

1 Article

2 Short-term responses of aquatic and terrestrial 3 biodiversity to riparian restoration measures aimed at 4 controlling the invasive *Arundo donax* L. (Poaceae) in 5 Mediterranean rivers

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16 **Abstract:** Invasive species are among the top five causes of biodiversity loss worldwide. Namely,
17 the giant reed (*Arundo donax* L.) has progressively colonized the riparian zones of Mediterranean
18 rivers with detrimental effects on terrestrial and aquatic biodiversity, being catalogued as one of the
19 100 worst invasive species. In order to control this invasive species and restore native riparian
20 vegetation, different methods have been traditionally used depending on the environmental,
21 economic and social context. Here, we assess the effect of repeated above-ground removal of giant
22 reed on aquatic and terrestrial communities, testing two different frequencies of mowing, i.e.
23 quarterly-extensive and monthly-intensive, combined with the plantation of native riparian species
24 within the project LIFE13BIO/ES/001407 RIPISILVANATURA. Specifically, we evaluate if riparian
25 vegetation, birds and aquatic macroinvertebrates show significant responses throughout time and
26 between treatments based on 4-years annual biomonitoring data for period 2015-2018. Changes in
27 taxonomic diversity and ecological quality indices for the different biological communities were
28 tested using mixed-effect models (LMEs). LMEs were also applied to assess how riparian variables
29 were related to bird and aquatic macroinvertebrate indices. NMDS, PERMANOVA and IndVal
30 analyses were performed to detect significant differences in taxa composition. During this short-
31 term assessment, we found increases in riparian and aquatic macroinvertebrate richness and quality
32 indices, as well as a significant decrease in *A. donax* height, density and cover, without significant
33 differences between treatments. However, we detected differential effects between extensive
34 (positive-neutral effect) and intensive treatments (neutral-negative effect) only for bird richness,
35 density and abundance. Given the high-cost methods and the great efforts required for restoration,
36 extensive repeated mowing, together with native species plantation, are specifically recommended
37 on river reaches which are not fully invaded by *A. donax* showing a high ecological interest.

38 **Keywords:** Ecological restoration; Biomonitoring; Riparian vegetation; Macroinvertebrates; Birds;
39 Biological invasion; Alien species; Environmental Management; Segura River.
40

41 1. Introduction

42 Invasive species are among the most relevant causes of biodiversity loss [1,2]. Multiple and
43 interacting long-standing human pressures in fluvial systems, as channelization, dam construction,

44 riparian deforestation, agricultural and urban development, have favoured the spread of
45 opportunistic and exotic species [3,4]. Such pressures have detrimental effects on native communities
46 and result in the impairment of aquatic and riparian habitats worldwide [5,6]. Particularly, the giant
47 reed (*Arundo donax* L., Poaceae) has progressively colonized the Mediterranean Basin from the
48 Middle East in Asia [7], being one of the 100 most dangerous invasive species worldwide [8]. In Spain
49 and other Mediterranean countries, the giant reed is widely spread especially in disturbed
50 watercourses where previous riparian fragmentation, flow regulation, and fires had impoverished
51 native riparian communities, leaving empty niches which benefit its growth and expansion [9-11].
52 The giant reed is a tall (2-8 m), erect, robust, fast-growing (2-10 cm/day) and perennial hydrophyte.
53 Its vegetative reproduction enables its spread from thick rhizomes or stem nodes which, carried
54 downstream and once rooted and established, tends to form large and continuous clonal masses and
55 monospecific stands [12,13]. The stress tolerance of this species has been attributed to its large
56 rhizomes which enable a quick resprouting and, consequently, constitute a competitive advantage
57 following biomass-removing disturbances [14-16]. In disturbed rivers, it can outcompete and replace
58 native plant communities causing additional negative effects in riparian habitats by reducing
59 diversity, quality and heterogeneity [13,17] as well as changes in riparian food webs [17-20]. In
60 addition, the lack of natural competitors outside its natural distribution range can also contribute to
61 its spread and consolidation [21], which makes extremely difficult to revert this riparian invasion
62 without management and restoration measures.

63 Nevertheless, the ecological effects of *A. donax* invasion go beyond the riparian vegetation.
64 Riparian zones, as transitional areas between aquatic and terrestrial ecosystems, influence both the
65 structure and functioning of instream and terrestrial associated communities through different
66 processes and functions such as microclimate modification, nutrient and sediment retention, bank
67 stabilization, organic matter supply, food and habitat provision, ecological corridor [22-24]. The
68 spread of *A. donax* affects these natural processes by altering nutrient cycling, promoting shade
69 reduction which is especially important in Mediterranean areas in a context of global warming,
70 causing bank erosion and instability due to its large aerial biomass and shallow root system, and
71 favouring instream sedimentation which reduces substrate heterogeneity and enhances siltation. In
72 addition, *A. donax* provides low-quality food and habitat for native species since their stems and
73 leaves contain a wide variety of noxious chemicals, making it unsuitable and unpalatable for
74 vertebrate and invertebrate grazers [25-26]. Regarding aquatic communities, riparian vegetation acts
75 as a buffer that can modify, incorporate, filter or concentrate a variety of substances, such as nutrients,
76 pesticides or sediments from the surrounding catchment before their incorporation to the aquatic
77 phase, therefore influencing instream biodiversity patterns. Moreover, *Arundo*-driven changes in
78 aquatic habitat conditions, e.g. homogenization, and the low nutritional quality of its leaf litter have
79 negative effects on fishes [27] and aquatic macroinvertebrates [17,28,29].

80 Riparian galleries constitute key habitats due to their high productivity and heterogeneity,
81 providing important resources as food (e.g., riparian invertebrates, emergent aquatic insects, fruits
82 and seeds), excellent areas for reproduction (e.g. nesting and breeding for aquatic and terrestrial birds
83 and some mammals) and ecological corridors even for strictly terrestrial fauna [24]. Among terrestrial
84 communities associated with riparian areas, birds can be considered relevant bioindicators since they
85 are strongly dependent on habitat structure and condition [30]. Native riparian vegetation constitutes
86 a preferential habitat for many birds during migration and juvenile dispersal [31] and may attract
87 over ten times the number of migratory birds in spring than adjacent upland habitats [32].
88 Nevertheless, the strong habitat simplification that involves *A. donax* invasion reduces the number of
89 species that can feed, inhabit and nest on riparian areas [17,33]. *A. donax* stems are weak and
90 completely vertical, so the lack of a robust horizontal structure impedes most bird nesting. In
91 addition, invertebrates, one of the main food sources for birds, are less diverse and abundant in
92 invaded areas (up to 50% of decline) given the absence of a shrubby understory layer [18]. Although
93 the decrease in bird habitat quality following *A. donax* spread has been well studied [33] and
94 constitutes a matter of concern [20], it has been rarely addressed in the Iberian Peninsula [34,35].

95 Moreover, to the best of our knowledge the effects of *A. donax* removal and eradication actions on
96 bird community has not been examined in detail to date.

97 These structural and functional changes caused by *A. donax* in riparian vegetation and associated
98 communities turn into detrimental effects on different ecosystem services, such as the provisioning
99 of material and energy, regulation of local climate, extreme events and biogeochemical cycles and
100 maintenance of the environment for humans and cultural services. In particular, compared to native
101 riparian species, *A. donax* has been related to reduced water quality (lower canopy results in less
102 shade to the river, increasing water temperature and decreasing dissolved oxygen) and quantity
103 (higher evapotranspiration rates and less aquifer recharge), fewer opportunities for recreation and
104 navigation (less water discharge and invaded banks), increased flooding risk (faster runoff and
105 higher sedimentation rates), riparian fires, bank instability and erosion, among others [13,27,36-39].

106 Given the intensity and variety of the ecological, economic and social impacts linked to the
107 dominance of the giant reed, different methods have been used to control its populations: above-
108 ground (stem cutting) and below-ground (rhizome extraction) mechanical removal, chemical
109 treatments (mainly the controversial glyphosate sprayed or injected [40]), physical approaches as
110 flooding or the promising plastic coverage and biological control through terrestrial insects [38,41,42].
111 Despite the methodological advances, burning has been traditionally used by landowners as a quick
112 control method but it has resulted completely ineffective and counter-productive due to the stronger
113 post-fire resprouting exhibited by the giant reed [10]. Most methods are applicable in degraded
114 riparian areas where *A. donax* dominates completely but not in river reaches where this species
115 coexists with native vegetation and/or in protected areas where less aggressive methods are required
116 to avoid negative effects on native communities and ecological processes. Stem cutting campaigns
117 have been generally performed locally (especially in lower reaches where *A. donax* forms extensive
118 monospecific stands), at the request of municipalities or as preventive routine management (before
119 autumn to avoid hydraulic damages during flashflood events in Mediterranean rivers), and with
120 scarce coordination or long-term planning, mostly resulting in high costs and poor results [29].
121 Nevertheless, *A. donax* clumps are likely to require more than local annual biomass removal, due to
122 the bulk of underground biomass, and the ability of remaining rhizome or stem segments to produce
123 large stands quickly [43]. Thus, river restoration projects should focus on coordinated holistic
124 measures planned at broad scale rather than only local disconnected actions, to develop more
125 effective management strategies [44]. Despite the numerous works addressing how biodiversity
126 responds to different riparian management and restoration strategies [45,46], there is a knowledge
127 gap on the ecological effects of *A. donax* removal on aquatic and terrestrial associated communities
128 with the exception of side-effects of chemical treatments as glyphosate [40].

129 In this context, the LIFE+ RIPISILVANATURA project (see detailed information at
130 <https://www.chsegura.es/chs/cuenca/seguraripisilvanatura>) aims to control invasive alien species by
131 strengthening riparian habitats (specially the habitat 92A0 of European Directive 92/43/CEE) in
132 moderately disturbed middle reaches of the Segura River watercourse (SE Spain) where *A. donax* and
133 remnants of native riparian vegetation coexist within or near protected areas. Therefore, this project
134 intends to weaken *A. donax* while expanding native riparian cover through soft-engineering
135 techniques (repeated above-ground stem removal combined with the plantation of native riparian
136 species) in order to enhance the competition exerted by native riparian species. The rationale behind
137 this restoration strategy is to exhaust the rhizome nutritional reserves of *A. donax* by forcing this
138 hydrophyte to constantly replace its stems while native vegetation gets time to be developed and
139 successfully compete with the giant reed for sunlight and riparian space. Although there are some
140 evidences of the effectiveness of the different *A. donax* control and restoration actions, very little is
141 known about the performance, success and ecological effects of this particular combination of
142 methods beyond riparian areas [38]. Complementarily, LIFE+ RIPISILVANATURA is a holistic
143 project that incorporates other ecological, social and educational actions to reach long-lasting
144 successful results, such as the creation of a land stewardship network to involve local population, the
145 launching of a mobile app to create a public alert system for early detection of fire and invasive alien
146 species in riverine habitats, the demarcation of the riparian area to improve ecological integrity and

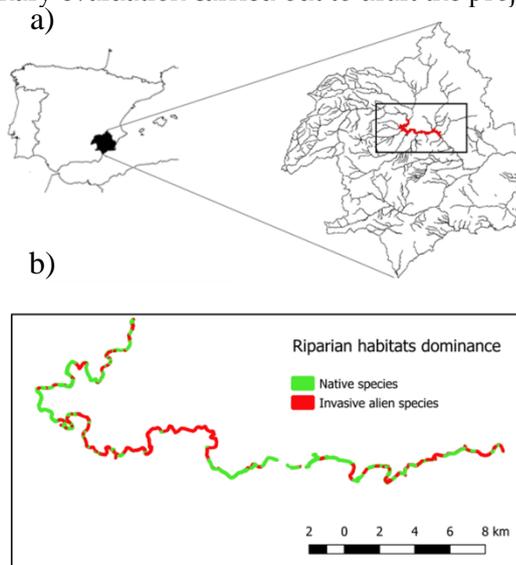
147 expand riparian habitats and the removal of unnecessary embankments to recover lateral
 148 connectivity. It also includes the removal of exotic fauna through the involvement of citizens and
 149 environmental agents, environmental voluntary service and awareness campaigns about invasive
 150 species (especially students), personnel training, publication of protocols and handbooks to optimise
 151 riparian management and conservation, the protection of riparian birds by marking power lines and
 152 the creation of bird observatories.

153 In this study we carried out a short-term evaluation of the effectiveness of the restoration
 154 measures applied to control *A. donax*: repeated mowing with two different frequencies (monthly vs.
 155 quarterly) combined with the plantation of native riparian species. We also assess if taxonomic
 156 composition, condition and species richness of riparian vegetation, birds and aquatic
 157 macroinvertebrates showed significant positive responses to these restoration actions. We expected
 158 a reduction in *A. donax* cover, height and stem density as well as a parallel increase in native riparian
 159 coverage, diversity and ecological status of riparian and aquatic communities. In the case of birds,
 160 we hypothesized that they could need more time (beyond the project deadline) and a greater
 161 development of planted native species to experience significant changes.

162 2. Materials and Methods

163 2.1 Study area

164 The study was developed in the Segura River basin, a semi-arid Mediterranean catchment
 165 located in the South-East of the Iberian Peninsula. In particular, the riparian restorations took place
 166 in 52 km along the middle segment of the Segura River including the municipalities of Cieza,
 167 Calasparra and Moratalla (Murcia Region, Spain). This area is geologically characterized by the
 168 dominance of limestone, sandstone, gypsum and loam substrates and climatically featured by a mean
 169 annual precipitation of 300 mm and annual mean temperature of 17 °C. Regarding anthropogenic
 170 impacts, this perennial river reach is subjected to intense flow regulation and hydro-morphological
 171 alterations [47,48] whereas the main land use in the area is semi-natural (dominant shrubby
 172 landscape) and agriculture (mainly rice fields, apricot and peach trees; < 50%), with urban areas being
 173 scarce (< 2%). Native riparian vegetation in the area was characterized by 92A0 and 92D0 habitats
 174 (Habitat Directive 92/43/CEE), showing a mixture of European and Ibero-African flora (*Salix* spp.,
 175 *Fraxinus angustifolia*, *Populus* spp., *Tamarix* spp., *Nerium oleander*), which constitutes a distinctive
 176 occurrence within the Iberian Peninsula [11,49]. Nevertheless, native habitats have been
 177 progressively displaced by *A. donax*, which already occupies nearly a 40% of the whole studied river
 178 reach according to the preliminary evaluation carried out to draft the project (Figure 1).



180 **Figure 1.** Location of the a) middle section of the Segura River, where restoration actions are taking
 181 place in the context of the LIFE+ RIPISILVANATURA project within the Segura River basin in the
 182 Iberian Peninsula and b) distribution of dominant native and exotic riparian species in the study area.

183 2.2 Restoration actions

184 In order to prioritize restoration areas and measures with higher expectations of success, the
 185 following steps were taken:

186 1) Database and literature searching on native and exotic biodiversity, and ecological quality
 187 indices.

188 2) Field surveys (in the spring of 2015) to complete species inventories, habitat maps and quality
 189 assessments.

190 3) Definition and identification of reference and good quality conditions and river reaches,
 191 respectively (based on riparian and aquatic habitat information).

192 4) Selection of river reaches with intermediate ecological status and favorable vegetation
 193 dynamics to reinforce soft-engineering restoration actions following these criteria: closed to well-
 194 conserved natural riparian habitats to enhance connectivity, technically feasible, socially accepted
 195 (adjacent landowners and local users) and with potential synergies with other ongoing projects (e.g.,
 196 LIFE+ RIVERLINK see <https://www.chsegura.es/chs/cuenca/segurariverlink/riverlink/> for details).

197 5) Selection of initial method (mechanically or manually), for cutting *A. donax* depending on the
 198 riparian vertical structure as well as native and exotic species abundances.

199 6) Definition of case-specific compositional and structural plantation design (arboreal, shrubby
 200 and herbaceous species) depending on local environmental features of each river reach, such as
 201 ecological status, presence of native vegetation remnants, species abundance, bank slope, vertical
 202 distance to water table or riparian width. The species pool used in restorations (Table 1) mainly arised
 203 from the two riparian habitats detected in the area (Mediterranean deciduous broadleaf forests,
 204 Habitat Directive 92/43/CEE): 92A0-*Salix alba* and *Populus alba* galleries and 92D0 Southern riparian
 205 galleries and thickets (*Nerio-Tamaricetea* and *Securinegion tinctoriae*). Furthermore, seedlings for the
 206 different species were obtained and produced from native populations to avoid genetic
 207 hybridization. Such a strategy is supposed to increase the probability of survival of the new
 208 individuals given the previous adaptation to local environmental conditions.

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Table 1. Total pool of riparian species used to define each case-specific restoration action.

Trees	Shrubs	Herbs
<i>Celtis australis</i>	<i>Coriaria myrtifolia</i>	<i>Cladium mariscus</i>
<i>Crataegus monogyna</i>	<i>Genista spartioides</i>	<i>Iris pseudacorus</i>
<i>Fraxinus angustifolia</i>	<i>Nerium oleander</i>	<i>Saccharum ravennae</i>
<i>Populus alba</i>	<i>Pistacia lentiscus</i>	<i>Scirpus holoschoenus</i>
<i>Populus nigra</i>	<i>Rhamnus alaternus</i>	<i>Scirpus maritimus</i>
<i>Salix alba</i>	<i>Rosa pouzinii</i>	<i>Sparganium erectum</i>
<i>Salix atrocinerea</i>	<i>Salix purpurea lambertiana</i>	
<i>Salix fragilis</i>	<i>Sambucus nigra</i>	
<i>Salix neotricha</i>	<i>Smilax aspera</i>	
<i>Tamarix boveana</i>		
<i>Tamarix canariensis</i>		
<i>Tamarix gallica</i>		
<i>Ulmus minor</i>		

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212 Finally, this methodological scheme resulted in the selection of 37 riparian patches where soft-
 213 engineering restoration actions (removal of above-ground *A. donax* stems) and extensive (quarterly)
 214 or intensive (monthly mowing) maintenance have been applied in combination with the case-specific

215 plantation of native riparian vegetation (Figure 2). The first mowing campaigns were done in the
216 winter 2015-2016 before the beginning of the vegetative season (i.e., spring). After the first mowing,
217 different combinations of native riparian species were planted in late winter (February-March 2016).
218 Subsequent cuts were made with different temporal frequency (monthly vs quarterly) depending on
219 the patch, and including a pause during dormancy period (winter), resulting in a maximum of 8
220 mowing campaigns until spring 2018. These cuts were done manually (portable electric lawn mower
221 machine) to minimize the ecological disturbance of repeated mowing on autochthonous and planted
222 vegetation but also on the aquatic and terrestrial associated communities. Because of the semi-arid
223 climate and high evapotranspiration in the study area, auxiliary irrigation was applied in summer to
224 increase the survival of the saplings of planted native species.
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Figure 2. Segura River in Almadenes canyon a) 2015, before the beginning of restoration actions and
b) 2016, after the initial mowing campaigns to remove *A. donax*.

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2.3 Biomonitoring and ecological indicators

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The effectiveness of restoration measures accounting for potential differences between extensive and intensive treatments (frequency of *A. donax* cutting) was assessed through a BACI design (2015 Before; 2016-2018 After Control-Impact), selecting as monitoring sites more than 25% of restored river reaches (half of them located in sections with monthly and quarterly mowing, respectively). Different ecological indicators related to the diversity of riparian (native and exotic plants, birds) and aquatic (macroinvertebrate) groups, as well as ecological quality indices for the different biological communities were annually monitored in spring during the growing vegetative season and just before the next mowing campaign (Figure 3).

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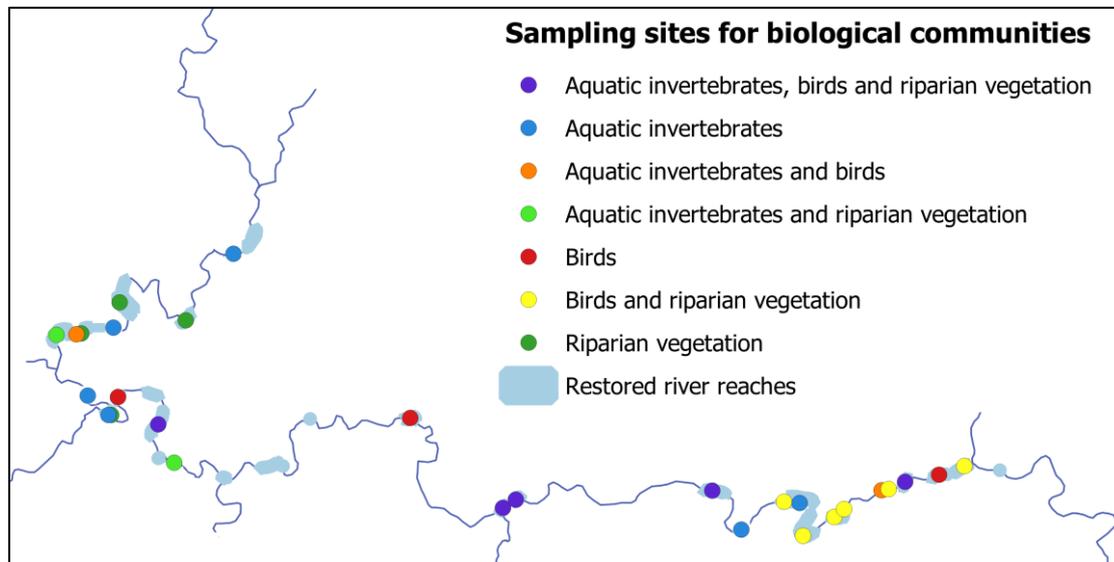
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Regarding riparian vegetation, longitudinal transects (1-5 depending on the width of riparian area) were done in 16 river reaches to estimate the composition and abundance (semi-quantitative ranging from 1 to 6, corresponding from occasional to dominant, respectively) of riparian species, percentage of native and exotic vegetation cover, and to assess riparian quality (Riparian Quality Index-RQI, [50]). In addition, 5 quadrats of 1 m² (1 x 1 m) were systematically placed along each river reach to record the density and height of *A. donax*. Riparian bird community was monitored twice per year in early (15 April-15 May) and late (15 May-15 June) spring, through line transects based on visual and auditory detection [51], which has been recognized as the less biased method to obtain density estimates [52]. This procedure was extended during at least 1 hour within the first 4 hours of sunlight in 14 reaches affected by restoration action, to obtain annual species richness, density and abundance (Kilometric Abundance Index-KAI). Finally, aquatic macroinvertebrates were annually sampled in late spring (maximum aquatic invertebrate activity) in 15 river reaches with a kick net (500 µm mesh) through a multihabitat standardized protocol where sampling effort was proportional to each habitat occurrence [53]. Kick-samples were pooled into a unique sample per site and preserved in 96% ethanol. In the laboratory, organisms were identified at family level, except for Hemiptera and Coleoptera that were identified at species level. This information was used to calculate the Iberian Biomonitoring Working Party (IBMWP index, [54]) and three richness metrics: total family richness, Coleoptera and Hemiptera species richness as surrogates of the total macroinvertebrate community species richness [55,56]. IBMWP is the official invertebrate

257 biomonitoring index currently used in Spain to assess the ecological status of rivers and assigns to
 258 each detected family a score ranging from 1 to 10 according to their known tolerance to pollution.
 259 Complementarily, water samples were taken in the same sites to determine pH, water conductivity
 260 and temperature (measured in situ), total and volatile suspended solids, and nitrate concentration
 261 (photometric method Spectroquant Merck, detection range 0.1-25 mg/l NO₃-N).
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Figure 3. Restored river reaches along Segura River and sampling sites to monitor the evolution of aquatic macroinvertebrates, birds and riparian vegetation.

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2.4 Data analysis

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Changes in riparian vegetation (species richness, quality-RQI, native and exotic cover, averaged *A. donax* height and stem density per river reach), aquatic invertebrate metrics (IBMWP score, family richness, Coleoptera and Hemiptera species richness) and birds (species richness, density and abundance) among years (2015, 2016, 2017 and 2018) and treatments (intensive-monthly vs extensive-quarterly mowing) were tested using linear mixed-effect models (LMEs). If applicable, Tukey-based post-hoc paired comparisons were executed to identify when meaningful responses started. LMEs were performed considering “year” and “treatment” as fixed factors and sampling sites as random factors. Similarly, LMEs were also applied to identify the influence of riparian variables on macroinvertebrate and bird indices (considering sampling sites as random factors). In addition, the relationship between water quality (nitrates, conductivity, total and volatile suspended solids) and aquatic macroinvertebrate variables were also studied through LMEs. Homoscedasticity (Levene’s test) and normality (Shapiro–Wilk test) of residuals were checked. Logarithmic or square root transformations were applied on response variables if model assumptions were not met to improve linearity and reduce data variability. Non-metric Multidimensional Scaling (NMDS), Permutational Multivariate Analysis of Variance (PERMANOVA) and Indicator Value (IndVal) analysis were applied on abundance (riparian vegetation and birds) or occurrence (aquatic macroinvertebrates) data to detect spatial (treatments) and temporal (years) differences in the taxonomic composition of the different biological communities. All statistical analyses were performed using R statistical software (libraries: “ade4”, “car”, “indicspecies”, “lme4”, “lmerTest”, “multcomp”, “MuMIn”, “nlme” and “vegan”; [57]).

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3. Results

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A total of 134 plant species, 77 aquatic macroinvertebrate families (including 24 species of aquatic coleoptera and 9 of aquatic hemiptera) and 64 bird species were detected in the study area between 2015-2018 (complete lists available in Table S1). We observed a significant reduction of *A.*

291 *donax* height, density and cover, an improvement of the riparian quality index (RQI), as well as an
 292 increase in riparian species richness throughout time, without significant differences between
 293 treatments (extensive and intensive maintenance) during the studied period (Table 2, Table S2). No
 294 significant differences among years nor treatments were found for native plant cover. Regarding
 295 aquatic macroinvertebrates, we detected a significant increase in the IBMWP index and richness
 296 values (family richness and Hemiptera species richness) after 2017. No significant differences among
 297 years or treatments were observed for Coleoptera species richness. In the case of birds, at first glance
 298 LMEs did not show significant temporal differences between years for bird density, abundance and
 299 species richness (Figure S1). Nevertheless, there was a significant interaction between date and
 300 treatment pointing to differential effects between extensive (positive effect) and intensive treatments
 301 (neutral-negative effect) on bird community through time (Table 2, Figure 4).

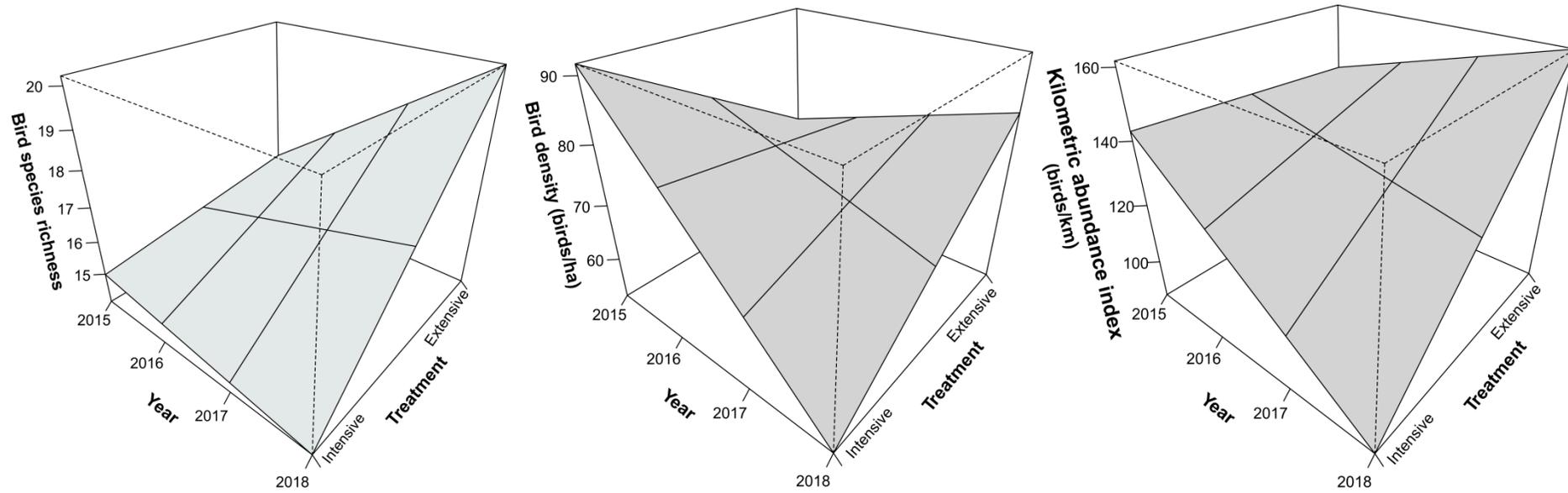
302 **Table 2.** Results of linear mixed-effect models (LMEs) on riparian vegetation, aquatic
 303 macroinvertebrate and bird community metrics. Marginal R² (R²m) and *p*-values for the whole model
 304 and the different terms (year, treatment and the interaction between them) are shown. The signs or
 305 trends of the relationships are also displayed. Significant results (*p* < 0.05) have been highlighted in
 306 bold.

Riparian vegetation	Model		Year		Treatment		Year: Treatment	
	<i>P</i> – value	R ² m	<i>P</i> – value	Trend	<i>P</i> – value	Trend	<i>P</i> – value	Trend
Species richness	5.5*10⁻¹²	0.33	1.66*10⁻⁸	+	0.45	=	0.33	=
Riparian Quality	0.049	0.08	0.031	+	0.34	=	0.63	=
Native cover	0.68	-	0.97	=	0.3	=	0.39	=
<i>A. donax</i> stem density	0.006	0.12	0.017	-	0.11	=	0.12	=
<i>A. donax</i> height	2.2*10⁻¹⁶	0.73	2*10⁻¹⁶	-	0.9	=	0.07	=
<i>A. donax</i> cover	0.006	0.08	0.005	-	0.67	=	0.14	=
Aquatic macroinvertebrates								
IBMWP score	0.003	0.26	0.004	+	0.47	=	0.67	=
Family richness	0.047	0.2	0.013	+	0.8	=	0.94	=
Coleoptera richness	0.92	-	0.9	=	0.32	=	0.83	=
Hemiptera richness	4.31*10⁻⁵	0.4	9.12*10⁻⁵	+	0.65	=	0.05	=
Birds								
Species richness	0.048	0.21	0.34	+/=	0.1	=	0.04	Ext(+) ¹ , Int(=) ²
Density	0.033	0.15	0.17	+/-	0.76	=	0.03	Ext(+), Int(-)
Abundance	0.016	0.2	0.18	+/-	0.17	=	0.04	Ext(+), Int(-)

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¹ Ext: Extensive maintenance treatment; ²Int: Intensive maintenance treatment

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Figure 4. Three-dimensional plots between year, treatment and bird community variables with significant results for interaction terms in linear mixed-effect models (LMEs).

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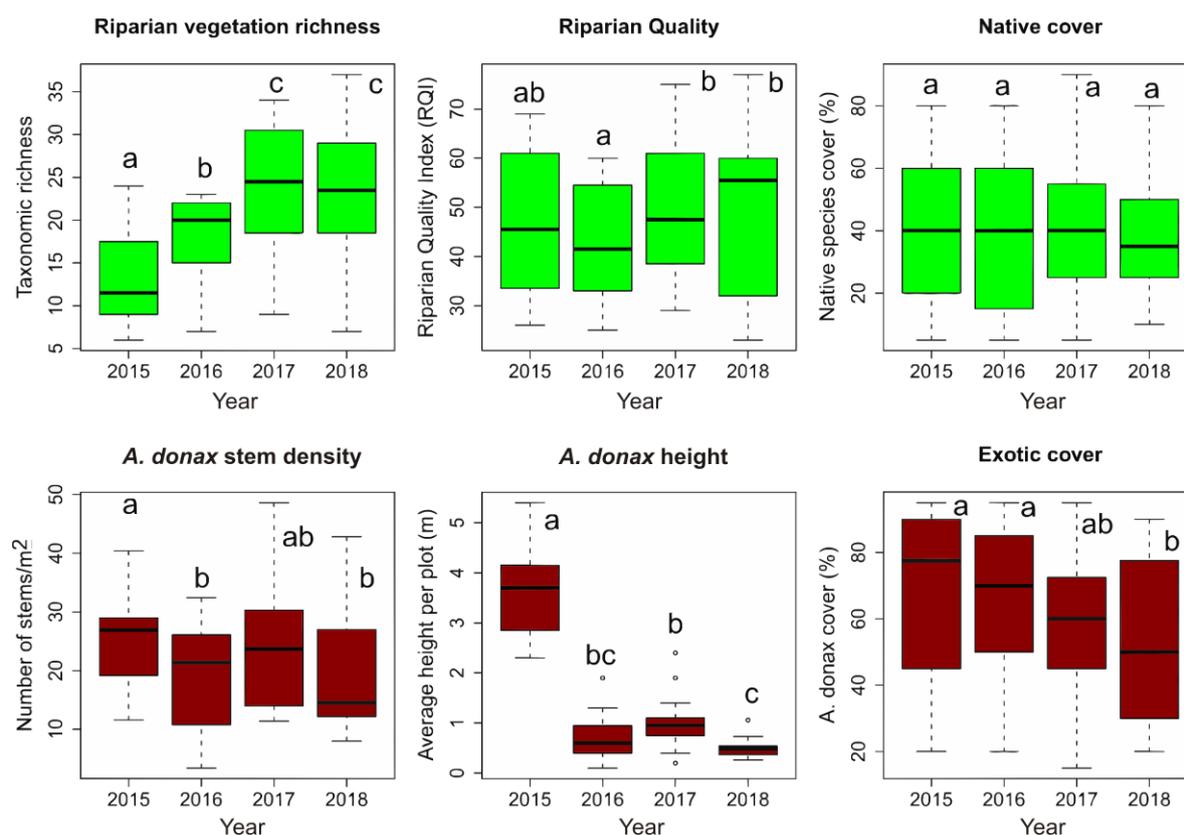
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317 According to Tukey post-hoc paired comparisons (Table 3), the riparian metrics (Figure 5) that first
 318 responded to restoration actions were riparian richness and *A. donax* height (first significant
 319 increase and decrease, respectively in 2016, $p < 0.001$). Similarly, *A. donax* density started to decrease
 320 in 2016 (significant differences between 2015 and 2016, $p < 0.05$) but this reduction was not
 321 consolidated until 2018 (differences 2015-2018, $p < 0.05$). The riparian quality index (RQI) and *A.*
 322 *donax* density did not respond until the second (differences 2016-2017, $p < 0.05$) and third year of
 323 restoration actions (differences 2015-2018, $p < 0.01$), respectively. Similarly, macroinvertebrate-based
 324 biomonitoring index (IBMWP), family richness and Hemiptera species richness showed significant
 325 responses from 2017 (differences 2016-2017, $p < 0.05$, $p < 0.01$ and $p < 0.001$, respectively) and
 326 concordant patterns between 2016-2018 ($p < 0.01$; Figure 6, Table 4).



327
 328 **Figure 5.** Results of linear mixed-effect models (LMEs) and Tukey post-hoc paired comparisons
 329 relative to the temporal evolution of native (light green) and exotic (brown) riparian vegetation-
 330 related variables. Letters (a, b, c) depict the significant differences found among years (see Table 3).

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Table 3. Results of Tukey post-hoc paired comparisons for riparian vegetation variables.

	Riparian richness			Riparian Quality index			<i>A. donax</i> stem density			<i>A. donax</i> height			<i>A. donax</i> cover		
	Estimate	Z-value	P-value	Estimate	Z-value	P-value	Estimate	Z-value	P-value	Estimate	Z-value	P-value	Estimate	Z-value	P-value
2016 – 2015	47.500	4.232	<0.001	-41.250	-1.931	0.2150	-0.375320	-2.574	0.0492	-29.563	-14.811	<0.001	-0.9375	-0.228	0.99582
2017 – 2015	108.125	9.634	<0.001	21.875	1.024	0.7353	-0.091882	-0.630	0.9224	-26.500	-13.277	<0.001	-78.125	-1.901	0.22782
2018 – 2015	100.000	8.910	<0.001	16.250	0.761	0.8721	-0.373548	-2.562	0.0498	-31.894	-15.979	<0.001	-134.375	-3.269	0.00572
2017 – 2016	60.625	5.402	<0.001	63.125	2.955	0.0165	0.283438	1.944	0.2097	0.3062	1.534	0.4168	-68.750	-1.672	0.33828
2018 – 2016	52.500	4.678	<0.001	57.500	2.692	0.0354	0.001773	0.012	10.000	-0.2331	-1.168	0.6471	-125.000	-3.041	0.01275
2018 – 2017	-0.8125	-0.724	0.8875	-0.5625	-0.263	0.9936	-0.281666	-1.932	0.2146	-0.5394	-2.702	0.0349	-56.250	-1.368	0.51928

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Table 4. Results of Tukey post-hoc paired comparisons for aquatic macroinvertebrate-related variables.

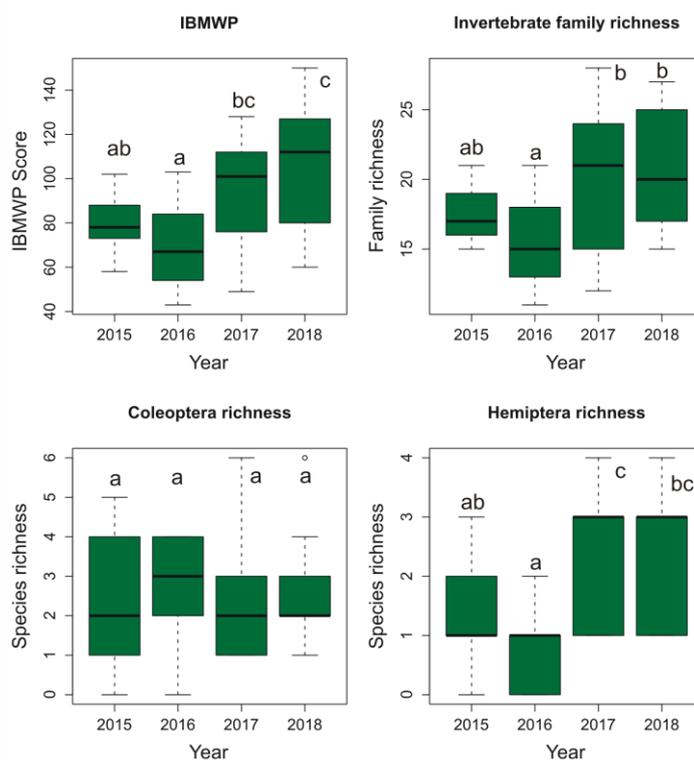
	IBMWP			Family richness			Hemiptera species richness		
	Estimate	Z-value	P-value	Estimate	Z-value	P-value	Estimate	Z-value	P-value
2016 – 2015	-11.778	-1.541	0.41318	-20.000	-1.372	0.51700	-0.6667	-1.691	0.3282
2017 – 2015	11.556	1.512	0.43047	26.667	1.829	0.25942	11.111	2.819	0.0246
2018 – 2015	23.778	3.110	0.00998	30.000	2.058	0.16705	0.8889	2.255	0.1085
2017 – 2016	23.333	3.052	0.01231	46.667	3.201	0.00722	17.778	4.510	<0.001
2018 – 2016	35.556	4.651	<0.001	50.000	3.430	0.00343	15.556	3.947	<0.001
2018 – 2017	12.222	1.599	0.37932	0.3333	0.229	0.99579	-0.2222	-0.564	0.9428

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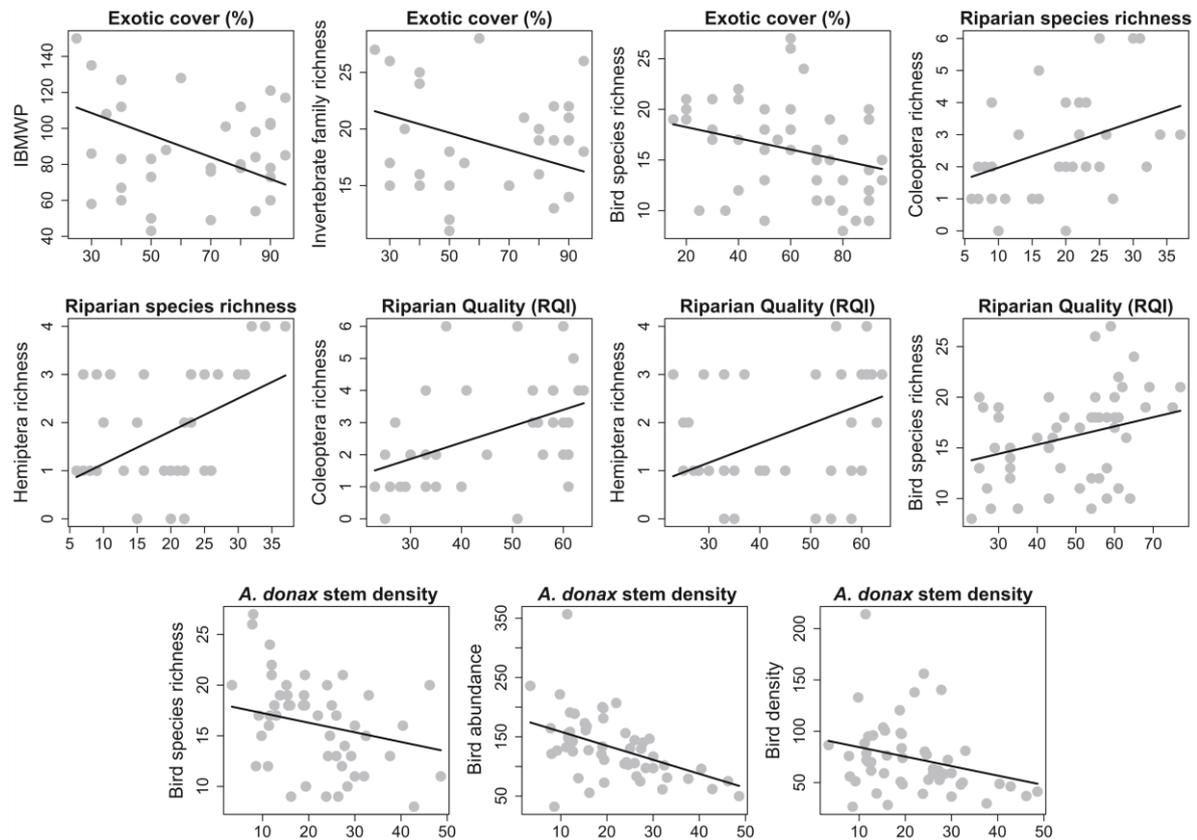
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344 **Figure 6.** Results of linear mixed-effect models (LMEs) and Tukey post-hoc paired comparisons
 345 relative to the temporal evolution of aquatic macroinvertebrate-related variables. Letters (a, b, c)
 346 depict the significant differences found among years (see Table 4).

347 Regarding the relationships between riparian vegetation and faunal communities (explored
 348 through LMEs, Figure 7), exotic cover negatively influenced the IBMWP score, ($R^2_m = 0.17$, $p < 0.05$),
 349 family richness ($R^2_m = 0.11$, $p < 0.05$) and bird species richness ($R^2_m = 0.08$, $p < 0.05$). Riparian species
 350 richness and quality were positively related to Coleoptera ($p < 0.05$, $R^2_m = 0.14$ and $R^2_m = 0.19$,
 351 respectively) and Hemiptera species richness ($p < 0.05$, $R^2_m = 0.18$ and $R^2_m = 0.17$, respectively). In
 352 addition, riparian richness also enhanced bird richness ($R^2_m = 0.09$, $p < 0.05$). *A. donax* stem density
 353 was negatively associated with bird species richness ($R^2_m = 0.08$, $p < 0.05$), density ($R^2_m = 0.07$, $p <$
 354 0.05) and abundance ($R^2_m = 0.2$, $p < 0.001$). Finally, no significant relationships were found between
 355 water quality (nitrates, conductivity, total and volatile suspended solids) and aquatic
 356 macroinvertebrate community variables ($p > 0.05$).

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Figure 7. Significant relationships ($p < 0.05$) between riparian vegetation-related variables and aquatic macroinvertebrate and bird community indexes according to linear mixed-effect models.

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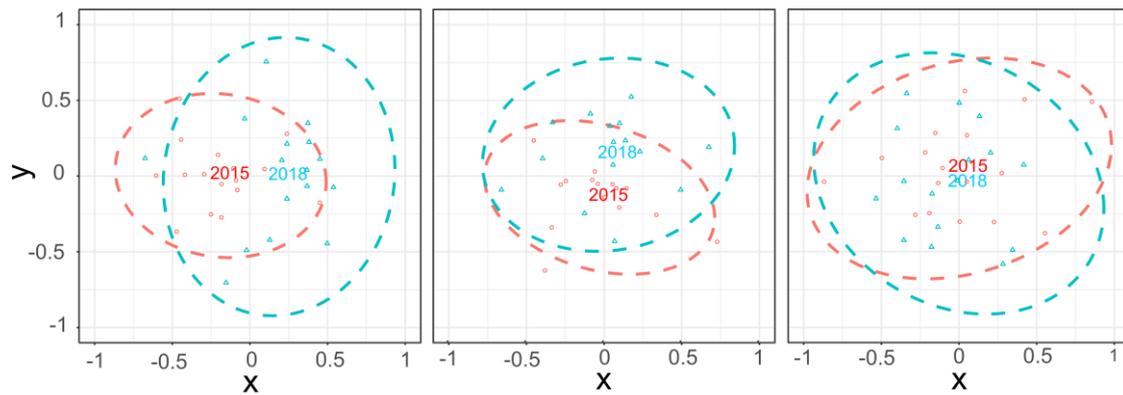
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NMDS (Figure 8) and PERMANOVA results pointed to significant temporal taxonomic changes between 2015 (before the restoration actions) and 2018 for aquatic macroinvertebrates ($p = 0.001$, $R^2 = 0.12$) and riparian vegetation ($p = 0.001$, $R^2 = 0.15$) consisting of an increase in multivariate dispersion and species diversification. However, no meaningful temporal changes were detected for birds ($p = 0.19$). Similarly, differences between treatments (extensive and intensive maintenance) were not significant for any biological community ($p > 0.05$). Finally, although IndVal analyses did not identify any indicator species for riparian vegetation before the beginning of restoration measures (2015), it did in 2018 selecting the most successful planted species, *Salix purpurea*, *Salix neotricha*, *Nerium oleander*, *Fraxinus angustifolia*, *Rosa Canina* and *Sambucus nigra* ($p = 0.001$) as the most significant riparian species. Regarding macroinvertebrates, Planorbidae was the unique indicator taxon ($p = 0.001$) in 2015 whereas Tabanidae ($p = 0.002$), Platycnemididae ($p = 0.006$) and Thiaridae ($p = 0.033$) were indicators for the aquatic community observed in 2018. Finally, no significant indicator species were identified for birds in any of the periods (2015 or 2018).



375

376 **Figure 8.** Non-metric Multidimensional Scaling (NMDS) comparing taxonomic composition before the
 377 beginning of restoration actions (2015) and the current situation (2018) for: a) riparian vegetation, b)
 378 aquatic macroinvertebrates, and c) bird communities. Ellipses group communities by year (2015-red or
 379 2018-blue located at the centroid of the community).

380 4. Discussion

381 Repeated mowing in combination with the plantation of native riparian species has partially
 382 succeeded in the control of *A. donax* and the recovery of biological communities three years after the
 383 start of restoration actions in the middle section of the Segura River. In particular, a significant
 384 reduction of *A. donax* height, density and cover, and a parallel increase in the riparian quality index
 385 (RQI) and riparian vegetation richness were detected as a consequence of the restoration actions to
 386 control *A. donax* and strengthen native plant communities. This improvement of riparian condition
 387 was paired with an increase in aquatic macroinvertebrate richness mainly associated to the decrease
 388 in *A. donax* cover and the increase in riparian quality and richness. Extensive and intensive treatments
 389 based on the differential frequency of mowing exerted similar ecological effects, except for birds
 390 which were favored by the extensive maintenance and not the intensive one.

391 The temporal sequence of riparian recovery and associated biological communities seem to
 392 follow a logical ecological pathway; first, *A. donax* height and density decreased after the first year of
 393 implementation of restoration actions as a consequence of repeated mowing. Next, riparian richness
 394 started to increase due to the plantation of native riparian species and regeneration of existing plants.
 395 This riparian improvement was followed by meaningful changes in aquatic macroinvertebrate
 396 richness and IBMWP scores after the second year of restoration actions. Finally, although birds
 397 recently started to show increases in density, abundance and richness with extensive treatment, they
 398 probably need greater development of native planted species to experience noticeable changes in
 399 species composition and diversity. In fact, although most native saplings were established and in
 400 good condition, their small size and the lack of lateral spread can explain the absence of significant
 401 changes in native cover. Considering the current modest development of native planted species and
 402 the high growth rate and competitive ability of *A. donax*, the persistence of extensive maintenance
 403 could be desirable to underpin the ecological positive effects of restoration actions already
 404 implemented in the study area. Despite the initial changes observed in riparian vegetation, aquatic
 405 macroinvertebrate and bird assemblages after applying *A. donax* control methods and riparian
 406 restoration actions, long-term biomonitoring would be desirable to confirm this positive pattern and
 407 analyze, with greater details, the associated biological responses.

408 4.1 Riparian vegetation

409 Although native riparian communities would benefit from an extension of *A. donax* control
 410 actions, a general improvement in riparian condition has been observed. Thus, the establishment and
 411 consolidation of planted species has increased riparian richness in all monitoring sites since the
 412 beginning of the restoration actions. Thus, riparian plantations have strengthened habitat 92A0

413 through the increase in richness and abundance of native riparian species as *Populus alba*, *P. nigra*,
414 *Nerium oleander*, and *Salix* spp., among others. This is quite promising since previous studies have
415 demonstrated the effectiveness of willows to successfully compete with *A. donax* for the space and
416 nutritional resources and, consequently, in depleting its productivity and extension [58].
417 Nevertheless, given that values of the riparian quality index (RQI) and native cover are still far from
418 reference values, the extension of control and associated biomonitoring actions seems necessary to
419 observe a greater improvement of riparian communities. At this moment, although native riparian
420 communities have experienced a compositional diversification, woody planted species need more
421 time to develop and outcompete *A. donax*, occupying progressively the riparian space and
422 intercepting sunlight by closed canopies [41].

423 Non-chemical control treatments are usually based on the removal of the rhizome of *A. donax*.
424 However, the application of this method in sensitive areas is not recommended, due to the strong
425 physical and ecological impact it implies in the initial phases. In this context, although *A. donax* shoots
426 can resprout from rhizomes located at one-meter depth [59,60], repeated mowing can also reduce *A.*
427 *donax* underground biomass [61]. Given the very high photosynthetic rate of *A. donax*, which enables
428 new stems to become rapidly independent of rhizome reserves [62], coordinated, periodical and
429 scheduled control actions are essential to mitigate the invasion of *A. donax* in Mediterranean rivers.
430 Thus, short time-lags are recommended to exhaust underground nutritional reserves more rapidly
431 [38]. Nevertheless, we did not find significant differences between quarterly and monthly mowing
432 on restoration success. Despite the lack of studies assessing the effectiveness of repeated mowing in
433 combination with the plantation of native species, this approach was able to reduce *A. donax* height
434 (-80%), density (-50%) and cover (-35%), which was similar to the results obtained in the evaluation
435 of just repeated mowing [63-65]. Final evaluation after the end of the project (2019) will provide
436 additional key data on the survival rates of planted saplings to identify the most successful species
437 outcompeting *A. donax* in habitat 92A0 and 92D0. It will also allow for checking if restoration actions
438 have turned aquatic and terrestrial communities more similar to those inhabiting reference reaches
439 (there were five non-invaded reaches distributed along the study area). This information will be very
440 valuable when promoting their replication in further restoration schemes.

441 4.2 Aquatic macroinvertebrates

442 The ecological quality (sensu IBMWP), family richness and Hemiptera species richness have
443 experienced meaningful increases after the implementation of restoration actions. Furthermore, we
444 detected a diversification in taxonomic composition through time and species of high conservation
445 interest in the study area. Despite the restored river reaches are affected by flow regulation due to
446 the presence of upstream dams, most of the sampling sites reached at least good ecological
447 condition based on IBMWP index during the last year of the monitoring campaign (2018). The only
448 exceptions were the “Moratalla river mouth” and “La Maestra” reach in the Segura River probably
449 due to their proximity to upstream and downstream dams, which cause artificial flow intermittence
450 and flow retention, respectively [66]. Changes in the dominance between native and non-native
451 riparian species can influence the quality, quantity, and timing of allochthonous resource inputs
452 which, in turn, may favour the diversity and structure of invertebrate communities [67,68]. In fact,
453 riparian habitats dominated by exotic species are associated to lower invertebrate density, diversity
454 and evenness than riparian habitats dominated by native vegetation [69]. Namely, *A. donax* promotes
455 homogeneous and uniform river banks and less woody debris, resulting in lower diversity of
456 microhabitats (e.g. tree roots) for aquatic macroinvertebrates. The reduction of *A. donax* dominance
457 could have boosted the recovery of aquatic macroinvertebrate community since this invasive species
458 reduces insect growth as it constitutes an exceptionally poor resource with an allelopathic potential
459 effect [28]. The higher resource quality of native species debris coupled with a gain of native litter as
460 consequence of restoration action could have long-term beneficial effects on secondary production of
461 aquatic macroinvertebrates utilizing large-particle organic matter [28]. Particularly, streams in which
462 biotic assemblages are structured by allochthonous organic inputs, shifts from *A. donax* to native

463 riparian communities could influence higher trophic levels by increasing the relative contribution of
464 shredder macroinvertebrates as a resource for predators [70].

465 According to our results, the observed temporal trend could be due to the reduction of *A. donax*
466 cover, the increase of riparian species richness and the improvement on the quality of riparian areas
467 and river banks as a consequence of the restoration actions. Nevertheless, it could be also related to
468 the good physico-chemical water parameters found along the study area (nitrates <5 mg/l, water
469 conductivity <1000 μ S/cm, total and volatile suspended solids <5 mg/l; measured at the same time
470 than macroinvertebrates sampling), with the exception of local and punctual disturbances in some
471 sampling sites located near rice fields which affected water quality occasionally. The unexpected lack
472 of significant relationships between physico-chemical water parameters and macroinvertebrate
473 indices could be due to the relatively good water quality found on the whole river section during all
474 the project (lack of spatial and temporal variability). This good physico-chemical state is probably
475 related to the notable reduction of organic pollution occurred in the last decades due to a better
476 management of wastewater and the construction of many water treatment plants along the Segura
477 river basin [71]. However, further conservation and management actions are highly recommended
478 considering that alien invertebrate species as *Procambarus clarkii*, *Corbicula fluminea* and *Potamopyrgus*
479 *antipodarum* were widely detected during this short-term assessment, showing an expansion across
480 the Basin in some cases [72]. Finally, it seems worth to stress that the endemic mollusk *Melanopsis*
481 *lorcana*, considered as “vulnerable” in the Spanish red book of invertebrates [73], has been recurrently
482 recorded during the entire monitoring period, its corresponding family (Thiaridae) being one of the
483 few indicator taxa for the 2018 sampling campaign. Moreover, we have detected the occurrence of
484 species related to well-conserved riparian forests (e.g. *Potamophilus acuminatus*, Coleoptera) and, also,
485 other taxa associated to artificial watercourses (e.g. *Heliocorisa vermiculata*, Hemiptera) pointing that
486 this possible transition to better conditions is still underway.

487 4.3 Birds

488 Only birds were differentially affected by the frequency of repeated mowing. The extensive
489 treatment was associated with an increase in species richness, density and abundance, whereas the
490 intensive one exerted neutral (species richness) and even negative effects (density and abundance)
491 on bird communities. The intensive treatment could represent an excessive frequency of mowing
492 (monthly), hindering bird nesting during the critical months of May, June and July, which must be
493 considered in future management and restoration actions. Thus, only extensive treatment (quarterly
494 mowing) should be extended in time to reduce exotic cover without detrimental effects on bird
495 communities. At the moment, 54 bird species have been recorded through transects in the last
496 sampling campaign (2018), and a total of 64 species (Table S1) have been detected in the restored
497 reaches during the entire project, an amount noticeably higher than other monitoring programs in
498 forest habitats in the region (45-56 species; [74]). Bird species richness also fluctuates as a result of
499 seasonal habitat changes and community replacement, particularly due to the seasonal influx of
500 migratory species. During spring and autumn passage, numerous migrant birds concentrate in the
501 Iberian Peninsula along riparian galleries [30,75,76]. Although this is a feature only partially captured
502 by our sampling design, an improvement in the carrying capacity of restored habitats as migration
503 stopovers and corridors is also expectable if treatments are maintained in the mid-term.

504 Aquatic and riparian bird communities are highly influenced by landscape-scale factors like
505 vertical and horizontal structure of riparian vegetation and adjacent land use [77,78]. *A. donax*
506 invasion is a matter of concern due to the potential negative effects on birds that rely on native
507 riparian vegetation stands for foraging and nesting [79,80]. In particular, the giant reed stands in
508 semi-arid Mediterranean areas present a depauperated passerine community in comparison with
509 other similar riparian and reedbed formations, lacking mainly the set of birds that are more selective
510 and adapted to palustrine habitats [81]. This could be due to differences in certain environmental
511 characteristics between native and alien biotopes, as the lower availability of preys (invertebrates)
512 associated with monospecific *A. donax* stands. This probably applies to our riparian habitats, where
513 *Arundo* outcompetes reedbeds of *Phragmites australis* and shrubby formations like willow strips,

514 brambles and different Mediterranean understory and forest communities that provide structural
515 heterogeneity and additional food resources for birds [82].

516 Within native plant associations, Mediterranean riparian galleries as habitats 92A0 and 92D0 are
517 key biodiversity hotspots on a regional scale, since they often represent the only well-structured
518 habitat available for bird breeding and foraging within intensively developed landscapes [76].
519 Moreover, specialist birds strongly tied to riparian areas share these habitats with forest generalists
520 and ubiquitous species typical of surrounding shrublands and agricultural landscapes [75]. The
521 concept of riparian-obligate and riparian-dependent species [83] is useful since different restoration
522 strategies (local vs landscape-oriented) would deliver improvements in each subset of species [84].
523 While some riparian-dependent species can be favoured in the initial stages after restoration,
524 recovering the full set of riparian-obligate ones probably needs more time to rebuild the structural
525 complexity they require. Although we did not detect meaningful changes in the more frequent
526 species, there was a negative trend in pioneer species inhabiting open habitats (e.g. *Muscicapa striata*),
527 and an increase of riparian and facultative birds with seed dispersal potential (e.g. *Turdus viscivorus*),
528 which could benefit passive restoration in the long term (as previously demonstrated in burned areas
529 [85]).

530 Overall, it seems that planted riparian vegetation has not fully developed yet to modify
531 associated bird communities substantially. Nevertheless, mowing campaigns and restoration actions
532 could have enhanced bird diversity through the creation of transient spots of open habitat with
533 animal and plant resources that can be exploited by bird community inhabiting in the remaining tree
534 stratum and adjacent shrubland patches. Tree canopies, which can persist even in river sections
535 partially invaded by *A. donax*, are the habitat most used by many riparian bird species. Most riparian
536 trees are deciduous, a type of forest limited in the study area to riparian zones due to the climatic
537 restrictions of semi-arid Mediterranean areas. This type of forests hosts particular bird communities
538 [86] that may complement the species typical from conifers and Mediterranean evergreen
539 sclerophyllous forests, enhancing diversity at landscape and regional scale. Moreover, given the
540 greater diversity and abundance of insects in deciduous broadleaf forests [87], these riparian species
541 could result particularly important for birds, especially insectivorous ones. However, despite the
542 importance of these tree canopies, the presence of native understory strata seems also necessary to
543 reach a really diverse community [88]. It suggests that the plantation of native trees supplemented
544 by shrub and herbs, as done in this project, could promote synergies with existing vegetation and
545 enhance longitudinal, lateral and vertical landscape connectivity with beneficial effects on riparian
546 bird community in the mid-term.

547 4.4 Management implications

548 Human-driven environmental changes (e.g. land use intensification) disturb native riparian
549 communities adapted to previous local conditions, arising niche opportunities for alien species which
550 can show positive rates of increase from low densities [89]. Given the advanced state of *A. donax*
551 invasion in the Segura River, the complete removal of this invasive species and successful recovery
552 of native riparian communities are not feasible without reversing or, at least, mitigating the negative
553 effect of the human activities that originally enabled the invasion. In this context, it should be stressed
554 that the project LIFE+ RIPISILVANATURA has attempted, albeit partially, to face these other human
555 pressures through the implementation of complementary actions to restoration measures, such as the
556 removal of unnecessary river embankments, demarcation of public waters and riparian areas,
557 creation of a land stewardship network, fire prevention as well as supporting and promoting
558 sustainable agricultural practices.

559 The restoration actions performed, based on repeated mowing in combination with native
560 species plantation, are specifically recommended on river reaches not fully invaded by *A. donax* and
561 with specific ecological interest (e.g. habitats of European interest, protected areas, threatened
562 species, etc.). Otherwise, there are promising strategies that could be successfully applied in riparian
563 areas dominated by monospecific stands of *A. donax*, such as plastic layering, a cost-effective, clean
564 and sustainable technique that consists of covering the area recently mowed with an opaque reusable

565 material (preferentially of polyethylene) during several months. This technique can increase
566 temperature above 60 °C, intercepts sunlight (exhausting the reserves of the rhizome) and produces
567 the massive death of *A. donax* [90]. Regarding the methodological approach used here, increasing
568 mowing effort right before the plantation of native species could have weakened *A. donax* to a greater
569 extent and, subsequently, increase the survival rate of native saplings [38].

570 The observed ecological trends in response to *A. donax* control and restoration actions can be
571 strengthened by longer evaluation periods, which would allow for extracting more robust
572 conclusions to be considered in further riparian restoration projects. Although plant species early
573 established after restoration could be informative on the long-term success of vegetation outcomes
574 [91], further evaluation after the end of the project (2019 and following years) will provide a deeper
575 insight into the identification of the key factors behind success or failure (treatments, planted species
576 combination, initial status, etc.). Moreover, long-term (6-10 years) biomonitoring is highly
577 recommended to have a complete view of the processes, effects and durability of the applied
578 measures [91,92]. The cross-taxon biomonitoring scheme performed here considers the multi-
579 dimensional nature of rivers and expands the assessment to river segment scale, which is not
580 common in riparian restoration projects (usually focused on the effects on riparian vegetation
581 patterns at meander scale [91]). This approach is of great help when incorporating adaptive
582 management to restoration projects, which enables to extrapolate successful actions and discard
583 failed ones, therefore improving the cost-benefit ratio of further management actions. If
584 biomonitoring is maintained in the long term, further hot research topics could include how riparian
585 restoration actions modulate the functional features of aquatic and terrestrial species and how these
586 traits interact within and between associated biological communities (e.g. insectivorous birds and
587 aquatic emergent insects).

588 **Supplementary Materials:** The following information is available online at www.mdpi.com/xxx/s1, Table S1:
589 Taxa checklist of riparian vegetation, aquatic macroinvertebrates and birds recorded, Table S2: Table
590 summarizing the mean values and standard deviation of riparian vegetation, birds and aquatic invertebrate
591 indexes through time and between treatments, Figure S1: Boxplots showing the temporal evolution of bird
592 density, abundance and species richness.

593 **Author Contributions:** For research articles with several authors, a short paragraph specifying their individual
594 contributions must be provided. The following statements should be used conceptualization, D.B., V.Z. F.R., and
595 J.V.; methodology, D.B., F.R., J.V., A.M., V.Z., E.D., S.G., F.P and J.C. ; formal analysis, D.B.; data curation, V.Z.,
596 S.G., F.P., A.M., F.R. and D.B.; writing—original draft preparation, D.B.; writing—review and editing, D.B., F.R.,
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607 study; in the collection, analyses, or interpretation of data; in the writing of the manuscript, or in the decision to
608 publish the results.

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819

820 **Table S1.** Taxa checklist of riparian vegetation, aquatic macroinvertebrates and birds recorded
 821 between 2015 and 2018 in the study area.

Riparian vegetation

Birds

Aquatic macroinvertebrates (families)

<i>Agave americana</i>	<i>Acrocephalus scirpaceus</i>	<i>Aeshnidae</i>
<i>Agrostis stolonifera</i>	<i>Aegithalos caudatus</i>	<i>Ancylidae</i>
<i>Anthyllis cytisoides</i>	<i>Alcedo atthis</i>	<i>Anthomyiidae</i>
<i>Apium graveolens</i>	<i>Anas platyrrynchos</i>	<i>Athericidae</i>
<i>Apium nodiflorum</i>	<i>Ardea cinerea</i>	<i>Atyidae</i>
<i>Arbutus unedo</i>	<i>Caprimulgus ruficollis</i>	<i>Baetidae</i>
<i>Arundo donax</i>	<i>Carduelis cannabina</i>	<i>Brachycentridae</i>
<i>Artemisia campestris</i>	<i>Carduelis carduelis</i>	<i>Caenidae</i>
<i>Asparagus acutifolius</i>	<i>Carduelis chloris</i>	<i>Calopterygidae</i>
<i>Asparagus albus</i>	<i>Certhia brachydactyla</i>	<i>Cambaridae</i>
<i>Asparagus horridus</i>	<i>Cettia cetti</i>	<i>Ceratopogonidae</i>
<i>Asparagus officinalis</i>	<i>Cisticola juncidis</i>	<i>Chironomidae</i>
<i>Atriplex halimus</i>	<i>Columba livia domestica</i>	<i>Coenagrionidae</i>
<i>Ballota hirsuta</i>	<i>Columba palumbus</i>	<i>Corbiculidae</i>
<i>Brachypodium retusum</i>	<i>Cuculus canorus</i>	<i>Corduliidae</i>
<i>Bryonia dioica</i>	<i>Cyanistes caeruleus</i>	<i>Corixidae</i>
<i>Carpobrotus edulis</i>	<i>Dendrocopos major</i>	<i>Culicidae</i>
<i>Carex pendula</i>	<i>Emberiza cia</i>	<i>Curculionidae</i>
<i>Celtis australis</i>	<i>Emberiza cirulus</i>	<i>Dixidae</i>
<i>Cistus albidus</i>	<i>Erithacus rubecula</i>	<i>Dolychopodidae</i>
<i>Cistus clusii</i>	<i>Falco tinnunculus</i>	<i>Dryopidae</i>
<i>Cistus monspeliensis</i>	<i>Ficedula hypoleuca</i>	<i>Dugesidae</i>
<i>Cladium mariscus</i>	<i>Fringilla coelebs</i>	<i>Dytiscidae</i>
<i>Clematis vitalba</i>	<i>Galerida cristata</i>	<i>Elmidae</i>
<i>Coriaria myrtifolia</i>	<i>Gallinula chloropus</i>	<i>Empididae</i>
<i>Crataegus monogyna</i>	<i>Hippolais opaca</i>	<i>Ephemerellidae</i>
<i>Cyperus fuscus</i>	<i>Hippolais polyglotta</i>	<i>Ephemeridae</i>
<i>Cyperus longus</i>	<i>Jynx torquilla</i>	<i>Ephydriidae</i>
<i>Cynanchum acutum</i>	<i>Lanius senator</i>	<i>Erpobdellidae</i>
<i>Daphne gnidium</i>	<i>Lophophanes cristatus</i>	<i>Gammaridae</i>
<i>Desmazeria rigida</i>	<i>Loxia curvirostra</i>	<i>Gerridae</i>
<i>Digitalis obscura</i>	<i>Luscinia megarhynchos</i>	<i>Glossiphoniidae</i>
<i>Dittrichia viscosa</i>	<i>Merops apiaster</i>	<i>Glossosomatidae</i>
<i>Dorycnium pentaphyllum</i>	<i>Motacilla alba</i>	<i>Gomphidae</i>
<i>Dorycnium rectum</i>	<i>Motacilla cinerea</i>	<i>Gyrinidae</i>
<i>Equisetum ramosissimum</i>	<i>Muscicapa striata</i>	<i>Haliplidae</i>
<i>Eleagnos angustifolia</i>	<i>Nycticorax nycticorax</i>	<i>Helophoridae</i>
<i>Elymus hispidus</i>	<i>Oenanthe leucura</i>	<i>Heptagenidae</i>
<i>Ficus carica</i>	<i>Oriolus oriolus</i>	<i>Hydracarina</i>
Riparian vegetation	Birds	Aquatic macroinvertebrates (families)

<i>Fraxinus angustifolia</i>	<i>Parus major</i>	Hydraenidae
<i>Fraxinus excelsior</i>	<i>Passer domesticus</i>	Hydrobiidae
<i>Genista_scorpis</i>	<i>Passer montanus</i>	Hydrometridae
<i>Genista spartioides</i>	<i>Periparus ater</i>	Hydrophilidae
<i>Hedera helix</i>	<i>Petronia petronia</i>	Hydropsychidae
<i>Helychrisum stoechas</i>	<i>Phalacrocorax carbo</i>	Hydroptilidae
<i>Imperata cylindrica</i>	<i>Phylloscopus collybita</i>	Leptoceridae
<i>Iris pseudacorus</i>	<i>Phylloscopus trochilus</i>	Leptophlebiidae
<i>Juglans regia</i>	<i>Pica pica</i>	Leuctridae
<i>Juncus acutus</i>	<i>Picus viridis</i>	Libellulidae
<i>Juncus articulatus</i>	<i>Regulus ignicapilla</i>	Limnephilidae
<i>Juncus inflexus</i>	<i>Remiz pendulinus</i>	Limoniidae
<i>Juncus maritimus</i>	<i>Saxicola rubicola</i>	Lymnaeidae
<i>Juniperus oxycedrus</i>	<i>Serinus serinus</i>	Melanopsidae
<i>Juniperus phoenicea</i>	<i>Streptopelia decaocto</i>	Nepidae
<i>Laurus nobilis</i>	<i>Streptopelia turtur</i>	Neritidae
<i>Lonicera biflora</i>	<i>Sturnus unicolor</i>	Notonectidae
<i>Lonicera_implexa</i>	<i>Sylvia atricapilla</i>	Oligochaeta
<i>Lonicera sp</i>	<i>Sylvia borin</i>	Oligoneuriidae
<i>Lygeum spartum</i>	<i>Sylvia hortensis</i>	Ostracoda
<i>Lysimachia ephemerum</i>	<i>Sylvia melanocephala</i>	Perlodidae
<i>Marrubium vulgare</i>	<i>Troglodytes troglodytes</i>	Philopotamidae
<i>Mentha suaveolens</i>	<i>Turdus merula</i>	Physidae
<i>Mespilus germanica</i>	<i>Turdus viscivorus</i>	Planariidae
<i>Morus alba</i>	<i>Upupa epops</i>	Planorbidae
<i>Nasturtium officinale</i>		Platycnemididae
<i>Nerium oleander</i>		Polycentropodidae
<i>Nicotiana glauca</i>		Polymitarcidae
<i>Olea europaea</i>		Potamanthidae
<i>Opuntia maxima</i>		Prosopistomatidae
<i>Osyris lanceolata</i>		Psychomyiidae
<i>Osyris quadripartita</i>		Rhyacophilidae
<i>Phlomis_lychnitis</i>		Scirtidae
<i>Phyllirea angustifolia</i>		Simuliidae
<i>Phragmites australis</i>		Sphaeriidae
<i>Pinus halepensis</i>		Tabanidae
<i>Pinus pinea</i>		Tipulidae
<i>Pistacia lentiscus</i>		Veliidae
<i>Platanus_hispanica</i>		
<i>Populus alba</i>		

Riparian vegetation
Birds**Aquatic macroinvertebrates (Coleoptera)**

<i>Populus deltoides</i>		<i>Agabus biguttatus</i> (Olivier, 1795)
<i>Populus nigra</i>		<i>Agabus ramblae</i> Millán & Ribera, 2001
<i>Potentilla reptans</i>		<i>Aulonogyrus striatus</i> (Fabricius, 1792)
<i>Prunus domestica</i>		<i>Coelostoma hispanicum</i> Küster, 1848
<i>Prunus dulcis</i>		<i>Cyphon</i> sp.
<i>Prunus persica</i>		<i>Dryops gracilis</i> (Karsch, 1881)
<i>Punica granatum</i>		<i>Elmis maugetii</i> Latreille, 1798
<i>Pyrus communis</i>		<i>Enochrus ater</i> Kuwert, 1888
<i>Quercus coccifera</i>		<i>Esolus pygmaeus</i> Müller, P.W.J., 1806
<i>Quercus rotundifolia</i>		<i>Gyrinus distinctus</i> aubé, 1836
<i>Retama sphaerocarpa</i>		<i>Helochares lividus</i> (Forster, 1771)
<i>Rhamnus alaternus</i>		<i>Helophorus</i> sp.
<i>Rhamnus lycioides</i>		<i>Hydraena</i> cf <i>hernandoi</i> Fresneda & Lagar, 1990
<i>Robinia pseudoacacia</i>		<i>Hydroglyphus geminus</i> (Fabricius, 1792)
<i>Rosa canina</i>		<i>Hydrophylus pistaceus</i> Laporte de Castelnau, 1840
<i>Rosmarinus officinalis</i>		<i>Laccophilus hyalinus</i> (De Geer, 1774)
<i>Rubia peregrina</i>		<i>Limnius intermedius</i> Fairmaire, 1881
<i>Rubus caesius</i>		<i>Normandia nitens</i> (Erichson, 1847)
<i>Rubus ulmifolius</i>		<i>Ochthebius viridis fallaciosus</i> Ganglbauer, 1901
<i>Ruscus aculeatus</i>		<i>Orectochilus villosus</i> (Müller, 1776)
<i>Saccharum ravennae</i>		<i>Oulimnius troglodytes</i> (Gyllenhal, 1827)
<i>Salix alba</i>		<i>Pomatinus substriatus</i> (Muller, 1806)
<i>Salix atrocinerea</i>		<i>Potamophylus acuminatus</i> (Fabricius, 1792)
<i>Salix eleagnis</i>		<i>Ranthus suturalis</i> (MacLeay, 1825)
<i>Salix fragilis</i>		
<i>Salix neotricha</i>		
<i>Salix purpurea</i>		
<i>Sambucus nigra</i>		
<i>Samolus valerandi</i>		
<i>Satureja intricata</i>		
<i>Scirpus holoschoenus</i>		
<i>Scirpus maritimus</i>		
<i>Sedum sediforme</i>		
<i>Smilax aspera</i>		
<i>Sorghum halepense</i>		
<i>Stipa tenacissima</i>		
<i>Suaeda vera</i>		
<i>Tamarix boveana</i>		
<i>Tamarix gallica</i>		
<i>Teucrium capitatum</i>		

Riparian vegetation
Birds**Aquatic macroinvertebrates (Hemiptera)**

<i>Thalictrum</i>	<i>Aquarius cinereus</i> (Puton, 1869)
<i>speciosissimum</i>	
<i>Thymus vulgaris</i>	<i>Aquarius najas</i> (De Geer, 1773)
<i>Typha dominguensis</i>	<i>Gerris argentatus</i> (Schummel, 1832)
<i>Ulmus minor</i>	<i>Gerris thoracicus</i> (Schummel, 1832)
<i>Veronica anagallis-</i>	
<i>aquatica</i>	<i>Heliocorisa vermiculata</i> (Puton, 1874)
<i>Vitex agnus-castus</i>	<i>Hydrometra stagnorum</i> (Linnaeus, 1758)
<i>Vitis vinifera</i>	<i>Micronecta minuscula</i> Poisson, 1929
<i>Washingtonia robusta</i>	<i>Micronecta scholtzi</i> (Fieber, 1851)
<i>Ziziphus_zizyphus</i>	<i>Velia caprai caprai</i> (Tamanini, 1947)
<i>Zygophyllum fabago</i>	

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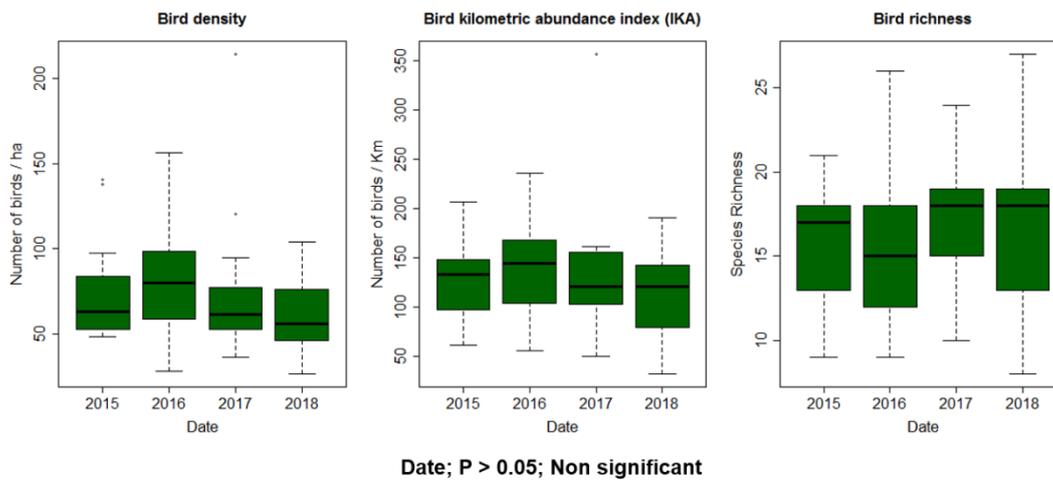
834 **Table S2.** Table summarizing the mean values and standard deviation of riparian vegetation, birds and aquatic invertebrate indexes through time (2015-2018) and
 835 between treatments (intensive-monthly mowing vs extensive- quarterly mowing).

Date	Treatment	<i>A. donax</i>	<i>A. donax</i>	Riparian			Riparian	Bird	Kilometric	Bird	Invert.	Invert.	Coleoptera	Hemiptera
		density (stems/m ²)	height (m)	plant richness	Native cover (%)	Exotic cover (%)	Quality (RQI)	density (birds/ha)	abundance (birds/km)	species richness	Quality (IBMWP)	Family richness		
2015	Intensive	23.8 ± 7.8	3.7 ± 1.2	11.9 ± 3.4	32.7 ± 22.4	67.9 ± 25.4	44.2 ± 14.3	87.9 ± 38.6	138 ± 54	15.3 ± 4.2	78.8 ± 16	17.4 ± 2.5	2.2 ± 1.6	1.8 ± 1.1
2015	Extensive	29.2 ± 8.3	3.9 ± 0.5	18.2 ± 5.4	47.3 ± 15.6	56.5 ± 17.7	55.2 ± 9.7	62.3 ± 13.4	126.3 ± 33.6	16 ± 4	85.3 ± 12.8	18 ± 2.6	2.8 ± 1.9	1 ± 0.8
2016	Intensive	24.3 ± 4	0.9 ± 0.6	18.5 ± 5	28.8 ± 20.2	73.4 ± 19.7	40.9 ± 11.9	82.9 ± 37.9	131 ± 41	13.9 ± 3.8	74.8 ± 19.4	16.3 ± 3.7	2.3 ± 1.6	0.8 ± 1
2016	Extensive	14.9 ± 6.7	0.6 ± 0.3	19.8 ± 2.6	51.5 ± 14.9	54.9 ± 15.3	51.4 ± 9.1	78.5 ± 36.8	157.2 ± 69.1	17.2 ± 5.7	60 ± 20.7	14.3 ± 3.2	3.3 ± 1.2	0.7 ± 0.6
2017	Intensive	30.6 ± 11.3	0.9 ± 0.3	24.2 ± 7.5	32.3 ± 12.7	63.4 ± 14.9	48.7 ± 10.6	65.9 ± 28.4	104.9 ± 27.4	15.1 ± 3.4	96.7 ± 28.8	20.3 ± 6.2	2.5 ± 1.9	2.2 ± 1.3
2017	Extensive	21.5 ± 10.9	1.5 ± 0.6	28.1 ± 5.8	50.6 ± 17.9	55.5 ± 18.8	57.3 ± 10.6	89.2 ± 64.1	170.3 ± 96.9	18.7 ± 4.6	86.3 ± 33.1	20.3 ± 4.7	3.3 ± 2.5	3.3 ± 0.6
2018	Intensive	20.7 ± 13.7	0.4 ± 0.2	27 ± 7.9	37.1 ± 14.5	48.9 ± 21.1	47.8 ± 14	50.1 ± 20	84.7 ± 37.7	13.9 ± 4.2	112.3 ± 26.8	21 ± 4.6	2.2 ± 1.2	2.7 ± 1
2018	Extensive	13.8 ± 2.6	0.4 ± 0.1	26.1 ± 5.5	45.8 ± 22.5	44.9 ± 18.6	56 ± 12.2	73.2 ± 24.2	146.5 ± 44.3	20.3 ± 3.6	91.7 ± 38.8	20 ± 5.6	3.7 ± 2.1	1.7 ± 1.2

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840 **Figure S1.** Boxplots showing the temporal evolution of bird density, abundance and species
 841 richness.

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