na bezobratlé a endotermny a specialisty na endotermny tolerujícími oblastmi s větší nepropustností a sníženou abundancí druhů rostlin. Zkoumání stavu ochrany ptačích druhů v ČR také odhalilo, že chráněné druhy mají vyšší míru dietetické specializace a jsou citlivější k urbanizaci.

Klíčová slova: ptačí dieta; exotické druhy; původní druhy; druhy rostlin; specializace; urbanizace

Acknowledgements

I would like to thank Federico Morelli Ph.D., and Yanina Benedetti Ph.D., for their advice and guidance during over the course of this research. I would also like to thank Peter Kumble Ph.D., for his encouragement to cross the finish line sooner rather than later. I would like to thank my mother, Temi Stanford, and grandparents, Bill and Beth Calvert, for their love and support during the completion of this program.

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1. INTRODUCTION

Urbanization is a major driver of habitat loss and, consequently, biodiversity loss worldwide. The impact of urbanization on biodiversity is dependent on how urban matrices are constructed and the distribution and composition of remnant habitat patches (Laurance & Bierregaard, 1997, Zhu et al., 2020). Some taxa are more sensitive to novel anthropogenic environments than others (Szlavec, Warren, & Pickett, 2010). Avian species in particular display a strong filtering response between urban tolerant species and urban avoidant species (Callaghan et al., 2019). The composition of floristic communities and their respective place of origin also may alter the response to urbanization from avian species (Dyson 2020, Narango, 2017, Zietsman et al., 2019). This may be because of a connection to habitat associated with specific floristic communities and increasing dietary specialism of avian species requiring more particular habitat compositions (Clucas & Marzluff, 2015, Reif et al., 2015). Evaluating trends can require intensive sampling methods and the physical presence of researchers; however, the rise of citizen science applications providing open-source, geolocated data, of real-world species observations may shed light on how the composition of flora and avian communities are responding to urbanization without a similar dedication of time and resources (Callaghan, 2020, Hewitt, 2022).

2. AIMS OF DIPLOMA THESIS

To examine the influence of native flora and floristic communities on the distribution of specialist bird species along a gradient of urban density.

3. LITERATURE REVIEW

3.1. Biodiversity Loss

Current patterns of globalization have resulted in two crises that threaten to undo it. The more well-known at a popular level are the risks of rapid climate change due to the release of greenhouse gases from fossil fuel acquisition and use. The second, less popularly addressed crisis is pertaining to the rapidly increasing rate of species extinction, or biodiversity loss, from extraction of resources (beyond fossil fuels), habitat conversion for urbanization and food production, or changing in the abiotic conditions to state where previously extant life can not be supported (such as ocean acidification). Among these activities, habitat conversion appears to be the leading cause for biodiversity loss.

Habitat conversion does not only result in the immediate loss of suitable land for biological communities, but will also separate populations of species that can lead to their long term decline due to a lack of genetic diversity among now distinct populations (Hanski, 2011). This general trend aligns with the well-established and researched theory of Island Biogeography which claims that isolated patches of habitat maintain internal equilibrium states related to the area of the patch as well as inflow and outflow of additional species or their populations (MacArthur & Wilson, 2001). The implication of this theory is that as surface area declines, extinction rates increase due to a reduction in resources available to support existing or new members of the biological community. While the model is helpful, the rate of decline of populations associated with habitat conversion does not play out uniformly, but instead varies according to a number of factors such as the make up of the overall matrix, the ratio of edge to internal surface area, and species interactions (Laurance, 2008).

3.2. Urbanization and Biodiversity

Urbanization is a major driver for habitat conversion and the biodiversity loss that follows. By 2030, urban areas are expected to expand by 185% (Oakleaf et al., 2015). A major means of mitigating the loss of biodiversity in urban and landscape planning has been the designation of protected habitat patches, but, as stated previously, many different factors can influence their efficacy, such as size, proximity to other habitat patches, and the ratio between patch edge and patch interior. Furthermore, planning to allow flow between patches is often species specific and dependent on their own dispersal capacity resulting in non-uniform benefits across trophic levels (Turrini & Knop, 2015). The use of ecological corridors has been included in planning practices to improve flow and dispersal between patches. These corridors offer distinct benefits according to the species making use of them.

In some instances the corridors begin to function as patches themselves, rather than connecting distinct patches (Angold et al., 2006). While there are benefits to creating designated patches and corridors, intended or accidental, accounting for the influence of the urban matrix surrounding these landscape components is necessary to explore.

As habitat conversion and fragmentation continues in association with urbanization, the make up of the surrounding matrix that emerges gains importance. Structural and microclimatic similarity between the converted matrix and remaining habitat fragments maintains connectivity within the landscape increasing suitability for native species to make use of a greater area (Laurance & Bierregaard, 1997). Habitat quality within remaining patches also appears to be influenced by landscape scale patch patterns such as similarity between patches, clustering of patches, and density of patches per unit area, but the negative or positive influence of these factors varies regionally (Zhu et al., 2020).

Urbanized areas create unique conditions that are highly suitable for some species. This class of synanthropic species appear well adapted for urban environments and occur within different urban areas globally (Szlavec, Warren, & Pickett, 2010). The reoccurrence of these species risks biotic homogenization as urban centers act as locus for dispersal into surrounding areas (McKinney & Lockwood, 2001). These well adapted species are often, but not always, exotic. They then outcompete potential native species attempting to recolonize the urban environment as well as those that exist exterior to it. In contrast, however, urban environments can also mimic locally rare, but regionally important, ecosystem types that offer conservation benefits to novel biological communities (Richardson, Lundholm, & Larson, 2010). Understanding how different urban development patterns create the risk for homogenization in comparison to offering benefits to rare species is an essential question for creating cities that support biodiversity.

3.3. Urbanization and Flora Species Response

Flora species richness can be a means for understanding the impact of urbanization on local biota. In general, habitat conversion appears to result in a decline in the presence of native flora species but, due to the high number of exotic flora species introduced from urbanization, species richness can increase at a city wide scale in comparison to richness outside of the urban area (Zipperer & Guntenspergen, 2009). At smaller scales, the heterogeneous nature of urban environments creates the conditions for varying degrees of species richness dependent on the land use and structural diversity (Walker et al., 2009). Some spatial patterns of development, such as suburban communities as an extension of

urban centers, show the ability to regain lost native species after construction-induced local extinctions (McKinney, 2002). Their ability to do so is contingent on the proximity to differing habitat types at the edge of suburban development (McKinney, 2002).

3.4. Urbanization and Avian Species Response

There is also direct relationship between habitat conversion the ability for avian communities to persist in urbanized or urbanizing areas. Habitat fragmentation and the reduction in patch size reduces assemblages of urban avian species (Evans et al., 2009). The impact of urbanization on avian communities can also be considered on the urban to rural gradient where greater diversity of avian species persists at the less urbanized fringes and is lost in the urban core (Xie et al., 2019). The loss of some avian species is due to the novel conditions and, as a result, novel risks that urban environments create, such as increased exposure when foraging for food due to low density of vegetation cover (Sol et al., 2014). This does not play out evenly across avian species resulting in classifications of urban tolerant species, those who can make use of the urban matrix, and urban avoiders, those that are confined to remaining habitat patches with sufficient size or migrate to the less developed fringes (Sol et al., 2014). The filtering of these two groups can occur due to species specific nesting and dietary preferences (Clucas & Marzluff, 2015).

3.4.1. Avian Specialism

An alternative means for classifying avian species is the designation of specialist or nonspecialist (generalist) species on the bases of various functional traits such as foraging ecology, breeding, or habitat preferences (Morelli et al., 2019). Within this frame, nonspecialist species trend towards urban tolerance due to their ability to fit within a variety of niches whereas dietary specialists were more sensitive to urbanization (Callaghan et al., 2019). This is not surprising given that dietary specialism is also associated with higher rates of habitat specialism within avian species and the previously mentioned trends in reduction of habitat quality and quantity associated with urbanization (Reif et al., 2015). Consequently, it is possible that the distribution of dietary specialists could be used as an indicator of in-tact, high quality, habitat within urbanized areas.

3.5. Relationships between Avian Species, Flora Species, and Urbanization

While the general trend of urbanization is a reduction in habitat quality leading to a reduction in avian species, there is evidence to support that different development patterns can sustain or even increase local avian species richness. Marzluff (2005) found that moderate levels of urbanization on the edges of Seattle resulted in greater colonization of bird species. A possible reason proposed was that

development led to an increase in tree species diversity locally in comparison to the denser urban interior and the forested exterior opening greater niche space for a variety of bird species. This coincides with findings in Evans et al. (2009) that greater structural complexity in woody vegetation and species richness increased local avian species assemblages. Xie et al. (2019) also suggests that increased species and height diversity of trees increases avian species richness and intraspecies abundances.

3.5.1. Native versus Nonnative Flora Species

The origin of the species within floristic communities in urbanized areas may also have an impact on the ability of the urban matrix to sustain avian communities. In Dyson (2020) it was found that forest stand structure and species compositions that mimicked the pre-development forests with mostly native species supported higher avian richness and larger avian communities in comparison to developed areas with high density of exotic tree species. In Narango et al. (2017) the foraging preferences of an insectivorous avian specialist were connected to the distribution of native flora reintroduced into residential landscapes in comparison to exotic flora. Similarly, avian frugivore specialists were observed to use feeding sites within urban areas adjacent to urban nature reserves if the sites possessed the same native, fruit-bearing, tree species (Zietsman et al., 2019). Additionally, it was found that frugivore species would forage either the urban nature reserve or the urban matrix based off availability of fruit in the other area. It is important to note that both relationships between the avian dietary specialists and native flora species are species-specific but understanding how and where those relationships can occur can help to direct research for species of concern.

3.6. Citizen Science and Biodiversity Research

If the structure and species composition of floristic communities within urban areas can have some impact on the functionality of these spaces for avian species generally, it is important then to understand the distribution of both groups to begin to elucidate those relationships at a finer scale. One trend that is helping to clarify the distribution of target taxa globally is the rise of Citizen Science applications such as *iNaturalist* (Hewitt, 2022). *iNaturalist* is a tool that allows for users to take a photograph of a species of interest and then uses Computer Vision, a subdiscipline of Artificial Intelligence, to aid users in identifying species observed (*iNaturalist*, 2016). Those observations then are uploaded and georeferenced allowing fellow users to comment and verify the proposed species identification. After most users have agreed on a species identification, the observation gains “research grade” status. To date, there are 57,000,000 georeferenced, research grade, observations

and over 300,000 species identified (GBIF, 2012). These identifications are open access and can be exported for research purposes.

The adoption of the *iNaturalist* application and other Citizen Science tools have been evaluated for their capacity to make assessments beyond distribution of species. In Chandler et al. (2017) they claim that information such as ecosystem function, phenology, and population abundances can be gleaned when combined with the larger datasets that *iNaturalist* observations feed into. As a result, a greater number of projects are looking for ways to integrate datasets from Citizen Science applications to efficiently evaluate biodiversity or manage natural resources (Pocock et al., 2017). Despite the potential utility of these platforms, there is resistance to their widespread adoption (Burgess et al., 2017). Part of that resistance emerges from the uneven spatial or temporal sampling of citizen scientists which may limit the types of inferences that can be made from the various datasets (Boakes et al., 2010). It is also clear that there is bias towards specific taxon such as flora, avian species, and Lepidoptera, with charismatic species recurring the most frequently (Pocock et al., 2017).

3.6.1. Utility of Citizen Science for Verifying known Distribution of Target Taxa

Despite the limitations of data gathering through Citizen Science applications, their ability to shed light on ecological phenomenon is growing. In the Western Ghats, *eBird*, another Citizen Science app using bird song to identify species and location, was used by Ramesh et al. (2017) to evaluate the accuracy of IUCN threatened avian species' range maps created by Birdlife International in comparison to their observed range and resulting predicted distribution. The *eBird* data revealed that significant portions of the avian species' proposed range did not contain suitable habitat and that their real range was significantly smaller. Uyeda et al. (2020) compared *iNaturalist* data for open shrubland flora species observations to existing fine scale vegetation maps and found that the majority (87%) of observations were within 10 meters of known individual plants. While these examples help to verify or improve existing knowledge of species range, *iNaturalist* data is limited by only noting occurrence of individual organisms, but not the absence. The lack of absence data can hinder predictive capability of species ranges if other environmental variables are not included. Another major drawback emerges from uneven observation distribution in areas with high user traffic compared to areas less accessible or less frequented by *iNaturalist* users.

3.6.2. Utility of Citizen Science for Illuminating Response to Urbanization of Target Taxa

Citizen Science occurrence data has also been used in relationship to the urbanness of various taxa. In Callaghan et al. (2020) the distribution of *iNaturalist* observations in Boston, Massachusetts were compared to the amount of light pollution associated with developed areas to generate mean urban tolerance levels of commonly reoccurring species. These locations of these reoccurring species were then examined in nearby cities and towns to examine the response of biodiversity within those areas to urbanization. While the previous example used light pollution as a proxy for urbanization, imperviousness in the area where species were observed can similarly reflect the degree of tolerance to urbanization (Yan et al., 2019).

4. METHODS

4.1. Data Acquisition

The study area chosen for this project was the territory within the municipal boundary of the Prague, Czech Republic. The shapefile for the municipal boundary of Prague was downloaded from *Geoportal Praha's* website (*Úvod | Geoportál Hl. M. Prahy*, n.d.).

Distribution data of *iNaturalist* research grade observations for avian and flora species was downloaded using the export tool (*iNaturalist* 2018). Avian observations originally were filtered for a maximum positional accuracy of 50 meters, 10,108 observations remained. Those 10,108 observations were made up of 169 species reoccurring on average 60 times with a median reoccurrence value of 12.5. Species were then eliminated that occurred less than median value. The final number of observations was 9720 with 71 unique species. Each avian species was then given a designated GINI coefficient for dietary specialism that ranged from 0.047 to 1, with 1 being an indication of a specialist species and anything less than one indicating a nonspecialist (Morelli, Benedetti, et al., 2021).

AVIAN OBSERVATION DATA

| CATEGORY | Count |
|------------------------------------|--------|
| AVIAN SPECIES | 81 |
| DIETARY SPECIALIST SPECIES | 9 |
| DIETARY NON-SPECIALIST SPECIES | 72 |
| TOTAL NUMBER OF AVIAN OBSERVATIONS | 9681 |
| AVERAGE OBSERVATIONS PER SPECIES | 119.52 |

STANDARD DEVIATION OF OBSERVATIONS | 148.83
 PER SPECIES

Table 1. Avian observation data used for this study.

Flora species observations were also filtered for a maximum positional accuracy of 50 meters. Algal and moss species were also removed. The resulting 38,451 observations contained 1174 unique species. These species had an average reoccurrence rate of 32.75 and a median reoccurrence rate of 7. Any species reoccurred less than the median value was removed. The remaining 36,948 observations possessed 586 unique species. Each species was then designated as either native (having the geographic origin of the Czechia) or nonnative (including naturalized, casually invasive, and highly invasive species) through examining their listing in *Pladias: Database of the Czech Flora and Vegetation* (2014). In some cases, the naming convention used by *iNaturalist* did not correspond to any species listing in *Pladias*. When this occurred, the species was searched on *Plants of the World Online* (2017) to identify potential synonyms which were then searched again on *Pladias*.

FLORA OBSERVATION DATA

| CATEGORY | Count |
|--|-------|
| PLANT SPECIES | 586 |
| NATIVE PLANT SPECIES | 326 |
| NONNATIVE PLANT SPECIES | 260 |
| TOTAL NUMBER OF PLANT OBSERVATIONS | 36948 |
| AVERAGE OBSERVATIONS PER SPECIES | 63.16 |
| STANDARD DEVIATION OF OBSERVATIONS PER SPECIES | 87.67 |

Table 2. Plant observation data used for this study.

Imperviousness was used as a proxy for urbanization intensity of the Prague municipality. The imperviousness data was downloaded as a raster layer from the Pan European high-resolution layers available on *Copernicus.eu* (*Imperviousness, 2018*).

4.2. Data Processing

The acquired data was imported into GIS and then processed in two different methods. The first was a first was the use fishnet system that isolated proximate

observations into shared cells for analysis. The second was through interpolating the flora species presence to show a predicted distribution based off observations and extracting the values at each georeferenced avian species identification.

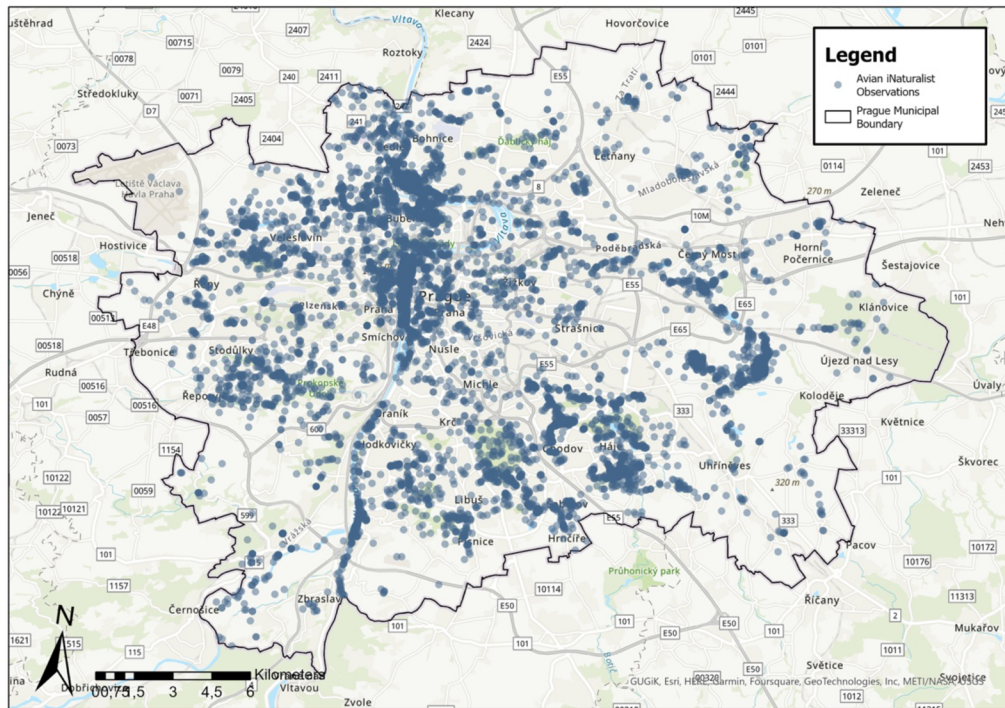


Figure 1. Distribution of all Avian iNaturalist Observations used in this study.

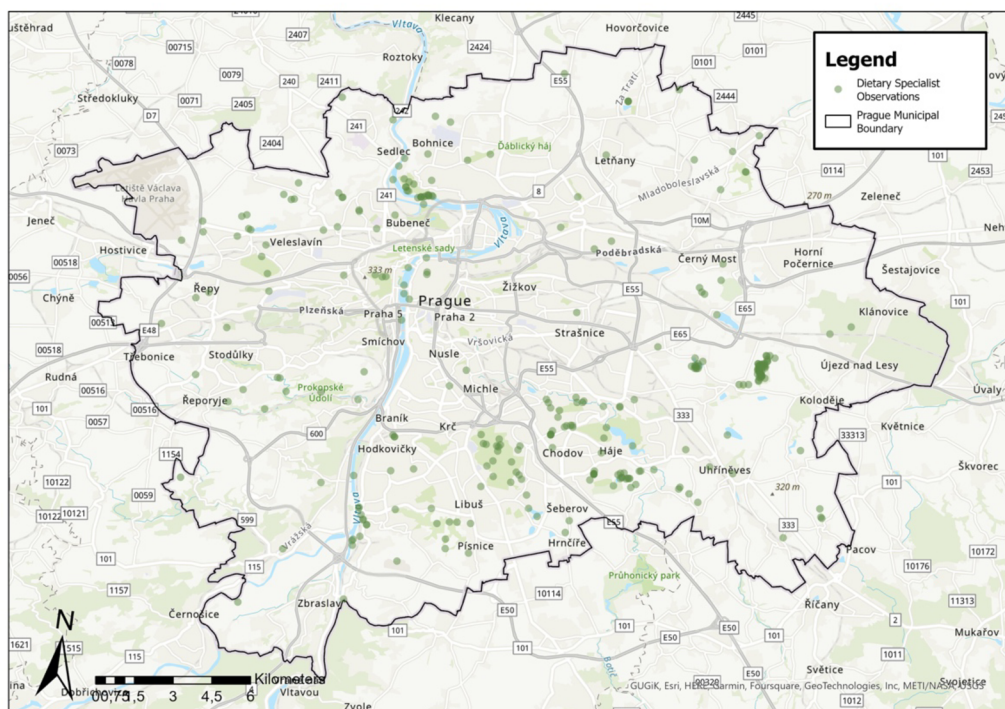


Figure 2. Distribution of avian dietary specialist iNaturalist observations used in this study. .

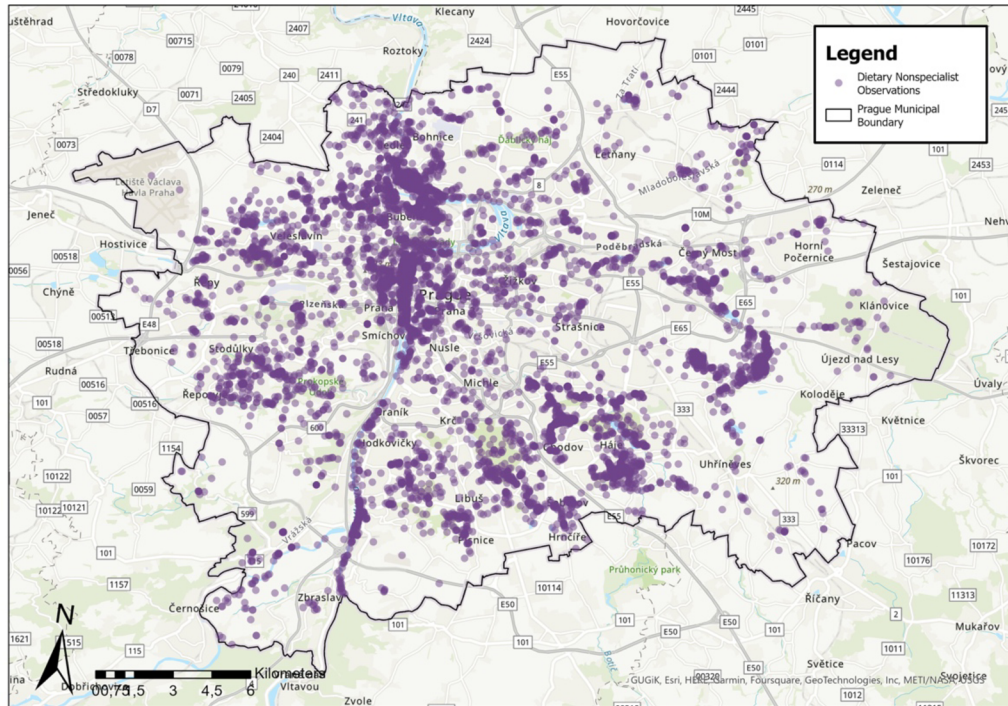


Figure 3. Distribution of avian dietary nonspecialist *iNaturalist* observations used in this study.

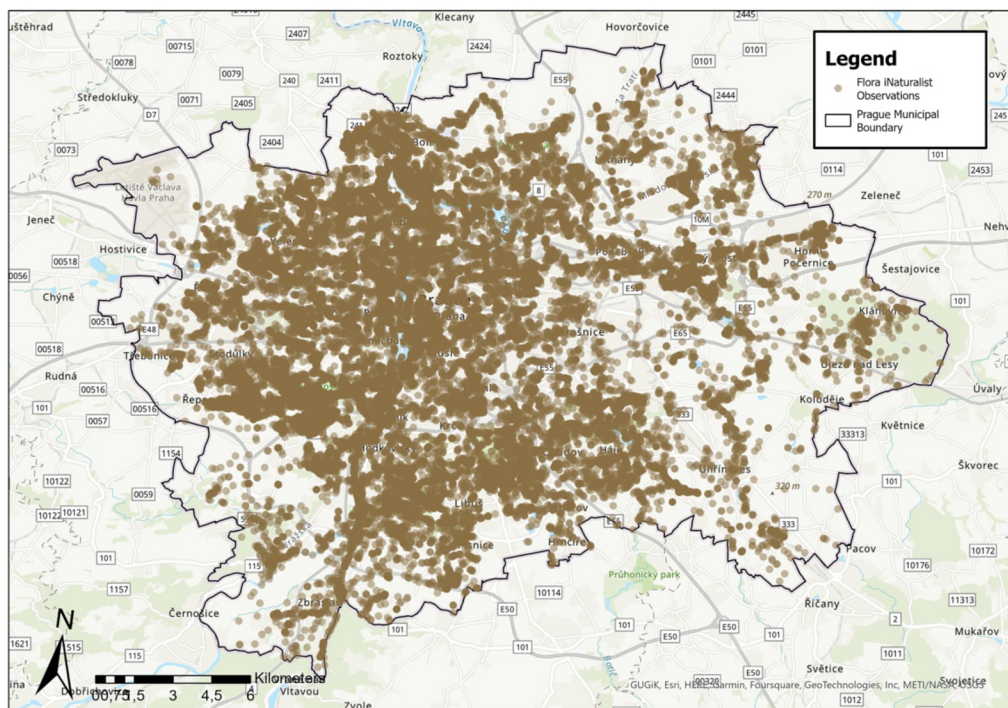


Figure 4. Distribution of all *iNaturalist* plant observations used in this study.

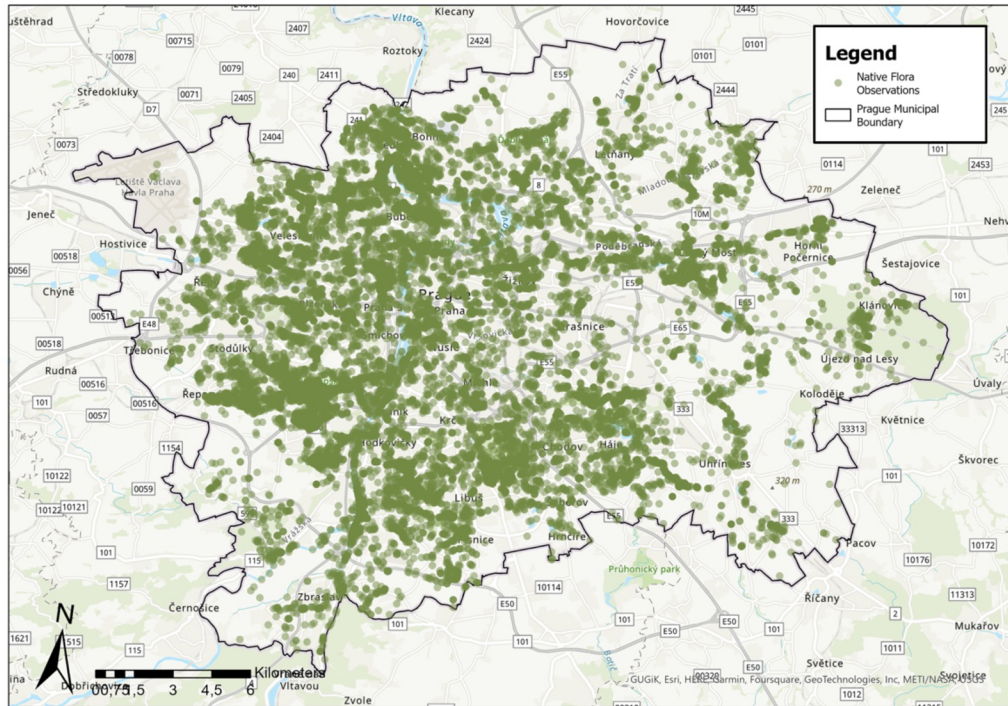


Figure 5. Distribution of iNaturalist native plant observations used in this study.

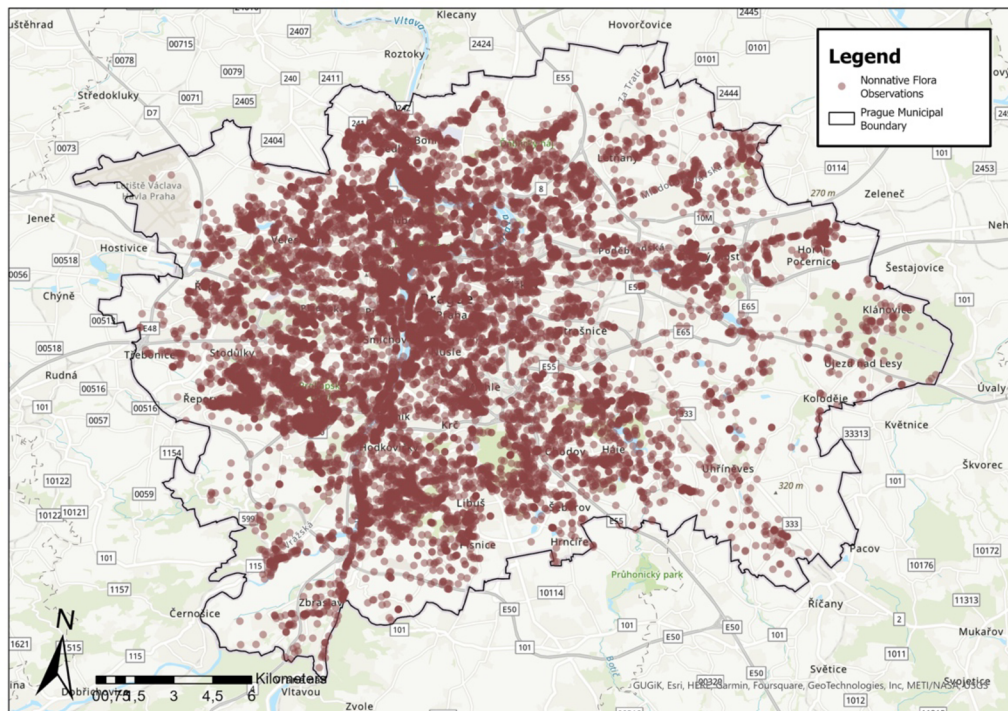


Figure 6. Distribution of iNaturalist nonnative plant observations used in this study.

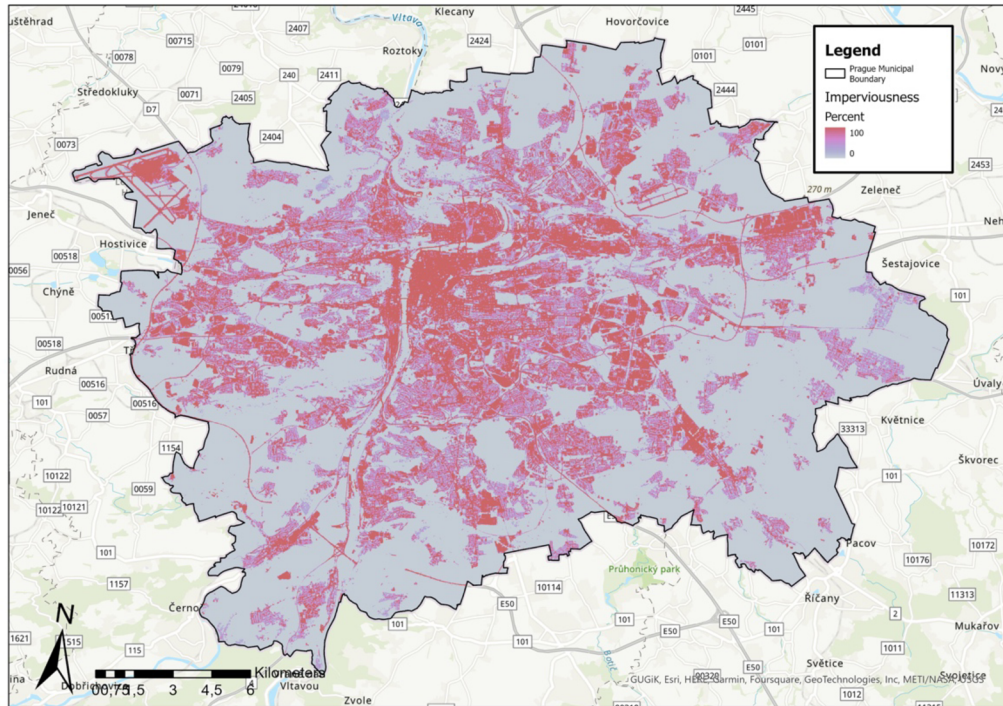


Figure 7. Imperviousness of Prague municipality.

4.3. Fishnet Method

A 100 meter by 100 meter cell fishnet was created for the full extent of the Prague municipal bounds. Plant observation counts were then joined to each cell they were geographically aligned with according to total plant observations, number of native plant observations, and number nonnative plant observations. A ratio of native to nonnative plants was also created and attributed to each cell. Avian observations were similarly attributed to the cell but with distinct categories (ie. total bird observations, specialist birds, and non-specialist birds according to their GINI value for dietary specialism). The average imperviousness of the urban area contained within each cell was also joined to the dataset for comparison. Cells that did not contain any plant observations and any bird observations were removed from analysis. This resulted 1265 cells for analysis due to uneven coverage of observation data. The mean values of plant count per cell, native plant count per cell, nonnative plant count per cell, ratio of native to nonnative plants, and imperviousness, was then calculated for cells that contained either specialist or non-specialist avian species, cells that were absent one of the avian groups, and cells that contained both groups. All independent variables were examined for covariance and linearity with the dependent variables.

A second fishnet analysis was conducted using the species richness of each cell per category instead of the observation count. The mean values and statistically

significant differences between the different avian groups was examined once again. Species richness for each category was also examined for linearity and covariance. These results were compared with the prior results for observation counts.

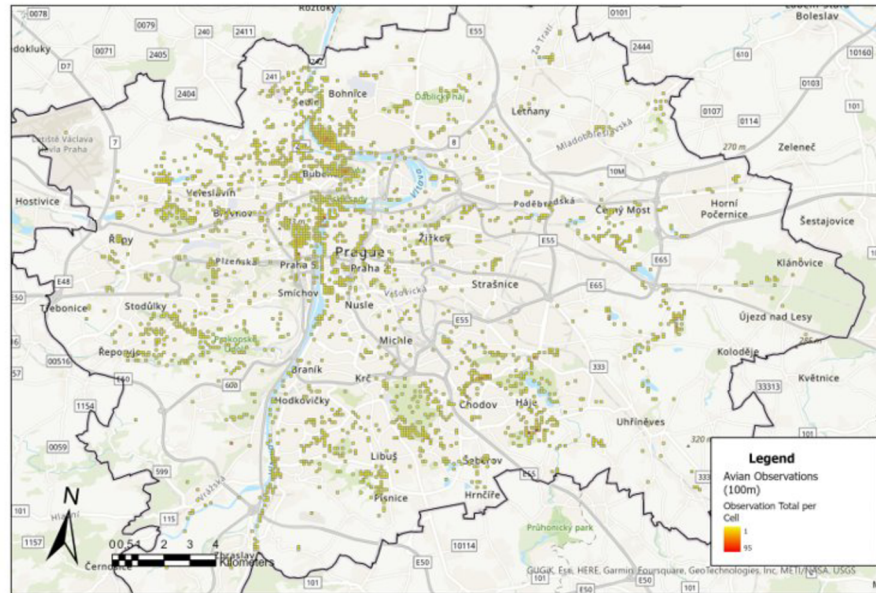


Figure 8. 100 meter by 100 meter Fishnet with cells containing avian observations displayed.

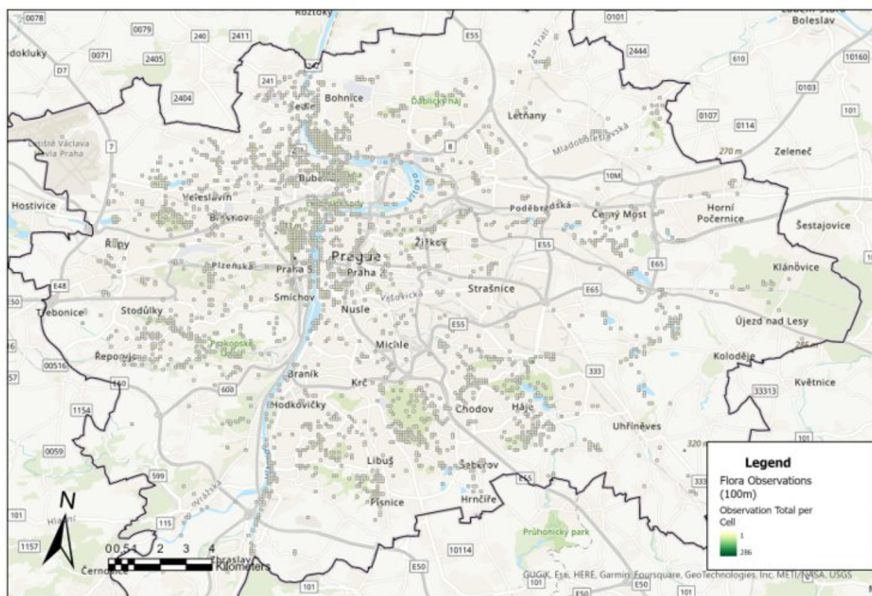


Figure 9. 100 meter by 100 meter fishnet with cells containing plant observations displayed.

4.4. Interpolation Methods

Due to the uneven coverage of observation data, flora distributions were also predicted through using kernel count interpolations. The flora observations were distinguished according to all plant observation count, native plant density, and nonnative plant density. The native and nonnative plant densities were used to create a ratio of native to nonnative plants. Impervious data was once again examined without any manipulation due to it being a continuous surface.

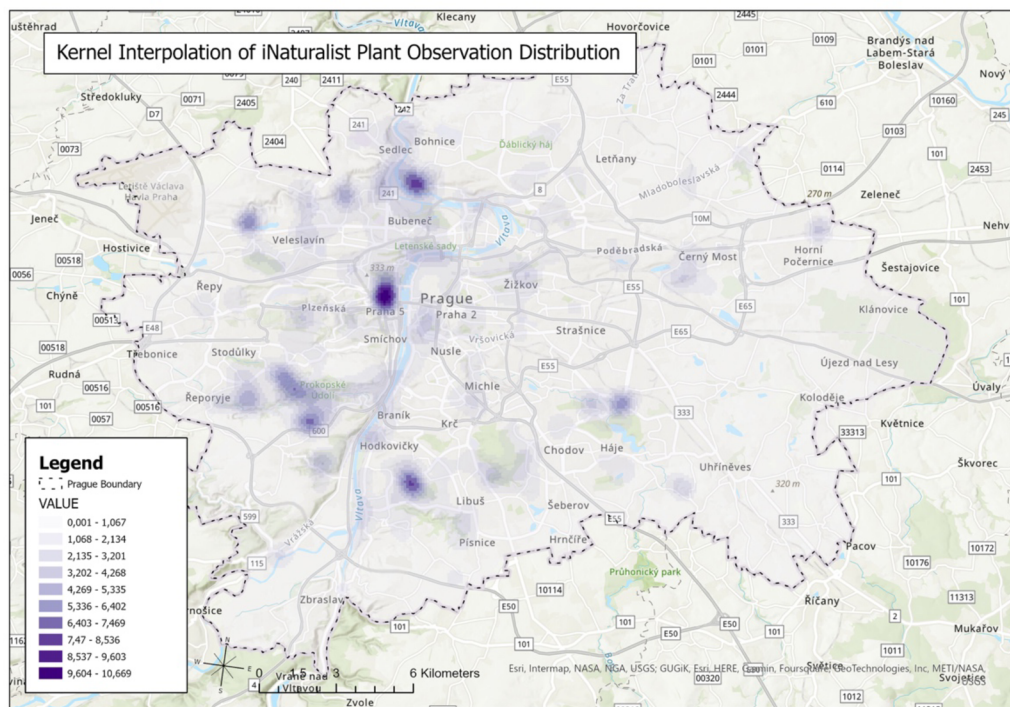


Figure 10. Plant count interpolated from iNaturalist observations.

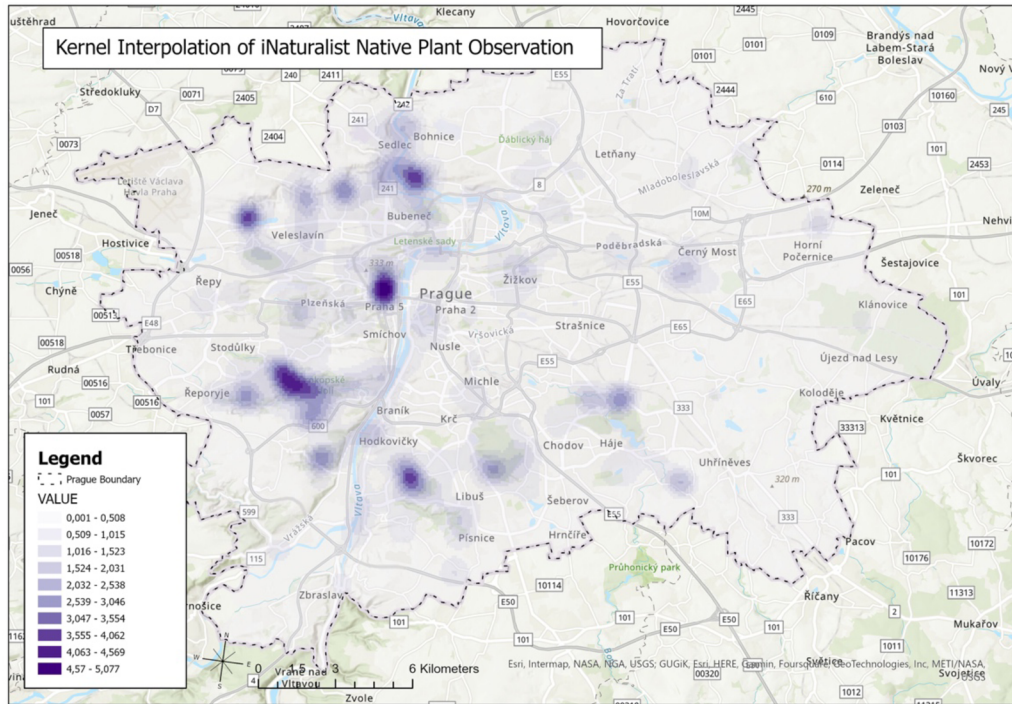


Figure 11. Native plant count interpolated from iNaturalist observations.

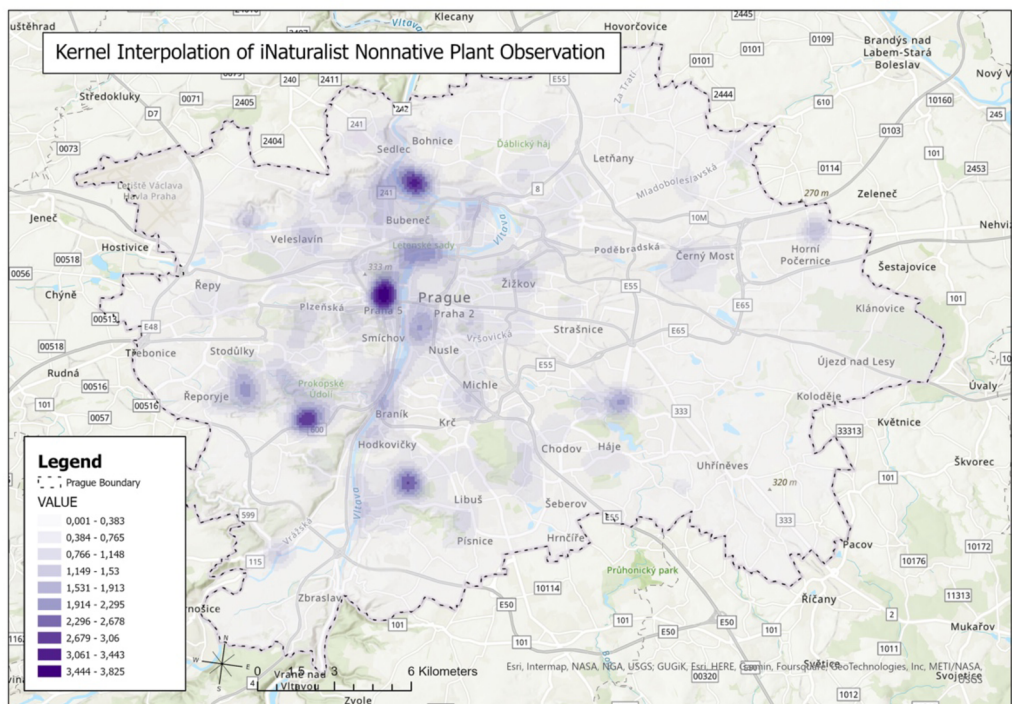


Figure 12. Nonnative plant count interpolated from iNaturalist observations.

The information about each interpolated distribution was then extracted to the individual location where each avian species was observed. The GINI value for dietary specialism was then used to distinguish avian groups between specialists and nonspecialists. Additional categories were created for the two types

of dietary specialism represented in the observation data (invertebrate specialists and endotherm specialists). A subcategory of non-specialists was also examined separately due to their species being previously noted as indicators of high environmental quality by Morelli, Reif, et al. (2021). P-values were then calculated for the mean difference in values of plant count, native plant observation density, nonnative plant observation density, the ratio between native to nonnative plants, and impervious for specialists, invertebrate specialists, endotherm specialists, nonspecialists, and indicators of high environmental quality.

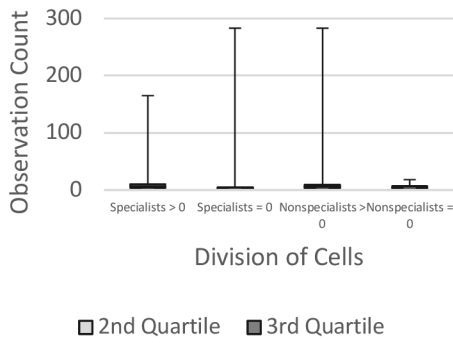
Differences of conservation status was also examined among the avian species represented in this study. The first distinction was made according to the IUCN red list (IUCN, 2022). Because the IUCN red list takes a broader perspective in assigning the status of avian species, the conservation status of avian species according to the Czech Nature Protection Agency was also considered (*Agentura Ochrany Přírody a Krajiny ČR, 2023*).

5. RESULTS

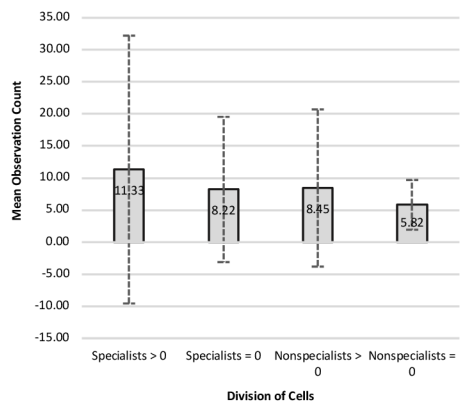
5.1. Fishnet Analysis

Examination of the fishnet cells compared the differences between mean values of cells that contained avian dietary specialist species, avian dietary nonspecialist species, and cells that were absent each group. Cells with avian dietary specialists (specialists > 0) had the highest mean values for all flora categories (mean plant observations, mean native plant observations, mean nonnative plant observations, and mean ratio of native to nonnative plant observations) (Figure 13). Cells with avian dietary specialists also had the lowest average imperviousness (Figure 13). Cells that were absent any avian dietary nonspecialists (nonspecialists = 0) had the lowest for all flora categories, while cells that did not have any specialists (specialists = 0) had the highest average imperviousness per cell (Figure 13).

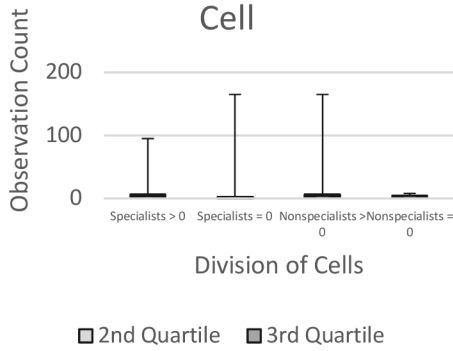
Distribution of Total Plant Observations per Cell



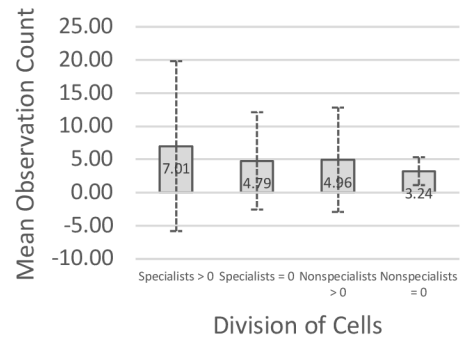
Mean Plant Observations Per Cell



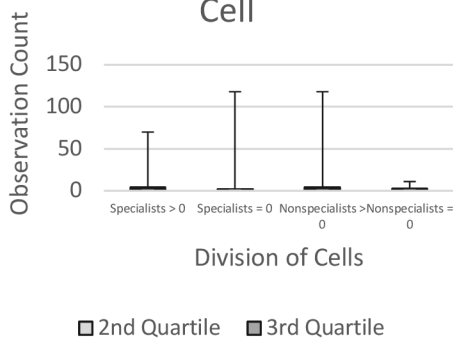
Distribution of Native Plant Observations per Cell



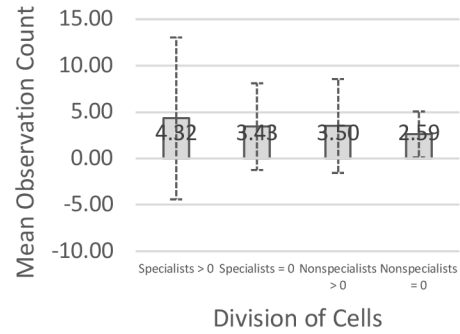
Mean Native Plant Observations per Cell



Distribution of Nonnative Plant Observations per Cell



Mean Nonnative Plant Observations per Cell



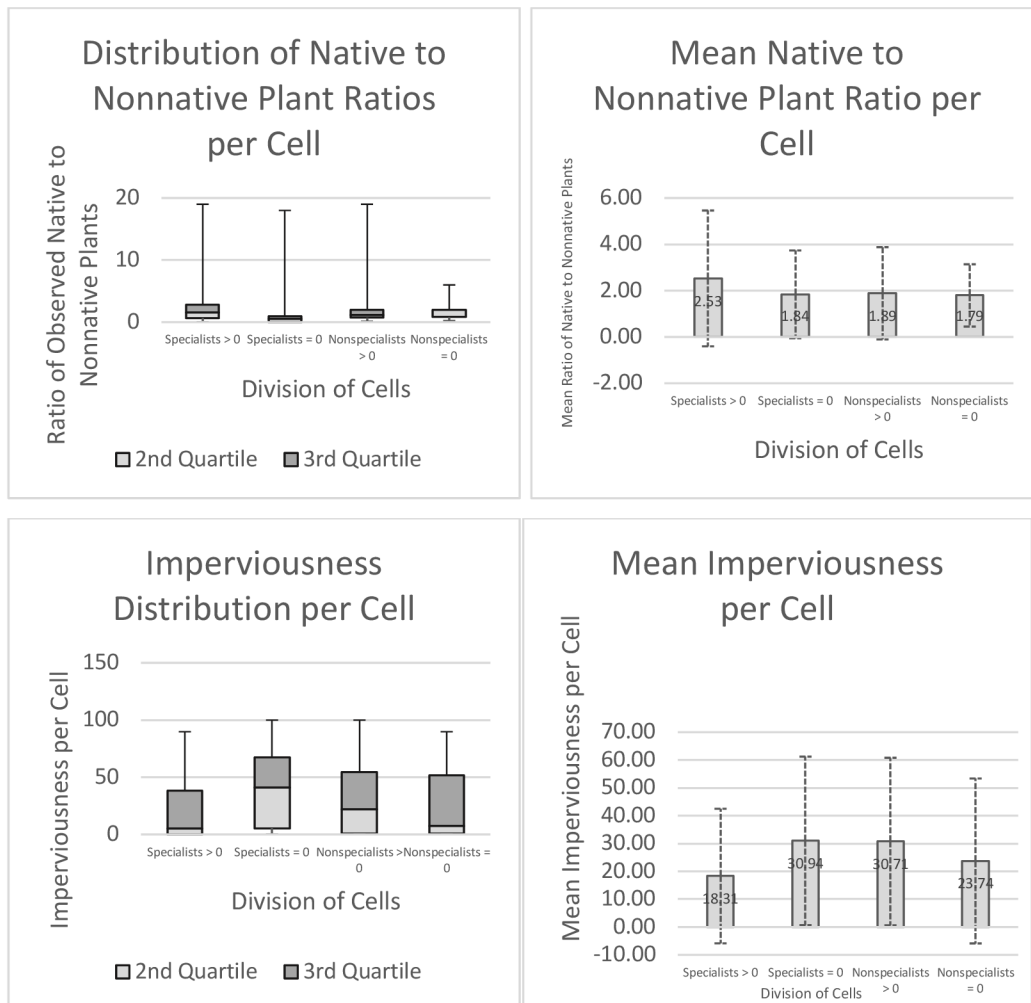


Figure 13. Charts for distribution of observation count values and respective means for each variable according to cells containing specialists and nonspecialists, or excluding specialists and nonspecialists.

5.1.1.1. Statistically Significant Differences

Cells that contained specialists in comparison to cells that did not were found to have statistically significant differences in mean plant observations ($p=0.0254$), mean native plant observations ($p=0.0129$), mean native to nonnative plant observations ($p=0.0023$), and imperviousness ($p=0.0002$). Cells that contained dietary specialists in comparison to cells that contained nonspecialists also had statistically significant differences between mean native to nonnative plant observations ($p=0.0065$), and imperviousness ($p=0.0003$) (Table 1).

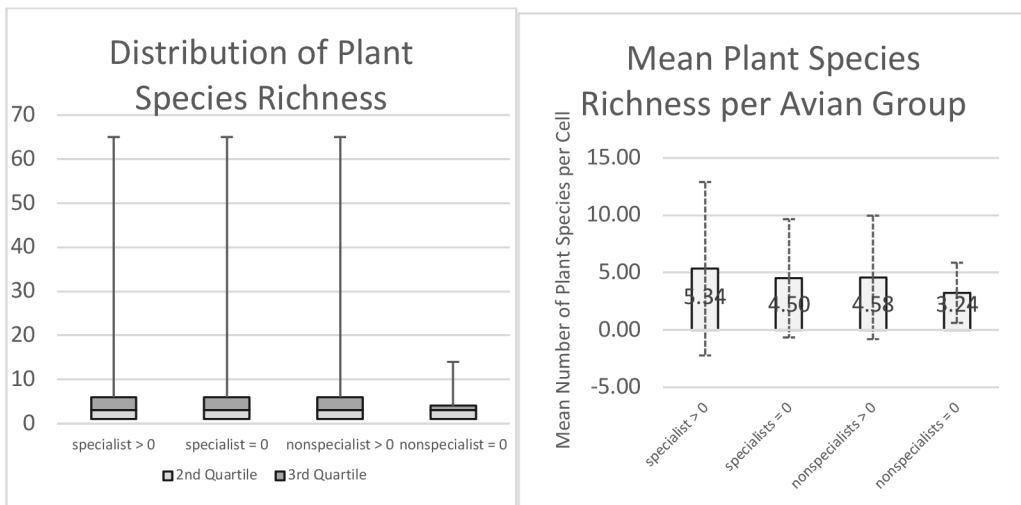
P VALUES

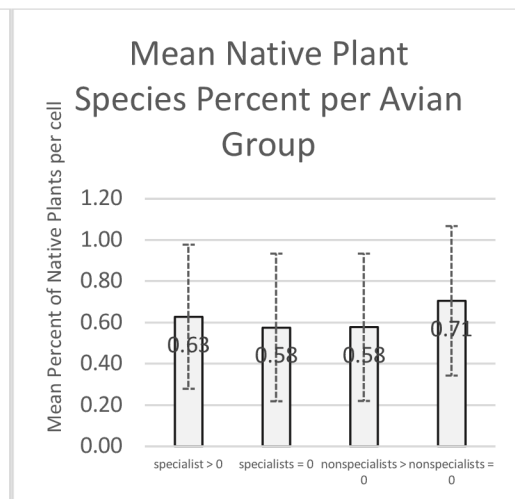
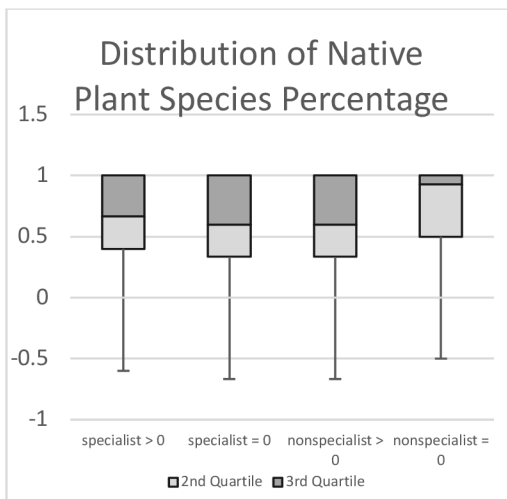
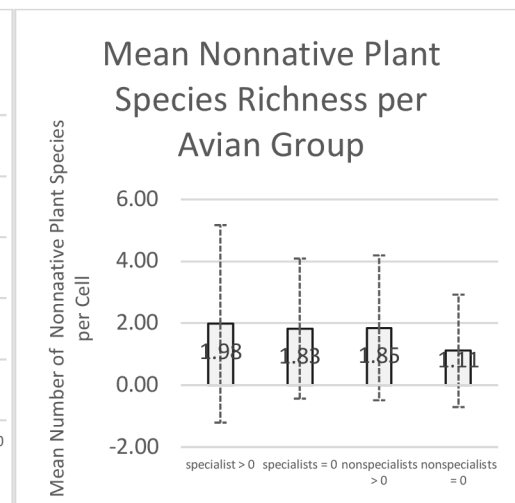
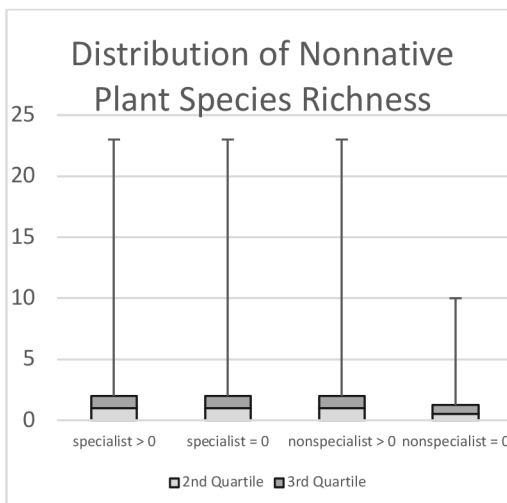
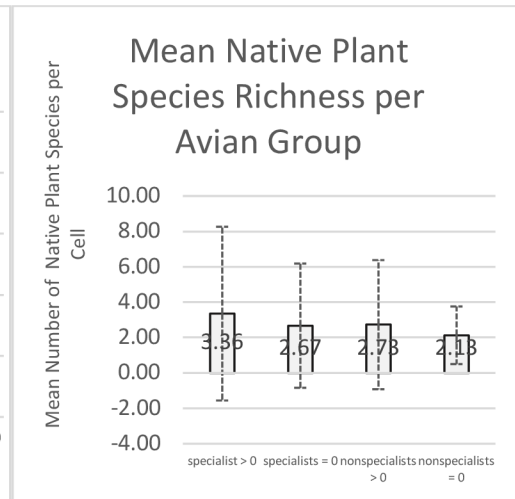
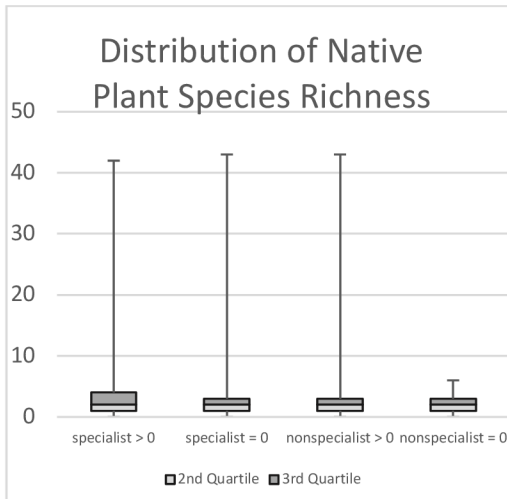
| | Mean Plant Obs. | Mean Native Obs. | Mean Nonnative Obs. | Native/Nonnative Plant Obs. Ratio | Imperviousness |
|-------------------------------|-----------------|------------------|---------------------|-----------------------------------|----------------|
| SPECIALIST = 0, > 0 | 0.0254 | 0.0129 | 0.1214 | 0.0023 | 0.0002 |

| | | | | | |
|--|--------|--------|--------|---------------|---------------|
| NONSPECIALIST = 0, > 0 | 0.3771 | 0.3681 | 0.4594 | 0.8364 | 0.3432 |
| SPECIALIST > 0, NONSPECIALIST > 0 | 0.5130 | 0.5973 | 0.1795 | 0.0065 | 0.0003 |
| SPECIALIST > 0, NONSPECIALIST = 0 | 0.2831 | 0.2314 | 0.4209 | 0.312 | 0.4201 |

Table 1. Statistical significance of the difference of means between cells containing specialists and nonspecialists or excluding specialists or nonspecialists. .

Results for species richness showed that the cells containing specialists had the highest means for all floristic categories except for the proportion of native species within the cell (Figure13). That group with the highest value were cells without nonspecialists (ie cells that did contain some specialists but had no presence of nonspecialists). Cells containing specialists also had the lowest mean imperviousness (Figure 13).





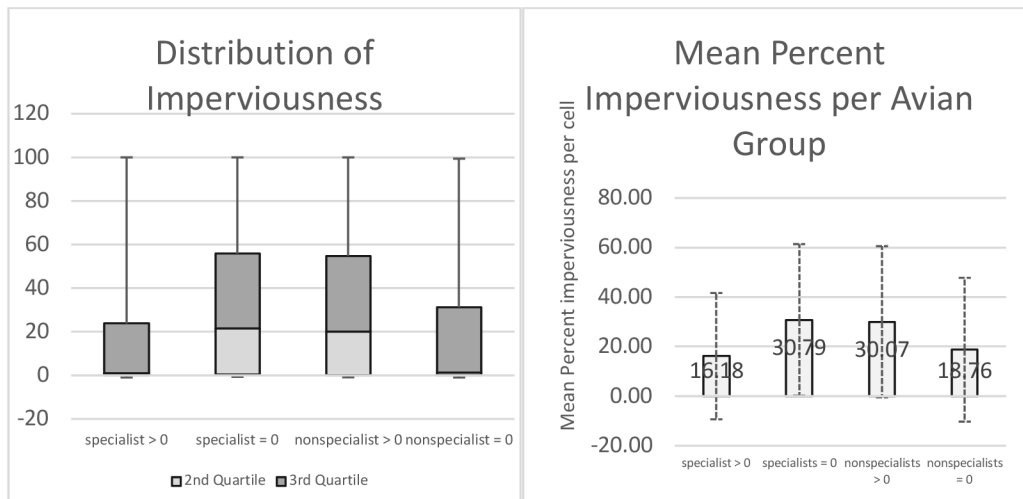


Figure 14. Charts for distribution of species richness values and respective means for each variable according to cells containing specialists and nonspecialists, or excluding specialists and nonspecialists.

P VALUES

| | Plant SR | Native Plant SR | Nonnative Plant SR | Percent Native | Mean Imperviousness |
|------------------------------------|----------|-----------------|--------------------|----------------|---------------------|
| SPEC > 0, SPEC = 0 | 0.061 | 0.0242 | 0.4332 | 0.0815 | 0.0001 |
| 8 | | | | | |
| SPEC > 0, NONSPEC > 0 | 0.103 | 0.0449 | 0.5218 | 0.0855 | 0.0001 |
| SPEC > 0, NONSPEC = 0 | 0.063 | 0.0947 | 0.0759 | 0.1916 | 0.5583 |
| 9 | | | | | |
| NONSPEC > 0, NONSPEC = 0 | 0.088 | 0.2620 | 0.0306 | 0.0149 | 0.0118 |
| 6 | | | | | |
| SPEC = 0, NONSPEC > 0 | 0.609 | 0.6009 | 0.7217 | 0.9358 | 0.4266 |
| 5 | | | | | |

Table 3. Statistical Significance of difference among means for each variable according to cells containing specialists and nonspecialists or cells excluding specialists and nonspecialists.

Statistically significant differences were found for the species richness of native plants for cells that contained dietary specialists compared to cells that did not, as well as for cells that contained specialists and cells that contained nonspecialists. The same groups had statistically significant differences for mean imperviousness (Table 3).

5.1.2. Linear Regression

Linear regression for both fishnet analysis for observation counts and species richness showed positive correlations for all plants, native plants, and nonnative plants with both observation counts and species richness of specialist and nonspecialist avian species (Figures 14 & 15). The positive correlation was higher for the cells containing avian observations and species richness as well as nonspecialist observations and species richness in comparison to cells containing specialist species (Figures 14 & 15). There was a negative trend for imperviousness across all avian groups (Figures 14 & 15). Observation count had mean higher correlation for all avian species and nonspecialists for plant data than species richness (Figures 15). There was no mean difference in correlation specialist species. Species Richness and imperviousness had a greater negative correlation for all avian species, specialist species, and nonspecialists species, than observation counts (Figures 14 & 15).

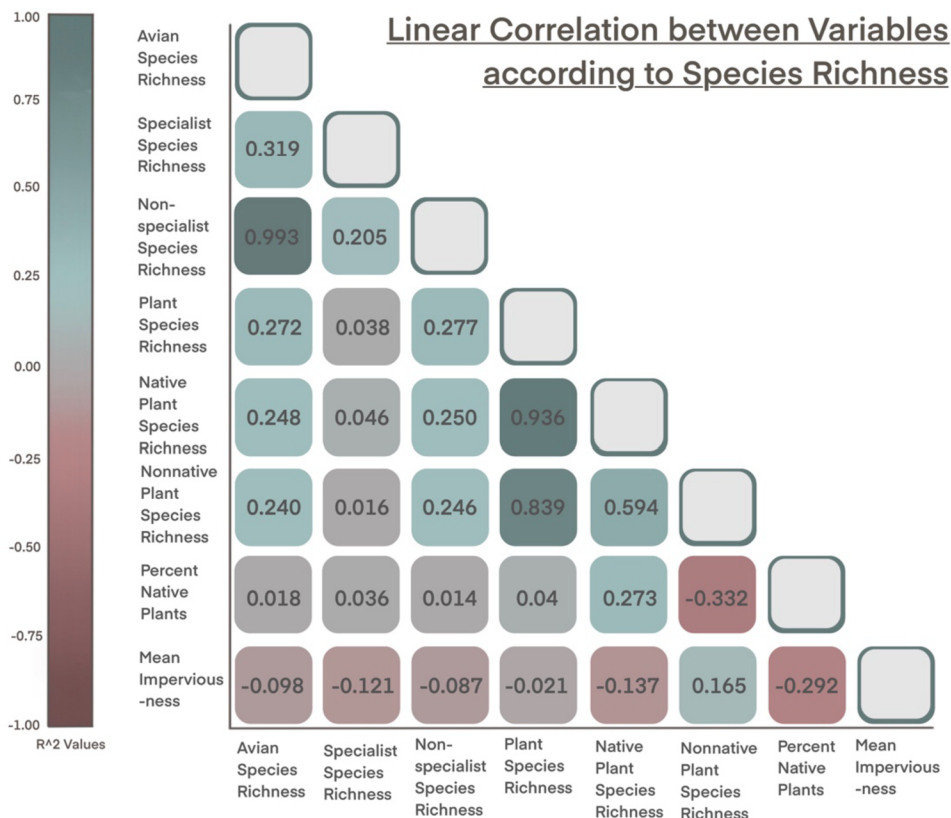


Figure 15. Correlogram for examined variables pertaining to species richness.

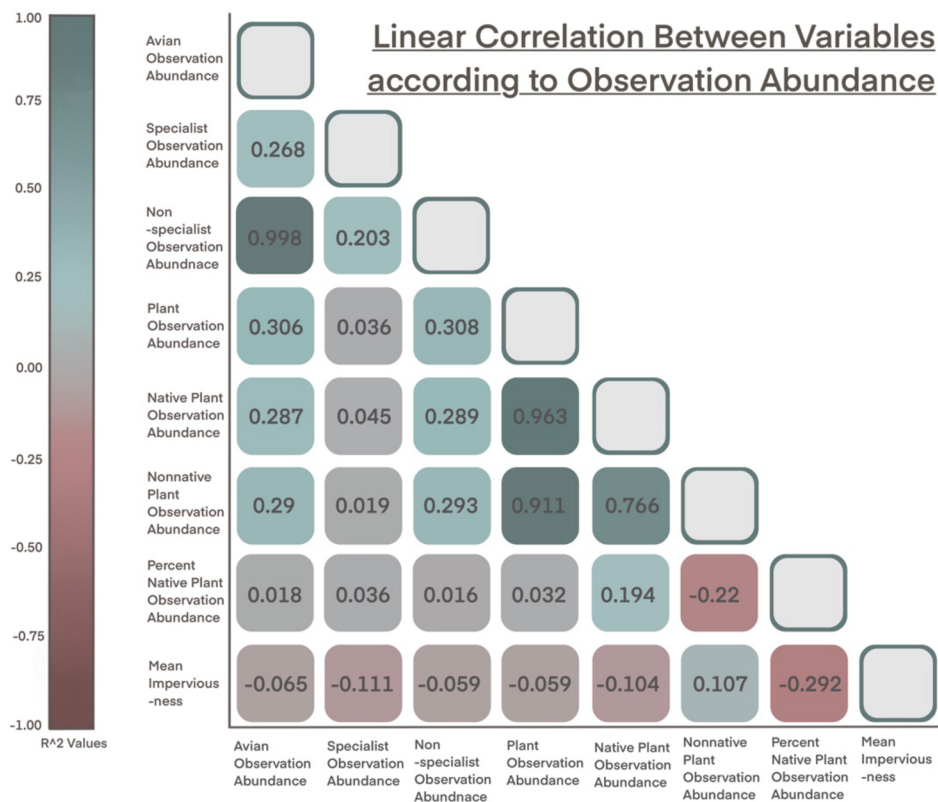


Figure 15. Correlogram for examined variables pertaining to observation abundance

5.2. Interpolation Results

The interpolated kernel map values for the flora categories were extracted for each avian species represented in the study. Impervious surface data was also extracted at each point of observation. These values were then averaged for each species. The avian species were then distinguished according to three different categorization methods for analysis. The first category was according to their IUCN Red List Status (Table 4).

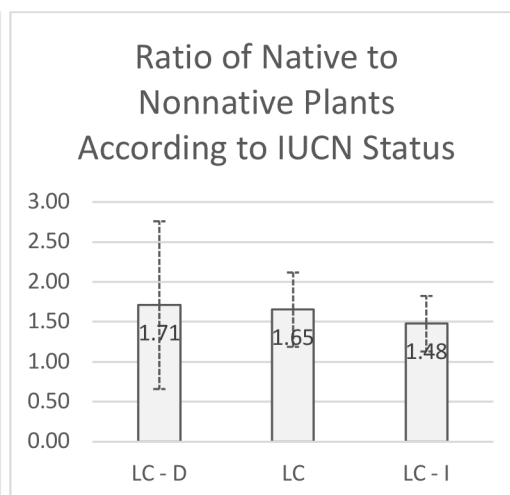
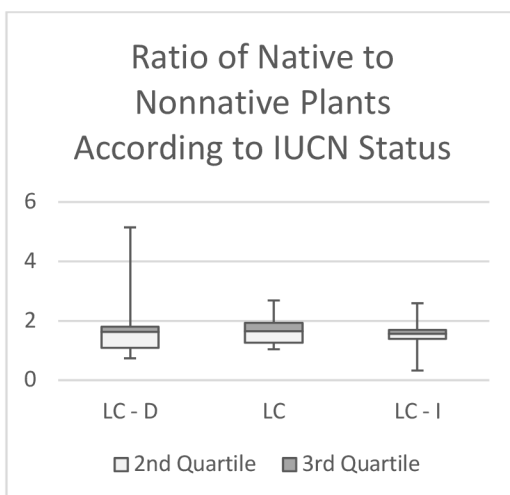
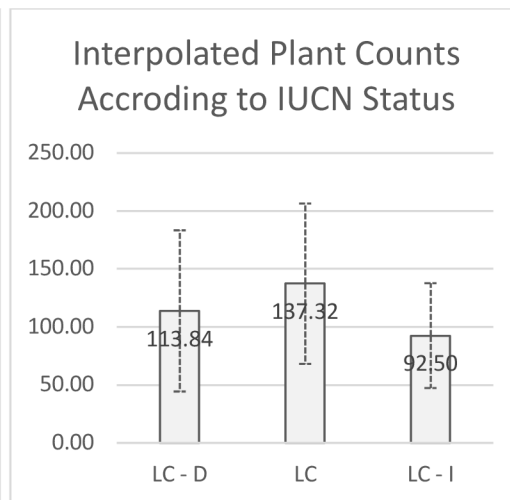
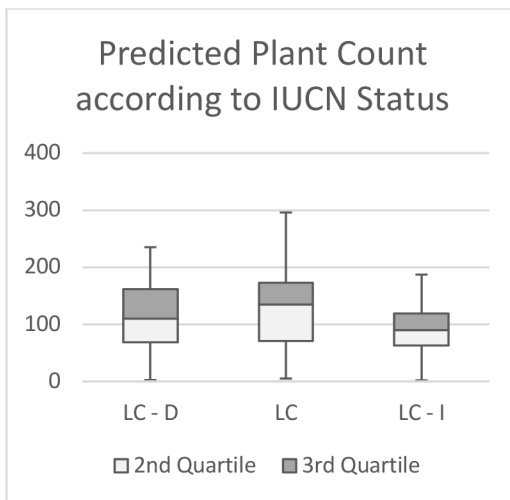
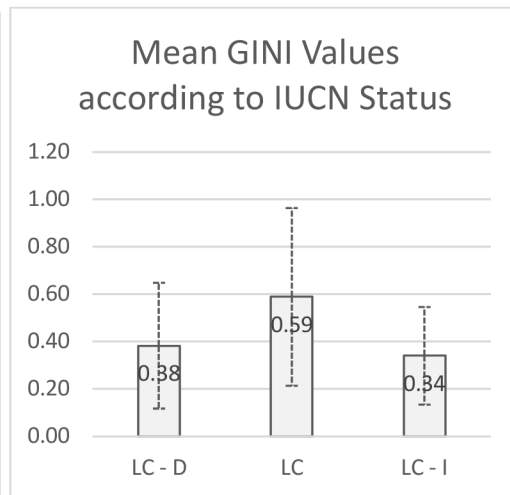
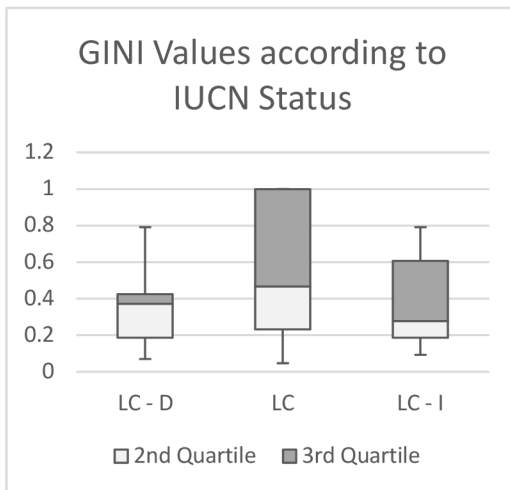
5.2.1. Results According to Conservation Status

| Least Concern – Population Decreasing | | Least Concern – Population Stable | | Least Concern – Population Increasing | |
|---------------------------------------|-------|-----------------------------------|------|---------------------------------------|-------|
| Species | GINI | Species | GINI | Species | GINI |
| <i>Asio otus</i> | 1 | <i>Apus apus</i> | 1 | <i>Aix sponsa</i> | 0.419 |
| <i>Aix galericulata</i> | 0.186 | <i>Charadrius dubius</i> | 1 | <i>Anas platyrhynchos</i> | 0.14 |
| <i>Carduelis carduelis</i> | 0.186 | <i>Delichon urbicum</i> | 1 | <i>Anser anser</i> | 0.605 |
| <i>Columba livia</i> | 0.372 | <i>Dryocopus martius</i> | 1 | <i>Buteo buteo</i> | 0.791 |

| | | | | | |
|-------------------------------|--------|------------------------------|--------|--------------------------------------|-------|
| <i>Emberiza citrinella</i> | 0.372 | <i>Ficedula hypoleuca</i> | 1 | <i>Coccothraustes coccothraustes</i> | 0.186 |
| <i>Falco tinnunculus</i> | 0.791 | <i>Motacilla alba</i> | 1 | <i>Columba palumbus</i> | 0.233 |
| <i>Linaria cannabina</i> | 0.186 | <i>Motacilla cinerea</i> | 1 | <i>Curruca communis</i> | 0.326 |
| <i>Passer domesticus</i> | 0.372 | <i>Accipiter nisus</i> | 1 | <i>Cyanistes caeruleus</i> | 0.14 |
| <i>Passer montanus</i> | 0.442 | <i>Aegithalos caudatus</i> | 0.302 | <i>Cygnus olor</i> | 0.605 |
| <i>Phasianus colchicus</i> | 0.163 | <i>Aythya fuligula</i> | 0.233 | <i>Dendrocopos major</i> | 0.256 |
| <i>Poecile palustris</i> | 0.185 | <i>Chloris chloris</i> | 0.232 | <i>Erithacus rubecula</i> | 0.116 |
| <i>Spatula clypeata</i> | 0.4096 | <i>Curruca curruca</i> | 0.326 | <i>Fringilla coelebs</i> | 0.349 |
| <i>Sturnus vulgaris</i> | 0.07 | <i>Gallinula chloropus</i> | 0.2563 | <i>Fulica atra</i> | 0.093 |
| <i>Tachybaptus ruficollis</i> | 0.628 | <i>Garrulus glandarius</i> | 0.186 | <i>Parus major</i> | 0.14 |
| | | <i>Luscinia megarhynchos</i> | 0.465 | <i>Phalacrocorax carbo</i> | 0.605 |
| | | <i>Pica pica</i> | 0.047 | <i>Phoenicurus ochruros</i> | 0.372 |
| | | <i>Sitta europaea</i> | 0.442 | <i>Phoenicurus phoenicurus</i> | 0.628 |
| | | <i>Spinus spinus</i> | 0.186 | <i>Phylloscopus collybita</i> | 0.605 |
| | | <i>Turdus pilaris</i> | 0.512 | <i>Picus viridis</i> | 0.791 |
| | | | | <i>Streptopelia decaocto</i> | 0.186 |
| | | | | <i>Sylvia atricapilla</i> | 0.256 |
| | | | | <i>Troglodytes troglodytes</i> | 0.302 |
| | | | | <i>Turdus merula</i> | 0.233 |
| | | | | <i>Turdus philomelos</i> | 0.233 |

Table 4. Avian species according to their IUCN Status and GINI values for dietary specialism.

Every species represented in the study was designated as Least Concern. The analysis was conducted according to their population information which was either decreasing, stable, or increasing (abbreviated to LC-D, LC, and LC-I in the following charts) (Figure 15). The information regarding native plant count and nonnative plant count was collapsed into the ratio between the two groups for this portion.



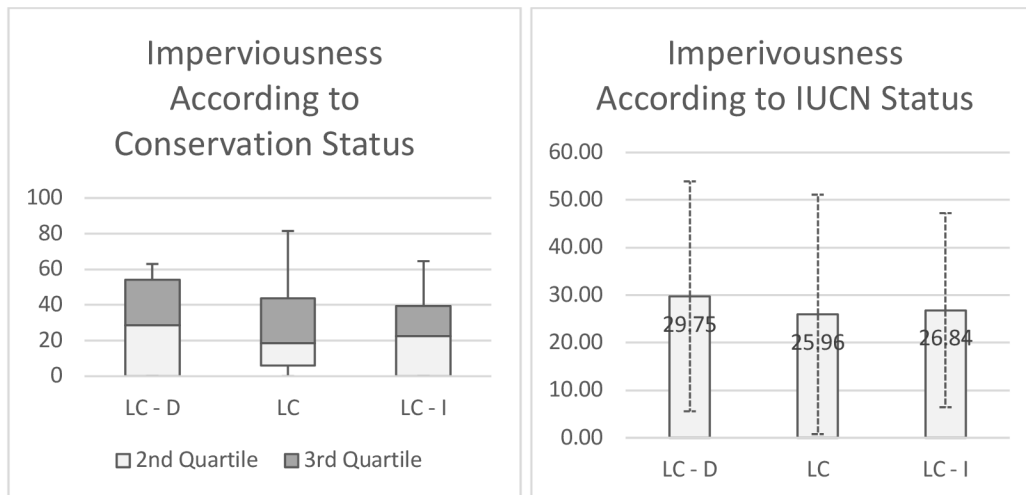


Figure 15. Charts for distribution of values and respective means for each variable avian species' IUCN conservation status.

The species listed under Least Concern with Increasing populations showed a lower mean GINI value for dietary specialism, lower average plant count, and lower native to nonnative plant ratio than the species with stable or decreasing populations (Figure 15). The group with the highest mean GINI value and highest plant count was the stable group (Figure 15). The differences in the means were then examined for statistical significance (Table 5).

P VALUES

| | GINI | Average count of Interpolated Plant Oservations | impervious surface | Ratio of Native to Exotic Plants |
|---------------------|---------------|---|--------------------|----------------------------------|
| LC D VS LC | 0.0665 | 0.3115 | 0.6448 | 0.8290 |
| LC D VS LC I | 0.5617 | 0.2344 | 0.6759 | 0.3075 |
| LC VS LC I | 0.0071 | 0.0121 | 0.8973 | 0.153 |

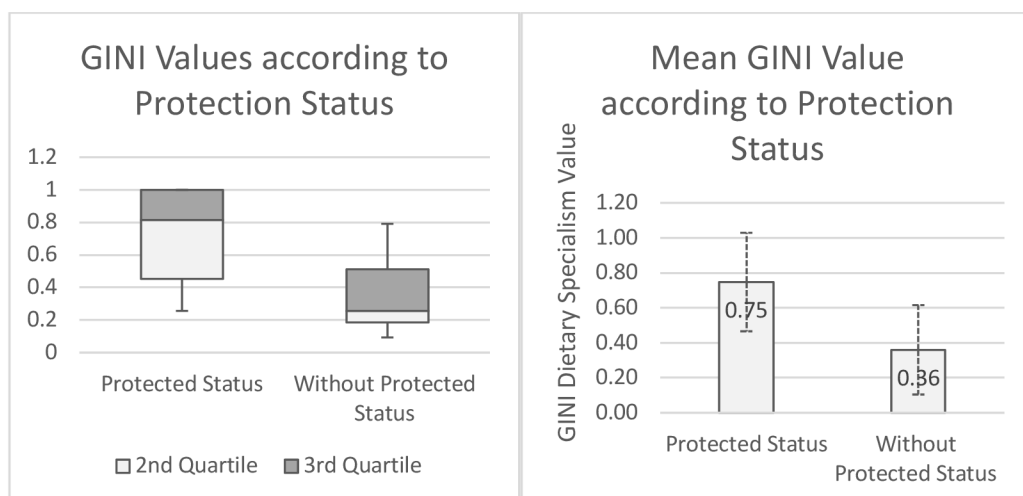
Table 5. Statistical Significance of the difference of means between Avian species according to their IUCN conservation status.

The only groups with statistically significant differences in the mean were the stable and increasing populations groups in reference to their mean GINI values ($p=0.0071$) and average interpolated plant count ($p=0.0121$) (Table 5).

The avian species were also examined in reference to their protection status within the Czech Republic (Table 6). There were 9 species total with some form of protection status (protected under the Birds Directive, listed as vulnerable, near endangered, endangered, or severely endangered). Of those 9 species 6 of them were dietary specialists. The protected species were then compared for average plant count, native to nonnative plant ratio, and average imperviousness against the species without a protection status (Figure 16).

| Species | GINI | Protection Status |
|-------------------------------|--------|---------------------|
| <i>Dryocopus martius</i> | 1 | Birds Directive |
| <i>Anser anser</i> | 0.605 | Vulnerable |
| <i>Charadrius dubius</i> | 1 | Vulnerable |
| <i>Cygnus olor</i> | 0.605 | Vulnerable |
| <i>Delichon urbicum</i> | 1 | Near Endangered |
| <i>Ficedula hypoleuca</i> | 1 | Near Endangered |
| <i>Gallinula chloropus</i> | 0.2563 | Near Endangered |
| <i>Apus apus</i> | 1 | Endangered |
| <i>Luscinia megarhynchos</i> | 0.465 | Endangered |
| <i>Tachybaptus ruficollis</i> | 0.628 | Endangered |
| <i>Accipiter nisus</i> | 1 | Severely Endangered |
| <i>Spatula clypeata</i> | 0.4096 | Severely Endangered |

Table 6. Designated species for protected status by the Nature Protection Agency of the Czech Republic.



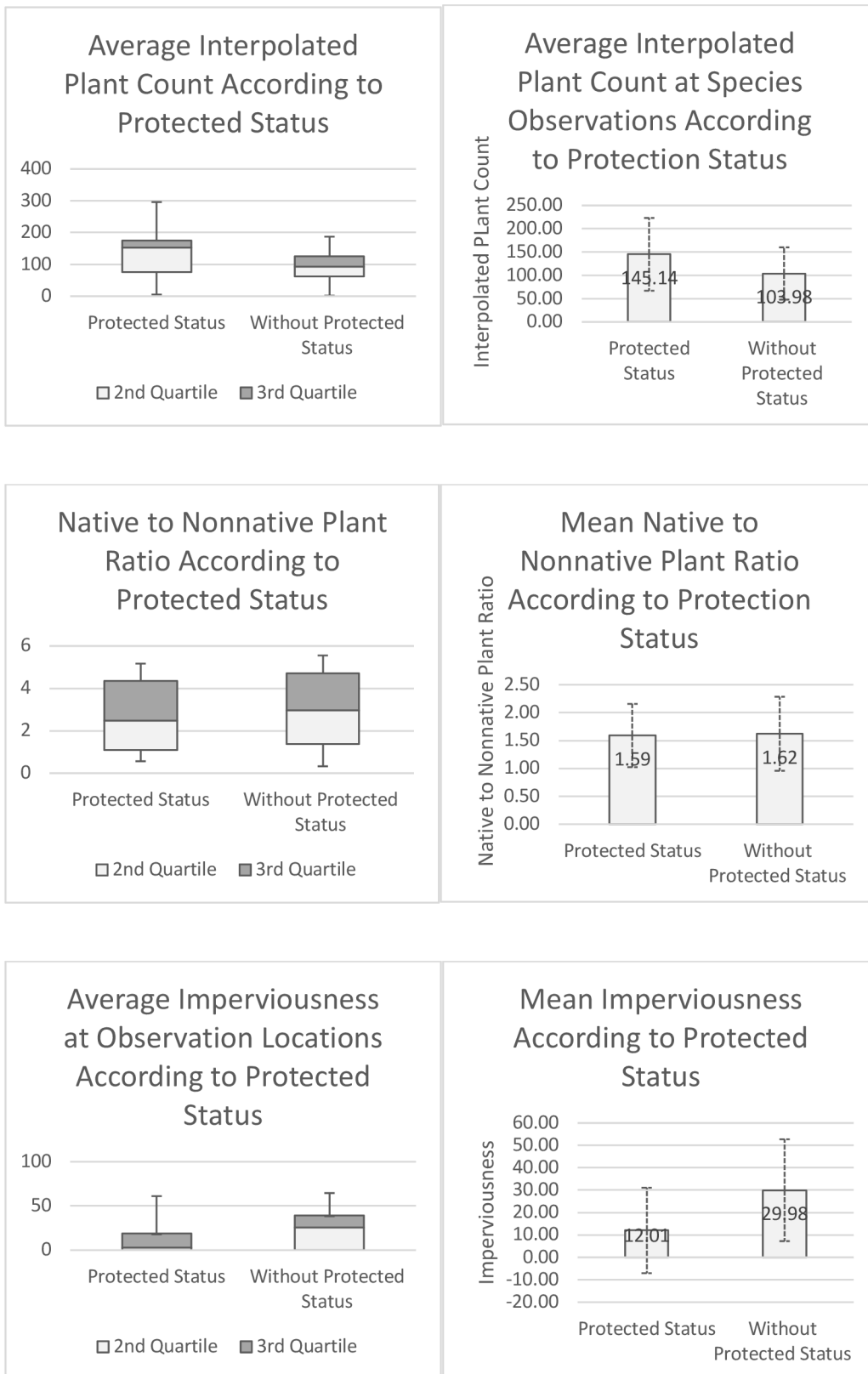


Figure 16. Charts for distribution of values and respective means for each variable avian species' protection status within the Czech Republic.

The protected avian species had higher average GINI values and plant counts while the unprotected birds had a higher average native to nonnative plant ratio and average imperviousness (Figure 16). The difference in these means was found to be statistically significant for the GINI values ($p=0.0001$), average plant count ($p=0.0271$), and impervious surface ($p=0.0065$) (Table 7).

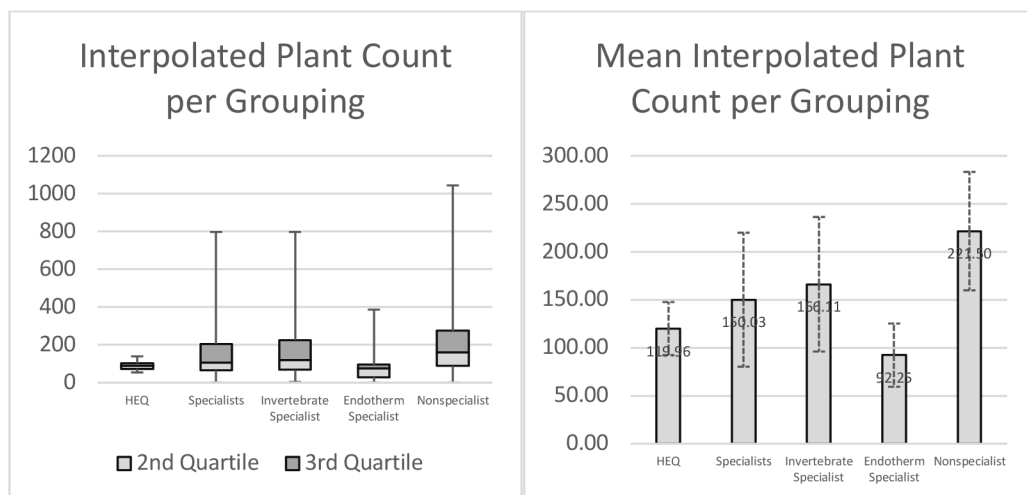
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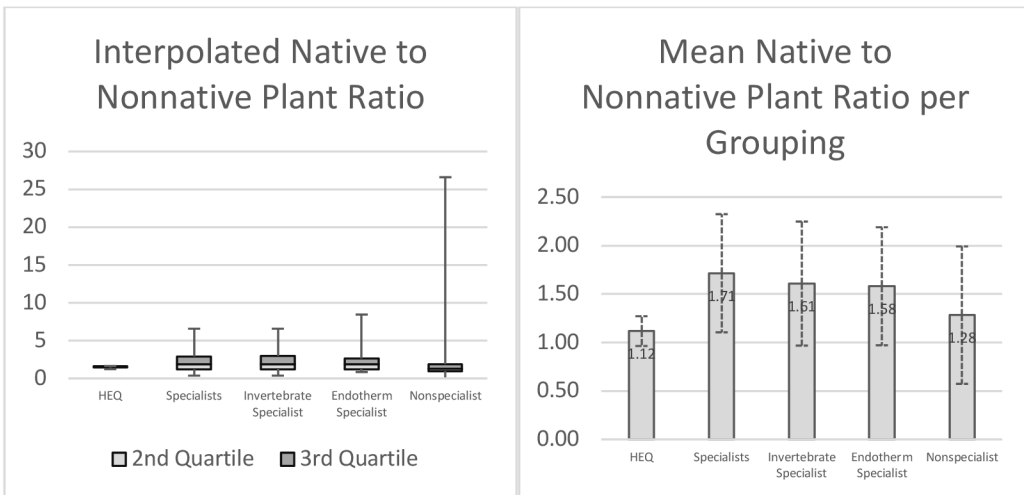
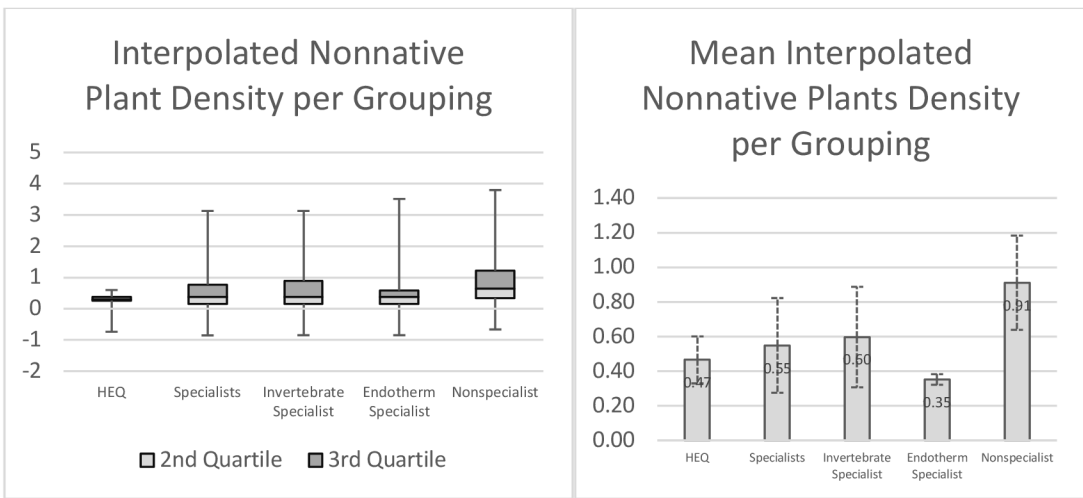
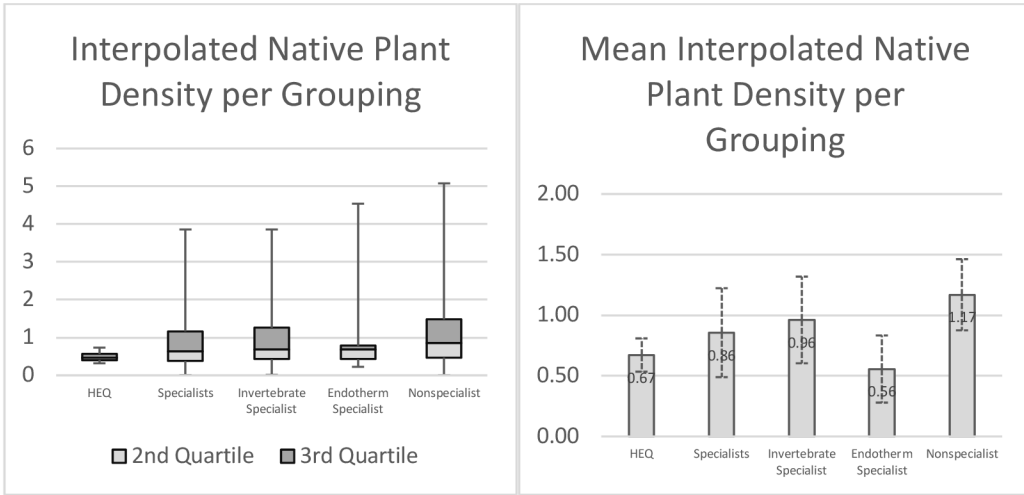
| | GINI | Average count of Interpolated Plant Observations | Impervious surface | Ratio of Native to Exotic Plants |
|---|---------------|--|--------------------|----------------------------------|
| PROTECTED STATUS VS NOT PROTECTED STATUS | 0.0001 | 0.0271 | 0.0065 | 0.8681 |

Table 7. Statistical Significance of difference between means for protected and unprotected avian species within the Czech Republic.

5.2.2. Results According to Dietary Specialism

The final way the interpolated kernel values were analyzed was according to dietary specialism for each species. Five groups were created in total, dietary specialists, invertebrate specialists, endotherm specialists, nonspecialists, and indicators of high environmental quality (all belonging to nonspecialists) (Figure 17).





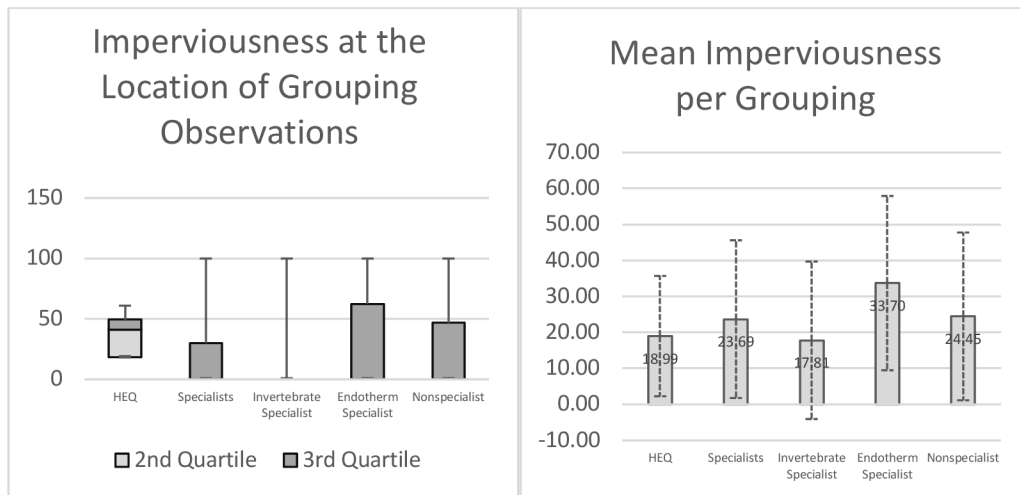


Figure 17. Charts for distribution of values and respective means for each variable avian group.

The nonspecialists had the highest means for the flora categories excluding the ratio of native to nonnative plants for which the specialists had the highest value (Figure 17). The endotherm specialists had the highest imperviousness per group and the lowest values for the flora categories excluding the ratio of native to nonnative plants (Figure 17). The means for the indicators of high environmental quality was towards the middle for each respective category.

P VALUES FOR EACH VARIABLE TESTED

| T TEST COMPARISONS | All Plant Count | Native Plant Density | Nonnative Plant Density | Ratio Native to Exotic | Imperviousness |
|--|-----------------|----------------------|-------------------------|------------------------|----------------|
| SPECIALIST VS NONSPECIALISTS | 0.0026 | 0.0062 | 0.0005 | 0.0914 | 0.9292 |
| INSECT SPECIALIST VS ENDOTHERM SPECIALIST | 0.2058 | 0.1890 | 0.2936 | 0.9577 | 0.402 |
| HEQ VS SPECIALIST | 0.3382 | 0.2638 | 0.5043 | 0.0371 | 0.6640 |
| HEQ VS NONSPECIALISTS | 0.0002 | 0.0001 | 0.0002 | 0.5763 | 0.5809 |

Table 8. Statistical significance of the difference of means for avian groups.

The differences in mean values that were statistically significant were for the floristic categories excluding mean ratio of native to exotic plants between

specialists and nonspecialists (Table 8). The indicators of high environmental quality also had statistically significant lower values for all floristic categories in comparison to the nonspecialists. There were no statistically significant differences found for imperviousness between the avian groups. The prior averages and sample sizes were determined at the species level for species belonging to each group due to the large sample size of nonspecialist observations (n=9252) diluting the potential statistical significance between results.

The difference in means for insect specialists (n=249) and endotherm specialists (n=40) was reexamined for statistical significance accounting for the number of observations rather than number of species and each variable tested was found to have statistically significant differences (Table 9).

P VALUES FOR EACH VARIABLE TESTED

| T TEST COMPARISONS | All Plant Count | Native Plant Density | Nonnative Plant Density | Ratio Native to Exotic | Imperviousness |
|--|-----------------------|----------------------------|-------------------------------|------------------------------|----------------|
| INSECT SPECIALIST OBSERVATIONS VS ENDOTHERM SPECIALIST OBSERVATIONS | 0.0041 | 0.003 | 0.001 | 0.0011 | 0.0099 |

Table 9. Statistical significance for the difference of means between invertebrate specialists and endotherm specialists.

6. DISCUSSION

6.1. Distribution of Flora Species

My results showed that, as expected, the distribution of native plants was more strongly correlated with overall plant species richness and observation abundance ($r^2=0.936$, $r^2=0.963$) in comparison to the nonnative plants ($r^2=0.839$, $r^2=0.911$) (Figures 14 & 15). The slightly higher values for native species in comparison to nonnative species can be explained due to the native species making up a higher proportion of overall observations. The collinearity of native and nonnative plants was still positive, but less strong. The correlation between native and nonnative plants for observation abundance ($r^2=0.766$) was higher than the correlation for species richness ($r^2=0.594$). This suggests that while many native and

nonnative species may co-occupy areas with observation data, there are still habitats within which distinct floristic communities are observed that may be majority native species or majority exotic species.

6.1.1. Distribution of Flora Species in Comparison to Increasing Imperviousness

The fishnet linear regression of flora observation data both in the form of abundance data and species richness showed overall negative correlations within increasing imperviousness ($r^2=-0.21$, $r^2=-0.21$) (Figures 14 & 15). When distinguishing between native and nonnative plant species, increasing imperviousness had a negative correlation for native species richness and abundance ($r^2=-0.137$, $r^2=-0.104$), but nonnative species had a slight positive correlation for both species richness and observation abundance ($r^2=0.166$, $r^2=0.107$). Similarly, the percent of native plants overall observed within each cell was negatively correlated with increasing imperviousness ($r^2=-0.292$) (Figure 15). Both the negative correlation for native species and positive correlation for nonnative species with increasing imperviousness were stronger for species richness in comparison to the number of observations. As a surrogate for the urban-to-rural axis, these trends along increasing imperviousness follow the previously described process of biotic homogenization where commonly reoccurring urban species occupy novel habitats created by urban environments that regionally native species may not be well suited for (McKinney & Lockwood, 2001). Because this study only occurs within the municipal region of Prague and the observation data is concentrated in high-traffic areas, it is hard to determine how species richness in the habitat patches within the urban center compares to adjacent rural areas, but in general the decreasing observation counts and species richness with increasing imperviousness contradicts the suggestion by Zipperer and Guntenspergen that species richness would increase overall in urban habitat patches (2009). They observed that overall species richness increases because native species are maintained while nonnative species increase. Their observation of this phenomenon occurred within a relatively young cities in the United States compared to Prague which had its first settlement in the 9th century AD (Richard & Jan, 1998). As a result, the replacement of native species with nonnative may not be as pronounced as in older cities.

6.2. Distribution of Avian Species

The distribution of specialist avian species richness and observation abundance had a low correlation to the distribution of all avian species when examined with linear regression ($r^2=0.319$, $r^2=0.268$) (Figures 14 & 15). The slightly

higher correlation (+0.051) for species richness compared to observation abundance indicates that specialist species were less likely to have multiple observations within the same fishnet cells. The distribution of nonspecialist species; however, had a near one-to-one correlation for both species richness ($r^2=0.993$) and observation abundance ($r^2=0.998$). This suggests that nearly every cell that had avian observations, had nonspecialist observation numbers and species richness that increased in proportion to the cell totals. Specialist species and nonspecialist species also had a positive, but low, correlation between both groups' species richness and observation abundance ($r^2=0.205$, $r^2=0.203$). This suggests that the specialist and nonspecialist species are making use of distinct habitats within the sampled area or increase at rates independent of each other.

6.2.1. Distribution of Avian Species in comparison to Increasing Imperviousness

There was a slight negative correlation between imperviousness and all avian species, specialist and nonspecialist species, found with linear regression of the fishnet cells for both species richness and observation count abundance (Figures 14 & 15). The negative correlations were slightly higher for each group regarding species richness (+0.031, +0.01, and +0.028 respectively) suggesting that species richness was more negatively affected by increasing imperviousness in comparison to observation count abundances.

T-tests for observation abundance revealed statistically significant differences ($p=0.0002$) between the mean imperviousness of cells that contained specialists ($\mu=18.31$) in comparison to cells that did not ($\mu=30.94$) (Table 1, Figure 13). The mean difference in imperviousness was also statistically significant for the difference between cells that contained specialists ($\mu=18.31$) and cells that contained nonspecialists ($\mu=30.71$). While previous linear regression showed the distribution of the two groups was only slightly colinear, there still is some overlap between cells with specialist species and nonspecialist species. What this second T-test reveals is that there are some specialist species within the cells with nonspecialists making use of the area with high imperviousness that may be unsuitable for most of the specialists.

Distinctions in habitat preferences among avian dietary specialists could be associated to their respective forms of dietary specialism. In the interpolation analysis, the mean values for imperviousness were compared between invertebrate specialist observations ($\mu=17.81$) and endotherm specialist observations ($\mu=33.7$) (Figure 17). The difference between the means was statistically significant ($p=0.0099$) (Table 8). While it is unsurprising that the nonspecialist avian species

would display a level of urban tolerance greater than the specialist species, the distinction between types of specialism revealing some specialist species are well suited to an urbanized environment suggests that the class of synanthropic species may not be limited to nonspecialists (Szlavec, Warren, & Pickett, 2010).

6.2.2. Distribution of Avian Species in Comparison to Flora Species Distribution

Fishnet linear regression of flora species richness and observation abundance in comparison to avian species richness and observation showed a positive correlation for all variables tested (All plants, Native plants, Nonnative Plants, and Percent Native Plants) (Figures 14 & 15). Observation count abundance a slightly higher correlation for All plants, Native Plants, and Nonnative plants (+0.04) than species richness. The r-squared values for nonspecialist species richness and observation abundance were all within 1% of the R-squared values for all avian species richness and observation abundance. The r-squared values for specialist species were still positive but much lower. The highest correlation for specialist species was the species richness and observation abundances of native plants. The Percent Native Plants category had the highest correlation for specialist species ($r^2=-0.036$) in comparison to all avian species ($r^2=-0.018$), and nonspecialist species ($r^2=-0.014$).

T-tests of the mean values for flora observation abundances also revealed that the cells containing specialist species compared to cells without specialists had a statistically significant higher mean plant observation count ($p=0.0254$), higher mean native plant observation count ($p=0.0129$), and higher mean native to nonnative plant ratio ($p=0.0023$) (Table 1). When examining species richness, the only statistically significant category was species richness of native plants ($p=0.0242$). This category remained significant in comparing cells that possess specialist species in comparison to cells possessing nonspecialists, but not excluding specialists ($p=0.0449$). This further reinforces the idea that some specialist species persist in areas both floristically and structurally distinct from each other.

Similarly, T-tests revealed statistically significant differences for nonnative plant species richness ($p=0.0306$) and percent native species ($p=0.0149$) between cells containing nonspecialists and cells without nonspecialists (Table 2). Cells without nonspecialists had a higher percent native species and lower species richness of nonnative plants. This indicates that while nonspecialist avian species may be suited for many environments, there are some locations with low invasion

rates of exotic flora which may act as a filter in favor of dietary specialist avian species.

Linear regression of dietary nonspecialist avian species presence in comparison to the floristic variables (All plants, Native Plants, Nonnative Plants, and Percent Native Plants) showed positive relationships for both species richness and observation abundances (Figure 14 & 15). The difference in linearity for native plants in comparison to nonnative plants was +0.04 for both species richness and abundance suggesting a similar slight preference for native plants like avian specialist species. Nonspecialist species did have a higher correlation with all flora categories compared to specialist species, but the specialist species had higher linearity with the percent native flora category. The linearity of each floristic variable with nonspecialists was slightly higher for observation abundance in comparison to species richness suggesting their presence is more closely related to the broad availability of resources rather than diverse types of resources. This coincides well with the premise of biotic homogenization that the introduction of locally novel species in urban areas results in a decline in species richness but can support urban tolerant, synanthropic, species.

Analysis of the interpolation data portrayed a slightly different distribution of floristic preferences between specialist and nonspecialist groups. The main difference was that nonspecialist avian species were found to have a statistically significant preferences ($p=0.0026$) for areas with high interpolated overall plant count in comparison to avian dietary specialists (Table 8). This reinforces the idea that nonspecialists may be more influenced by the quantity of resource availability than the type of resources. Furthermore, dietary specialists had a statistically significant higher mean native plant density ($p=0.0062$) and lower mean nonnative plant density ($p=0.0005$) suggesting a connection once again to the composition of floristic communities having a greater influence on their distribution.

The interpolation data also revealed differences in floristic preferences of different types of specialist species. The endotherm specialists when compared to invertebrate specialists had statistically significant lower plant counts ($p=0.0041$), native species density ($p=0.003$), nonnative species density ($p=0.001$), and native to nonnative ratios ($p=0.011$) at their observed locations (Table 9). This trend is unsurprising given the observed endotherm specialist preference for areas with greater imperviousness. The one variable that does stand out, however, is that they also preferred areas with lower nonnative vegetation when previous linear regression showed a positive relationship for both nonnative plant species richness and observation abundance with increasing imperviousness.

For nonspecialist species, the subcategory of indicators of high environmental quality was also examined. These species had statistically significant lower plant counts ($p=0.0002$), native plant density ($p=0.0001$), and nonnative plant density ($p=0.0002$) when compared to nonspecialists as a whole (Table 8). The indicators of high environmental quality were not selected primarily based off their association with flora, but also their functional trait redundancy and observations in areas with low light pollution. Their connection to flora was from surroundings at observed locations having high green coverage and heterogeneity. Presumably heterogeneity and green coverage would have some sort of connection to the interpolated plant data, but it may also be the case that the plant observation interpolations are not refined enough to reveal heterogeneity at small scales.

6.3. Conservation Status of Examined Species

6.3.1. Dietary Specialism and Conservation Status

According to the IUCN redlist there were three distinct conservation statuses represented by the avian species within this study: Least Concern Population Decreasing, Least Concern Population Stable, and Least Concern Population Increasing. Rather than separating out dietary specialism according to specialists and nonspecialists, the mean GINI value of each group was examined for statistical differences. The only two groups that had statistically significant differences ($p=0.0071$) in mean GINI values were the Least Concern Population Stable ($\mu=0.59$) and the Least Concern Population Increasing ($\mu=0.34$) (Table 5, Figure 15). The group with the population increase would appear to be generally linked with having wider dietary preferences. It is worth noting; however, that the population decreasing group also had low dietary specialism ($\mu=0.38$) that was borderline significant ($p=0.0665$) so that trend may not be entirely reliable.

The protection status of avian species specific to the Czech Republic was also examined. There were statistically significant differences ($p=0.0001$) in GINI values for dietary specialism between avian species with any form of protection status ($\mu=0.75$) and avian species not protected ($\mu=0.36$) (Table 6, Figure 16). This indicates that at a finer resolution species with higher values for GINI specialism are more likely to acquire some sort of protection status.

6.3.2. Imperviousness and Conservation Status

There were no statistically significant differences in means for imperviousness when examining avian species according to IUCN status. There were however differences that emerged when examining according to their protection status for the Czech Republic. The protected avian species had a statistically significant ($p=0.0065$) lower mean imperviousness ($\mu =12.01$) compared

to unprotected avian species ($\mu=29.98$) (Table 6, Figure 16). The lower tolerance for imperviousness may shed light as to why these species are at risk to begin with given widespread increases in urbanization.

6.3.3. Flora Distribution and Conservation Status

According to IUCN status the Least Concern with its population increasing had a statistically significant ($p=0.0121$) lower interpolated plant count ($\mu=92.5$) when compared to the stable species ($\mu=137.32$). (Table 5, Figure 15) Similar to how a lower GINI value would imply the ability to make use of greater resources, the lower interpolated plant count may imply a greater tolerance for areas with variable plant abundances.

The same trend was observed for avian species with protected status in comparison to species without protected status. Those with protected status had a statistically significant ($p=0.0271$) higher mean interpolated plant count ($\mu=145.14$) compared to those without ($\mu=103.98$). Together these data imply that the species more sensitive to reduced floristic abundance are more likely to have protection status within the Czech Republic.

6.4. Utility of *iNaturalist* for Urban Ecology and Conservation Studies

Many of the relationships between the impact of urbanization and biodiversity found through utilizing the *iNaturalist* data for fishnet and interpolation analysis align closely with what should be expected based off the scientific literature. While most of the relationships were negative along increasing imperviousness, the relationships between avian and flora show variation at finer resolutions that help to verify the utility of citizen science data as a tool for elucidating further relationships in the future.

6.4.1. Utility of *iNaturalist* for Flora Species Analysis

The increase in exotic species richness with increasing imperviousness accompanied by a decline in overall flora species richness validated the trend of biotic homogenization voiced by McKinney and Lockwood where exotic species introduced in the urban core displace native flora species once extant in the same location (2001). Zipperer and Guntenspergen also noted a decline in native flora with urbanization but an increase in overall species richness when compared to areas external to urban centers (2009). This trend cannot be perfectly rejected or verified because all observation data was within the Prague municipality, but if using imperviousness as a surrogate, we can see that while native species are replaced by exotic in areas with high imperviousness, species richness appears to be higher in areas with low urban density. This is likely due to many of these locations being nature reserves within Prague's municipal boundaries. These nature reserves are

dispersed quite evenly throughout Prague creating highly heterogenous structural conditions within the urban matrix resulting in high species richness from both native and exotic flora present. The influence of matrix heterogeneity creating conditions for high species richness has also been previously noted by Walker et al. (2009).

6.4.2. Utility of *iNaturalist* for Avian Species Analysis

The main phenomena noted with avian species this data helps to verify is the urban to rural gradient in which higher avian species richness exists in areas with lower urban density (Xie et al., 2019). Similar to the flora data, the distribution of avian species follows the trend of species richness declining with increasing imperviousness. This data also shows that not all avian species are affected evenly by imperviousness. The phenomenon of synanthropic species were seen with the reduced negative response of nonspecialist, more urban tolerant, avian species in comparison to specialist avian species with increasing imperviousness (Sol et al., 2014). The increasing sensitivity of specialist avian species to imperviousness seen here also coincides with findings by Callaghan et al., but this data also reveals that the type of specialism (invertebrate vs endotherm) shows varying responses to increased imperviousness (2019). The reduced negative response of endotherm specialists to imperviousness also helps to reaffirm the notion put forth by Richardson, Lundholm, and Larson, that in some instances urban environments may offer unique habitat locations that are preferable for target taxa (2010).

6.4.3. Utility of *iNaturalist* for Establishing Relationships Between Taxa

Analysis of this data reaffirms previous relationships identified between increases in urban flora species richness and increases in avian species richness (Marzluff, 2005, Xie et al., 2009). The data also shows a slight positive correlation between percent of flora that is native to the area and overall avian species richness which is in line with findings by Dyson (2020). Connections between flora origin and the degree of dietary specialism were also seen as increasing rates of native flora had statistically significant positive relationships with specialist avian species. This reaffirms findings by Reif et al. that suggest dietary specialism are closely linked to habitat specialism and that, consequently, dietary specialists are typically distributed within habitats with floristic compositions less altered by urbanization (2015). While the *iNaturalist* data in this study is not used at a micro level (species to species relationships) like Narango et al. and Zietsman et al., the data does show that the relationship between specialist birds and flora present within urban environments can be examined at a macro level depending on the type of specialism (2007, 2019).

6.4.4. Utility of iNaturalist for Conservation of Avian Taxa

While the IUCN statuses indicated that each species within the study was under the Least Concern category, the Czech Republic specific protection statuses did indicate some species were of concern. Among these species there was higher dietary specialism and lower tolerance for imperviousness compared to unprotected species. When combined with the previously discussed trends of specialism being associated with native plant species richness, this form of analysis may help to identify the habitat characteristics necessary to preserve or recreate in order to sustain their respective populations.

7. CONCLUSION

Worldwide, biodiversity loss is occurring at rapid speed because of anthropogenic activities. Habitat conversion in particular acts as major driver for the loss of species. Similarly, the process of urbanization appears to be accelerating and requires the conversion of intact habitat patches into extensions of the urban fabric.

The response of biodiversity to urbanization depends largely on the functionality of the converted urban matrix for their specific needs. Strategies such as protected habitat patches and creating biological corridors between them have been deployed to preserve populations of species of concern within urban areas, but the response of target taxa to these strategies is dependent on their dispersal capabilities and sensitivity to high heterogeneity of the adjacent urban matrix.

The process of urbanization is not entirely negative for all species. Some species are highly adaptable and tolerant of the novel conditions created by urbanization. Additionally, some species are commonly introduced within urban matrices and disperse into surrounding, less-densely urbanized, areas posing a risk to the species native to the region. Native flora species specifically appear to be commonly displaced by nonnative species both actively (through human intervention) and passively (through their own dispersal abilities). While avian species show uneven responses to urbanization and habitat conversion based off their own functional traits, such as dietary specialism.

Evaluating the trends of biodiversity loss from urbanization occurring at such rapid scales requires access to high-quality and high-resolution data sets in order to inform conservation decisions. Traditional methods for acquiring such data requires intensive field work and methodological variation depending on the taxa of concern. Citizen Science tools such as *iNaturalist* are increasingly being utilized for evaluating the response of species of concern to urbanization or habitat loss generally.

Within this study open source *iNaturalist* data was not only utilized to verify several of the trends in flora and avian species responses to urbanization noted in the literature, but also helped to clarify responses of avian species according to dietary specialism. Furthermore, this research indicates the importance of conserving areas with high compositions of native flora species for urbanization-sensitive avian species.

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9. Appendix

9.1. List of Abbreviations

HEQ: Indicators of High Environmental Quality

LC: Least Concern Population Stable

LC-D: Least Concern Population Decreasing

LC-I: Least Concern Population Increasing

Nonspec: Nonsepcialist

SR: Species Richness

Spec: Specialist

9.2. Supplemental Data

| Fishnet Cell Data | | | | | |
|------------------------------|-----------------|------------------------|---------------------------|-----------------------|----------------------------|
| specialist > 0 | | | | | |
| | Plant SR | Native Plant SR | Nonnative Plant SR | Percent Native | Mean Imperviousness |
| mean | 5.335526 | 3.355263 | 1.980263 | 0.628472 | 16.17862 |
| standard deviation | 7.561618 | 4.910332 | 3.190363 | 0.349304 | 25.49476 |
| sample size | 153 | | | | |
| specialists = 0 | | | | | |
| | Plant SR | Native Plant SR | Nonnative Plant SR | Percent Native | Mean Imperviousness |
| mean | 4.500228 | 2.672893 | 1.827335 | 0.576429 | 30.7932 |
| standard deviation | 5.156562 | 3.511223 | 2.261964 | 0.357731 | 30.60607 |
| sample size | 2195 | | | | |
| nonspecialists > 0 | | | | | |
| | Plant SR | Native Plant SR | Nonnative Plant SR | Percent Native | Mean Imperviousness |
| mean | 4.580617 12 | 2.72881356 | 1.85180356 | 0.57728725 | 30.0684201 |
| standard deviation | 5.384369 31 | 3.64875081 | 2.33986854 | 0.35687914 | 30.5031473 |
| sample size | 2301 | | | | |
| nonspecialists = 0 | | | | | |
| | Plant SR | Native Plant SR | Nonnative Plant SR | Percent Native | Mean Imperviousness |
| mean | 3.23913 | 2.130435 | 1.108696 | 0.705461 | 18.75609 |
| standard deviation | 2.626233 | 1.627659 | 1.816324 | 0.362187 | 29.02521 |
| sample size | 47 | | | | |

Table 10. Fishnet cell data according to present or absence of specialist or nonspecialist avian species.

Invertebrate Specialists

| Species | Count | GI NI | Average count of Interpolated Plant Observations | native plant observation interpolation | exotic plant observation interpolation | impervious surface | Ratio of Native to Exotic Plants |
|---------------------------|-----------|----------|--|--|--|--------------------|----------------------------------|
| <i>Apus Apus</i> | 29.0 0 | 1.0 0 | 148.88 | 0.78 | 0.60 | 36.90 | 1.30 |
| <i>Charadrius dubius</i> | 17.0 0 | 1.0 0 | 63.86 | 0.42 | 0.15 | 0.00 | 2.69 |
| <i>Delichon urbicum</i> | 19.0 0 | 1.0 0 | 157.65 | 0.78 | 0.74 | 61.10 | 1.04 |
| <i>Dryocopus martius</i> | 40.0 0 | 1.0 0 | 134.61 | 0.94 | 0.37 | 0.00 | 2.56 |
| <i>Ficedula hypoleuca</i> | 15.0 0 | 1.0 0 | 296.05 | 1.57 | 1.08 | 13.67 | 1.45 |
| <i>Motacilla alba</i> | 80.0 0 | 1.0 0 | 169.96 | 0.96 | 0.67 | 16.34 | 1.42 |
| <i>Motacilla cinerea</i> | 50.0 0 | 1.0 0 | 193.60 | 1.16 | 0.60 | 13.45 | 1.93 |

Endotherm Specialists

| Species | Count | GI NI | Average count of Interpolated Plant Observations | native plant observation interpolation | exotic plant observation interpolation | impervious surface | Ratio of Native to Exotic Plants |
|------------------------|-----------|----------|--|--|--|--------------------|----------------------------------|
| <i>Accipiter nisus</i> | 21.0 0 | 1.0 0 | 116.10 | 0.75 | 0.38 | 18.76 | 1.97 |
| <i>Asio otus</i> | 17.0 0 | 1.0 0 | 69.54 | 0.36 | 0.34 | 53.00 | 1.06 |

Nonspecialists

| Species | Count | GI NI | Average count of Interpolated Plant Observations | native plant observation interpolation | exotic plant observation interpolation | impervious surface | Ratio of Native to Exotic Plants |
|-------------------------------|-------------|----------|--|--|--|--------------------|----------------------------------|
| <i>Alx sponsa</i> | 20.0 0 | 0.4 2 | 9.68 | 0.08 | 0.03 | 0.00 | 2.59 |
| <i>Anser anser</i> | 38.0 0 | 0.6 1 | 66.23 | 0.32 | 0.30 | 0.00 | 1.07 |
| <i>Buteo buteo</i> | 67.0 0 | 0.7 9 | 106.28 | 0.67 | 0.30 | 0.00 | 2.25 |
| <i>Carruca communis</i> | 14.0 0 | 0.3 3 | 1.77 | 0.00 | 0.01 | 0.00 | 0.33 |
| <i>Emberiza citrinella</i> | 93.0 0 | 0.3 7 | 11.50 | 0.07 | 0.05 | 0.00 | 1.64 |
| <i>Fringilla coelebs</i> | 120.0 00 | 0.3 5 | 36.09 | 0.22 | 0.12 | 0.00 | 1.81 |
| <i>Fulica atra</i> | 262.0 00 | 0.0 9 | 154.55 | 0.72 | 0.69 | 0.00 | 1.04 |
| <i>Hirundo rustica</i> | 37.0 0 | 0.6 1 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 |
| <i>Lanius collurio</i> | 28.0 0 | 0.3 3 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 |
| <i>Luscinia megarhynchos</i> | 32.0 0 | 0.4 7 | 5.12 | 0.03 | 0.03 | 0.00 | 1.13 |
| <i>Phalacrocorax carbo</i> | 104.0 00 | 0.6 1 | 187.16 | 0.91 | 0.78 | 0.00 | 1.16 |
| <i>Phasianus colchicus</i> | 100.0 00 | 0.1 6 | 2.42 | 0.02 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 5.15 |
| <i>Spatula clypeata</i> | 27.0 0 | 0.4 1 | 228.30 | 1.07 | 0.97 | 0.00 | 1.10 |
| <i>Tachybaptus ruficollis</i> | 75.0 0 | 0.6 3 | 166.10 | 0.92 | 0.57 | 0.00 | 1.61 |
| <i>Turdus pilaris</i> | 43.0 0 | 0.5 1 | 130.52 | 0.76 | 0.43 | 0.00 | 1.74 |
| <i>Cygnus olor</i> | 480.0 00 | 0.6 1 | 158.05 | 0.92 | 0.50 | 5.33 | 1.83 |
| <i>Aythya fuligula</i> | 219.0 00 | 0.2 3 | 239.86 | 1.17 | 1.00 | 5.86 | 1.17 |

| | | | | | | | |
|--------------------------------------|--------|------|--------|------|------|-------|------|
| <i>Chroicocephalus ridibundus</i> | 238.00 | 0.47 | 173.73 | 0.72 | 0.79 | 6.33 | 0.91 |
| <i>Gallinula chloropus</i> | 392.00 | 0.26 | 200.76 | 1.04 | 0.79 | 8.33 | 1.32 |
| <i>Passer montanus</i> | 98.00 | 0.44 | 138.65 | 0.73 | 0.49 | 15.75 | 1.50 |
| <i>Anas platyrhynchos</i> | 818.00 | 0.14 | 171.18 | 0.77 | 0.76 | 16.21 | 1.02 |
| <i>Ardea cinerea</i> | 309.00 | 0.33 | 101.85 | 0.40 | 0.51 | 17.71 | 0.78 |
| <i>Phylloscopus collybita</i> | 79.00 | 0.61 | 88.90 | 0.51 | 0.31 | 18.20 | 1.64 |
| <i>Sylvia atricapilla</i> | 92.00 | 0.26 | 87.79 | 0.45 | 0.29 | 18.25 | 1.57 |
| <i>Aegithalos caudatus</i> | 105.00 | 0.30 | 62.37 | 0.34 | 0.21 | 21.00 | 1.65 |
| <i>Sitta europaea</i> | 123.00 | 0.44 | 55.69 | 0.32 | 0.15 | 21.00 | 2.11 |
| <i>Turdus philomelos</i> | 69.00 | 0.23 | 45.90 | 0.26 | 0.14 | 21.00 | 1.83 |
| <i>Columba palumbus</i> | 467.00 | 0.23 | 98.86 | 0.54 | 0.32 | 24.29 | 1.68 |
| <i>Sturnus vulgaris</i> | 135.00 | 0.07 | 94.57 | 0.53 | 0.32 | 24.50 | 1.63 |
| <i>Garrulus glandarius</i> | 348.00 | 0.19 | 172.95 | 0.91 | 0.72 | 25.67 | 1.26 |
| <i>Falco tinnunculus</i> | 178.00 | 0.79 | 85.49 | 0.44 | 0.33 | 25.82 | 1.33 |
| <i>Troglodytes troglodytes</i> | 48.00 | 0.30 | 93.32 | 0.49 | 0.35 | 27.17 | 1.41 |
| <i>Cyanistes caeruleus</i> | 259.00 | 0.14 | 74.25 | 0.40 | 0.24 | 27.50 | 1.65 |
| <i>Parus major</i> | 419.00 | 0.14 | 61.64 | 0.32 | 0.23 | 30.50 | 1.38 |
| <i>Carduelis carduelis</i> | 100.00 | 0.19 | 65.87 | 0.36 | 0.20 | 31.50 | 1.74 |
| <i>Dendrocopos major</i> | 259.00 | 0.26 | 123.06 | 0.68 | 0.44 | 37.00 | 1.55 |
| <i>Alx galariculata</i> | 31.00 | 0.19 | 235.14 | 0.85 | 1.15 | 37.75 | 0.74 |
| <i>Phoenicurus phoenicurus</i> | 71.00 | 0.63 | 54.26 | 0.32 | 0.21 | 39.00 | 1.51 |
| <i>Erithacus rubecula</i> | 135.00 | 0.12 | 89.51 | 0.46 | 0.32 | 39.33 | 1.44 |
| <i>Pica pica</i> | 484.00 | 0.05 | 139.04 | 0.74 | 0.60 | 43.60 | 1.23 |
| <i>Columba livia</i> | 358.00 | 0.37 | 160.70 | 0.73 | 0.74 | 44.50 | 0.98 |
| <i>Turdus merula</i> | 381.00 | 0.23 | 91.28 | 0.48 | 0.30 | 45.45 | 1.64 |
| <i>Picus viridis</i> | 138.00 | 0.79 | 93.40 | 0.52 | 0.32 | 51.33 | 1.65 |
| <i>Coccothraustes coccothraustes</i> | 27.00 | 0.19 | 106.89 | 0.58 | 0.34 | 57.33 | 1.69 |
| <i>Passer domesticus</i> | 55.00 | 0.37 | 84.31 | 0.45 | 0.25 | 57.67 | 1.79 |
| <i>Streptopelia decaocto</i> | 168.00 | 0.19 | 78.87 | 0.43 | 0.28 | 61.00 | 1.55 |
| <i>Curruca curruca</i> | 38.00 | 0.33 | 125.57 | 0.68 | 0.37 | 63.00 | 1.83 |
| <i>Linarlia cannabina</i> | 22.00 | 0.19 | 125.57 | 0.68 | 0.37 | 63.00 | 1.83 |
| <i>Poecile palustris</i> | 14.00 | 0.19 | 125.57 | 0.68 | 0.37 | 63.00 | 1.83 |
| <i>Spinus spinus</i> | 18.00 | 0.19 | 125.57 | 0.68 | 0.37 | 63.00 | 1.83 |
| <i>Phoenicurus ochruros</i> | 97.00 | 0.37 | 138.90 | 0.72 | 0.52 | 64.57 | 1.39 |
| <i>Chloris chloris</i> | 57.00 | 0.23 | 70.99 | 0.41 | 0.23 | 81.50 | 1.77 |

Table 11. Avian species present within the study area with interpolated data for floristic values and mean imperviousness extracted at their point of observation.

Flora Species and Origin

| species | origin | count | species | origin | count | species | origin | count |
|------------------------------------|-----------|-------|--------------------------------|-----------|-------|-------------------------------|-----------|-------|
| <i>Abies alba</i> | native | 9 | <i>Fallopia aubertii</i> | nonnative | 32 | <i>Prunella vulgaris</i> | nonnative | 28 |
| <i>Abies concolor</i> | nonnative | 7 | <i>Fallopia dumetorum</i> | native | 21 | <i>Prunus armeniaca</i> | nonnative | 7 |
| <i>Acer campestre</i> | native | 155 | <i>Ficaria verna</i> | native | 503 | <i>Prunus avium</i> | native | 169 |
| <i>Acer negundo</i> | nonnative | 120 | <i>Filipendula ulmaria</i> | native | 53 | <i>Prunus cerasifera</i> | nonnative | 48 |
| <i>Acer platanoides</i> | native | 423 | <i>Filipendula vulgaris</i> | nonnative | 10 | <i>Prunus laurocerasus</i> | nonnative | 92 |
| <i>Acer pseudoplatanus</i> | native | 222 | <i>Fragaria vesca</i> | native | 89 | <i>Prunus mahaleb</i> | native | 112 |
| <i>Acer tataricum</i> | nonnative | 15 | <i>Fragaria viridis</i> | native | 40 | <i>Prunus padus</i> | native | 166 |
| <i>Achillea millefolium</i> | native | 171 | <i>Fraxinus excelsior</i> | native | 78 | <i>Prunus serotina</i> | nonnative | 8 |
| <i>Aegonychon purpurocaeruleum</i> | native | 14 | <i>Fumaria officinalis</i> | nonnative | 136 | <i>Prunus serrulata</i> | nonnative | 114 |
| <i>Aegopodium podagraria</i> | native | 95 | <i>Fumaria hygrometrica</i> | native | 10 | <i>Prunus spinosa</i> | native | 38 |
| <i>Aesculus hippocastanum</i> | nonnative | 281 | <i>Gagea bohemica</i> | native | 52 | <i>Pseudofumaria lutea</i> | nonnative | 8 |
| <i>Agrimonia eupatoria</i> | native | 35 | <i>Gagea lutea</i> | native | 54 | <i>Pseudotsuga menziesii</i> | nonnative | 18 |
| <i>Agrostemma githago</i> | nonnative | 8 | <i>Gagea pratensis</i> | native | 22 | <i>Pulmonaria obscura</i> | native | 10 |
| <i>Ailanthus altissima</i> | nonnative | 216 | <i>Gagea villosa</i> | nonnative | 21 | <i>Pulmonaria officinalis</i> | native | 12 |
| <i>Ajuga genevensis</i> | native | 12 | <i>Galanthus nivalis</i> | native | 105 | <i>Pulsatilla pratensis</i> | native | 58 |
| <i>Ajuga reptans</i> | native | 29 | <i>Galatella linosyris</i> | native | 9 | <i>Puschkinia scilloides</i> | nonnative | 23 |
| <i>Alcea rosea</i> | nonnative | 25 | <i>Galeopsis pubescens</i> | native | 20 | <i>Pyracantha coccinea</i> | nonnative | 63 |
| <i>Alisma plantago-aquatica</i> | native | 9 | <i>Galeopsis speciosa</i> | native | 10 | <i>Pyrus communis</i> | nonnative | 41 |
| <i>Alkekengi officinarum</i> | native | 16 | <i>Galinsoga parviflora</i> | nonnative | 49 | <i>Quercus petraea</i> | native | 17 |
| <i>Alliaria petiolata</i> | native | 502 | <i>Galinsoga quadriradiata</i> | nonnative | 52 | <i>Quercus robur</i> | native | 56 |
| <i>Allium lusitanicum</i> | native | 20 | <i>Galium album</i> | native | 69 | <i>Quercus rubra</i> | nonnative | 56 |
| <i>Allium paradoxum</i> | nonnative | 131 | <i>Galium aparine</i> | native | 152 | <i>Rabelera holostea</i> | native | 221 |
| <i>Allium ursinum</i> | native | 15 | <i>Galium mollugo</i> | native | 21 | <i>Ranunculus acris</i> | nonnative | 52 |
| <i>Alnus glutinosa</i> | native | 69 | <i>Galium odoratum</i> | native | 14 | <i>Ranunculus auricomus</i> | native | 42 |
| <i>Alopecurus pratensis</i> | native | 41 | <i>Galium verum</i> | native | 40 | <i>Ranunculus bulbosus</i> | native | 84 |
| <i>Alyssum montanum</i> | native | 26 | <i>Geranium columbinum</i> | nonnative | 9 | <i>Ranunculus repens</i> | native | 130 |
| <i>Amaranthus retroflexus</i> | nonnative | 65 | <i>Geranium molle</i> | nonnative | 10 | <i>Ranunculus sceleratus</i> | native | 15 |
| <i>Amorpha fruticosa</i> | nonnative | 19 | <i>Geranium palustre</i> | native | 13 | <i>Reseda lutea</i> | nonnative | 57 |
| <i>Anchusa arvensis</i> | native | 22 | <i>Geranium pratense</i> | native | 146 | <i>Reseda luteola</i> | nonnative | 10 |
| <i>Anchusa officinalis</i> | nonnative | 141 | <i>Geranium purpureum</i> | nonnative | 8 | <i>Reynoutria japonica</i> | nonnative | 45 |
| <i>Anemonoides blanda</i> | nonnative | 10 | <i>Geranium pusillum</i> | nonnative | 55 | <i>Rhus typhina</i> | nonnative | 58 |
| <i>Anemonoides nemorosa</i> | native | 269 | <i>Geranium pyrenaicum</i> | nonnative | 149 | <i>Ribes alpinum</i> | native | 13 |

| | | | | | | | | |
|-----------------------------------|-----------|-----|--------------------------------|-----------|-----|--------------------------------|-----------|-----|
| <i>Anemonoides ranunculooides</i> | native | 97 | <i>Geranium robertianum</i> | native | 198 | <i>Ribes aureum</i> | nonnative | 14 |
| <i>Anemonoides sylvestris</i> | native | 12 | <i>Geranium sanguineum</i> | native | 19 | <i>Ribes rubrum</i> | nonnative | 13 |
| <i>Anthericum liliago</i> | native | 24 | <i>Geum urbanum</i> | native | 164 | <i>Ribes sanguineum</i> | nonnative | 25 |
| <i>Anthoxanthum odoratum</i> | native | 17 | <i>Glechoma hederacea</i> | native | 485 | <i>Ribes uva-crispa</i> | native | 14 |
| <i>Anthriscus caucalis</i> | nonnative | 22 | <i>Gleditsia triacanthos</i> | nonnative | 28 | <i>Robinia pseudoacacia</i> | nonnative | 210 |
| <i>Anthriscus sylvestris</i> | native | 145 | <i>Glyceria maxima</i> | native | 9 | <i>Rosa canina</i> | native | 81 |
| <i>Anthyllis vulneraria</i> | native | 20 | <i>Hedera helix</i> | native | 306 | <i>Rosa rubiginosa</i> | native | 7 |
| <i>Antirrhinum majus</i> | nonnative | 7 | <i>Helianthemum canum</i> | native | 19 | <i>Rosa rugosa</i> | nonnative | 17 |
| <i>Aquilegia vulgaris</i> | native | 54 | <i>Helianthus annuus</i> | nonnative | 17 | <i>Rubus caesius</i> | native | 12 |
| <i>Arabidopsis arenosa</i> | native | 9 | <i>Helianthus tuberosus</i> | nonnative | 16 | <i>Rubus idaeus</i> | native | 13 |
| <i>Arabidopsis thaliana</i> | native | 53 | <i>Helleborus orientalis</i> | nonnative | 8 | <i>Rubus laciniatus</i> | nonnative | 7 |
| <i>Arctium lappa</i> | nonnative | 30 | <i>Hepatica nobilis</i> | native | 65 | <i>Rumex acetosa</i> | native | 10 |
| <i>Arctium tomentosum</i> | nonnative | 49 | <i>Heracleum sphondylium</i> | native | 45 | <i>Rumex acetosella</i> | native | 32 |
| <i>Arenaria serpyllifolia</i> | native | 26 | <i>Herniaria glabra</i> | native | 9 | <i>Rumex crispus</i> | native | 28 |
| <i>Argentina anserina</i> | native | 24 | <i>Hieracium murorum</i> | native | 31 | <i>Rumex obtusifolius</i> | native | 88 |
| <i>Armoracia rusticana</i> | nonnative | 26 | <i>Hieracium sabaudum</i> | native | 19 | <i>Rumex thyrsoiflorus</i> | native | 12 |
| <i>Arrhenatherum elatius</i> | nonnative | 32 | <i>Hippophae rhamnoides</i> | nonnative | 20 | <i>Sagina procumbens</i> | native | 32 |
| <i>Artemisia campestris</i> | native | 16 | <i>Hippuris vulgaris</i> | native | 14 | <i>Salix caprea</i> | native | 62 |
| <i>Artemisia vulgaris</i> | native | 126 | <i>Holosteum umbellatum</i> | native | 22 | <i>Salvia nemorosa</i> | native | 28 |
| <i>Arum maculatum</i> | native | 10 | <i>Hordeum murinum</i> | nonnative | 118 | <i>Salvia pratensis</i> | native | 122 |
| <i>Asarum europaeum</i> | native | 9 | <i>Humulus lupulus</i> | native | 61 | <i>Salvia verticillata</i> | native | 35 |
| <i>Asparagus officinalis</i> | nonnative | 7 | <i>Hylotelephium maximum</i> | native | 17 | <i>Sambucus nigra</i> | native | 312 |
| <i>Asperugo procumbens</i> | nonnative | 27 | <i>Hyoscyamus niger</i> | native | 58 | <i>Sanguisorba minor</i> | nonnative | 65 |
| <i>Asplenium ruta-muraria</i> | native | 86 | <i>Hypericum perforatum</i> | native | 101 | <i>Sanguisorba officinalis</i> | nonnative | 21 |
| <i>Asplenium septentrionale</i> | native | 11 | <i>Hypochaeris radicata</i> | native | 12 | <i>Saponaria officinalis</i> | nonnative | 115 |
| <i>Asplenium trichomanes</i> | native | 25 | <i>Impatiens glandulifera</i> | nonnative | 19 | <i>Saxifraga tridactylites</i> | native | 18 |
| <i>Astragalus glycyphyllos</i> | nonnative | 17 | <i>Impatiens parviflora</i> | nonnative | 82 | <i>Scabiosa ochroleuca</i> | native | 56 |
| <i>Atriplex patula</i> | nonnative | 8 | <i>Ipomoea purpurea</i> | nonnative | 11 | <i>Scandosorbus intermedia</i> | nonnative | 7 |
| <i>Atriplex sagittata</i> | nonnative | 31 | <i>Iris pseudacorus</i> | native | 151 | <i>Scilla luciliae</i> | nonnative | 14 |
| <i>Aurinia saxatilis</i> | native | 53 | <i>Jacobaea vulgaris</i> | native | 134 | <i>Scilla siberica</i> | nonnative | 76 |
| <i>Ballota nigra</i> | nonnative | 220 | <i>Jasminum nudiflorum</i> | nonnative | 8 | <i>Scirpus sylvaticus</i> | native | 12 |
| <i>Barbarea vulgaris</i> | native | 73 | <i>Juglans nigra</i> | nonnative | 9 | <i>Scleranthus perennis</i> | native | 23 |
| <i>Bellis perennis</i> | native | 639 | <i>Juglans regia</i> | nonnative | 109 | <i>Scorzonoides autumnalis</i> | native | 8 |
| <i>Berberis aquifolium</i> | nonnative | 217 | <i>Juncus effusus</i> | native | 33 | <i>Scrophularia nodosa</i> | native | 20 |
| <i>Berberis julianae</i> | nonnative | 26 | <i>Juncus inflexus</i> | native | 7 | <i>Securigera varia</i> | native | 162 |
| <i>Berberis thunbergii</i> | nonnative | 47 | <i>Juniperus communis</i> | native | 7 | <i>Sedum acre</i> | native | 84 |
| <i>Berberis vulgaris</i> | native | 56 | <i>Kerria japonica</i> | nonnative | 53 | <i>Sedum album</i> | native | 178 |
| <i>Berteroa incana</i> | nonnative | 73 | <i>Knautia arvensis</i> | native | 25 | <i>Sedum hispanicum</i> | nonnative | 18 |
| <i>Betonica officinalis</i> | native | 7 | <i>Koeleruteria paniculata</i> | nonnative | 27 | <i>Sedum sexangulare</i> | native | 110 |
| <i>Betula pendula</i> | native | 160 | <i>Laburnum anagyroides</i> | nonnative | 86 | <i>Sempervivum globiferum</i> | native | 15 |
| <i>Bidens frondosa</i> | nonnative | 19 | <i>Lactuca perennis</i> | native | 11 | <i>Sempervivum tectorum</i> | nonnative | 13 |
| <i>Borago officinalis</i> | nonnative | 12 | <i>Lactuca serriola</i> | nonnative | 178 | <i>Senecio inaequidens</i> | nonnative | 33 |
| <i>Brassica napus</i> | nonnative | 30 | <i>Lamium album</i> | nonnative | 476 | <i>Senecio vernalis</i> | nonnative | 51 |
| <i>Bromus hordeaceus</i> | nonnative | 16 | <i>Lamium amplexicaule</i> | nonnative | 28 | <i>Senecio vulgaris</i> | nonnative | 230 |
| <i>Bromus sterilis</i> | nonnative | 136 | <i>Lamium galeobdolon</i> | native | 196 | <i>Seseli hippomarathrum</i> | native | 8 |
| <i>Bromus tectorum</i> | nonnative | 15 | <i>Lamium maculatum</i> | native | 189 | <i>Seseli osseum</i> | native | 25 |

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|------------------------------------|-----------|-----|------------------------------|-----------|-----|--------------------------------|-----------|-----|
| <i>Brunnera macrophylla</i> | nonnative | 17 | <i>Lamium purpureum</i> | nonnative | 489 | <i>Setaria pumila</i> | nonnative | 24 |
| <i>Buddleja davidii</i> | nonnative | 28 | <i>Lapsana communis</i> | nonnative | 48 | <i>Setaria verticillata</i> | nonnative | 11 |
| <i>Buglossoides arvensis</i> | nonnative | 12 | <i>Larix decidua</i> | native | 95 | <i>Setaria viridis</i> | nonnative | 52 |
| <i>Bunias orientalis</i> | nonnative | 30 | <i>Lathraea squamaria</i> | native | 53 | <i>Silene coronaria</i> | native | 27 |
| <i>Bupleurum falcatum</i> | native | 12 | <i>Lathyrus latifolius</i> | native | 17 | <i>Silene dioica</i> | native | 11 |
| <i>Buxus sempervirens</i> | nonnative | 11 | <i>Lathyrus pratensis</i> | native | 22 | <i>Silene flos-cuculi</i> | native | 15 |
| <i>Calamagrostis epigejos</i> | native | 69 | <i>Lathyrus sylvestris</i> | native | 8 | <i>Silene latifolia</i> | nonnative | 189 |
| <i>Calendula officinalis</i> | nonnative | 32 | <i>Lathyrus tuberosus</i> | nonnative | 61 | <i>Silene nutans</i> | native | 17 |
| <i>Calluna vulgaris</i> | native | 42 | <i>Lathyrus vernus</i> | native | 57 | <i>Silene vulgaris</i> | native | 77 |
| <i>Caltha palustris</i> | native | 80 | <i>Leonurus cardiaca</i> | nonnative | 33 | <i>Silybum marianum</i> | nonnative | 15 |
| <i>Calystegia sepium</i> | native | 41 | <i>Lepidium campestre</i> | nonnative | 12 | <i>Sinapis arvensis</i> | nonnative | 51 |
| <i>Campanula glomerata</i> | native | 10 | <i>Lepidium draba</i> | nonnative | 337 | <i>Sisymbrium loeselii</i> | nonnative | 105 |
| <i>Campanula persicifolia</i> | native | 17 | <i>Lepidium ruderales</i> | nonnative | 30 | <i>Sisymbrium officinale</i> | nonnative | 46 |
| <i>Campanula rapunculoides</i> | native | 77 | <i>Leucanthemum vulgare</i> | native | 29 | <i>Smyrniolum perfoliatum</i> | nonnative | 71 |
| <i>Campanula trachelium</i> | native | 33 | <i>Ligustrum vulgare</i> | native | 176 | <i>Solanum dulcamara</i> | native | 21 |
| <i>Capsella bursa-pastoris</i> | nonnative | 500 | <i>Lilium martagon</i> | native | 8 | <i>Solanum lycopersicum</i> | nonnative | 24 |
| <i>Caragana arborescens</i> | nonnative | 25 | <i>Linaria vulgaris</i> | nonnative | 113 | <i>Solanum nigrum</i> | nonnative | 104 |
| <i>Cardamine hirsuta</i> | nonnative | 36 | <i>Linum austriacum</i> | native | 25 | <i>Solidago canadensis</i> | nonnative | 129 |
| <i>Cardamine occulta</i> | nonnative | 9 | <i>Lolium perenne</i> | native | 10 | <i>Solidago gigantea</i> | nonnative | 7 |
| <i>Cardamine pratensis</i> | native | 47 | <i>Lonicera caprifolium</i> | nonnative | 8 | <i>Sonchus asper</i> | nonnative | 23 |
| <i>Carduus acanthoides</i> | nonnative | 89 | <i>Lonicera tatarica</i> | nonnative | 129 | <i>Sonchus oleraceus</i> | nonnative | 131 |
| <i>Carduus crispus</i> | native | 17 | <i>Lonicera xylosteum</i> | native | 20 | <i>Sorbaria sorbifolia</i> | nonnative | 7 |
| <i>Carex hirta</i> | native | 8 | <i>Lotus corniculatus</i> | native | 203 | <i>Sorbus aucuparia</i> | native | 92 |
| <i>Carex praecox</i> | native | 15 | <i>Lunaria annua</i> | nonnative | 124 | <i>Spergula morisonii</i> | native | 7 |
| <i>Carpinus betulus</i> | native | 237 | <i>Luzula campestris</i> | native | 24 | <i>Stachys byzantina</i> | nonnative | 14 |
| <i>Castanea sativa</i> | nonnative | 29 | <i>Lycium barbarum</i> | nonnative | 81 | <i>Stachys palustris</i> | native | 22 |
| <i>Catalpa bignonioides</i> | nonnative | 15 | <i>Lycopus europaeus</i> | nonnative | 19 | <i>Stachys recta</i> | native | 58 |
| <i>Centaurea cyanus</i> | nonnative | 33 | <i>Lysimachia arvensis</i> | native | 26 | <i>Stachys sylvatica</i> | native | 32 |
| <i>Centaurea jacea</i> | native | 84 | <i>Lysimachia nummularia</i> | native | 28 | <i>Staphylea pinnata</i> | native | 11 |
| <i>Centaurea montana</i> | native | 7 | <i>Lysimachia punctata</i> | nonnative | 28 | <i>Stellaria apetala</i> | nonnative | 9 |
| <i>Centaurea scabiosa</i> | native | 19 | <i>Lysimachia vulgaris</i> | native | 20 | <i>Stellaria aquatica</i> | nonnative | 34 |
| <i>Centaurea stoebe</i> | native | 59 | <i>Lythrum salicaria</i> | native | 63 | <i>Stellaria media</i> | native | 94 |
| <i>Centranthus ruber</i> | nonnative | 9 | <i>Maianthemum bifolium</i> | native | 13 | <i>Styphnolobium japonicum</i> | nonnative | 25 |
| <i>Cephalanthera damasonium</i> | native | 32 | <i>Malus domestica</i> | nonnative | 83 | <i>Symphoricarpos albus</i> | nonnative | 104 |
| <i>Cerastium arvense</i> | nonnative | 139 | <i>Malva neglecta</i> | nonnative | 85 | <i>Symphytum officinale</i> | native | 153 |
| <i>Cerastium glomeratum</i> | native | 17 | <i>Malva sylvestris</i> | nonnative | 144 | <i>Symphytum tuberosum</i> | native | 21 |
| <i>Cerastium holosteoides</i> | native | 38 | <i>Matricaria discoidea</i> | nonnative | 29 | <i>Syringa vulgaris</i> | nonnative | 404 |
| <i>Cerastium semidecandrum</i> | native | 8 | <i>Medicago falcata</i> | native | 24 | <i>Tanacetum corymbosum</i> | native | 8 |
| <i>Cerastium tomentosum</i> | nonnative | 22 | <i>Medicago lupulina</i> | native | 90 | <i>Tanacetum vulgare</i> | nonnative | 178 |
| <i>Chaenomeles speciosa</i> | nonnative | 32 | <i>Medicago minima</i> | native | 7 | <i>Taraxacum officinale</i> | native | 261 |
| <i>Chaenorhinum minus</i> | nonnative | 7 | <i>Medicago sativa</i> | nonnative | 83 | <i>Taxus baccata</i> | native | 123 |
| <i>Chaerophyllum aromaticum</i> | native | 12 | <i>Melampyrum arvense</i> | nonnative | 8 | <i>Teucrium chamaedrys</i> | native | 14 |
| <i>Chaerophyllum temulum</i> | native | 66 | <i>Melampyrum pratense</i> | nonnative | 9 | <i>Thlaspi arvense</i> | nonnative | 83 |
| <i>Chamaecytisus ratisbonensis</i> | native | 7 | <i>Melilotus albus</i> | nonnative | 79 | <i>Thuja occidentalis</i> | nonnative | 9 |
| <i>Chamaenerion angustifolium</i> | native | 13 | <i>Melilotus officinalis</i> | nonnative | 55 | <i>Tilia cordata</i> | native | 36 |
| <i>Chelidonium majus</i> | nonnative | 675 | <i>Mentha longifolia</i> | native | 8 | <i>Torminalis glaberrima</i> | native | 15 |

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|-------------------------------------|-----------|-----|------------------------------------|-----------|-----|----------------------------------|-----------|-----|
| <i>Chenopodium album</i> | native | 55 | <i>Mercurialis annua</i> | nonnative | 59 | <i>Tortula muralis</i> | nonnative | 39 |
| <i>Chrysosplenium alternifolium</i> | native | 8 | <i>Mercurialis perennis</i> | native | 31 | <i>Tragopogon dubius</i> | nonnative | 45 |
| <i>Cichorium intybus</i> | nonnative | 214 | <i>Moehringia trinervia</i> | nonnative | 7 | <i>Tragopogon orientalis</i> | native | 13 |
| <i>Cirsium arvense</i> | nonnative | 172 | <i>Muscari armeniacum</i> | nonnative | 12 | <i>Trifolium arvense</i> | native | 36 |
| <i>Cirsium eriophorum</i> | native | 12 | <i>Muscari neglectum</i> | native | 32 | <i>Trifolium campestre</i> | native | 36 |
| <i>Cirsium oleraceum</i> | native | 9 | <i>Muscari tenuiflorum</i> | native | 7 | <i>Trifolium dubium</i> | native | 21 |
| <i>Cirsium vulgare</i> | native | 145 | <i>Mycelis muralis</i> | native | 22 | <i>Trifolium hybridum</i> | nonnative | 11 |
| <i>Clematis vitalba</i> | native | 148 | <i>Myosotis arvensis</i> | nonnative | 19 | <i>Trifolium incarnatum</i> | nonnative | 36 |
| <i>Clinopodium acinos</i> | native | 19 | <i>Myosotis ramosissima</i> | native | 24 | <i>Trifolium montanum</i> | native | 9 |
| <i>Clinopodium vulgare</i> | native | 12 | <i>Myosotis stricta</i> | native | 19 | <i>Trifolium pratense</i> | native | 254 |
| <i>Colutea arborescens</i> | nonnative | 13 | <i>Myosotis sylvatica</i> | native | 50 | <i>Trifolium repens</i> | native | 211 |
| <i>Commelina communis</i> | nonnative | 11 | <i>Nocca perfoliata</i> | native | 39 | <i>Tripleurospermum inodorum</i> | nonnative | 160 |
| <i>Conium maculatum</i> | nonnative | 7 | <i>Nonea pulla</i> | native | 20 | <i>Trisetum flavescens</i> | native | 7 |
| <i>Consolida orientalis</i> | nonnative | 15 | <i>Nuphar lutea</i> | native | 12 | <i>Triticum aestivum</i> | nonnative | 8 |
| <i>Convallaria majalis</i> | nonnative | 67 | <i>Odontites vulgaris</i> | native | 19 | <i>Tulipa sylvestris</i> | nonnative | 20 |
| <i>Convolvulus arvensis</i> | nonnative | 108 | <i>Oenothera glazioviana</i> | nonnative | 7 | <i>Tussilago farfara</i> | native | 131 |
| <i>Cornus mas</i> | native | 49 | <i>Oenothera lindheimeri</i> | nonnative | 8 | <i>Typha latifolia</i> | native | 31 |
| <i>Cornus sanguinea</i> | native | 78 | <i>Onobrychis vicifolia</i> | nonnative | 57 | <i>Ulmus glabra</i> | native | 16 |
| <i>Corydalis cava</i> | native | 136 | <i>Ononis spinosa</i> | native | 7 | <i>Ulmus laevis</i> | native | 11 |
| <i>Corydalis solida</i> | native | 25 | <i>Onopordum acanthium</i> | nonnative | 68 | <i>Urtica dioica</i> | native | 431 |
| <i>Corylus avellana</i> | native | 91 | <i>Origanum vulgare</i> | native | 20 | <i>Urtica urens</i> | nonnative | 14 |
| <i>Corylus colurna</i> | nonnative | 26 | <i>Ornithogalum nutans</i> | nonnative | 13 | <i>Vaccinium myrtillus</i> | native | 17 |
| <i>Cota tinctoria</i> | native | 24 | <i>Ornithogalum umbellatum</i> | nonnative | 17 | <i>Valerianella locusta</i> | native | 32 |
| <i>Cotinus coggygria</i> | nonnative | 9 | <i>Oxalis acetosella</i> | native | 36 | <i>Verbascum densiflorum</i> | native | 27 |
| <i>Cotoneaster horizontalis</i> | nonnative | 9 | <i>Oxalis corniculata</i> | nonnative | 88 | <i>Verbascum lychnitis</i> | native | 61 |
| <i>Cotoneaster integerrimus</i> | native | 34 | <i>Oxalis stricta</i> | nonnative | 13 | <i>Verbascum nigrum</i> | native | 10 |
| <i>Crataegus germanica</i> | nonnative | 8 | <i>Oxytropis pilosa</i> | native | 8 | <i>Verbascum phlomooides</i> | native | 8 |
| <i>Crataegus monogyna</i> | native | 8 | <i>Papaver argemone</i> | nonnative | 7 | <i>Verbascum thapsus</i> | native | 18 |
| <i>Crepis biennis</i> | native | 64 | <i>Papaver dubium</i> | nonnative | 16 | <i>Verbena bonariensis</i> | nonnative | 9 |
| <i>Crepis foetida</i> | nonnative | 25 | <i>Papaver rhoeas</i> | nonnative | 123 | <i>Verbena officinalis</i> | nonnative | 7 |
| <i>Cymbalaria muralis</i> | nonnative | 30 | <i>Papaver somniferum</i> | nonnative | 10 | <i>Veronica arvensis</i> | nonnative | 57 |
| <i>Cytisus scoparius</i> | nonnative | 26 | <i>Parthenocissus quinquefolia</i> | nonnative | 16 | <i>Veronica beccabunga</i> | native | 20 |
| <i>Dactylis glomerata</i> | native | 164 | <i>Parthenocissus tricuspidata</i> | nonnative | 27 | <i>Veronica chamaedrys</i> | native | 324 |
| <i>Dasiphora fruticosa</i> | nonnative | 67 | <i>Pastinaca sativa</i> | nonnative | 32 | <i>Veronica officinalis</i> | native | 12 |
| <i>Datura stramonium</i> | nonnative | 32 | <i>Paulownia tomentosa</i> | nonnative | 66 | <i>Veronica persica</i> | nonnative | 286 |
| <i>Daucus carota</i> | nonnative | 112 | <i>Pentanema squarrosum</i> | native | 11 | <i>Veronica polita</i> | nonnative | 18 |
| <i>Delphinium consolida</i> | native | 38 | <i>Persicaria lapathifolia</i> | native | 28 | <i>Veronica prostrata</i> | native | 38 |
| <i>Descurainia sophia</i> | nonnative | 67 | <i>Petrorhagia prolifera</i> | native | 17 | <i>Veronica spicata</i> | native | 13 |
| <i>Dianthus carthusianorum</i> | native | 103 | <i>Phacelia tanacetifolia</i> | nonnative | 28 | <i>Veronica sublobata</i> | native | 198 |
| <i>Dianthus deltoides</i> | native | 9 | <i>Phalaris arundinacea</i> | nonnative | 10 | <i>Veronica teucrium</i> | native | 8 |
| <i>Dictamnus albus</i> | native | 12 | <i>Phedimus spurius</i> | nonnative | 64 | <i>Veronica triphyllos</i> | nonnative | 8 |
| <i>Digitalis purpurea</i> | nonnative | 24 | <i>Philadelphus coronarius</i> | nonnative | 65 | <i>Viburnum farreri</i> | nonnative | 8 |
| <i>Digitaria sanguinalis</i> | nonnative | 41 | <i>Phleum pratense</i> | native | 14 | <i>Viburnum lantana</i> | nonnative | 64 |
| <i>Diploxys tenuifolia</i> | nonnative | 7 | <i>Phlox subulata</i> | nonnative | 7 | <i>Viburnum opulus</i> | nonnative | 31 |
| <i>Dipsacus fullonum</i> | native | 188 | <i>Phragmites australis</i> | native | 77 | <i>Viburnum rhytidophyllum</i> | nonnative | 63 |
| <i>Dipsacus laciniatus</i> | native | 15 | <i>Physocarpus opulifolius</i> | nonnative | 15 | <i>Vicia cracca</i> | native | 25 |

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|---------------------------------|-----------|-----|--------------------------------|-----------|-----|----------------------------------|-----------|-----|
| <i>Dipsacus strigosus</i> | nonnative | 56 | <i>Phytolacca acinosa</i> | nonnative | 56 | <i>Vicia hirsuta</i> | native | 47 |
| <i>Draba verna</i> | native | 71 | <i>Picea abies</i> | native | 51 | <i>Vicia sativa</i> | nonnative | 149 |
| <i>Dryopteris filix-mas</i> | native | 127 | <i>Picris hieracioides</i> | native | 25 | <i>Vicia sepium</i> | native | 61 |
| <i>Dysphania pumilio</i> | nonnative | 35 | <i>Pilosella aurantiaca</i> | native | 20 | <i>Vicia tenuifolia</i> | native | 18 |
| <i>Echinochloa crus-galli</i> | nonnative | 45 | <i>Pilosella officinarum</i> | native | 44 | <i>Vicia villosa</i> | nonnative | 58 |
| <i>Echinops sphaerocephalus</i> | nonnative | 69 | <i>Pinus nigra</i> | nonnative | 19 | <i>Vinca major</i> | native | 30 |
| <i>Echium vulgare</i> | native | 300 | <i>Pinus sylvestris</i> | native | 53 | <i>Vinca minor</i> | native | 232 |
| <i>Elaeagnus angustifolia</i> | nonnative | 18 | <i>Plantago lanceolata</i> | native | 271 | <i>Vincetoxicum hirundinaria</i> | native | 28 |
| <i>Epilobium hirsutum</i> | native | 38 | <i>Plantago major</i> | native | 161 | <i>Viola arvensis</i> | native | 95 |
| <i>Equisetum arvense</i> | native | 59 | <i>Plantago media</i> | native | 102 | <i>Viola odorata</i> | nonnative | 137 |
| <i>Eragrostis minor</i> | nonnative | 41 | <i>Poa annua</i> | native | 61 | <i>Viola reichenbachiana</i> | native | 9 |
| <i>Eranthis hyemalis</i> | nonnative | 64 | <i>Poa bulbosa</i> | native | 33 | <i>Viola riviniana</i> | native | 8 |
| <i>Erigeron annuus</i> | nonnative | 240 | <i>Poa nemoralis</i> | native | 7 | <i>Viola tricolor</i> | nonnative | 10 |
| <i>Erigeron canadensis</i> | nonnative | 58 | <i>Poa pratensis</i> | native | 38 | <i>Viscaria vulgaris</i> | native | 16 |
| <i>Erodium cicutarium</i> | nonnative | 368 | <i>Polygonatum multiflorum</i> | native | 64 | <i>Viscum album</i> | native | 7 |
| <i>Eryngium campestre</i> | native | 65 | <i>Polygonatum odoratum</i> | native | 19 | | | |
| <i>Erysimum cheiranthoides</i> | nonnative | 7 | <i>Polygonum aviculare</i> | native | 21 | | | |
| <i>Erysimum crepidifolium</i> | nonnative | 67 | <i>Polypodium vulgare</i> | native | 18 | | | |
| <i>Eschscholzia californica</i> | nonnative | 8 | <i>Populus alba</i> | native | 15 | | | |
| <i>Euonymus europaeus</i> | native | 105 | <i>Populus nigra</i> | native | 44 | | | |
| <i>Euphorbia cyparissias</i> | native | 312 | <i>Populus tremula</i> | native | 14 | | | |
| <i>Euphorbia esula</i> | native | 11 | <i>Portulaca oleracea</i> | nonnative | 74 | | | |
| <i>Euphorbia helioscopia</i> | nonnative | 110 | <i>Potentilla argentea</i> | native | 137 | | | |
| <i>Euphorbia lathyris</i> | nonnative | 15 | <i>Potentilla incana</i> | native | 39 | | | |
| <i>Euphorbia maculata</i> | nonnative | 15 | <i>Potentilla indica</i> | nonnative | 31 | | | |
| <i>Euphorbia peplus</i> | nonnative | 34 | <i>Potentilla recta</i> | native | 16 | | | |
| <i>Euphorbia serpens</i> | nonnative | 7 | <i>Potentilla reptans</i> | native | 105 | | | |
| <i>Fagopyrum esculentum</i> | nonnative | 9 | <i>Potentilla verna</i> | native | 13 | | | |
| <i>Fagus sylvatica</i> | native | 109 | <i>Primula veris</i> | native | 96 | | | |
| <i>Falcaria vulgaris</i> | native | 46 | <i>Primula vulgaris</i> | nonnative | 38 | | | |

Table 12. List of flora species present in the study area, their status of native or nonnative to Czech Republic, and their observation count.

