

UNIVERSIDADE FEDERAL DO RIO GRANDE DO SUL

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Tese de Doutorado

*Relações entre estrutura funcional, diversidade e estabilidade ecossistêmica em
comunidades vegetais*

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AGRADECIMENTOS

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A elaboração da presente tese envolve muito mais do que o título que irei receber. Ela faz parte de uma fase concluída em uma escalada, um projeto de vida, e, se materializa como uma síntese de minha formação profissional, paixão pela ecologia e pela pesquisa. Devo grande parte do presente êxito à companhia de diversas pessoas que estiveram ao meu lado e me apoiaram nesta longa jornada das mais distintas maneiras. Primeiramente ao meu orientador, Prof. Dr. Valério De Patta Pillar que durante os últimos 10 anos me orientou, acompanhando meu amadurecimento dentro da pesquisa, em que além de orientador e mentor, foi e sempre será um exemplo profissional e pessoal. Ele, juntamente com os colegas do laboratório de Ecologia Quantitativa, durante esse tempo formaram uma família dinâmica, sempre disponível para ajudar no campo, nas análises, na escrita ou até mesmo em devaneios teóricos na hora do cafezinho. Agradeço em especial aqueles que participaram de alguma forma no desenvolvimento do projeto da tese: Anaclara Guido, Vasiliki Balogianni, Daniela Hoss, Bruna Winck, Lidiane Boavista, Omara Lange, André Dresseno, Jéssica Pereira, Grasiela Minervini e aos demais colegas Luciana Podgaiski, Vinicius Bastazini, Rodrigo Baggio, Leticia Dadalt, Bianca Darski, Eduardo Velez, Grasiela Casas, Vanderlei Debastiani, Thore Engel. Também especialmente à Bruna S Jorge por acompanhar o experimento na Estação Experimental Agronômica desde a sua instalação e aos demais bolsistas do projeto, Danielle B. Dotto e Felipe Hichter. Também sou grata aos funcionários da estação experimental agronômica e aos integrantes do laboratório de ecologia do pastejo da UFRGS pela infraestrutura e apoio durante o experimento.

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RESUMO

40

41

42 Dentre as ameaças causadas pelas mudanças climáticas, é esperado um aumento na
43 frequência e na magnitude de eventos climáticos extremos. Portanto, é de vital
44 importância identificar características da comunidade que confirmam estabilidade aos
45 processos ecossistêmicos. Por meio de três experimentos buscamos explorar essas
46 intrincadas relações entre alguns aspectos da biodiversidade e a estabilidade ecológica.
47 No primeiro estudo, comparamos a produtividade primária antes e depois de uma
48 inundação em comunidades sintéticas com diferentes valores de riqueza de espécies,
49 diversidade e composição funcional. No segundo experimento, investigamos como
50 alterações na intensidade de chuvas (simuladas por meio de interceptadores) afetaram os
51 atributos funcionais, diversidade e processos ecossistêmicos de um campo nativo sob
52 diferentes frequências de desfolhação. O terceiro estudo, consistiu em um experimento
53 com manipulação da riqueza de espécies por meio de remoções, onde analisamos o efeito
54 da diversidade de espécies na estabilidade nos níveis de organização de comunidade
55 (colonizações e extinções) e ecossistema (variação na produtividade primária). Atributos
56 funcionais e outras características da comunidade (riqueza e composição) afetaram e
57 foram afetadas pelos distúrbios. A relação diversidade-estabilidade apresentou diferentes
58 tendências dependendo da natureza e intensidade do distúrbio. O aumento dos recursos
59 após a inundação favoreceu comunidades mais ricas e aquelas contendo atributos
60 relacionados à aquisição de recursos. Além disso, a frequência de desfolhação não afetou
61 a resposta da vegetação à manipulação de chuva. Estabilidade apresentou tendências
62 opostas dependendo do nível de organização ecológica considerado. Maior substituição
63 de espécies em comunidades mais ricas correspondeu a uma maior estabilidade em
64 processos ecossistêmicos.

65

66 *Palavras-chave:* ecologia funcional, processos ecossistêmicos, produtividade primária,
67 mudanças, climáticas, experimentos com biodiversidade, estabilidade ecológica,
68 resistência, resiliência.

69 **ABSTRACT**

70

71 Climate change is expected to increase the frequency and magnitude of extreme weather
72 events. It is therefore of major importance to identify the community attributes that
73 confer stability in ecosystem processes facing such events. By means of three
74 experiment-based studies, we aimed to explore how plant community aspects affect
75 ecological stability. In the first study, we compared data on biomass productivity before
76 and after a major flood in synthetic plant communities with different values of species
77 richness, functional diversity and community weighted means of functional traits on
78 different measures of stability. In the second experiment, we investigate how changes in
79 rainfall (simulated by rainout-shelters) alter functional traits and diversity and ecosystem
80 processes of a natural grassland under different defoliation frequencies. The third study
81 consisted on a biodiversity experiment in which we manipulated species richness by
82 removals for studying the effects of species diversity on the stability at the community
83 (colonization and extinction) and ecosystem levels (variation in primary productivity).
84 Functional traits and other community features (richness, composition) affected and were
85 affected by the disturbances. Diversity-stability relationships presented different trends
86 depending on the disturbance nature and intensity. Resource inputs following the flood
87 favoured rich communities and the ones characterized by traits related to resource
88 acquisition. Also, defoliation frequency did not affect the way vegetation responded to
89 rainfall manipulation. Stability showed opposite trends when evaluated at different levels
90 of ecological organization. Higher turnover in rich communities corresponded to
91 increased stability in ecosystem processes.

92

93 *Key-words:* functional ecology, ecosystem process, primary productivity, climate
94 change, biodiversity experiments, ecologic stability, resistance, resilience

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137 biomass production (grey line) and a disturbance that decreases biomass production
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139 disturbance will increase biomass production and a stress-based disturbance will decrease
140 biomass production. Both cases will lead to decreased stability. In the late response
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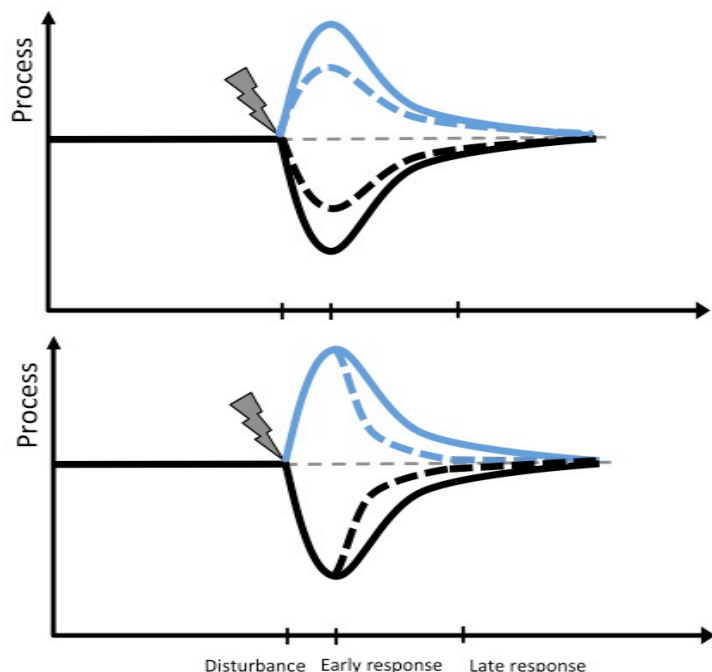
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206 plant traits, we compiled the literature and consulted specialists.65

207

Introdução

208

209 Regimes de distúrbio antropogênicos têm afetado ecossistemas nativos na
210 composição e distribuição de espécies, hidrologia e processos ecossistêmicos. O efeito
211 estufa decorrente da emissão de gases como gás carbônico, metano e óxido nitroso
212 (Houghton et al. 2001) leva ao aumento médio na temperatura da terra, e em decorrência
213 disso, também pode alterar os padrões de variação temperatura e na pluviosidade, ainda
214 aumentando a incidência de condições meteorológicas extremas, como secas e
215 inundações (IPCC 2012). Frente a esse panorama, é cada vez mais importante
216 compreender como ecossistemas naturais e seminaturais respondem a tais adversidades,
217 identificar características da comunidade que confirmam a ela capacidade de resistir e se
218 recuperar, mantendo seus processos e serviços. Estabilidade ecológica, objeto do meu
219 estudo nesta tese, é a propriedade ecossistêmica relativa a tais tipos de resposta.
220 Estabilidade é um termo oriundo da física, porém muito empregado na ecologia. Porém,
221 devido à alta complexidade dos componentes de um ecossistema e suas interações, a
222 dificuldade nessa área é comparável ao equivalente da medicina do estudo das causas do
223 câncer (Wilson 2015). A própria definição de estabilidade é alvo de grandes discussões e
224 ainda não há um consenso sobre o uso da terminologia nos seus componentes. Grimm e
225 Wissel (1997) compilaram publicações até então e encontraram mais de 163 definições
226 de 70 conceitos diferentes, usados de forma não consensual. Hoje, 20 anos depois, ainda
227 não há na literatura uma unificação nos termos e conceitos empregados no estudo de
228 estabilidade ecológica. Na verdade, até mesmo o próprio termo “estabilidade” pode
229 apenas ser explicado quando o desmembramos nas distintas propriedades ecossistêmicas
230 que formam a sua definição (Grimm and Wissel 1997). Tais propriedades são referentes à
231 forma como o ecossistema varia ou permanece inalterado ao longo do tempo (constância,
232 Capítulo 3) e como ela mantém a sua estrutura e a provisão dos processos da mesma
233 forma após um distúrbio (resistência, Capítulos 1 e 2) e de poder retornar ao seu estado
234 prévio de estrutura e processos ecossistêmicos (resiliência Capítulo 1) (Figura 1, Begon
235 et al. 2009).



236

237 **Figura 1:** Esquema simplificado dos tipos de resposta de um processo ecossistêmico
 238 após um distúrbio pontual. No primeiro gráfico, as comunidades representadas pela linha
 239 contínua se distanciam mais da linha de base (*baseline*) do que as comunidades
 240 representadas pela linha tracejada, em um primeiro momento (*early response*). Neste
 241 caso, podemos dizer que a comunidade representada pela linha tracejada foi mais
 242 resistente. Ao contrário do que acontece no primeiro gráfico, onde as comunidades
 243 voltam ao mesmo tempo ao estado original (*baseline*), no segundo gráfico, comunidades
 244 representadas pela linha tracejada retornam antes ao estado original. Nesse caso, essas
 245 comunidades foram mais resilientes após o distúrbio.

246

247 A estabilidade pode ser averiguada através de diversas métricas em nível de
 248 comunidade (de plantas) ou de processos ecossistêmicos por ela mediados (Grimm and
 249 Wissel 1997). E não necessariamente haverá uma mesma tendência quando a estabilidade
 250 for avaliada nos diferentes níveis (Donohue et al. 2013). A estabilidade no nível da
 251 comunidade pode ser explorada considerando variações na composição e densidade de
 252 espécies, taxas de colonização e extinção (*turnover*), bem como a mudança nos padrões
 253 de atributos funcionais, média ponderada dos atributos e a adição ou subtração de
 254 atributos específicos. A combinação dessas características se reflete também nas métricas
 255 de diversidade e redundância funcional. Portanto, um distúrbio que afeta a comunidade,
 256 altera também as características da comunidade que medeiam processos ecossistêmicos,

257 ou seja, a estabilidade destes pode ser afetada direta e indiretamente por distúrbios.
258 Portanto, alterações na estabilidade em nível de comunidade podem não refletir as
259 respostas em nível ecossistêmico, pois comunidades menos estáveis (com maior
260 *turnover*) podem ser mais responsivas aos distúrbios, se adaptando às novas condições
261 sem comprometer a provisão dos processos, portanto mais estáveis em nível
262 ecossistêmico (Capítulo 3).

263 Em ecologia de comunidades há muitas teorias sobre como as espécies se
264 organizam no meio abiótico. Para uma dada espécie se estabelecer em um local ela tem
265 que ultrapassar vários “filtros” (Keddy 1992). O primeiro filtro é a dispersão, chegar ao
266 local, e o sucesso depende principalmente de estratégias da espécie, densidade de
267 indivíduos fonte (efeito Allee (Allee and Bowen 1932)) e fatores aleatórios (teoria neutra
268 (Hubbell 2001)). O segundo filtro é ambiental, que também pode depender de estratégias
269 da espécie, nos caso de plantas em gradiente de luminosidade, ou animais com
270 temperaturas extremas (teoria de nicho (Grinnell 1917). Neste caso atributos funcionais
271 de indivíduos são convergentemente adaptados ao ambiente. O terceiro filtro é de uma
272 complexidade maior, pois envolve interações positivas e negativas entre indivíduos, e são
273 exploradas pela teoria de regras de montagem de comunidades (*assembly rules* (Cody and
274 Diamond 1975)), onde a competição interespecífica é o principal foco de estudo.

275 Em suma, a organização de uma dada comunidade deverá ser explicada por:
276 estratégia reprodutiva das espécies, densidade e proximidade de outros indivíduos das
277 espécies, fatores aleatórios, e atributos funcionais convergentes (respondendo a restrições
278 do meio abiótico, e biótico no caso de predação) e divergentes (resultantes da competição
279 interespecífica) (Keddy 1992). Padrões gerados por esses fatores manifestam-se em uma
280 escala maior em complexidade (Lawton 1999). Embora seja apenas um resultado de
281 inúmeros filtros, comunidades biológicas respondem a adversidades de uma forma
282 distinta, não sendo possível prever se estudarmos espécies isoladamente, devido à
283 complexidade das suas interações.

284 Atributos de espécies e da comunidade como um todo afetam processos
285 ecossistêmicos e serviços ecossistêmicos (Díaz and Cabido 2001). Atributos funcionais
286 de espécies que são selecionados por algum filtro ecológico são denominados *atributos*
287 *funcionais de resposta*, enquanto que os atributos que atuam nos processos

288 ecossistêmicos ou na forma como a comunidade responde a distúrbios são denominados
289 *atributos funcionais de efeito* (Lavorel and Garnier 2002; Fortunel et al. 2009). Alguns
290 atributos de espécies podem ser classificados como ambos, de resposta ou de efeito
291 (Blanco et al. 2007). Além disso, espécies que são semelhantes em seus atributos de
292 resposta podem não ter os mesmos atributos de efeito, portanto atuando de forma distinta
293 nos processos.

294 Diversidade funcional expressa a variedade de formas apresentadas pela
295 biodiversidade, ou seja, a variação nos atributos dos organismos. Esta confere à
296 comunidade mais alternativas de resposta a distúrbios, uma vez que os diferentes
297 atributos indicam distintas estratégias de resposta. A redundância funcional compreende a
298 equivalência funcional e a compensação das espécies dominantes por subordinadas
299 presentes na comunidade, ou pela colonização de novas espécies funcionalmente
300 semelhantes às localmente extintas, e pode ser definida pela fração da diversidade de
301 espécies não contemplada na diversidade funcional (Pillar et al. 2013). Redundância
302 funcional é importante no caso de extinções locais, assegurando que se alguma espécie se
303 extinguir da comunidade, sua função continuará existindo, pois ela será compensada por
304 outras espécies com atributos de efeito semelhantes, porém com atributos de resposta
305 distintos (Walker 1992). Nesse caso, a estabilidade nos processos ecossistêmicos é obtida
306 em detrimento da estabilidade nas métricas da comunidade.

307 Efeitos da redundância e diversidade funcional, bem como da composição e
308 estrutura funcional podem ser objetivamente explorados através experimentos de
309 manipulação de biodiversidade. A maioria desses experimentos envolvem o
310 desenvolvimento de comunidades de montagem sintética, em que diferentes combinações
311 de espécies e/ou grupos funcionais são plantadas nos níveis de diversidade e composição
312 definidas conforme o objetivo do estudo. Um exemplo bastante conhecido é o
313 Experimento de Jena (<http://www.the-jena-experiment.de/>) (Ebeling et al. 2014a). Porém,
314 devido à limitada possibilidade de extrapolação e aplicabilidade no mundo real,
315 alternativamente se desenvolvem também experimentos a partir de remoções de espécies
316 em comunidades naturais. Nesses casos, a presença de espécies e suas abundâncias são
317 resultado de processos e filtros que no longo prazo moldaram as comunidades naturais
318 estudadas (Díaz et al. 2003).

319 Por meio de estudos empíricos experimentais, pude explorar diversas facetas
320 dessa intrincada rede de relações entre biodiversidade e inconstâncias ambientais que é a
321 estabilidade ecológica. Primeiramente em um caso de distúrbio pontual e a reação da
322 comunidade após o evento, e nos demais capítulos um caso de mudança não pontual e a
323 adaptação das comunidades às novas condições. Objetivei assim explorar relações entre a
324 estrutura e diversidade de composição de espécies funcional da comunidade de plantas na
325 estabilidade ecossistêmica avaliando a continuidade em processos ecossistêmicos.

326 Portanto, no primeiro capítulo o artigo “*Plant species richness and functional*
327 *traits affect community stability after a flood event*” mostra um caso excepcional de uma
328 inundação inesperada na área do experimento de Jena ([http://www.the-jena-](http://www.the-jena-experiment.de/)
329 [experiment.de/](http://www.the-jena-experiment.de/)). O experimento em andamento (Trait-Based Experiment, TBE) possui
330 um registro de produtividade primária e composição vegetal, o que permitiu uma
331 comparação das condições prévias e após inundação e a reação de cada tipo de
332 comunidade. Este artigo traz a novidade de ser o primeiro a estudar efeitos de inundação
333 em comunidades sintéticas com uma abordagem funcional. Além disso, é um dos
334 primeiros casos em que se registra a relação inversa entre diversidade e estabilidade. Por
335 esses motivos, também introduzo nesse artigo questões relativas à problemática dos
336 conceitos repetidamente utilizados em estabilidade ecológica sem um consenso
337 (conceitual teórico e matemático) e proponho a utilização de métodos que explorem além
338 da estabilidade, taxas de variação brutas nos processos avaliados para melhor
339 compreender os mecanismos por trás das respostas das comunidades aos distúrbios.

340 No segundo capítulo, “*How defoliation frequency affects community and*
341 *ecosystem stability in native grassland submitted to rainfall manipulation*” apresento os
342 resultados de um experimento de manipulação de pluviosidade instalado em uma área de
343 campo nativo na Estação Experimental Agrônômica da UFRGS. O método utilizado é
344 pioneiro nesse tipo de ambiente e consiste no desvio passivo de uma porcentagem da
345 chuva através de interceptadores e a irrigação de áreas adjacentes com a água coletada
346 durante o mesmo evento de chuva, simulando assim eventos de chuva mais e menos
347 intensos em relação à pluviosidade natural. O experimento também contou, em
348 subparcelas, com a avaliação dos efeitos de níveis de frequência de cortes, simulando
349 diferentes intensidades de pastejo. Esse estudo objetivou avaliar se tal manejo afeta a

350 capacidade da comunidade de manter processos ecossistêmicos sob as variações na
351 pluviosidade.

352 O terceiro capítulo, “*Opposite effects of species diversity on community and*
353 *ecosystem stability revealed by removal experiment*” testa, através de uma metodologia
354 única de remoções de espécies, o efeito da riqueza sobre a estabilidade medida em dois
355 níveis de organização, comunidade e ecossistema. O estudo nos mostra o quanto a
356 relação diversidade-estabilidade pode apresentar tendências opostas quando avaliada em
357 diferentes níveis de organização.

358

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487 **Capítulo I¹: Plant species richness and functional traits affect community stability**
488 **after a flood event**

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508 Abstract

509 Climate change is expected to increase the frequency and magnitude of extreme
510 weather events. It is therefore of major importance to identify the community attributes
511 that confer stability in ecological communities during such events. In June 2013, a flood
512 event affected a plant diversity experiment in Central Europe (Jena, Germany). We

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513 assessed the effects of plant species richness, functional diversity, flooding intensity, and
514 community means of functional traits on different measures of stability (resistance,
515 resilience, and raw biomass changes from pre-flood conditions). Surprisingly, plant
516 species richness decreased community resistance in response to the flood. This was
517 mostly because more diverse communities grew more immediately following the flood.
518 Raw biomass increased over the previous year; this resulted in decreased absolute value
519 measures of resistance. There was no clear response pattern for resilience. We found that
520 functional traits drove these changes in raw biomass: communities with a high proportion
521 of late-season, short-statured plants, with dense, shallow roots and small leaves grew
522 more following the flood. Late growing species likely avoided the flood, while greater
523 root length density might have allowed species to better access soil resources brought
524 from the flood, thus growing more in the aftermath. We conclude that resource inputs
525 following mild floods may favour the importance of traits related to resource acquisition
526 and be less associated with flooding tolerance.

527 Introduction

528 Climate change is one of the greatest human-induced ecological concerns facing
529 the world today (Stocker et al. 2013). As one of the consequences, an increase in the
530 frequency and intensity of extreme weather events is expected, including an increased
531 occurrence of floods (IPCC 2012). Assessing the stability of ecological communities in
532 the face of such environmental change is a major goal of ecologists in the 21st century.
533 Past work has defined post disturbance stability as at least two temporally separated
534 measurements: resistance is the capacity of a community to maintain baseline ecosystem
535 functions (*e.g.* biomass production) throughout a disturbance, compared to a pre-

536 disturbance level (Tilman and Downing 1994; Van Ruijven and Berendse 2010), and
537 resilience is the ability to recover ecosystem functions following the disturbance (Isbell et
538 al. 2015) (figure 1).

539 Depending on the type, magnitude, duration, and frequency of the disturbance, the
540 effects on the community may vary (Vervuren et al. 2003; Caplat and Anand 2009).
541 Drought and high temperature events may cause mostly physiological stress for plants
542 (*e.g.* water stress, photoinhibition, and reduced photosynthetic rates), causing a decrease
543 in community biomass (Tilman and Downing 1994; Isbell et al. 2015). Fires and floods
544 may increase resource availability, and the effect of the disturbance, in this case, can
545 result in a resource subsidy and an increase in biomass production (Isbell et al. 2015;
546 Wright et al. 2015) (figure 1). Importantly, as disturbance severity increases,
547 physiological stress may also increase (Odum et al. 1979). So, the outcome of any
548 disturbance is likely the result of the combined effects of the physiological stress
549 experienced by the constituent species and changes in resource availability.

550 Community characteristics, such as species richness (Chapin III et al. 1997),
551 species evenness (Wisley and Potvin 1999), and functional trait diversity (Díaz and
552 Cabido 2001), may improve community stability during a disturbance. Higher diversity
553 plant communities can maintain ecosystem functions during stress-based perturbations
554 due to the increased probability that a more diverse community contains tolerant species
555 that persist during or recover quickly after the event (Tilman and Downing 1994; Díaz
556 and Cabido 2001; Elmqvist et al. 2003; Isbell et al. 2011). In this case, the presence and
557 low performance of sensitive species may be buffered by the presence of other species
558 that are more tolerant during the disturbance, or have the ability to regrow after the

559 disturbance (Yachi and Loreau 1999). Higher diversity communities may also increase
560 ecosystem functions during subsidy-based perturbations due to the increased probability
561 that a more diverse community contains fast-growing species that capitalize on resource
562 influxes (Wright et al. 2015). Community responses to disturbance may therefore be
563 related to particular functional traits (*e.g.* disturbance sensitivity) and/or trait diversity.

564 A trait-based approach to studying biodiversity–stability relationships may allow
565 us to develop a better mechanistic understanding of the stabilizing mechanisms of
566 ecological communities. Different functional traits may determine stability at different
567 points in time and with different consequences for resistance and resilience. Furthermore,
568 the greater diversity of species with different traits within the community (functional
569 diversity) may increase community stability in response to different kinds of
570 disturbances.

571 In the case of flooding disturbances, negative effects of flooding on plants are
572 most strongly related to lack of access to oxygen, reduced cellular respiration, and an
573 ATP crisis for the cell (Mommer et al. 2006; Voesenek and Bailey-Serres 2013). Traits
574 that maintain oxygen exchange (*e.g.* leaf area, aerenchyma production, and plant height)
575 can slow this process and may thus increase the resistance of these species and their
576 resident communities (Colmer and Voesenek 2009; Voesenek and Bailey-Serres 2013).
577 Conversely, investment in belowground structures that increase resource acquisition and
578 rapid regrowth following a flood (*e.g.* underground storage organs and increased root
579 density), may be more tightly associated with subsidy-based disturbances. With increased
580 resource availability belowground, such as during a minor to moderate flood (Wright et
581 al. 2015), dense roots may increase species and community growth following a flood

582 event. Finally, traits associated with plant phenology may also be important for plant
583 community responses to flooding. A disturbance may not coincide with the active
584 growing season of some species and may therefore have little effect on those resident
585 species or the community overall (Klimesová 1994; Vervuren et al. 2003). For early
586 summer flooding, such as the case in the present study, species that grow later in the
587 season may be less affected. Consequently, plant communities with a predominance of
588 late-season species (not diversity *per se*) may be more resistant to disturbances.
589 Conversely, resilience may be unaffected, due to little deviation from the baseline, and
590 therefore little regrowth possible.

591 Here, we used a unique trait-based experiment (Ebeling et al. 2014b) to assess the
592 effects of flooding index, trait diversity, and species richness on community stability
593 (resistance and resilience) and changes in biomass production (both positive and
594 negative) after a mild flooding disturbance that occurred in Central Europe in June 2013.
595 In the framework of the Trait-Based Experiment (TBE) of the Jena Experiment (Ebeling
596 et al. 2014b), we separately manipulated diversity in terms of spatial resource acquisition
597 traits (rooting depth, root length density, plant height, and leaf area) and temporal
598 resource phenology traits (growth starting date and flowering starting date).

599 Specifically, we assessed two hypotheses concerning biodiversity–stability relationships:
600 1) Increasing species richness and trait diversity should result in increased biomass
601 production following the flood (in comparison with the previous year). This will be
602 paired with decreased community stability (resistance and resilience). 2) With stronger
603 flood intensity, increasingly negative effects (stress) should overwhelm the benefits of
604 any resource inputs (subsidies) resulting from the flood. Increased biomass production in

605 higher diversity communities during mild floods should become weaker with increasing
606 flooding intensity, as fewer species are physiologically capable of persisting during
607 severe stress (*e.g.* (Wright et al. 2015)).

608 We also assessed two hypotheses related to the role of plant traits and their effects on
609 community biomass changes following the flood: 3) During a stress-based disturbance,
610 plants with greater plant height and leaf area, related to oxygen exchange, should be
611 important for flooding tolerance, while phenological traits associated with late post-flood
612 growth may be important for flood avoidance. Both should maintain biomass production
613 of the community immediately following the flood (early response). For longer-term
614 responses (late response), communities dominated by late-season growers may be the
615 most capable of regrowth. 4) During a subsidy-based disturbance (figure 1), traits
616 associated with rapid acquisition of belowground resources (*e.g.* dense roots) and
617 phenological traits associated with early growth should increase biomass production of
618 the community immediately following the flood (early response). For longer-term
619 responses (late response), these same traits should be correlated with greater declines in
620 growth, as the community returns back to a baseline.

621 Methods

622 The Trait-Based Experiment (TBE) was established in 2010 in the floodplain of
623 the river Saale, near the city of Jena, Germany (50°55'N, 11°35'E, 130 m a.s.l.). The area
624 has a mean annual air temperature of 9.4°C and mean annual precipitation of 587 mm
625 (Kluge and Müller-Westermeier 2000). The soil is a Eutric Fluvisol developed from up to
626 2 m thick fluvial sediments that are almost free of stones (Roscher et al. 2004).

627 The experiment is based on plant communities that were created by sowing
628 different combinations of species into 3.5 x 3.5 m experimental plots (Ebeling et al.
629 2014b). For defining the trait-based species mixtures, native species from the area were
630 described according to functional traits indicative of spatial and temporal resource
631 acquisition strategies. These trait data were analysed by Principal Components Analysis
632 (PCA), and species were then selected for the mixtures according to the species scores on
633 the two main ordination axes. The first principal component was positively related to leaf
634 area, plant height, and root depth and negatively related to root length density. This axis
635 therefore represented a trade-off in allocation patterns: between short plants with dense
636 roots on one end of the PCA axis and tall plants with large leaves and sparse roots on the
637 opposite end of the PCA axis. The second principal component was related to
638 phenological traits (“temporal resources”): species with late growth and flowering start
639 had positive PCA scores, while species with early growth and flowering had negative
640 PCA scores (Figure S1).

641 We established communities with variation in either spatial resource acquisition
642 strategies or temporal resource acquisition strategies. To do this, we held temporal traits
643 constant (at intermediate phenological score values) and selected species from the full
644 range of spatial resource acquisition strategies. Conversely, we held spatial resource
645 acquisition traits constant (at intermediate values) and selected species from the full range
646 of temporal (phenological) based trait values. Finally, a third species pool was formed
647 using species with extreme scores on both ordination axes, thus named “mixed” species
648 pool (see (Ebeling et al. 2014b), electronic supplementary material, figure S1, table S1).

649 For each resource acquisition trait pool (spatial and temporal), the sown
650 communities covered a species richness gradient (SR; 1, 2, 3, 4, and 8 species). The total
651 of 138 plots were arranged in three blocks to account for any underlying differences in
652 soil type and elevation at the field site. All plots were weeded three times per year,
653 intending to maintain the treatment only with the sown species. The whole experiment
654 was mown two times per year and mown biomass was removed in order to mimic the
655 usual management of extensively used hay meadows in the region. Plots did not receive
656 any fertilization.

657 In June 2013, an extreme flood event with an estimated 200 years average return
658 time occurred across much of central and eastern Europe (Blöschl et al. 2013; Wright et
659 al. 2015). This resulted in moderate flooding in the TBE at the Jena Experiment. The
660 flood duration (maximum 12 days) and depth of water (maximum of 40 cm) was variable
661 among plots. The selected species of the experiment were not necessarily flood-adapted,
662 but past work has indicated that even non-flood adapted species can survive floods up to
663 7 days (Voisenek and Bailey-Serres 2013). Thus, it was unclear whether the selected
664 species for the TBE would experience severe stress or tolerance under a flood of this
665 duration and type. To define the flood intensity that each plot experienced during the
666 flood, we calculated an index based on the daily proportion of the plot that was flooded
667 and the number of days that each plot was flooded (Wright et al. 2015):

$$FI = \sum_{day=1}^{day=12} RatioFlooded_{day}$$

668 Plant aboveground biomass was harvested in late May and late August 2012 just
669 before mowing the experimental plots (pre-disturbance conditions) and July and

670 September 2013 (early and late post-disturbance, respectively) by clipping the plants 3
671 cm above the ground in two randomly placed rectangles of 0.2 m × 0.5 m per plot.
672 Samples were separated into target (sown) species and weeds, dried at 70°C for 48 h, and
673 weighed. The two replicates per plot within the same sampling campaign were averaged.
674 We used total target species biomass to calculate stability indices.

675 For the analysis of biodiversity–stability relationships we calculated resistance:

676
$$\Omega = \frac{\overline{Y_b}}{|Y_e - \overline{Y_b}|}$$

677 and resilience:

678
$$\Delta = \left| \frac{Y_e - \overline{Y_b}}{Y_l - \overline{Y_b}} \right|,$$

679 after Isbell *et al.* (Isbell *et al.* 2015), where $\overline{Y_b}$ is the average biomass in May and August
680 2012, here taken as pre-flood conditions, Y_e is early post-disturbance biomass (July
681 2013), and Y_l is late post-disturbance biomass (September 2013). As such, both numbers
682 are always positive. Short-term biomass losses or gains of 100% result in a resistance
683 value of 1, and losses or gains of 50% result in a resistance value of 2. If biomass
684 increase surpasses 100%, resistance will be lower than 1 and approach 0. Similarly, if
685 these biomass losses or gains return towards pre-flood values by another 50% when late
686 post-disturbance biomass is measured, this results in a resilience value equal to 2.
687 Resilience, as defined here, measures the rate at which the system is approaching pre-

688 flood conditions.

689 We also explored raw changes in biomass (as opposed to absolute value measures
690 of stability discussed above), to explore complementary information on the exact
691 community response (increase or decrease in biomass production in relation to previous
692 conditions). These types of responses should more accurately explore the mechanisms for
693 the types of responses we observed (*e.g.* figure 1). We computed indices of biomass
694 change relative to the previous year (early biomass change index):

$$E = \frac{Y_e - \bar{Y}_b}{Y_b}$$

695

696 This comparison was conducted between July 2013 (Y_e) and the average biomass
697 from May 2012 and August 2012 (\bar{Y}_b) in order to normalize the seasonal differences that
698 may have occurred by taking measurements in different months during the two different
699 years. We also calculated late biomass change index:

$$L = \frac{Y_l - Y_{Aug2012}}{Y_{Aug2012}}$$

700

701 For this index, a fair seasonal comparison could be made directly between
702 September 2013 and late August 2012.

703 For testing biodiversity–stability relationships, we fit linear mixed effects models
704 using flood index, plant species richness (as log-linear term), trait pool (as factor with
705 three levels: spatial, temporal or mixed), and all higher order interactions as fixed effects.

706 We included block as a random effect. We used log-transformed resistance, resilience,
707 and early and late biomass change indices as response variables.

708 For investigating the role of particular trait strategies and functional diversity, we
709 used the original species scores on the PCA ordination (the same that we used to define
710 the three species pools to establish the experiment, fig. S1) to compute community mean
711 scores (CMS) for the first two ordination axes (PCA1 and PCA2). Plots with higher
712 values of community mean scores for PCA axis 1 contained a higher proportion of tall-
713 statured species with large leaves and deep sparse roots, while negative values of
714 community mean scores for PCA1 represented a community with a high proportion of
715 small-statured plants with small leaves and dense shallow roots (grasses mostly).
716 Communities with low values of community mean scores for PCA axis 2 contained a
717 high proportion of early growing and flowering species (see experimental design, Figure
718 S1).

719 We also computed Rao Quadratic Entropy (Rao 1982) to calculate functional
720 diversity using the species scores on the ordination axes as “traits.” That is, instead of
721 considering each one of the original trait values for computing community mean scores
722 and functional diversity, we used computed traits based on the species scores for the two
723 first axes of the ordination. We fit linear mixed effects models using functional diversity
724 and community mean scores for PCA1 and PCA2 and all higher order interactions as
725 fixed effects. We included block and flooding index as random effects. We used log-
726 transformed early and late biomass change indices as our response variables.

727 For fitting and testing linear mixed effects models we used the function lme
728 available in the nlme R package (Pinheiro et al. 2012), followed by the R function anova

729 (using option for marginal sums of squares) for obtaining additional *P*-values for the
730 terms involving nominal predictors. For computing community mean scores and Rao
731 Entropy we used the SYNCSA R package (Debastiani and Pillar 2012). All input data of
732 the analysis are available in table S3.

733 Results

734 *Biodiversity–stability hypotheses*

735 Community resistance to disturbance decreased with increasing richness of sown
736 species, but only when the flooding index was very low (significant plant species richness
737 x flooding index interaction, table 1, figure S2). There was no difference in how
738 communities with different types of traits (spatial vs. temporal resource acquisition traits)
739 affected resistance (table 1). None of the investigated plant community characteristics or
740 flood index had a significant effect on resilience (table 1).

741 Species richness increased biomass production in the first month after the flood
742 (early biomass change index, table 1), and this trend was reversed in the plots with the
743 highest flooding index (figure 2). None of the measured variables had a significant effect
744 on the later biomass change index (table 1).

745 *Trait and functional diversity hypotheses*

746 Community mean scores on PCA axis 1 (spatial resource traits) and 2 (temporal
747 resource traits) affected plant biomass production right after the flood and two months
748 later (early and late biomass change indices; table 2, figure 3). Communities with lower
749 values of community mean scores on PCA1, that is plant communities with a higher
750 proportion of small-statured species with small leaves and shallow, dense roots, grew up
751 to 50% more immediately following the flood in comparison with the previous year

752 (early biomass change index, figure 3a). Communities with a higher proportion of tall
753 plants with large leaves and deep sparse roots grew nearly 50% less than in the previous
754 year. Phenological traits, represented by PCA2, also affected biomass change indices for
755 both early and late biomass change indices: communities with an increasing proportion of
756 late season (growing and flowering) species grew more than communities dominated by
757 early-growing and early-flowering species. There was an interaction between PCA1 and
758 PCA2 for both early and late biomass change indices: plots dominated by tall plants with
759 sparse roots responded negatively to the flood, and this was exacerbated in plots with
760 mostly early growing/early flowering species (figure S3). The late biomass change index
761 increased significantly with increasing functional diversity, though this was only true in
762 the plots dominated by tall plants with sparse roots (figure S4).

763 Discussion

764 Here we show that positive biodiversity–stability relationships may not be
765 applicable to disturbances of all types and intensities. Although the present study focused
766 on the short-term responses of plant biomass production, the trend observed following a
767 flooding event in a temperate European grassland was the opposite of that expected by
768 biodiversity–stability theory (Tilman and Downing 1994): species diversity did not
769 increase but decreased post-disturbance resistance (figure S2). While recent work
770 demonstrated similar negative trends for short-term biodiversity–stability relationships
771 (Wright et al. 2015), the novelty of the combined findings indicates that we should be
772 assessing biodiversity–stability relationships during different types of disturbances along
773 a subsidy-stress gradient.

774 After droughts or other stress-based disturbances that cause biomass losses,
775 highly diverse communities are more stable because they can persist and *maintain*
776 biomass production over time (Tilman and Downing 1994; Proulx et al. 2010). This
777 maintenance is often related to increased functional diversity: more species with more
778 functional responses to the event can insure the community against biomass losses
779 (Chapin et al. 2000). During disturbances that increase resource availability (subsidy-
780 based), but do not strongly increase physiological stress and mortality (such as a mild
781 flood), higher diversity communities may be less stable because they are more likely to
782 include highly productive species that may take advantage of a resource pulse. This
783 results in increased biomass production and decreased stability in higher diversity
784 communities (figure 1, figure 2). Thus, the use of stability indices based on absolute
785 values (Isbell et al. 2015) can be counterintuitive. Raw measurements of increases or
786 decreases in biomass (biomass change indices) can complement these approaches and
787 give more insight into mechanisms.

788 Our results show that species-rich plant communities (in terms of both species
789 diversity and functional diversity) can grow more than species-poor communities
790 following a mild disturbance (figure 2, figure S4). In areas where the water stayed longer
791 (10-12 days), this trend reversed in terms of species diversity. Higher diversity
792 communities grew less than lower diversity communities, likely due to a sampling effect.
793 Specifically, the *Poa pratensis* monoculture (grass species) experienced the longest
794 flooding period. This species invests heavily in dense roots (low value on PCA axis 1)
795 and may have been a fast grower following the flood when resource availability
796 increased. This may have been true even when growing in lower diversity mixtures. In

797 this case, the presence of a single species with important flood response traits may have
798 been more important than diversity *per se*.

799 *Spatial resource-acquisition traits*

800 The spatial resource acquisition traits, represented by the first PCA ordination
801 axis, were rooting depth, root length density, maximum plant height, and leaf area. Our
802 experimental design allowed us to explore an energetic trade-off between tall plants with
803 large leaves and sparse roots at one end of the PCA axis and short plants with dense roots
804 at the other end of the PCA axis. Had the flooding event been a stress-based disturbance,
805 we would have expected tall plants with large leaves to be more flood tolerant (Striker
806 2012), and therefore more important in terms of early flood responses. We expected
807 small-statured plants to be more sensitive to flooding stress, as their ability to maintain
808 contact with oxygen above the flood waters is reduced (Striker 2012). However, because
809 shorter plants were also those plants capable of investing in greater root length density,
810 they may be more efficient in resource uptake belowground (Casper et al. 1997; Mommer
811 et al. 2006). Thus, during a subsidy-based disturbance (such as a mild flood),
812 communities dominated by short stature plants with greater root length density may grow
813 most in the weeks following the disturbance.

814 In terms of community mean scores, we found that early biomass change indices
815 were highest for communities dominated by short plants with high root length density
816 (figure 3a). We speculate that these communities may not have experienced extreme
817 oxygen limitation and no severe physiological stress. Furthermore, as seen in previous
818 work, flooding may increase water and nitrogen availability belowground (Wright et al.

819 2015). Consequently, stress tolerance traits were less important for plant performance.
820 Instead, rapid community growth following a resource subsidy drove the observed
821 patterns. Community responses to some disturbances may therefore be most tightly
822 linked to those ‘opportunistic’ species that have the capacity to access rapid influxes of
823 nitrogen and water belowground.

824 *Phenology traits and timing strategies*

825 Flood disturbance timing is an important determinant of species distributions
826 within river floodplains in environments with a well-defined growing season (Eck et al.
827 2004). A severe flood during the winter does not represent a disturbance when organisms
828 are less active (Klimesová 1994; van Eck et al. 2006). In our study, communities with a
829 higher proportion of late-growing and late-flowering species (positively related to PCA
830 axis 2, figure 3b) grew more than those with early (growing and flowering) species. Late-
831 growing species were likely growing less and still had not begun investing in flowering
832 structures at the time of the flood. This may have meant they were less affected by the
833 stress of submersion. Further, the increase in resources, brought from the flood might also
834 have affected this trend. Late season species may have been capable of taking up the
835 influx of nutrients (associated with the flood) in the initial phases of their development,
836 and, in comparison to the previous year (pre-flood conditions), these species may have
837 grown more.

838

839 Conclusion

840 Our study is one of the first reporting a negative biodiversity–stability relationship
841 in terms of short-term plant community responses to a flooding disturbance. This
842 response was mostly driven by an increase in biomass production in higher diversity
843 communities following a mild flood. Specifically, communities with a higher proportion
844 of species with dense roots and an increased capacity to absorb belowground resources
845 grew more immediately following the flood. Both trends are related to the mild nature of
846 the event: the disturbance acted as a subsidy, and likely not as a stress. Understanding the
847 mechanisms behind these responses necessitated an exploration of both stability indices
848 (Isbell et al. 2015) and raw changes in biomass. In the face of ongoing climate change, it
849 is essential that we have a comprehensive understanding of the drivers of ecosystem
850 functioning following disturbances. Only then can we start to tease out a mechanistic
851 framework for maintaining ecosystem functions and services going forward.

852

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857 by Prof. Johannes Kollmann through the German-Brazilian network TUMBRA.

858

859 **Authors' Contributions**

860 FMF and AJW carried out the analyses and wrote the first draft of the manuscript. NE,
861 AE, CR, HdK, CW, AW, and WWW conceived of the study, designed the study, and
862 carried out the data collection for the study. VDP helped conceive of the study, revised
863 the analyses and the final version of the manuscript. All authors gave final approval for
864 publication.

865

866 **Competing Interests**

867 The authors state that they have no competing interests for this research.

868

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Table 1: Linear mixed-effects model results using plant species richness (LogPSR), pool, flood index, and all higher order interactions as fixed effects. We analyzed responses in resistance, resilience, and early and late biomass change indices. Significant effects ($P < 0.05$) are given in bold.

	<u>Resistance</u>		<u>Resilience</u>		<u>Early Biomass Change</u>		<u>Late Biomass Change</u>	
	F-value	p-value	F-value	p-value	F-value	p-value	F-value	p-value
pool	1.9	0.154	0.94	0.394	0.97	0.381	1.35	0.263
flood	5.55	0.02	2.19	0.141	4.15	0.044	1.84	0.177
log_psr	7.4	0.008	3.9	0.051	3.97	0.049	1.24	0.268
pool:flood	2.19	0.116	1	0.372	1.24	0.294	1.84	0.164
pool:log_psr	2.35	0.099	1.56	0.213	0.59	0.558	0.5	0.61
flood:log_psr	7.48	0.007	3.6	0.06	3.91	0.05	1.07	0.304
pool:flood:log_psr	2.56	0.081	1.52	0.222	0.71	0.494	0.76	0.472

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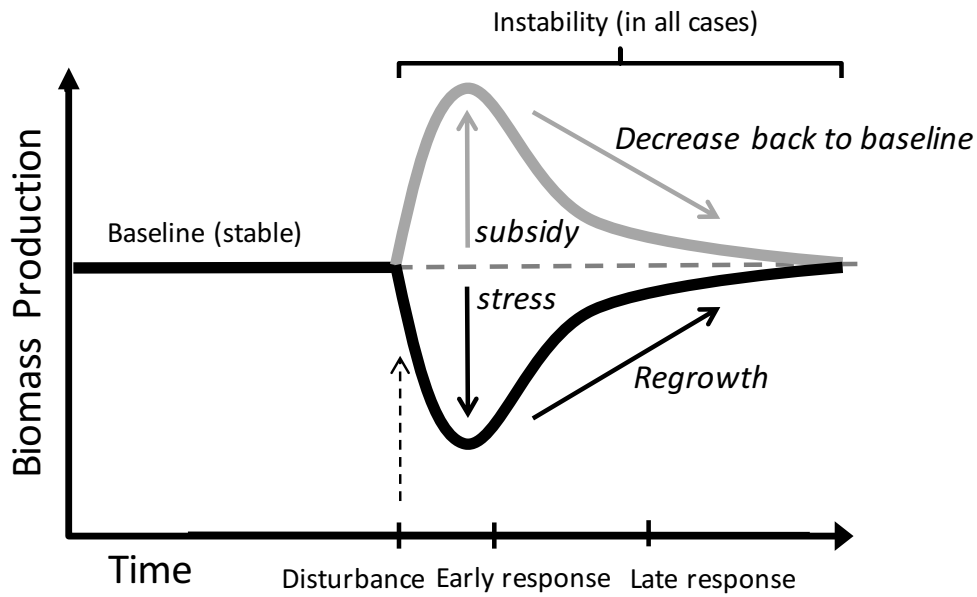
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Table 2: Linear mixed-effects model results using community mean scores in the first two axes of the ordination (CMS PCA1, CMS PCA2) and Rao Quadratic entropy and all higher order interactions as our fixed effects. We analyzed responses in resistance, resilience, and early and late biomass change indices. Significant effects (P<0.05) are given in bold.

	<u>Resistance</u>		<u>Resilience</u>		<u>Early Biomass Change</u>		<u>Late Biomass Change</u>	
	F-value	P-value	F-value	P-value	F-value	p-value	F-value	P-value
CMSPCA1	0.83	0.366	0.82	0.368	15.81	<0.001	12.23	0.001
CMSPCA2	0.1	0.751	0.27	0.607	7.63	0.007	6.03	0.016
RaoQ	0.99	0.323	2.11	0.149	0.81	0.371	6.77	0.011
CMSPCA1:CMSP CA2	0.24	0.624	0.00	0.971	9.01	0.003	6.75	0.011
CMSPCA1:RaoQ	1.53	0.219	0.57	0.451	0.41	0.524	12.76	0.001
CMSPCA2:RaoQ	0.11	0.741	0.00	1.000	2.77	0.099	2.14	0.147
CMSPCA1:CMSP CA2:RaoQ	0.35	0.555	0.11	0.738	0.61	0.437	2.30	0.132

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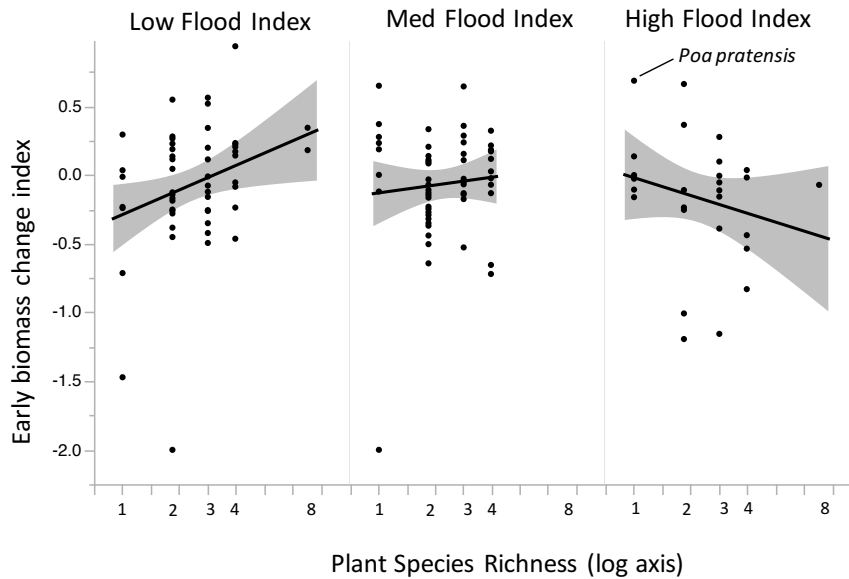
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1053 **Figure 1:** Theoretical scheme of how biomass production may increase (due to subsidy)
1054 or decrease (due to stress) following a disturbance. Both instances lead to decreased
1055 stability compared with pre-disturbance conditions. We show a disturbance that increases
1056 biomass production (grey line) and a disturbance that decreases biomass production
1057 (black line). In the early-response period (sometimes “resistance”) a subsidy-based
1058 disturbance will increase biomass production and a stress-based disturbance will decrease
1059 biomass production. Both cases will lead to decreased stability. In the late response
1060 period (sometimes “resilience”) the reverse will occur: a subsidy-based disturbance will
1061 decrease biomass production back to a baseline (unless a new stable-state is attained); a
1062 stress-based disturbance will increase biomass production back to a baseline.

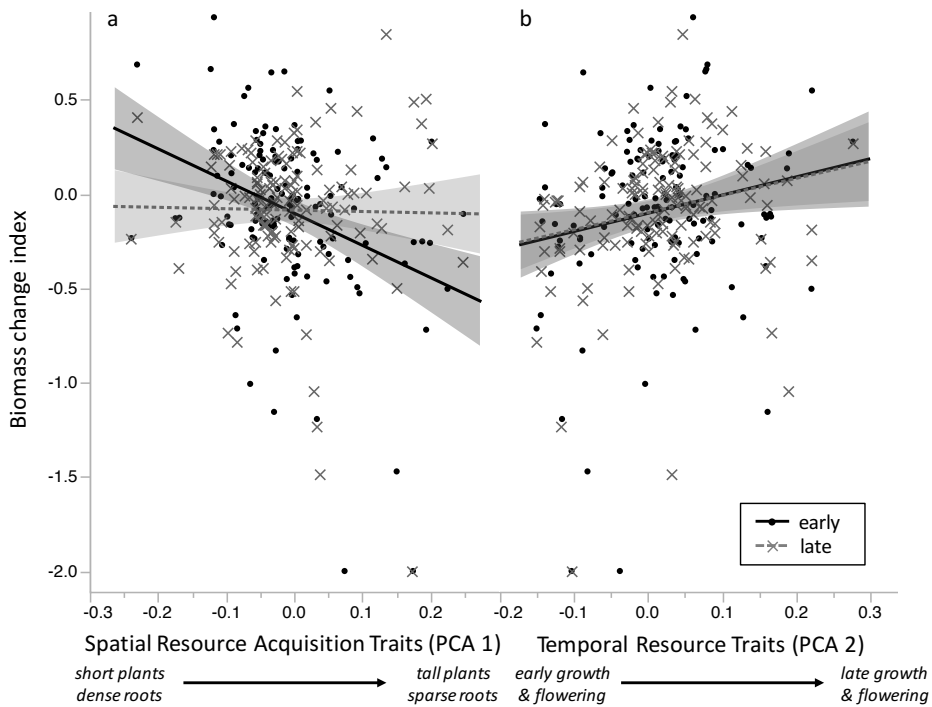
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1065 **Figure2:** The effects of plant species richness (log axis) on early biomass change index
 1066 (unitless, log transformed) after the flooding event depended on the degree of flooding.
 1067 The plots shown here in the low flood index category experienced 8-9.25 days of whole-
 1068 plot flooding. The intermediate flood index plots experienced 9.5-9.75 days of whole-plot
 1069 flooding. The high flood index plots experienced 10-12 days of whole-plot flooding. The
 1070 division of flooding index into three bins is done for display purposes only; all analyses
 1071 are based on continuous variation. Shaded areas represent 95% confidence intervals.

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1074 **Figure 3:**The effects of community mean scores in PCA axis 1 and 2 for early and late
 1075 biomass change indices (unitless, log transformed). Communities with lower values in
 1076 PCA1 have a higher proportion of short species with shallow dense roots; communities
 1077 with higher values in PCA1 have a higher proportion of tall plants with large leaves and
 1078 deep sparse roots. PCA2 represents temporal resource (phenology) traits. The solid line
 1079 represents early changes and the dotted grey line represents late changes. Shaded areas
 1080 represent 95% confidence intervals.

1081

1082 **Capítulo II: How defoliation frequency affects community and ecosystem stability in**
1083 **native grassland under rainfall manipulation**

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1091

1092 Abstract

1093 Climate change can threaten grassland ecosystem services by altering vegetation
1094 functional structure and mediated ecological processes, which includes cattle grazing.
1095 Here we investigate how changes in rainfall alter functional traits and diversity and
1096 ecosystem processes of a native grassland under different defoliation frequencies. For
1097 this, we run a field experiment adopting a complete randomized block, split-plot factorial
1098 design with two factors (rainfall manipulation and defoliation frequency). In five blocks,
1099 17 1.1 x 1.1 m main plots in total were submitted to different levels of rainfall
1100 manipulation using rainout shelters (decrease) and irrigation (increase) plus controls. In
1101 each main plot, three 0.5 m x 0.5 m subplots were submitted to different frequencies of
1102 defoliation by clipping. Though none of the experimental factors (EF) changed species
1103 composition, rainfall manipulation significantly altered community weighted means and
1104 diversity of some functional traits. Also, primary productivity was higher in the low
1105 defoliation frequencies, and in plots under rainout shelters (rainfall decrease and control).

1106 Detritivore activity was only affected by rain treatments, being reduced under rain
1107 decrease. Rainfall manipulation treatments affected functional structure, although with
1108 different species shifting at each plot. Rainfall decrease did not represent a drought stress
1109 for the plant community; on the contrary, rainout shelters acted by boosting plant growth.

1110

1111 Key words: Rainout shelters, primary productivity, grazing simulation, plant community,
1112 detritivory

1113 Introduction

1114 The use of native grassland vegetation as pasture for cattle has been an important
1115 economic activity for most grassy biomes in South America since European colonization
1116 (Nabinger et al. 2000). Current studies also show that this kind of land management is
1117 favourable for biodiversity conservation when compared to other economic use such as
1118 conversion for annual crops or timber production (Overbeck et al. 2007). Still,
1119 sustainable use of natural grasslands for cattle production will depend on how this
1120 management is carried out (Mcintyre et al. 2003; Cruz et al. 2010). Also, it is crucial to
1121 identify in such ecosystems practices that enhance stability of ecosystem processes and
1122 services under climate change.

1123 Grazing can influence species distributions in plant communities by defoliation,
1124 changing plant competition relationships, affecting functional composition and diversity
1125 (Milchunas et al. 1988; Díaz et al. 2007; Lezama et al. 2014; Zheng et al. 2015). The
1126 main effect of defoliation is on plant growth and energy allocation strategy. Intense and
1127 frequent defoliation reduces vertical shoot development and, with less photosynthesising
1128 area, plants invest less in deeper roots (Dawson et al. 2000). The continuity of severe

1129 defoliation disturbance may lead to species shifts based on their survival strategies, thus
1130 defoliation frequency and intensity is an important factor shaping plant communities
1131 (Díaz & Cabido 2001; Laliberté et al. 2012).

1132 Such shifts in plant communities may have influence on the way plant
1133 communities contribute to ecosystem processes. Important ecosystem services in natural
1134 rangelands are provided by processes related to carbon and nutrient dynamics. These
1135 usually summed up as primary productivity and litter decomposition. Litter
1136 decomposition is a key ecosystem process of carbon and nutrient cycling in most
1137 terrestrial ecosystems (Hättenschwiler et al. 2005) by allowing nutrients to return to the
1138 soil, and maintaining ecosystem fertility (Davidson & Janssens 2006; Canadell et al.
1139 2007). For this, a crucial factor for litter decomposition is the coarse breakdown mediated
1140 by soil organisms. Many groups of soil invertebrates with detritivore roles include
1141 arthropods (mites, collembola, isopods, diplopods, termites, some beetles) and
1142 earthworms (Lavelle 1996). Such detritivore organisms are sensitive to disturbances,
1143 mainly when the latter influence the structural and microclimatic habitat proprieties.

1144 Also, community shifts in species and functional composition, as well as in
1145 diversity, might have consequences over ecological stability in the ecosystem (Pillar et al.
1146 2013). Ecological stability is the capability of the ecosystem to maintain and recover
1147 patterns and important processes after disturbances and/or adversities (Holling 1973). A
1148 positive diversity-stability relationship is the pinnacle on accessing the future of
1149 sustainable use of natural and semi natural ecosystems. Diversity may enhance stability
1150 by insuring presence of plants with different functional strategies that can respond
1151 distinctively to adversities (Tilman 1997; Tilman et al. 2006). Stability can be also

1152 affected by the shift in plant composition, mainly when considering dominant species
1153 (Sasaki & Lauenroth 2011) and their traits.

1154 In this study, we assess effects of the frequency of defoliation by clipping
1155 (experimentally simulating grazing) on community functional patterns (composition and
1156 diversity) and ecosystem processes (primary productivity and detritivory) in subtropical
1157 grassland. Also, we assess how alterations in the plant community functional structure
1158 caused by defoliation frequency reflect on ecosystem stability under changes in the
1159 natural rainfall regime.

1160 Grazing disturbance is known to affect plant height (Díaz et al. 2007), a potent
1161 indicator of root depth, because those traits are linked within the plant spectrum of
1162 investment strategy (Ebeling et al. 2014; Fischer et al. 2016). Thus, defoliation also
1163 decline root length (Dawson et al. 2000), even that grazing causes increases of root
1164 biomass at the superficial soil depths (Altesor et al. 2006; López-Mársico et al. 2015).
1165 Such effect in plant vertical development (mainly root depth) may jeopardize community
1166 stability, since it will be more susceptible to rainfall fluctuations by not having deeper
1167 roots to capture water in the case of drought. Under low defoliation frequency, it is
1168 expected that plants will be able to develop deeper roots, as well as aerial parts between
1169 defoliation events, which will allow them to be more prepared and responsive under
1170 drought. However, under increased precipitation we expect no effect of defoliation
1171 treatments on primary productivity. In this case water would not be a limiting factor, thus
1172 communities with different structures might respond equally.

1173

1174 Methods

1175 The experiment was installed on native subtropical grassland (*Campos*) in
1176 southern Brazil, located at the Agricultural Research Station of the Federal University of
1177 Rio Grande do Sul (30°06'13"S, 51°40'55"W, 40 m a.s.l.). The climate is subtropical, of a
1178 Cfa type in Koeppen's classification (Bergamaschi et al. 2003). The average annual
1179 precipitation is 1,445 mm, well distributed throughout the year, but with events of water
1180 deficits that may occur from November to March (Bergamaschi et al. 2003).

1181 The experiment was a two-factor split-plot randomized block design with five
1182 replicates. Each block contained three 1.1 x 1.1 m main plots of natural grassland
1183 communities. For placing the plots within each experimental block, in order to choose
1184 similar patches of vegetation we avoided tussocks and other taller functional types (upper
1185 stratum), common in the physiognomy of native grasslands submitted to natural regimes
1186 of grazing (Fischer 2013). The main plots were submitted to rainfall manipulation
1187 treatments, based on Gherardi & Sala (2013), where transparent acrylate rainout shelters
1188 were set to passively deviate a percentage of the water amount from each *rainfall*
1189 *reduction* plot. The water deviated was stored and immediately pumped to a *rainfall*
1190 *addition* plot (Fig. 1). At first, our study consisted in a treatment with 70% of rainfall
1191 interception, another one with 70% rainfall addition, and a control with no rainfall
1192 interception or addition. Those treatments remained from March 2013 to October 2015.
1193 Aiming at creating more extreme precipitation changes, from November 2015 to
1194 December 2016 we increased rainfall interception or addition from 70% to 93%. To make
1195 sure our rainfall manipulation treatments were effective, we analyzed a 40-year local
1196 weather data to calculate the commonness and rarity of the actual precipitation levels and

1197 the expected interception and increase for each treatment during the evaluation period,
1198 which showed that actual monthly precipitation levels in 2016 were in general much
1199 higher than normal (see Appendix I). As expected, the treatment under rainfall increase
1200 presented values of soil moisture a bit higher than the control treatment without shelter,
1201 and much higher than the treatment under rainfall reduction (see Appendix II). Also, in
1202 the second year, an extra control plot with upside-down acrylate gutters was included in
1203 two (of the five) blocks. This additional treatment was not expected to have an effect on
1204 the deviated rainfall amount but similar effects on the other aspects of the
1205 microenvironment under the shelter (e.g. sun radiation, wind and temperature buffer).
1206 However, plots under shelter presented comparatively higher minimum ($\sim 2^{\circ}\text{C}$) and
1207 average temperatures ($\sim 2^{\circ}\text{C}$) and lower variation in temperature, indicating that in
1208 addition to rainfall interception the shelter affected abiotic conditions (Appendix II).

1209 In each plot, three 0.5 x 0.5 m subplots were submitted to clipping frequency
1210 treatments to simulate defoliation by grazing. The frequency was defined by a heat sum
1211 (degree-days) of 150, 300 and 750 $^{\circ}\text{Cd}$ (indicating respectively high, intermediate and
1212 low frequency). In all treatments, the sward was cut with an electric sheep wool clipper at
1213 the high of 3 cm above ground level (Fig. 1).

1214 The application of the treatments started in December 2013. The plant community
1215 in each subplot was surveyed for species composition annually from 2013 to 2016,
1216 always during November. Species cover was estimated using the Londo (1976) scale. As
1217 we worked with naturally assembled communities and we were not interested on the
1218 initial differences among them, for our analysis, to control for the effect of initial species
1219 composition and reduce the experimental error, we calculated community composition

1220 change for each subplot between 2013 and 2016. For example, a species that was present
1221 in 2013 and decreased or disappeared from the plot in 2016 presented a negative change,
1222 and another species that increased its cover or appeared in 2016 presented a positive
1223 change. In the resulting matrix of species by subplots, positive, negative or zero values
1224 indicate, respectively, that the cover of the species increased, decreased or remained
1225 unchanged during this period.

1226 Data on species functional traits were obtained for the most abundant out of the
1227 species found in the plots (67.5% of species, representing 78.3% of the aboveground
1228 cover during the period). Species traits were evaluated directly on collected specimens in
1229 the field, compiled from the literature, or, for qualitative traits, based on consultation of
1230 specialists. Details on the 17 traits and their functional importance are in Table 1. For the
1231 analysis, quantitative leaf traits refer to species means obtained from collected
1232 individuals, while qualitative, whole-plant traits refer to the most frequent state observed
1233 in the species. We calculated community weighted means (CWM) and Rao quadratic
1234 entropy (Rao Q, Rao 1982) for each trait, and in the same way as for composition, we
1235 computed differences in each subplot between 2013 and 2016 for those measurements.

1236 We measured in each subplot primary productivity and detritivory activity.
1237 Primary productivity was measured at the end of the experiment, in October 2016. For
1238 this, upon clipping, the subplots were left to grow during one month, after which the
1239 biomass was clipped again at 3 cm above ground level, oven-dried and weighted.
1240 Detritivory activity was measured by using the bait-lamina test, which is a proxy for the
1241 level of invertebrate activity in litter decomposition (Kratz 1998). Bait-lamina consist of
1242 plastic strips of 120 mm length, 6 mm wide and 1.5 mm thick, with 16 perforations 5 mm

1243 from each other (Kratz 1998). Holes in the sticks were filled with a homogeneous
1244 mixture of cellulose (70%), wheat flour (27%), activated charcoal (3%) and distilled
1245 water to form a paste (e.g. (Gestel et al. 2003; Römbke et al. 2006). We inserted one bait-
1246 lamina edgewise into the first centimetre of the soil in each subplot. After 15 days of
1247 exposure, we pulled out all the bait-lamina from the soil, and under the stereomicroscope
1248 we counted in each stick partially consumed holes and totally empty holes, as indicative
1249 of soil fauna feeding activity. An average activity index was obtained per bait-lamina by
1250 attributing weights of 0, 0.5 or 1.0 respectively to the holes that were full, partially
1251 consumed or totally empty.

1252 We submitted the community composition change matrix to multivariate analysis
1253 of variance (MANOVA) with permutation testing for assessing main factor effects and
1254 their interaction (Pillar & Orlóci 1996; Torres et al. 2010). As well, the effects of the
1255 treatments on each one of the functional traits CWM and Rao Q, primary productivity
1256 and detritivore activity were tested by ANOVA with permutation. Considering the split-
1257 plot design, we run these analyses in two steps. First, we tested only for the rainfall
1258 manipulation treatments, for which the three subplots altogether within each plot were
1259 randomly permuted among plots within each block. Then, we tested for the effect of
1260 defoliation frequency and its interaction with the rainfall manipulation factor, for which
1261 the permutation of subplots was restricted within each main plot.

1262

1263 Results

1264 We recorded a total of 151 plant species, of which 111 were identified to the
1265 species level (Appendix III and IV) in the experimental plots. There was no effect of
1266 rainfall manipulation on species composition change between 2013 and 2016 ($P = 0.294$).
1267 Also, there was no effect of defoliation frequency treatments on species composition
1268 change ($P = 0.258$), nor interaction between rainfall manipulation and defoliation
1269 frequency on species composition change ($P = 0.978$).

1270 Although no significant effects were observed on species composition, effects of
1271 the tested factors were detectable on some functional traits CWM and Rao Q. CWM of
1272 leaf dry matter content (LDMC) and Rao Q calculated for leaf area (LA), grasses, erect,
1273 hemicryptophytes and geophyte species responded to the rainfall treatments (respectively
1274 $P = 0.0395, 0.0182, 0.0203, 0.0081, 0.0351$ and 0.0345 , Fig. 2). The defoliation
1275 frequency affected CWM of leaf area (LA) and Rao Q of hemicryptophyte forms
1276 (respectively $P = 0.0454$, and 0.0163) (Fig. 3). The interaction between rainfall
1277 manipulation and defoliation frequency showed no effect for any of the evaluated traits.

1278 Biomass productivity was affected by both rainfall manipulation ($P = 0.033$) and
1279 defoliation frequency ($P = 0.001$) treatments, with no interaction between these factors
1280 ($P = 0.99$). Plots under lower defoliation frequency had higher productivity (Fig. 4) and
1281 plots with rainfall reduction and control of shelter effect (“under shelter” treatments)
1282 presented higher primary productivity than the control without shelter and the rainfall
1283 increase treatment (“no shelter” treatments). The treatment with lower rates of
1284 productivity was rainfall increase (Fig. 4).

1285 Detritivory activity by soil invertebrates, evaluated by the bait-lamina test showed
1286 significant effect of the rainfall manipulation treatments ($P = 0.025$). Bait lamina
1287 consumption was lower under rainfall reduction than under rainfall increase ($P = 0.041$)
1288 and the control without shelter ($P = 0.038$). All other pairwise contrasts were not
1289 significant. Grazing frequency did not affect detritivory activity ($P = 0.12$), and its
1290 interaction with rainfall manipulation was not significant ($P = 0.404$).

1291 Discussion

1292 With our experiment we aimed at investigating the effects of simulated increase
1293 and decrease in rainfall on grasslands under different defoliation frequency (a proxy of
1294 grazing management). The rainfall reduction of 93 % were very unlikely to happen under
1295 natural conditions, considering the 40-year weather history, the rainfall amount
1296 experienced by plots submitted to the 93% increase was not much less likely to happen
1297 than the natural amount during 2016 mostly during the summer (Appendix I).

1298 It was noticeable that while species composition was not affected by the rainfall
1299 manipulation treatments, there was some effect on the functional traits (Fig. 2). Such a
1300 mismatch might be surprising, for we have not considered within-species trait variation
1301 and thus it would be expected that functional differences would be paralleled by species
1302 turnover between communities. Yet, in the context of the experiment, with replicates,
1303 species turnover was not consistent between plots subjected to the same treatment. So, we
1304 assume that the species turnover could be modulated by the rainfall manipulation
1305 treatments in such a way that different species with similar functional trait values were
1306 selected under each treatment. The main trend of functional turnover in the plant
1307 community was noticeable for leaf dry matter content (LDMC). Community weighted

1308 means of LDMC increased at control without shelter plots. This control treatment for
1309 most variables had an outstanding response compared to other treatments (rainfall
1310 increase, decrease and control without shelter) that had decreased community weighted
1311 means of LDMC. Such trait is a proxy for leaf investment and results in longer leaf life
1312 span, also related to physical hazards and efficient conservation of nutrients (Garnier &
1313 Shipley 2001). Plants with low LDMC can be associated to productive and highly
1314 disturbed environments (Pérez-Harguindeguy et al. 2013). In our study, under all the
1315 treatments in which vegetation was submitted to unnatural conditions, LDMC decreased.

1316 Functional diversity (Rao Q) in general decreased in plots under the shelters (rain
1317 decrease and control with shelter), in contrast to the increase in plots in open-air (rain
1318 increase and control without shelter – Fig. 3). The difference between the two types of
1319 control as well as the similar trend shared by plots under the shelter in comparison to the
1320 ones in open-air is another indication that shelters are affecting plant community in ways
1321 others than drought per se. The decreased functional diversity in this case could be
1322 indicating an environmental filtering resulting from the roof effect (temperature,
1323 Appendix II).

1324 The abiotic conditions of the extreme opposite treatments differed in their effect
1325 on soil moisture only during the rain events and the following days (Appendix III), in less
1326 than five days after the rain soil moisture in different treatments reached similar values
1327 due to evaporation and evapotranspiration. Also, extreme rain events (high amount of
1328 precipitation in a short space of time) are common in the region, although we could not
1329 testify any of them during summer of 2016, this can cause the soil to get saturated even
1330 under the rainfall decrease plots, even by the reduced percentage directly entering the plot

1331 or surface water flowing from the adjacent areas. However, the rainout shelters can also
1332 produce effects beyond the interception of rainfall. Air temperature (minimum and
1333 average) under the rainout shelters was higher and less variable than plots without rainout
1334 shelters (Fig. 3). We also visualized many times that dew was condensed in the plastic
1335 gutters and not in the vegetation. Further, dust accumulation in the plastic stripes can
1336 intercept light, wind protection. Also, we could notice during a morning frost that plots
1337 under the roof were not affected. Many species from the area are not frost resistant and
1338 got frostbitten in that event (only outside the shelters).

1339 The conditions in the plots under the rainout shelters can be also unrealistic and
1340 incomparable to open field reality, in our case. This is clear when comparing plots
1341 submitted to shelters with reversed gutters (control with shelter) to the control without
1342 shelter ones. In some cases, control with shelter was more similar to rainfall decrease
1343 showing an important role of the shelters, and sometimes were more similar to “control
1344 without shelter”. These ambiguous trends might be result of a possible effect of the
1345 shelters, or even that what we considered “control with” shelter is not a control for
1346 rainfall manipulation, because in our case, the shelters, even the ones with the upside-
1347 down gutters, might bulkhead some rainfall amount (soil moisture under such shelters are
1348 drier then “control with shelters”, Fig. 2). Another mechanism that can be influencing
1349 primary productivity is that shelters can increase nitrogen availability by a higher N net
1350 mineralization (Yahdjian et al. 2006) and this may affect plant growth. So, considering
1351 that the experiment did not affected the environment in the way it was intended, we must
1352 be cautious to interpret the results as if it was a simulation of climate change.

1353 The other factor included in the experiment, defoliation by clipping, with the
1354 intention to simulate grazing frequency, affected the functional composition, increasing
1355 CWM of LA and decreasing functional diversity (Rao Q) of the presence of
1356 Hemicriptophytes life form. This shows a simmlar tendency to what is generally found in
1357 functional response of vegetation to grazing intensity (Diaz et. al 2007).

1358 We believe the tendency in response to this factor was not more accentuated
1359 because of the way we placed the plots on the landscape. In order to choose similar
1360 patches of vegetation for placing the plots within each experimental block, we avoided
1361 tussocks and other taller functional types (upper stratum), so that the plots were located in
1362 patches that are usually more often grazed. Such double stratum is a well-known structure
1363 in native grassland under moderate to low levels of grazing intensity (Bremm et al. 2012;
1364 Fischer 2013), where cattle feeding selectiveness create “grazing lawns” (Hempson et al.
1365 2015) and by frequent defoliation allows only plants with specific functional traits
1366 adapted to fast resprouting to dwell (Fischer et al. submetido; Fischer 2013).

1367 Primary productivity was affected by both factors, but, in opposition to our
1368 hypothesis, there was no interaction between them. We expected communities under
1369 higher frequencies of defoliation to shrivel, thus being more sensitive to the rainfall
1370 reduction in comparison to the ones submitted to lower defoliation frequencies, which we
1371 believed would be more stable under stressful conditions. As for primary productivity
1372 response to rainfall manipulation, we expected rainfall decrease treatment to reduce
1373 productivity, by imposing a drought stress on the community. In the opposite extreme, in
1374 the plots submitted to rainfall increase treatments, we expected communities to have
1375 higher or the same productivity as in the natural situation (control plots), and depending

1376 on the amount of natural rainfall during the season, wetter conditions might even leach
1377 out soil nutrients, thus, negatively affecting primary productivity. But, we found that even
1378 an experimental reduction of 93% on the natural rainfall amount in 2016 did not represent
1379 the expected stress.

1380 Also, it was expected that shifts in functional and/or species composition in
1381 response to grazing frequency treatments would mediate important ecosystem processes
1382 (primary productivity and detritivory activity). But such shifts in composition were not
1383 verified (for the abovementioned reasons), while primary productivity responded to both
1384 experimental factors. This might occur because ecosystem processes are only partially
1385 mediated by plant community characteristics. Primary productivity can be responding to
1386 other abiotic conditions. This is also true for detritivory activity, which responds mostly
1387 to soil moisture (Peña-Peña & Irmeler 2016), and plant community can affect it only
1388 indirectly by shaping the environment and affecting variables such as soil moisture
1389 (Fischer 2013). In this study, detritivore activity responded to rainfall manipulation,
1390 having higher values under rainfall increase treatment, intermediate values under the
1391 controls and lower values under the rainfall decrease treatment. This trend mostly relates
1392 to soil moisture (Appendix II), indicating that this process is mostly affected by abiotic
1393 conditions influenced by the experiment. Second, we considered in this study only trends
1394 in trait changes represented by species turnover; intra-specific variation and organism
1395 adaptation to novel conditions could not be assessed with this method. However, grazing
1396 frequency can be affecting the communities mostly only at the organismal scale, not
1397 causing species composition changes. Although it is clear the effect of experimental
1398 treatments on the ecosystem processes we evaluated, effects on biomass may result from

1399 individual plants shifts in terms of physiological and morphological adaptations. For
1400 example, it is known that defoliation intensity can affect plant individual's root size
1401 (Dawson et al. 2000), and this change can affect their capacity to grow.

1402 We expected to cause drought stress in the plant community under the rainfall
1403 decrease treatments but this was not verified. Shifts in community weighted means and
1404 functional diversity likely result from many complex reasons. The same occur for
1405 ecosystems processes, which do not seem to be mediated by plant community structure,
1406 but by abiotic conditions provided by the experimental framework and/or experimental
1407 side effects. Also, the effect of defoliation frequency on the stability of the plant
1408 community and ecosystem processes under altered rainfall patterns was not detected, as
1409 there was no interaction between the effect of experimental factors on those variables.

1410

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 1536 grazing are mediated by soil moisture and plant functional group identity. *Scientific*
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- 1538

1539 **Table 1:** List of traits describing the 102 species found in the experiment. The protocols
 1540 were modified after Cornelissen et al. (2003). For leaf traits, we considered in the
 1541 analysis the average of two leafs collected from 5 to 10 individuals for each species,
 1542 measured with Area Meter or scanner, weighted fresh and after oven drying. For whole-
 1543 plant traits, we compiled the literature and consulted specialists.

1544

Trait	Abbreviation	Unit	Way of assesses	Function (Cornelissen et al. 2003)
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Leaf Traits

Area	LA	cm	Lamina area	Leaf energy and water balance
Form	form	-	Ratio Lamina length/max width	
Specific leaf area	SLA	cm/mg	Ratio leaf area/ dry weight	Trade-off between relative growth rate and investments on leaf defense and long lifespan.
Dry matter content	LDMC	-	Ratio fresh/dry weight	Related to growth rate and leaf life span
Tension	tens	N/cm	Strength needed for fracturing leaf lamina divided by leaf length	Protection against biotic and abiotic mechanical damage

Whole-plant traits

Potential Height	H	cm	Max height described on literature	Competitive vigour
Growth form			Modified from Cornelissen et al. 2003 and an expanded to binary	Plant strategy under climatic factors and land use
Graminoid	gr	0/1	Poaceae, Cyperaceae and Juncaceae	
Forb	forb	0/1	Non graminoid, non lignification	
Shrub	shr	0/1	Presence of lignification tissues	
Erect	ere	0/1	Vertical growth, non prostrate	
Rosette	ros	0/1	Rosette forbs	
Life form			Modified from Cornelissen et al. 2003 and expanded to binary	Plant strategy of resprouting after disturbances or annual

climatic variation

Hemicryptophyte	hcr	0/1	Periodic shoot reduction to a remnant shoot system.
Geophyte	geof	0/1	Annual reduction of the complete shoot system to underground storage organs.
Therophyte	tero	0/1	Non perennial

Chamaephyte	came	0/1	Shoot system remains, but below 0.5 m Modified from Cornelissen and expanded to binary
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Belowground storage (and clonality) organs

Belowground storage (and clonally) organs	stor	0/1	Presence of storage organs: rhizome, bulb, corm, stolon, tuber.	Competitive vigour, exploiting patches rich in resources. Persistence after disturbances.
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Photosynthetic pathway

C4 photosynthetic pathway	C4	0/1	1= presence of C4 Pathway	Higher optimum temperature for photosynthesis and growth. Water and nutrient use efficiencies.
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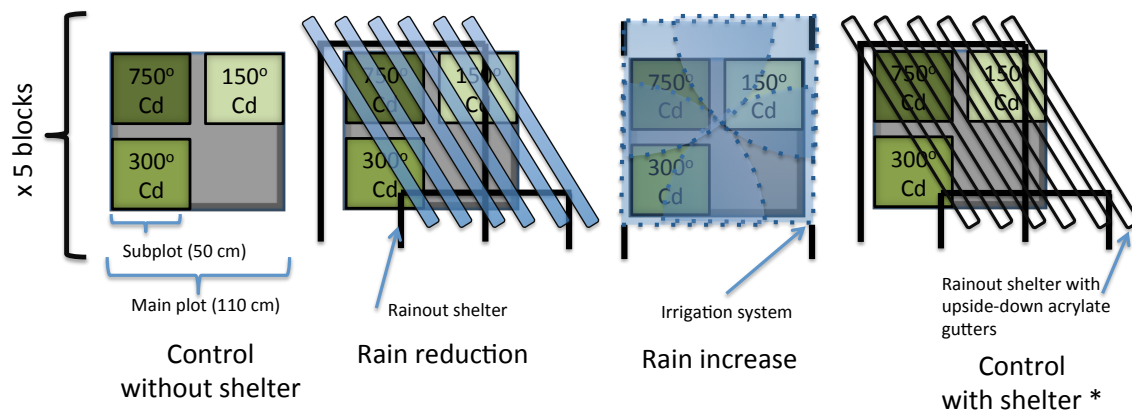
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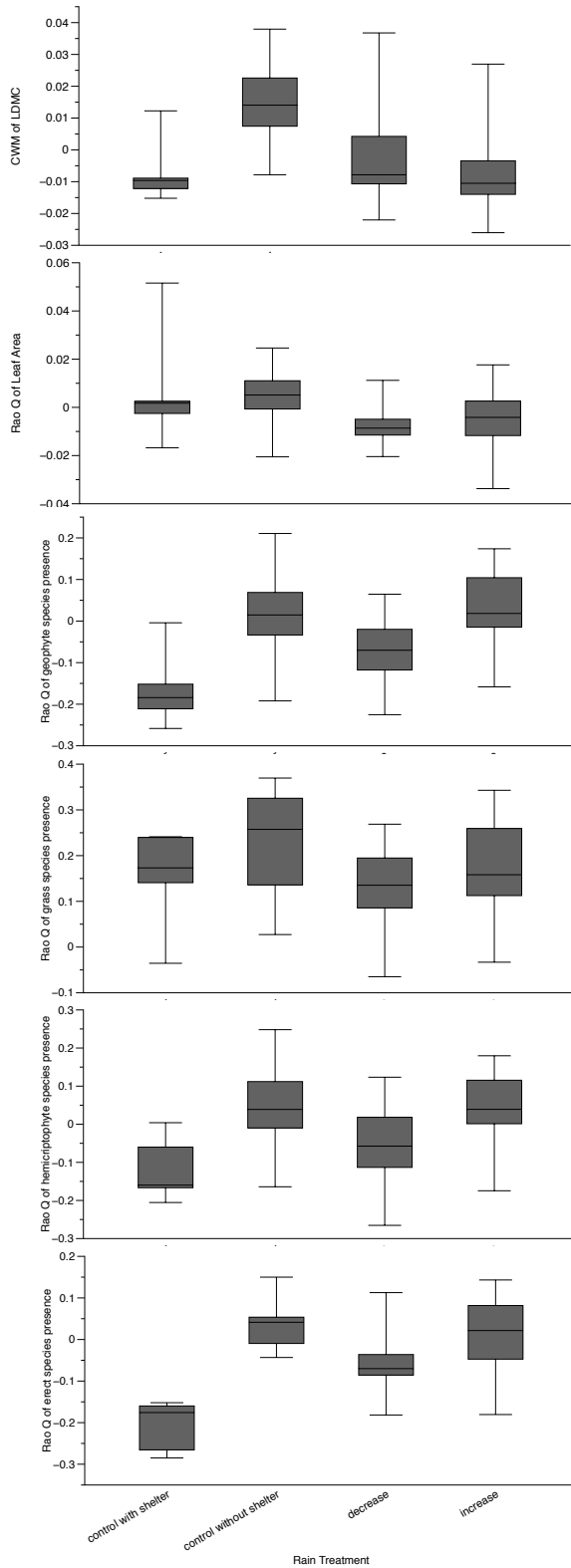
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1552 **Figure 1:** Scheme of the experimental design. Treatments of the main plots are
 1553 represented by the rain manipulation system; while in the subplots grazing intensity
 1554 simulation treatments are indicated by the clipping frequency determined by 150, 300 and
 1555 750oCd (degree-day sum). * The “control with shelter” treatment was included in only
 1556 two of the five blocks.

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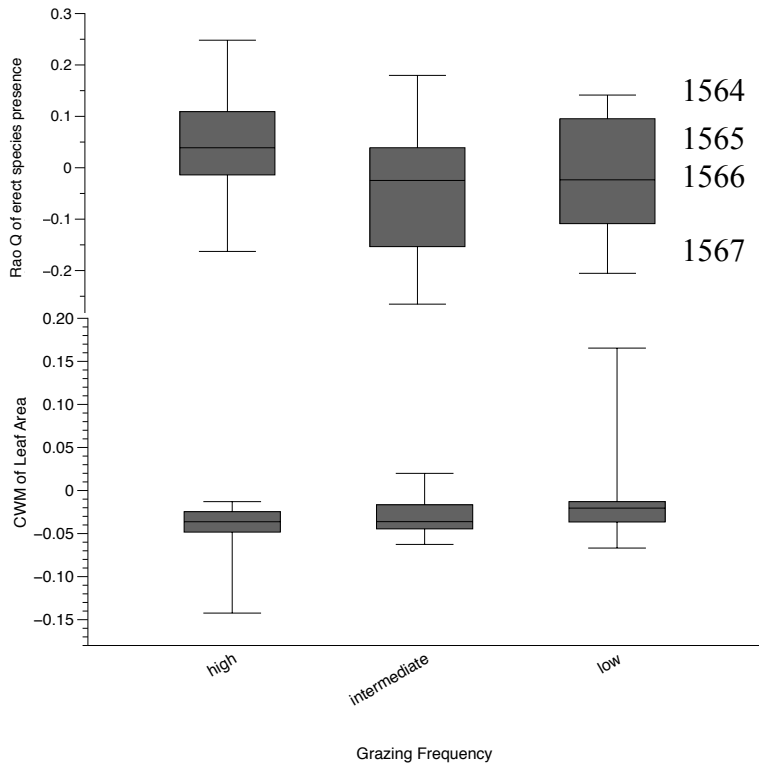
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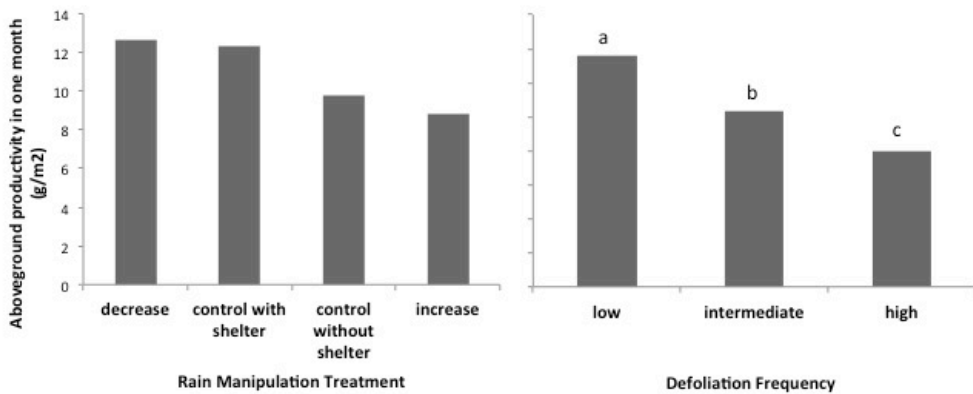


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Figure 2: Functional trait CWM and Rao Q shift in the communities submitted to rainfall manipulation. Increases and decreases in CWM and Rao Q of traits between 2013 and 2016 are indicated, respectively, by positive and negative values (P<0.05).



1576 **Figure 3:** Functional trait CWM and Rao Q shift in the communities submitted to grazing
 1577 intensity manipulation. Increases and decreases in functional diversity between 2013 and
 1578 2016 are indicated, respectively, by positive and negative values ($P < 0.05$ based on
 1579 permutation test).



1580
 1581 **Figure 4:** Biomass productivity of plant communities under treatments of rainfall
 1582 manipulation and defoliation frequency. Treatments identified by different letters differed
 1583 significantly ($P < 0.07$ based on permutation test).
 1584

1608 0.0001), colonization ($P = 0.0433$) and extinction ($P = 0.0001$), while decreased primary
1609 productivity temporal variation ($P = 0.0043$). Therefore, species diversity showed
1610 opposite stability effects at the two levels evaluated, by enhancing ecosystem processes
1611 stability to the detriment of community constancy. Niche complementarity and more
1612 efficient resource acquisition may explain increased biomass productivity and more even
1613 distribution of primary productivity in time in rich communities, while competition might
1614 be leading rich communities to instability by increasing their temporal turnover.

1615

1616 Key-words: clipping experiment, biodiversity experiment, functional types, species
1617 removal

1618

1619 Introduction

1620 Human treats to biosphere include rapid loss of species in many ecosystems. At
1621 the same time, species carrying beyond their natural ranges invade new ecosystems.
1622 Shifts in species, due to extinction and invasion alter ecosystem properties and might
1623 have a great impact on ecological services. The link between biodiversity and ecosystem
1624 processes is well known, but the importance of the role, played by each single species,
1625 and their functional aspects are still to be explored. Functional diversity is indicative of
1626 variation in the organisms' functions and strategies of environmental exploitation. This
1627 supports the hypothesis that a plant community with very different functional traits
1628 between its species can occupy more niches, which would lead to efficient resource

1629 acquisition (niche complementarity (Yachi & Loreau 1999) and to enhanced ecosystem
1630 stability when environmental conditions change in time.

1631 The functional diversity range that can be found in plant communities is limited.
1632 Increasing species diversity, past this level, will only increase the number of species with
1633 equivalent roles, thus will also increase functional redundancy in the community.
1634 Functional redundancy is another important community characteristic that may ensure
1635 ecosystem reliability (Naeem 1998). Theoretically, species from the same functional
1636 group can compensate the loss of each other in terms of a given ecosystem function
1637 (Joner et al. 2011; Pillar et al. 2013). However, competition may increase with increasing
1638 species diversity, for more species may also imply that more species share the same
1639 resource requirements. Species substitution and competitive exclusion leading to
1640 temporal changes in species composition and richness indicates instability at the
1641 community level. Thus, while species diversity may increase stability in *ecosystem*
1642 function (Chapin et al. 2000; Tilman et al. 2006, Pillar et al 2013), it may also imply
1643 decreased *community* stability indicated by increasing rates of local species extinction
1644 and colonization.

1645 Therefore, if competition and competitive exclusion is a main driver in
1646 community assembly and reassembly (Diamond 1975), reduced richness may reduce
1647 competition and thus reduced local species extinctions will be observed in the remaining
1648 community. However, if diversity enhances functional redundancy for primary
1649 productivity, then it is expected that a richer community will be more stable for primary
1650 productivity. Thus, primary productivity stability under extreme short-term adversities
1651 (disturbances) might not be related to stability in species composition (community

1652 constancy, Grimm & Wissel 1997), since community shifts in composition and species
1653 density, among a large local pool of species, may reflect adaptation to the new
1654 conditions. Species invasion, which at the level of the target community is a process
1655 equivalent to colonization by any non-resident species, is another way to measure
1656 community stability (Donohue et al. 2013). Thus, assuming the same level of propagule
1657 pressure, it is expected that a community that is more susceptible to colonization of any
1658 non-resident native species will be also more susceptible to invasion by non-native
1659 species.

1660 Species removal experiments are useful tools for testing hypotheses about the
1661 effects of species diversity on community and ecosystem stability (Díaz et al. 2003; Joner
1662 et al. 2011; Guido & Pillar 2015). Further, removal experiments are often focused on the
1663 functional identity of the excluded species. Here we report results of an experiment
1664 developed on old-growth grassland in which we manipulated species richness by
1665 removal. Removed species were randomly selected in a way to minimize the effect of
1666 reduced richness on functional diversity and dominance structure. In this way, by not
1667 altering the original functional group composition in the manipulated community, we
1668 assumed that reduced richness also meant reduced functional redundancy. Thus, our data
1669 allowed us to examine hypotheses concerning the effect of species richness (a proxy of
1670 functional redundancy) on both post-removal species turnover and on primary
1671 productivity.

1672

1673 Methods

1674 We conducted this study in subtropical *Campos* in southern Brazil, located at the
1675 Agricultural Research Station of the Federal University of Rio Grande do Sul
1676 (30°06'13"S, 51°40'55"W, 40 m a.s.l.). The region is in a transition between tropical and
1677 temperate climatic zones, with a Cfa climate type in Koeppen's classification
1678 (Bergamaschi et al. 2003). The average annual precipitation is 1,445 mm, well distributed
1679 throughout the year (Bergamaschi et al. 2003).

1680 In the summer of 2013, we installed the field experiment in an old-growth native
1681 grassland site with no disturbance history other than cattle grazing and sporadic mowing,
1682 within which we fenced a 625 m² area for the experiment. This was established in the
1683 framework of a rain manipulation experiment (Cap. 2), which consisted in a split-plot
1684 factorial experiment with main plots submitted to rainfall manipulation treatments and
1685 subplots to species removal treatments. The main plots, 25 in total, were 1.1x1.1 m
1686 arranged in five randomized blocks in such a way to avoid tussocks and tall shrubs and to
1687 minimize the heterogeneity of vegetation structure between plots within the same block.
1688 As we did not detect significant effects of rainfall manipulation nor of its interaction with
1689 species removal for any of the measured variables in the timeframe of the experiment,
1690 here we focus on the effects of the species removal treatments imposed on the vegetation
1691 in the subplots.

1692 Within each main plot, we marked permanently three 0.2 x 0.2 m subplots,
1693 located at one 0.5 x 0.5 m corner of the main plot, which were submitted to species
1694 removal treatments. The treatments consisted in a reduction of species richness based on
1695 50% and 70% of species removal by aboveground clipping, and one with no removal

1696 (more details on the experimental design in Appendix I and in Chapter 2). Before the
1697 removal, at the beginning of the experiment, we described each subplot for species
1698 composition by using visual cover estimation (Londo 1976). For each plot, the species
1699 were ordered by decreasing cover separately for graminoids (Poaceae, Cyperaceae,
1700 Juncaceae) and forbs. We avoided shrubs when placing the plots, but young individuals
1701 of shrub species were then found, but as they were small and not woody yet, they were
1702 taken as forbs (non-graminoids). The selection of which species to be removed was based
1703 on their order by decreasing cover. For each subplot and species list (graminoids, forbs)
1704 we randomly selected the pivot species between the first two species in the list, and then
1705 systematically selected every second species for the 50% treatment, or every second and
1706 the next in the list for the 70% species reduction treatment. The selected species were
1707 clipped at soil level repeatedly, aiming to exhaust root reserves and allow the created
1708 gaps being overtaken by the remaining (target) species. The remaining species in the
1709 subplot were considered our fixed targets for the new experimental community, and their
1710 number was the target richness. All new species (not present in the first survey) were also
1711 clipped to maintain only the target composition. The clipping for removals took place
1712 once a month during six months for two years in the growing season (from December
1713 2103 to May 2014, and November 2014 to April 2015). In every clipping for removals,
1714 we recorded the composition (presence-absence) of target species and new species
1715 (colonization). We considered as a colonization (invasion) or an extinction event in a
1716 subplot every time a new species appeared or a target species was absent in the
1717 community. For colonization, we assumed that seed rain, seed bank and bud bank was
1718 homogeneously distributed among the subplots within each main plot. A complete list of

1719 experimental plots data on initial richness, percentage of removed richness, target species
1720 richness as well as colonization and extinction for all clipping events can be checked in
1721 Appendix II. For the analysis, we summed the recorded colonization and extinction
1722 events that took place after February 2014. We ignored the first two removals events to
1723 avoid the confounding effect of disturbance caused by the large amount of aboveground
1724 biomass removal that took place at the beginning of the experiment. The number of
1725 colonization and extinction events were then averaged per number of sampling events. In
1726 every clipping for removals event, extracted biomass (only of species not in the subplot
1727 target list, which included those that resprouted and new species colonization) was oven
1728 dried and weighted.

1729 Apart from that, the whole experiment was mowed regularly in order to simulate
1730 as much as possible the previous grazing regime, as cattle was not allowed in the area.
1731 For this, every experimental unit was clipped by using an electric sheep wool clipper at
1732 the height of 3 cm with a frequency defined by thermal sum of 300 degrees day ($^{\circ}\text{C}$),
1733 which mimics an intermediate level of grazing intensity in our system. For measuring
1734 primary productivity, in April 2014, May 2014, August 2014, October 2014, December
1735 2014, April 2015 and September 2015, after an accumulation of a thermal sum of
1736 approximately 750 degrees day, we collected the produced biomass per subplot, which
1737 was then oven-dried and weighted. We also assessed the temporal stability for primary
1738 productivity, calculated based on the variation coefficient of these primary productivity
1739 measurements.

1740 For the analysis, we considered the clipped biomass (non-target species removals)
1741 as a proxy for the disturbance effect caused by species removal, which was controlled

1742 statistically. For this, we adjusted for each response variable a linear regression
1743 considering removed biomass as the predictor, and used the residuals of this model for
1744 testing the effects of target species richness on the response variables. We used the total
1745 removed biomass as predictor for all response variables except for primary productivity,
1746 for which the removed biomass in the last event preceding the primary productivity
1747 accumulation period was the predictor. Further, to remove the effect of main plots, and in
1748 this way controlling for the natural variation of species richness among main plots, we
1749 computed for all variables measured in subplots the residuals in relation to the
1750 corresponding main plot mean. We then tested for the effect of species richness on
1751 colonization, extinction, primary productivity and primary productivity temporal
1752 variation by running separate regression models using permutation testing (Manly 1997),
1753 considering target species richness as the predictor variable. The permutation tests were
1754 performed with the MULTIV software, which is available at
1755 <http://ecoqua.ecologia.ufrgs.br/software.html>.

1756

1757 Results

1758 Average initial species richness in the subplots was 14.6 species and varied
1759 between 8 and 21 species. Target species richness in each subplot set for species removal
1760 increased this range a little (4 to 18 species), but the variation coefficient increased from
1761 7.2 to 13.7 in the intended (target) range of subplot richness. Species removal, although
1762 did not reach the intended exclusion percentage observable in monthly evaluations
1763 (Appendix I), can be considered to be effective because excluded species and new

1764 colonizers were maintained clipped, decreasing their competitive potential compared to
1765 target species.

1766 In terms of stability at the community level, there was a positive effect of
1767 manipulated species richness on species temporal variation, indicated by the increased
1768 colonization of new species ($P = 0.0433$, Fig. 1) and number of extinctions of target
1769 species ($P = 0.0001$, Fig. 2) with increasing richness.

1770 At the ecosystem level, species richness had a positive effect on aboveground
1771 primary productivity ($P = 0.0001$, Fig. 3) as well on its stability, i.e., a negative effect on
1772 primary productivity temporal variation ($P = 0.0043$, Fig. 4). Thus, increased species
1773 richness insured more even productivity across the sampling events, with more unstable
1774 primary productivity in the less rich and less productive communities.

1775

1776 Discussion

1777 Here we show that species diversity affected ecological stability, but the effects
1778 were of opposite signs depending on whether we considered the community (species
1779 temporal variation) or the ecosystem (primary productivity) level. Richness manipulation
1780 by species removals allowed us to simulate communities with less species with little
1781 effect on plant identity, functional group composition, dominance and density (Appendix
1782 II). The effect of richness on processes and stability could be perceived beyond the
1783 simple effect of plant tissue removed and disturbance, as we controlled for those effects
1784 using removed biomass as a proxy for such effects.

1785 The main effect we observed of species richness on stability at the level of plant
1786 community was on species extinction. As we hypothesised, richer communities
1787 underwent more extinction records, which suggest no effect of increasing species
1788 competition. The reduced number of species in the communities in which richness was
1789 experimentally reduced may have decreased the probability of competitive exclusion.
1790 Also, the decrease in species richness maintained dominant /subordinate original
1791 structure, but as most species in the natural communities are subordinate (Magurran &
1792 Henderson 2003; Begon et al. 2007), richness reduction affected mostly those species.
1793 Such decrease in dominant/subordinate species ratio might decrease local extinctions on
1794 poorer communities, as subordinate species are more likely to become locally extinct in a
1795 given community (Appendix III).

1796 Another aspect of stability the community level that we assessed in the present
1797 study was the vulnerability to new species colonization. Communities with more species
1798 were more likely to be colonised (Fig. 1); in other words, richer communities were less
1799 stable in terms of species composition. This result is extremely important when
1800 considering the vulnerability of communities under invasive species threat. Habitat
1801 susceptibility to invasion can be an inherent characteristic of the community (Levine et
1802 al. 2004). Exotic species migrating to a new environment will have no change (at least
1803 immediately) in their traits and thus in the way they relate to other species. Individuals of
1804 any nature colonizing a new environment go through the same constrains, being
1805 subjected to the same ecological rules, no matter if exotic or native (Hoffmann &
1806 Courchamp 2016). Positive diversity-invasion relationship was already reported (Moles
1807 et al. 2012), but this trend is usually related to habitat requirements allowing more species

1808 to survive, including exotics (Levine & D'Antonio 1999). Here we artificially modified
1809 species richness, maintaining original soil resources and natural disturbance regime, and
1810 statistically controlling for the natural variation of species richness among nesting plots,
1811 thus the positive relationship between richness and colonisations is also related to
1812 community intrinsic relationships, not only abiotic conditions.

1813 Higher species colonization rates in richer communities might be also related to
1814 reduced competition following the higher rate of extinction in richer communities (Fig.
1815 2). High rates of competition may not allow all species in the community to thrive,
1816 decreasing each species' competitive capacity (Fig. 5). Alternatively, community
1817 turnover, described by colonisation and extinction rates, can be following the "carrousel
1818 model" (Maarel & Sykes 1993), that explains as species mobility the high small-scale
1819 appearance and disappearance of species across successive surveys in nearby permanent
1820 plots.

1821 In terms of ecosystem process, communities with higher diversity produced more
1822 biomass and which was more evenly distributed in time. Diversity is known to be linked
1823 with primary productivity (Fraser et al. 2015), but causal relations are complex. With our
1824 experiment we could, in fact, say that diversity is affecting productivity, and not the
1825 opposite. As in the beginning of the experiment communities within each nesting main
1826 plot had the number of species that the resources allowed, once the species diversity was
1827 artificially reduced in some subplots, trends in primary productivity express purely the
1828 effect of diversity manipulation. This is valid assuming the statistical control of removed
1829 biomass efficiently controlled for the effect of disturbance and considering that the
1830 analyses used the residuals after removing nesting plot means. Stability at the ecosystem

1831 level is here represented by primary productivity temporal variation (Fig. 4). Higher
1832 evenness in primary productivity in rich communities can be explained by niche
1833 complementarity (Loreau 2000; Isbell et al. 2011). Diverse communities explore
1834 resources more efficiently, since the different species on it have distinct requirements and
1835 acquisition strategies, while communities with less species may lack on specific forms of
1836 such acquisition strategies (Chapin et al. 2000; Díaz & Cabido 2001; Tilman et al. 2012).
1837 For this reason, also, we could observe a higher biomass productivity (Roscher et al.
1838 2012) (Fig. 3).

1839 The relationship between biodiversity and stability can present opposite trends in
1840 different levels of organization. Richer communities are more dynamic, thus, more
1841 unstable regarding some community aspects (colonization and extinction). This
1842 “plasticity” can be contributing to ecosystem stability. In richer communities, the
1843 ecosystem primary productivity process is more stable. Poor communities, dominated by
1844 few, mostly thriving dominant species, not distressed by competition, do not allow new
1845 colonizers, and this could be detrimental for community possibility to adaptation to new
1846 conditions. Avoiding colonization and maintaining static species pool may refrain
1847 ecosystem stability (by adaptation) under adversities.

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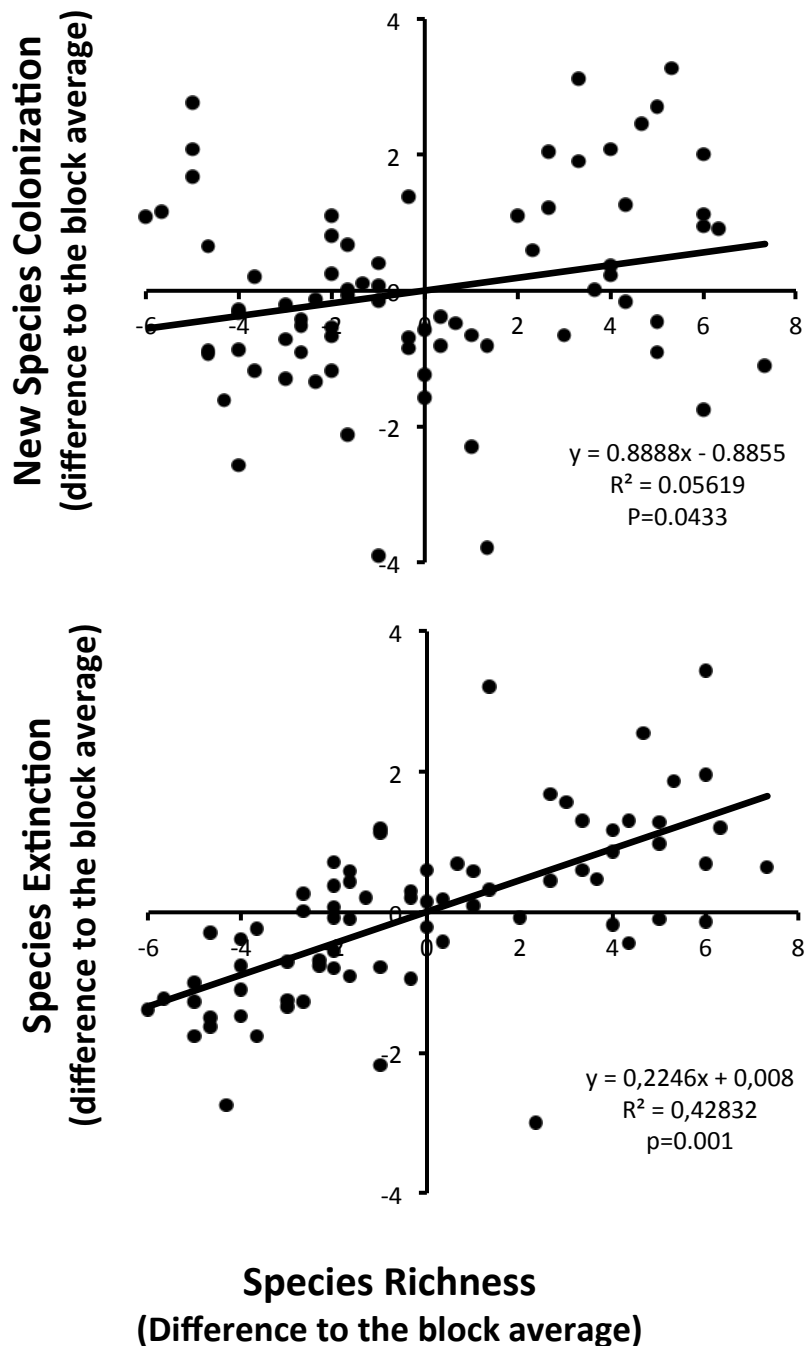
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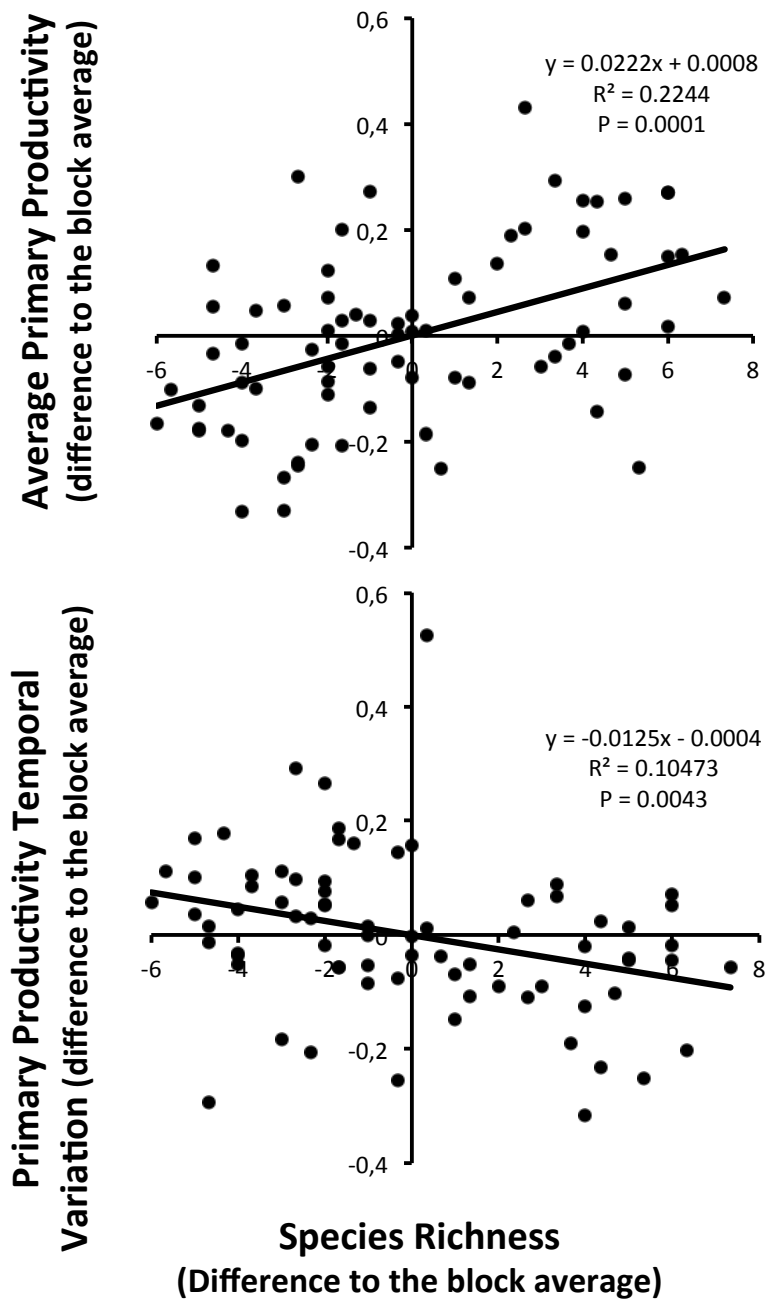
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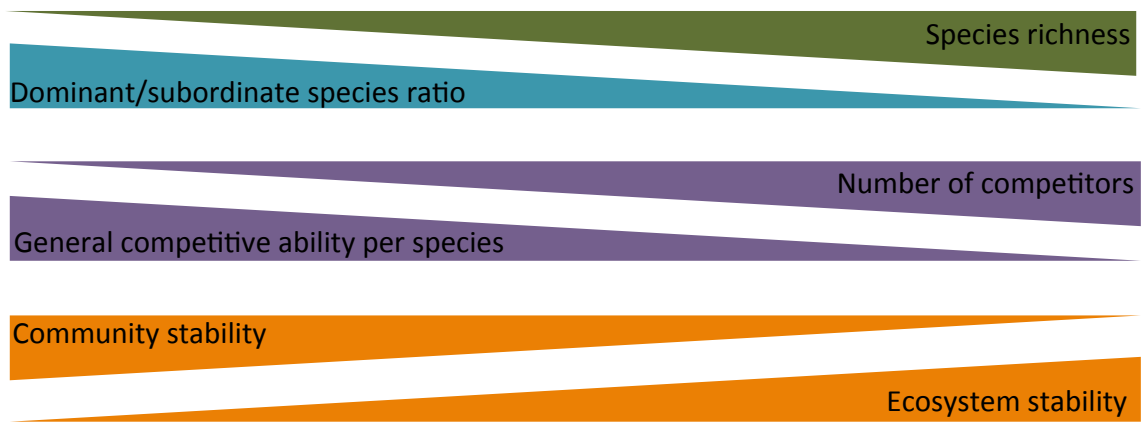
1930

1931 **Figure 1.** Effect of experimentally manipulated species richness on stability at the
 1932 community level. **a)** New species colonization, and **b)** Extinction was recorded based on
 1933 repeated surveys of community composition (presence-absence) during ca. 22 months
 1934 and averaged across surveys. The analysis used residuals after adjusting a linear
 1935 regression of species extinction on the total removed biomass. Further, both axes
 1936 represent the residuals after subtracting the nesting plot mean.



1937

1938 **Figure 2.** Effect of experimentally manipulated species richness on **a)** average primary
 1939 productivity and **b)** temporal variation (coefficient of variation). The analysis used
 1940 residuals after adjusting a linear regression on removed biomass right before each
 1941 evaluation period for primary productivity (seven periods in total during two years)).
 1942 Further, both axes represent the residuals after subtracting the nesting plot mean.



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Figure 3. Scheme of the main theoretical effects of richness on community structure (dominant/subordinate richness) and competition patterns, and the outcomes we found on community stability (colonization and extinctions) and ecosystem (primary productivity temporal evenness).

1949

Considerações finais

1950

1951 O estudo da estabilidade ecológica é chave no contexto das mudanças climáticas
1952 globais e da crise de conservação da biodiversidade para conhecer como ecossistemas
1953 naturais e seminaturais podem responder a distúrbios e seguirem provendo funções e
1954 serviços ecossistêmicos cruciais, tais como manutenção de ciclos biogeoquímicos,
1955 estoques de água e de carbono, e produtividade primária. Nesta tese espero ter
1956 contribuído para a compreensão da estabilidade ecológica ao estudar mudanças nas
1957 funções e características de comunidades vegetais e ecossistemas após distúrbios
1958 relacionados ao clima (Capítulos 1 e 2) e ao longo do tempo (Capítulo 3).

1959 Além dos resultados encontrados, a tese oferece inovações conceituais e
1960 metodológicas. Destaco o uso de experimentos com manipulação de comunidades, os
1961 quais podem contribuir para a compreensão de sistemas complexos como os que
1962 estudamos. Além do trabalho com comunidades artificiais (Capítulo 1), desenvolvemos
1963 uma nova metodologia de manipulação de comunidades baseada em remoções de
1964 espécies minimizando alterações e viés quanto à composição de espécies, grupos
1965 funcionais e estrutura de dominância (Capítulo 3). Em se falando em experimentação
1966 inovadora, este foi o primeiro estudo a usar o método dos interceptadores de chuva
1967 (*rainout-shelters*, Yahdjian & Sala 2002; Gherardi & Sala 2013) no bioma Pampa
1968 brasileiro. Foi bastante difícil a manutenção do experimento, já que esse era de longa
1969 duração e o método ainda precisava ser aprimorado para as condições ambientais locais.
1970 Sugestões para futuros estudos incluem uma investigação mais profunda dos efeitos dos

1971 interceptadores no solo e no microambiente sob o telhado de acrílico. Isso inclui a
1972 necessidade de avaliar a dinâmica de nitrogênio e o registro permanente de umidade do
1973 solo em múltiplas profundidades, bem como o acompanhamento do possível efeito das
1974 calhas de acrílico na luz solar recebida pela comunidade de plantas. Além disso, para a
1975 avaliação do efeito nas comunidades de plantas, proponho a mensuração de variação
1976 intraespecífica de atributos funcionais e a inclusão de atributos de raízes, uma vez que
1977 esses são os mais relacionados às variáveis de solo.

1978 Em referência a atributos funcionais, outra novidade aqui apresentada é o uso de
1979 eixos de variação de atributos (Capítulo 1, Fischer et al. 2016; Diaz et al. 2016). Essa
1980 abordagem possibilita um retrato mais realista da variação entre espécies em termos de
1981 atributos e, assim, da composição funcional das comunidades. Embora a vasta maioria
1982 dos autores ainda analise atributos de forma independente (como no Capítulo 2), sabemos
1983 que os atributos não são disjuntos num organismo. Eles representam todo um espectro de
1984 variação de estratégias de investimento (*trade-offs*), mesmo que não consigamos
1985 identificar (como ocorreu no Capítulo 2, em que não foi possível estabelecer eixos
1986 independentes com explicação significativa). Portanto, há diversos atributos que são
1987 correlacionados, fazendo com que certas combinações de estados ou valores desses
1988 atributos sejam encontradas com maior frequência enquanto outras são praticamente
1989 inexistentes. Sendo assim, identificar eixos independentes de variação em vez de
1990 atributos isolados deve ser a forma mais adequada de trabalhar em ecologia funcional no
1991 futuro. Considero Diaz et al (2016) um marco para que atributos sejam vistos como
1992 indicativos de variação de estratégias de investimento e que a correlação entre eles não
1993 seja mais negligenciada na literatura.

1994 Quanto aos resultados encontrados nesse estudo, destaco que o Capítulo 1 foi o
1995 primeiro a reportar relação negativa entre diversidade funcional e estabilidade (e a
1996 explicar o porquê). Isso me instigou a questionar a base conceitual empregada no estudo
1997 de estabilidade ecológica. Tal base conceitual é tão vasta quanto o número de aspectos
1998 ecológicos envolvidos. Também, não há um consenso na terminologia e diversos autores
1999 acabam usando um mesmo termo para designar propriedades distintas e vários termos
2000 para a mesma propriedade (i.e., resistência, resiliência, elasticidade, recuperação e até o
2001 próprio termo estabilidade; Grimm & Wissel 1997).

2002 Além disso, ao contrário do que era regra em trabalhos clássicos sobre
2003 estabilidade ecossistêmica, hoje há trabalhos reportando variação positiva dos processos
2004 avaliados em relação à linha de base. E, como basicamente os conceitos e cálculos de
2005 estabilidade têm sido baseados nessa visão clássica, que apenas considera diminuição de
2006 processo (e.g., produção primária) após distúrbios, uma base conceitual unificada, com
2007 conceitos matematicamente descritos, é primordial. Um passo nessa direção foi dado por
2008 Isbell et al. (2015), que propõe o cálculo de índices de estabilidade (resistência e
2009 resiliência) baseado em valores absolutos (módulo) da diferença pré/pós-distúrbio no
2010 processo ecossistêmico avaliado. Este método permite estudar estabilidade de processos
2011 em ambos os casos, quando há um aumento ou quando há diminuição em relação à linha
2012 de base. Porém, usando valores de módulo, este método acaba confundindo tendências
2013 provenientes de diferentes padrões de respostas; tanto desvios positivos quanto negativos
2014 em relação à linha de base acabam sendo interpretados como “instabilidade”. Isso torna a
2015 interpretação dos resultados praticamente impossível sem a inclusão de outras medidas

2016 baseadas em valores não transformados em módulo. Por isso, no Capítulo 1 incluímos
2017 essas medidas, as quais avançam além do proposto por Isbell et al. (2015).

2018 Outra contribuição desta tese em relação à problemática dos conceitos em
2019 estabilidade foi o uso de medidas de estabilidade considerando dois níveis de organização
2020 do sistema ecológico. Nos Capítulos 2 e 3 foram avaliadas oscilações em parâmetros da
2021 comunidade (composição, colonização e extinção de espécies) e processos ecossistêmicos
2022 (produtividade primária, detritivoria). Com isso ficou evidente que esses dois níveis são
2023 interdependentes; a estabilidade no processo ecossistêmico ocorre em detrimento da
2024 instabilidade na comunidade. Tal aspecto poderia ser denominado “adaptação” (sugestão
2025 pessoal), e geralmente é negligenciado. Por exemplo, no Capítulo 1, após o evento de
2026 inundação, poderia ser testado como métricas da comunidade variaram e se a
2027 continuidade da biomassa foi garantida às custas de alguma extinção ou variação na
2028 dominância da comunidade. Portanto, um estudo profundo da estabilidade ecológica
2029 deveria compreender os diversos componentes do sistema, incluindo características
2030 intrínsecas da comunidade, a sua variação e como ela este conectada com os processos
2031 avaliados.

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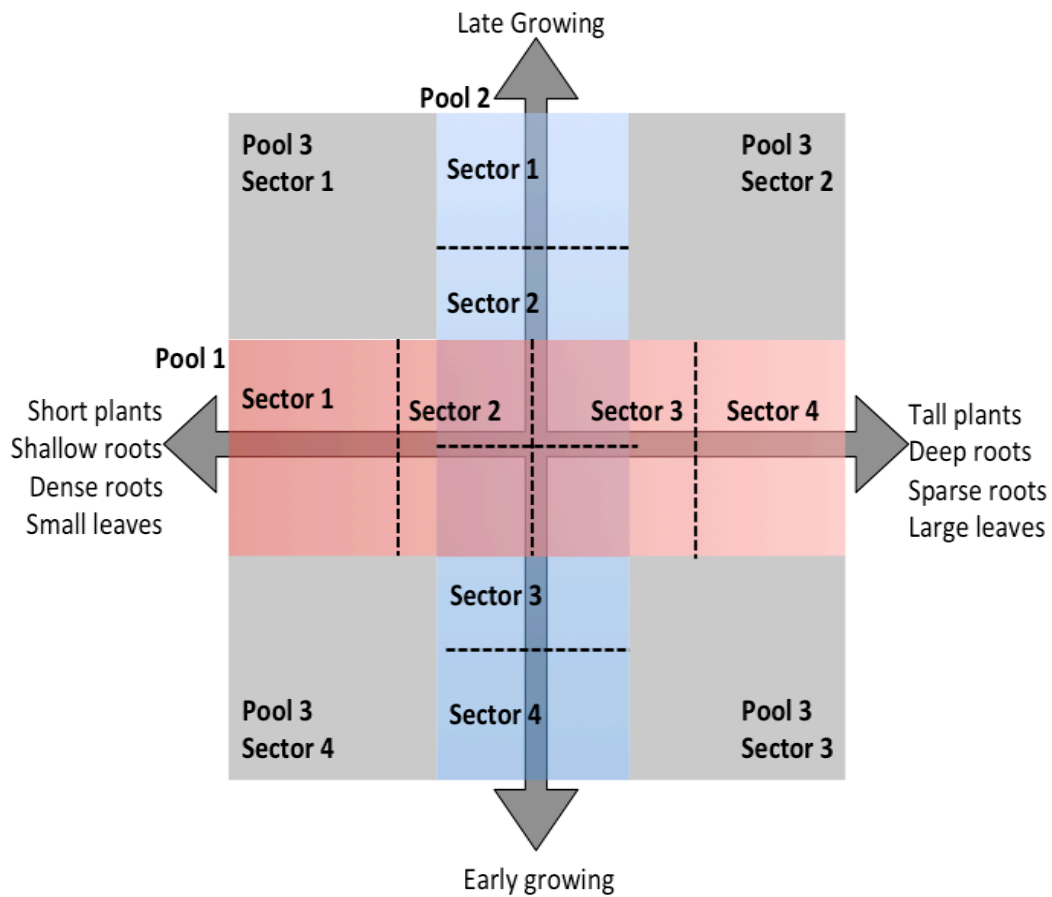
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2065 **Anexos**

2066 **Capítulo 1**

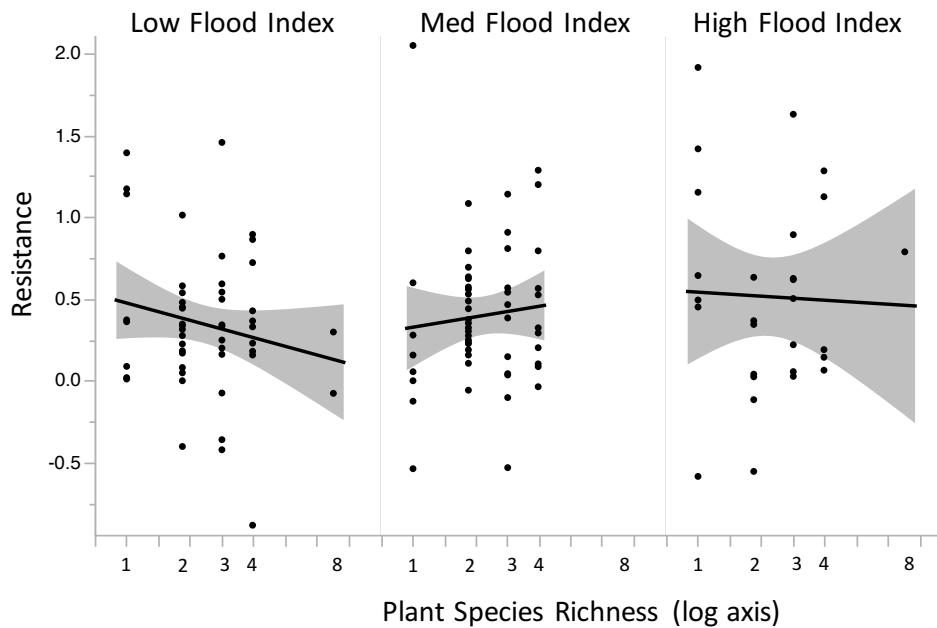
2067 Figure S1: Scheme indicating how PCA analyses were used in the establishment of this
2068 experiment. The PCA identified two primary axes of variation within our species pool:
2069 variation in spatial resource acquisition (Pool 1, horizontal axis) and variation in temporal
2070 resource acquisition (Pool 2, vertical axis). Pool 3 was established to include those
2071 species that demonstrated extreme combinations of both pool 1 and pool 2 (e.g. pool 3,
2072 sector 1 included species with the earliest growth and flowering and those species with
2073 the most extreme investment belowground. Reproduced from Ebeling, A. et al. 2014 A
2074 trait-based experimental approach to understand the mechanisms underlying biodiversity
2075 – ecosystem functioning relationships. *Basic Appl. Ecol.* **15**, 229–240.



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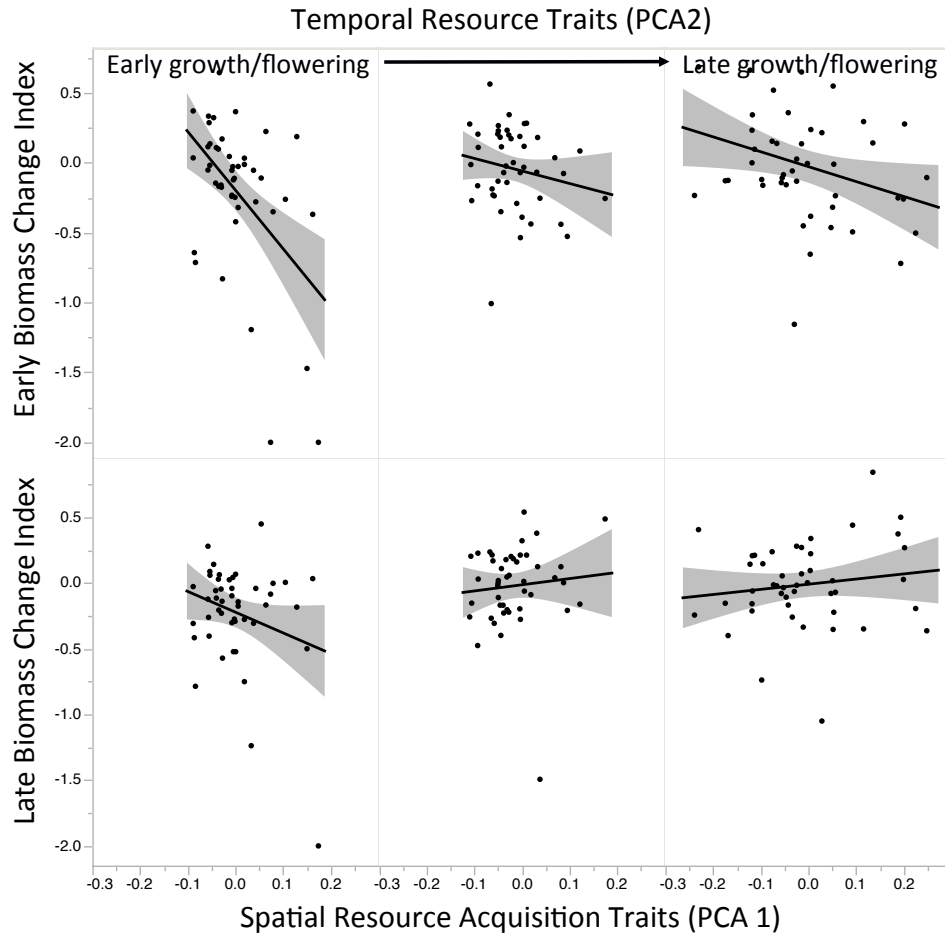
2078 Figure S2: The effect of community species richness on resistance following the
2079 disturbance (July 2013). The plots shown here in the low flood index category
2080 experienced 8-9.25 days of whole-plot flooding. The intermediate flood index plots
2081 experienced 9.5-9.75 days of whole-plot flooding. The high flood index plots experienced
2082 10-12 days of whole-plot flooding. The division of flooding index into three bins is done
2083 for display purposes only; all analyses are based on continuous variation. Shaded areas
2084 represent 95% confidence intervals ($P=0.007$).



2085

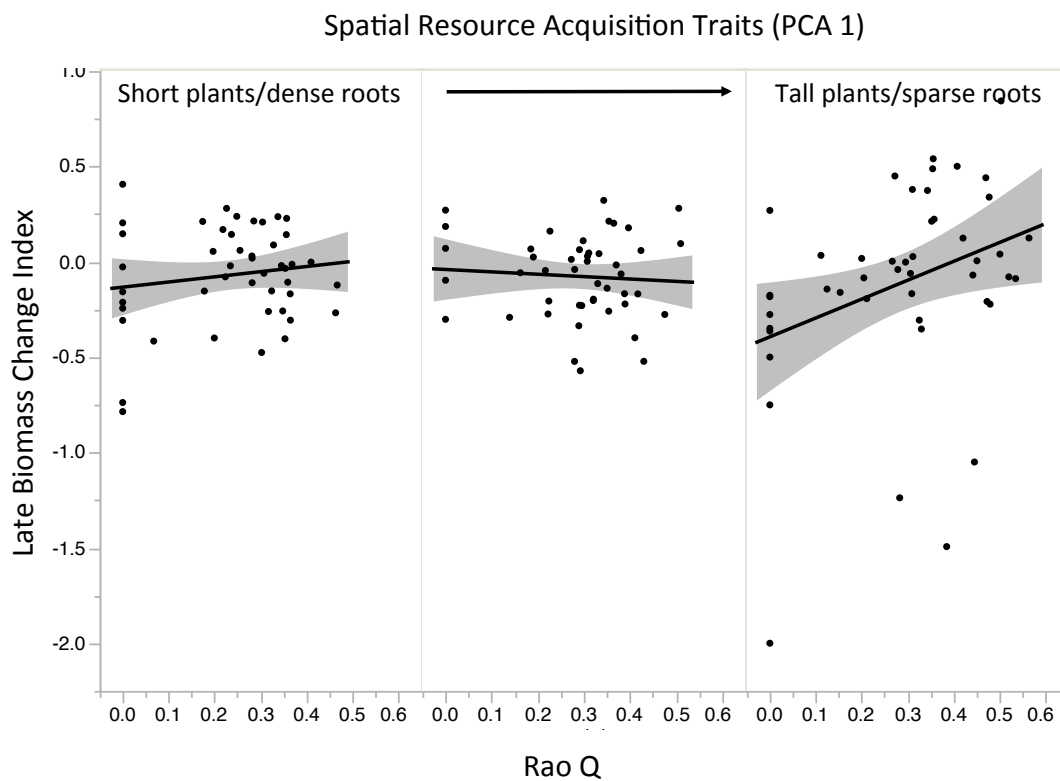
2086

2087 Figure S3: The effect of temporal resource acquisition traits (PCA1) changed depending
2088 on whether the plots were also dominated by early growth/flowering species vs. late
2089 growth and flowering species (PCA2). Shaded areas represent 95% confidence intervals
2090 (P=0.003 and 0.011 for the two interactions respectively).



2091

2092 Figure S4: The interaction between Rao Quadratic Entropy and PCA 1. Rao had a
2093 positive effect on the late biomass change index, but only in plots dominated by tall
2094 plants with sparse roots. Shaded areas represent 95% confidence intervals (P=0.001).



2095

2096 Table S1: Allocation of species in each pool and sector, defined by the placement in the
 2097 functional traits ordination space. Reproduced with permission from Ebeling, A. et al.
 2098 2014 A trait-based experimental approach to understand the mechanisms underlying
 2099 biodiversity – ecosystem functioning relationships. *Basic Appl. Ecol.* **15**, 229–240.

2100

Pools	Sector 1	Sector 2	Sector 3	Sector 4
Pool 1	<i>Festuca rubra</i>	<i>Avenula pubescens</i>	<i>Leucanthemum vulgare</i>	<i>Centaurea jacea</i>
	<i>Poa pratensis</i>	<i>Phleum pratense</i>	<i>Plantago lanceolata</i>	<i>Knautia arvensis</i>
Pool 2	<i>Holcus lanatus</i>	<i>Phleum pratense</i>	<i>Dactylis glomerata</i>	<i>Anthoxanthum odoratum</i>
	<i>Geranium pratense</i>	<i>Plantago lanceolata</i>	<i>Leucanthemum vulgare</i>	<i>Ranunculus acris</i>
Pool 3	<i>Prunella vulgaris</i>	<i>Cirsium oleraceum</i>	<i>Anthriscus sylvestris</i>	<i>Anthoxanthum odoratum</i>
	<i>Veronica chamaedrys</i>	<i>Sanguisorba officinalis</i>	<i>Rumex acetosa</i>	<i>Glechoma hederacea</i>

2101

2102

2103

2104 Table S2: List of plant functional traits used to build the PCA ordination for the Trait
2105 Based Experiment (TBE). Trait correlations with the two first axis of the ordination are
2106 informed for each trait. Reproduced with permission from Ebeling, A. et al. 2014 A trait-
2107 based experimental approach to understand the mechanisms underlying biodiversity –
2108 ecosystem functioning relationships. *Basic Appl. Ecol.* **15**, 229–240.

Plant trait	Loadings PC1	Loadings PC2
Plant height	0.47	0.27
Leaf area	0.74	0.43
Growth starting date	0.20	0.85
Flowering starting date	0.01	0.90
Rooting depth	0.83	0.13
Root length density	-0.78	0.24

2109

2110

2111 Table S3: Data for all variables used in the analyses, organized on a per-plot basis: block;
 2112 flood index (flood); pool; Rao quadratic entropy calculated for species scores on the PCA
 2113 ordination (RaoQ); community means of scores on the PCA ordination axis 1 and 2
 2114 (CMS_1 and CMS_2); resistance (resist); resilience (resil.); early and late biomass
 2115 change indices (early_ch and late_ch).

plot	block	flood	pool	RaoQ	CMS_1	CMS_2	log_psr	resist	resil	early_ch	late_ch
B0BA001	1	8.75	1	0.389	-0.027	0.001	0.602	0.246	0.281	0.198	-0.221
B0BA002	1	10.00	1	0.174	-0.113	0.043	0.477	0.624	0.361	0.096	0.212
B0BA003	1	11.00	2	0.292	-0.027	-0.089	0.699	0.064	0.011	-0.831	-0.571
B0BA004	1	10.25	3	0.386	0.038	0.032	0.477	0.344	-0.331	-0.254	-1.493
B0BA005	1	8.75	2	0.351	-0.028	-0.024	0.699	0.329	0.290	0.170	-0.138
B0BA006	1	8.25	3	0.358	0.005	0.159	0.477	0.225	0.135	-0.383	0.223
B0BA007	1	8.25	2	0.321	-0.004	0.021	0.477	0.276	0.146	0.188	-0.196
B0BA008	1	8.75	2	0.224	-0.057	0.075	0.477	0.537	-0.274	-0.143	-0.079
B0BA009	1	11.75	2	0.000	0.019	-0.062	0.301	1.416	-1.129	-0.012	-0.276
B0BA010	1	10.00	1	0.356	0.005	0.032	0.699	0.524	-0.414	0.117	0.540
B0BA011	1	9.75	1	0.125	0.006	-0.077	0.477	0.274	-0.044	-0.320	-0.143
B0BA012	1	9.25	3	0.312	0.200	0.042	0.477	0.337	-0.187	-0.260	0.028
B0BA013	1	8.75	1	0.205	0.074	-0.038	0.477	0.000	1.158	-2.000	-0.084
B0BA014	1	8.75	3	0.355	0.176	0.031	0.602	0.342	-0.148	-0.256	0.488
B0BA015	1	8.50	3	0.000	-0.239	0.153	0.301	0.369	-0.117	-0.235	-0.243
B0BA016	1	10.50	2	0.000	0.006	-0.146	0.301	1.151	-0.513	-0.027	-0.175
B0BA017	1	10.75	2	0.360	-0.047	0.062	0.602	0.502	-0.292	-0.158	-0.107
B0BA018	1	11.00	2	0.417	-0.040	-0.001	0.954	0.787	-0.525	-0.072	-0.168
B0BA019	1	9.25	3	0.452	0.105	-0.022	0.602	0.335	-0.086	-0.262	0.005
B0BA020	1	8.25	1	0.000	0.116	0.054	0.301	0.019	0.093	0.294	-0.349
B0BA021	1	8.25	2	0.338	-0.067	0.003	0.602	-0.421	1.099	0.562	0.237

B0BA022	1	8.75	3	0.200	-0.168	0.160	0.477	0.580	-0.366	-0.127	-0.400
B0BA023	1	10.75	3	0.536	0.019	0.022	0.699	0.190	-0.047	-0.438	-0.088
B0BA024	1	12.00	2	0.222	-0.002	-0.043	0.602	0.625	-0.431	-0.112	-0.274
B0BA025	1	12.00	1	0.349	-0.110	0.036	0.602	0.056	0.210	0.276	-0.258
B0BA026	1	9.75	1	0.178	-0.174	0.085	0.477	0.573	-0.347	-0.129	-0.153
B0BA027	1	9.75	1	0.000	0.129	-0.014	0.301	0.279	0.490	0.186	-0.183
B0BA028	1	9.50	2	0.256	-0.053	-0.058	0.477	0.450	-0.358	0.135	0.060
B0BA029	1	8.50	3	0.000	-0.088	-0.139	0.301	1.141	-0.486	0.034	-0.027
B0BA030	1	8.50	1	0.310	0.064	-0.028	0.699	0.180	0.122	0.223	-0.167
B0BA031	1	9.50	3	0.430	-0.004	-0.025	0.602	0.592	-0.521	-0.123	-0.522
B0BA032	1	11.00	3	0.476	-0.003	0.034	0.699	0.143	-0.061	-0.536	-0.276
B0BA033	1	11.00	1	0.307	-0.002	0.043	0.602	1.628	-1.130	-0.006	0.003
B0BA034	1	11.00	3	0.280	-0.007	-0.124	0.602	0.892	-0.650	-0.055	-0.040
B0BA035	1	9.25	2	0.355	-0.052	0.086	0.699	0.722	-0.316	-0.086	-0.034
B0BA036	1	8.25	3	0.504	0.135	0.047	0.699	0.427	-0.581	0.141	0.844
B0BA037	1	8.00	2	0.217	-0.030	-0.126	0.602	0.497	-0.273	-0.160	-0.045
B0BA038	1	8.50	3	0.279	0.043	-0.121	0.477	0.314	-0.120	-0.280	-0.040
B0BA039	1	10.25	1	0.308	-0.035	-0.021	0.602	0.618	-0.063	0.097	0.030
B0BA040	1	12.00	2	0.000	-0.096	0.126	0.301	0.493	-0.030	-0.162	0.147
B0BA041	1	12.00	3	0.464	-0.065	-0.004	0.477	0.040	0.107	-1.008	-0.267
B0BA042	1	10.00	1	0.153	0.122	0.020	0.477	0.693	-0.326	0.084	-0.160
B0BA043	1	9.25	1	0.000	0.019	-0.062	0.301	1.172	-1.121	0.032	-0.750
B0BA044	1	9.00	2	0.224	-0.035	-0.100	0.477	0.479	-0.320	-0.169	-0.206
B0BA045	1	8.50	1	0.305	-0.118	0.061	0.699	-0.882	1.043	0.936	0.208
B0BA046	1	8.50	2	0.286	-0.063	-0.001	0.477	0.443	-0.028	-0.188	0.214
B0BB047	2	9.50	3	0.480	0.053	0.079	0.602	1.456	-1.173	-0.011	-0.222
B0BB048	2	9.50	2	0.000	-0.007	-0.092	0.301	0.361	-0.269	-0.241	-0.302
B0BB049	2	9.75	2	0.365	-0.046	-0.013	0.699	0.292	-0.029	0.182	-0.168

B0BB050	2	9.75	3	0.303	-0.093	0.014	0.477	0.487	-0.254	-0.165	-0.475
B0BB051	2	9.25	2	0.320	-0.031	-0.010	0.699	0.157	0.118	0.232	-0.203
B0BB052	2	8.75	3	0.326	0.038	-0.119	0.699	0.894	-0.403	-0.054	-0.306
B0BB053	2	8.75	1	0.267	0.088	-0.007	0.602	0.761	2.574	-0.077	0.003
B0BB054	2	9.50	2	0.282	-0.050	0.014	0.477	0.169	1.236	0.227	0.019
B0BB055	2	9.75	3	0.474	0.096	0.011	0.602	0.147	0.729	-0.527	-0.208
B0BB056	2	9.75	2	0.397	-0.033	0.010	0.699	1.198	-0.754	-0.024	0.178
B0BB057	2	9.75	1	0.411	-0.050	0.024	0.699	0.564	-0.154	-0.132	-0.002
B0BB058	2	9.75	2	0.354	-0.055	-0.025	0.602	0.035	0.253	0.286	-0.404
B0BB059	2	9.75	1	0.000	-0.118	0.090	0.301	0.157	0.105	0.232	-0.157
B0BB060	2	9.75	2	0.000	-0.088	-0.139	0.301	-0.125	0.292	0.370	-0.307
B0BB061	2	9.75	3	0.411	-0.044	0.036	0.477	0.249	-0.128	-0.351	-0.398
B0BB062	2	9.75	2	0.291	-0.033	-0.087	0.602	-0.531	0.751	0.644	0.064
B0BB063	2	9.75	3	0.068	-0.086	-0.145	0.477	0.106	0.253	-0.643	-0.416
B0BB064	2	9.75	1	0.000	-0.014	0.077	0.301	-0.537	0.702	0.649	0.271
B0BB065	2	9.75	2	0.330	-0.040	-0.049	0.602	0.567	-0.384	0.107	-0.114
B0BB066	2	9.25	3	0.521	0.047	0.050	0.699	0.176	0.730	-0.464	-0.079
B0BB067	2	9.00	1	0.358	-0.093	0.039	0.699	0.229	0.171	0.204	0.228
B0BB068	2	9.25	3	0.000	-0.084	-0.151	0.301	0.088	0.051	-0.714	-0.785
B0BB069	2	9.25	3	0.330	0.052	0.222	0.477	-0.402	0.667	0.548	-0.352
B0BB070	2	9.75	1	0.325	-0.106	0.009	0.477	0.324	-0.116	-0.271	-0.153
B0BB071	2	9.75	2	0.162	-0.041	-0.143	0.477	0.529	-0.145	-0.146	-0.057
B0BB072	2	9.75	3	0.000	0.202	0.277	0.301	0.055	0.234	0.277	0.269
B0BB073	2	9.25	1	0.424	-0.027	0.016	0.954	-0.077	0.897	0.343	0.059
B0BB074	2	8.75	1	0.307	0.005	0.038	0.477	0.048	0.192	0.280	-0.061
B0BB075	2	8.50	1	0.366	-0.058	0.001	0.699	0.366	-0.261	-0.237	-0.306
B0BB076	2	9.75	3	0.409	0.194	0.064	0.699	0.086	-0.350	-0.721	0.501
B0BB077	2	9.00	1	0.308	-0.117	0.051	0.602	-0.075	0.861	0.342	-0.060

B0BB078	2	9.50	3	0.471	0.093	0.113	0.602	0.161	-0.273	-0.495	0.441
B0BB079	2	9.75	2	0.311	-0.031	0.029	0.602	0.541	0.036	-0.141	0.046
B0BB080	2	9.75	2	0.290	-0.038	0.032	0.477	0.793	-0.499	-0.071	-0.228
B0BB081	2	10.00	2	0.197	-0.055	0.157	0.477	0.635	-0.197	-0.109	0.055
B0BB082	2	9.00	1	0.369	-0.073	0.052	0.602	-0.360	0.906	0.519	-0.013
B0BB083	2	9.00	1	0.227	-0.057	-0.048	0.477	0.537	0.311	0.114	0.280
B0BB084	2	8.75	1	0.299	-0.043	-0.006	0.602	0.541	-0.057	0.113	0.110
B0BB085	2	8.75	1	0.000	-0.007	-0.092	0.301	0.372	-0.285	-0.233	-0.097
B0BB086	2	8.50	3	0.280	0.001	-0.131	0.602	0.199	-0.120	-0.423	-0.522
B0BB087	2	9.25	3	0.344	0.188	0.087	0.477	0.346	0.487	-0.252	0.374
B0BB088	2	9.00	1	0.282	-0.050	0.014	0.477	0.081	0.446	0.265	-0.110
B0BB089	2	8.50	3	0.000	0.151	-0.082	0.301	0.010	0.030	-1.472	-0.500
B0BB090	2	8.50	2	0.191	-0.013	-0.034	0.477	1.012	-0.767	0.044	0.025
B0BB091	2	9.50	2	0.289	-0.011	0.048	0.477	0.183	-0.094	-0.452	-0.335
B0BB092	2	9.75	1	0.219	-0.061	0.037	0.477	0.374	0.601	-0.231	0.169
B0BC093	3	9.75	2	0.318	-0.056	-0.028	0.477	-0.058	0.276	0.333	-0.261
B0BC094	3	9.50	1	0.296	0.079	-0.017	0.602	0.248	0.111	-0.351	-0.002
B0BC095	3	10.00	2	0.333	-0.005	-0.017	0.602	1.140	-0.737	-0.028	0.043
B0BC096	3	10.00	3	0.478	0.005	0.101	0.602	0.146	-0.194	0.237	0.339
B0BC097	3	9.75	2	0.000	-0.018	0.023	0.301	2.048	-1.378	0.000	0.185
B0BC098	3	9.50	3	0.565	0.033	0.036	0.954	0.297	0.688	0.180	0.125
B0BC099	3	9.75	1	0.273	0.004	0.025	0.477	1.083	-0.631	-0.033	0.013
B0BC100	3	10.00	1	0.200	0.051	0.066	0.477	0.276	0.125	-0.319	0.018
B0BC101	3	10.00	3	0.468	-0.057	-0.026	0.602	0.906	-0.366	-0.053	-0.122
B0BC102	3	10.00	2	0.235	-0.066	0.139	0.477	0.440	0.092	0.138	-0.021
B0BC103	3	10.00	1	0.354	-0.003	0.009	0.699	0.793	0.804	-0.071	0.213
B0BC104	3	10.00	3	0.510	0.004	0.129	0.699	0.103	0.393	-0.655	0.095
B0BC105	3	10.00	1	0.227	-0.011	-0.007	0.477	0.302	-0.047	-0.291	0.161

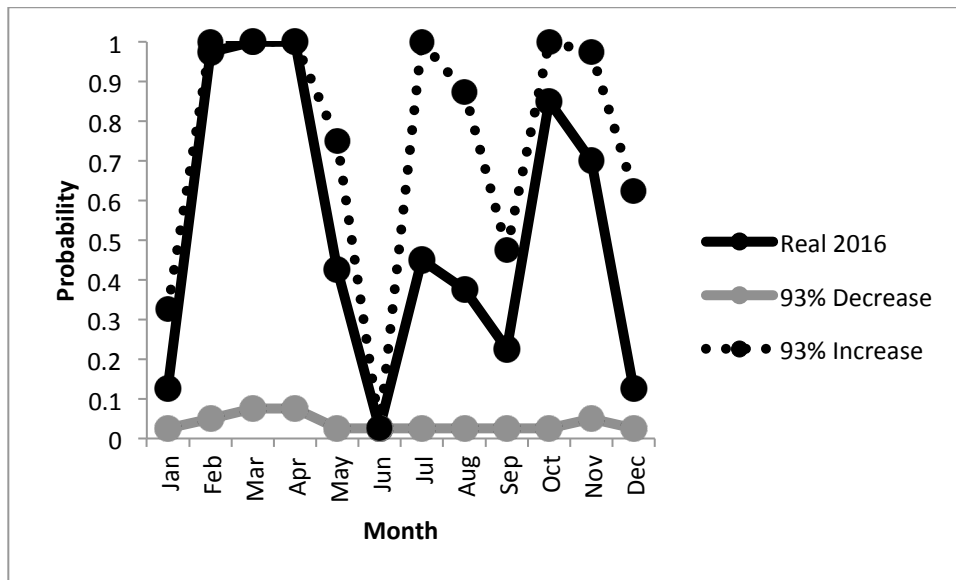
B0BC106	3	11.00	3	0.000	0.249	0.165	0.301	0.643	-0.399	-0.107	-0.363
B0BC107	3	11.00	3	0.381	-0.029	0.162	0.602	0.027	0.326	-1.156	-0.064
B0BC108	3	10.00	2	0.282	-0.092	-0.006	0.477	0.559	-0.166	0.109	0.030
B0BC109	3	9.50	2	0.354	-0.034	0.061	0.699	0.863	-0.682	-0.059	-0.259
B0BC110	3	9.50	1	0.000	-0.108	-0.004	0.301	1.392	-0.686	-0.013	0.204
B0BC111	3	9.75	2	0.370	-0.024	0.040	0.699	1.286	-0.929	0.026	-0.016
B0BC112	3	10.00	3	0.446	0.028	0.190	0.699	0.202	-0.151	0.214	-1.050
B0BC113	3	10.00	1	0.353	0.010	0.005	0.602	0.043	0.728	0.282	0.213
B0BC114	3	10.25	1	0.237	-0.122	0.079	0.477	-0.554	1.072	0.662	0.144
B0BC115	3	10.00	2	0.357	-0.045	-0.064	0.699	-0.036	0.628	0.322	0.143
B0BC116	3	10.00	2	0.296	-0.029	-0.059	0.602	0.465	-0.254	-0.176	-0.229
B0BC117	3	10.00	3	0.000	-0.098	0.166	0.301	0.598	-0.540	-0.120	-0.738
B0BC118	3	10.00	3	0.000	0.174	-0.103	0.301	0.000	0.000	-2.000	-2.000
B0BC119	3	10.00	1	0.365	-0.023	0.020	0.699	0.323	0.085	0.172	0.202
B0BC120	3	10.00	1	0.346	-0.051	0.033	0.477	0.227	0.565	0.205	-0.020
B0BC121	3	11.00	2	0.000	-0.014	0.188	0.301	0.450	-0.231	0.135	0.070
B0BC122	3	11.00	3	0.502	0.070	0.038	0.699	1.124	-0.003	0.035	0.040
B0BC123	3	9.75	3	0.111	0.163	-0.092	0.477	0.234	0.156	-0.369	0.034
B0BC124	3	10.00	3	0.506	-0.025	0.056	0.602	0.564	-0.512	-0.133	0.281
B0BC125	3	9.75	2	0.139	-0.001	-0.119	0.477	0.352	-0.240	-0.248	-0.291
B0BC126	3	9.75	3	0.421	0.082	0.007	0.477	0.189	-0.247	-0.441	0.124
B0BC127	3	10.00	3	0.211	0.225	0.221	0.477	0.157	0.678	-0.504	-0.193
B0BC128	3	10.00	2	0.249	-0.076	0.135	0.602	0.384	0.913	0.153	0.238
B0BC129	3	10.00	1	0.311	0.031	0.013	0.602	0.807	-0.069	-0.068	0.380
B0BC130	3	10.00	2	0.388	-0.042	0.044	0.602	-0.103	0.399	0.357	-0.167
B0BC131	3	11.00	1	0.000	-0.231	0.080	0.301	-0.584	0.391	0.686	0.407
B0BC132	3	11.00	3	0.283	0.033	-0.116	0.477	0.024	-0.017	-1.194	-1.238
B0BC133	3	10.25	2	0.000	-0.118	0.090	0.301	1.913	-1.720	-0.001	-0.212

B0BC134	3	10.25	3	0.443	0.057	0.069	0.477	0.367	0.120	-0.236	-0.070
B0BC135	3	10.25	1	0.273	0.054	-0.019	0.477	0.632	0.703	-0.110	0.450
B0BC136	3	10.25	1	0.329	-0.053	-0.017	0.699	1.282	-0.678	-0.019	0.088
B0BC137	3	10.50	2	0.185	0.001	-0.019	0.477	-0.116	0.443	0.365	0.067
B0BC138	3	10.25	1	0.343	0.000	-0.014	0.602	0.220	0.358	-0.390	0.322

2116

2117

2118 Chapter 2, Appendix I: Evaluation of commonness and rarity of the observed
2119 precipitation levels in the evaluation period. We used a 40-year time series of weather
2120 data collected at the experimental site to calculate the probability of observing a rainfall
2121 amount equal or less than the observed monthly in 2016 (the year of evaluations).
2122 February, March and April 2016 were as rainy as the rainiest same months in the time
2123 series. Therefore, for those months, the probability of observing a 93% increase in
2124 rainfall was as rare as the actual rainfall. However, for every month in 2016 the
2125 probability of observing a 93% decrease in rainfall was less than 10%, even in the rainiest
2126 months.

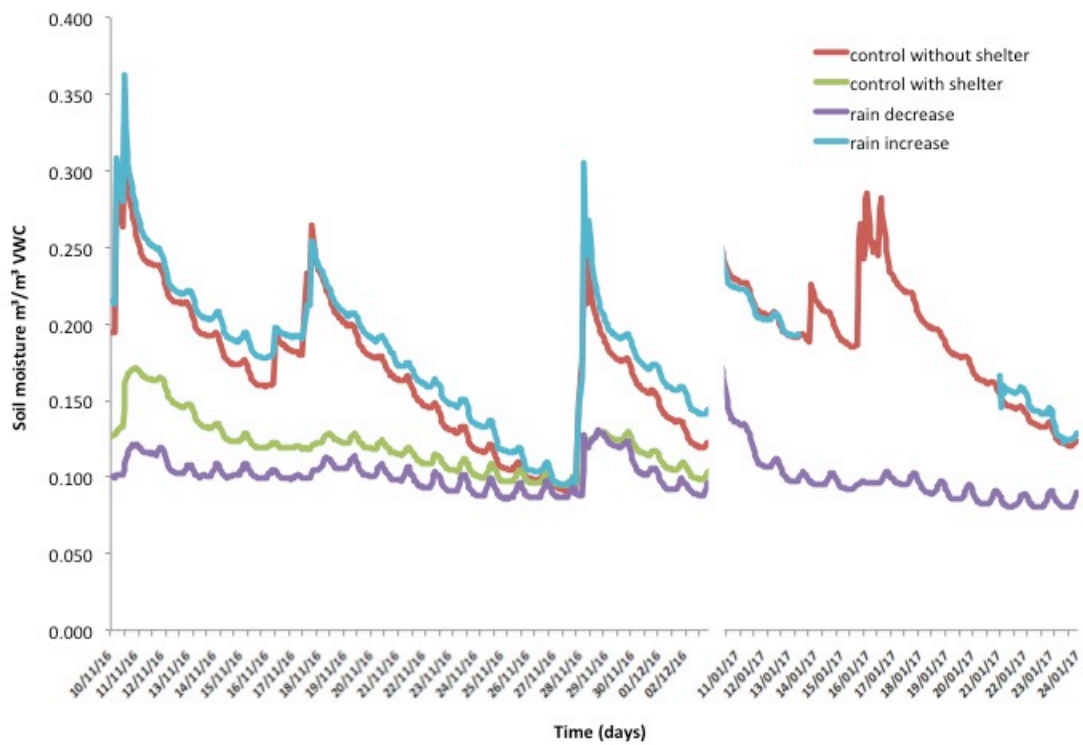


2127

2128 **Figure S1:** Monthly probability of observing in the 40-year time series of the study area
2129 rainfall amounts equal or less than the observed during 2016. The depicted lines represent
2130 the actual rainfall in 2016 and the projections of increase and decrease under rainfall
2131 manipulation treatments (+93% and -93%, respectively).

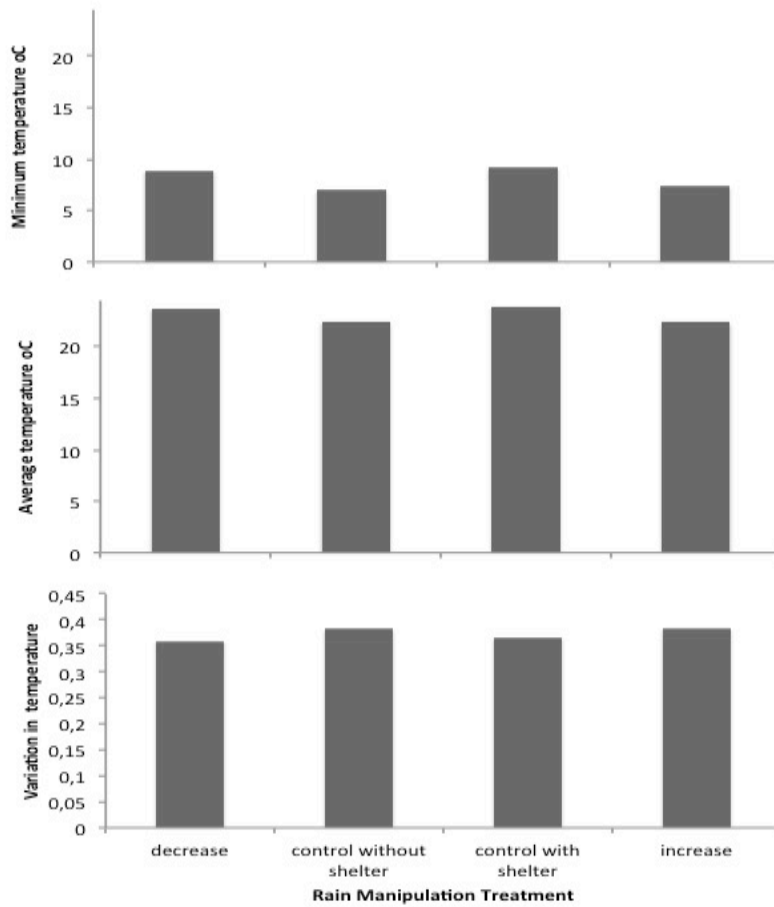
2132 Chapter 2, Appendix II: Monitoring of air temperature and soil moisture in the
2133 experimental plots during part of the evaluation period.

2134 To evaluate how rainfall treatments affected environmental variables, we installed, during
2135 November and December 2016, data loggers to collect data on soil moisture (one block
2136 only) and soil superficial air temperature (in two blocks only). We observed that, as
2137 expected, the treatments without shelter (rainfall increase and control without shelter),
2138 presented higher values of soil moisture (Appendix II), but soil moisture was much lower
2139 than the control plots under rainfall interception than rain increase was higher than
2140 control without shelter. Multiple contrasts of soil superficial air temperature were only
2141 significant, based on permutation ANOVA, between plots under shelters (decrease and
2142 control with shelter) and plots in open air (increase and control without shelter) for
2143 minimum temperature ($P = 0.026$), average temperature ($P = 0.032$) and temperature
2144 coefficient of variation ($P = 0.025$) (Fig. 2). Plots under shelter presented comparatively
2145 higher minimum and average temperatures and lower variation in temperature during the
2146 evaluation period. This shows that for these variables there is an effect of the shelter on
2147 abiotic conditions in addition to rainfall interception.



2148
 2149 **Figure S2:** Soil moisture variation in four experimental plots under different rain
 2150 manipulation treatments. Peaks represent rain events during the evaluation period.

2151



2152

2153 **Figure S3:** Soil superficial air temperature from November 7 to December 2, 2016.

2154 Multiple contrasts are only significant between plots under shelters (decrease and control

2155 with shelter) and plots in open-air (increase and control without shelter) shows significant

2156 differences between those groups for minimum temperature ($P = 0.026$), average

2157 temperature ($P = 0.032$) and temperature coefficient of variation ($P = 0.025$).

2158

Species name	Author	Family
<i>Abildgaardia ovata</i>	(L.) Vahl	Cyperaceae
<i>Allium sp</i>	-	Amaryllidaceae
<i>Andropogon lateralis</i>	Nees	Poaceae
<i>Aristida venustula</i>	Arechav.	Poaceae
<i>Aspilia montevidensis</i>	(Spreng.) Kuntze	Asteraceae
<i>Axonopus affinis</i>	Chase	Poaceae
<i>Baccharis trimera</i>	(Less.) DC.	Asteraceae
<i>Borreria eryngioides</i>	Cham. & Schltl.	Rubiaceae
<i>Briza subaristata</i>	Lam.	Poaceae
<i>Campomanesia aurea</i>	O.Berg	Myrtaceae
<i>Cardamine chenopodifolia</i>	Pers.	Brassicaceae
<i>Carex phalaroides</i>	Kunth	Cyperaceae
<i>Centella asiatica</i>	(L.) Urb.	Apiaceae
<i>Cerastium glomeratum</i>	Thuill.	Caryophyllaceae
<i>Chamaecrista repens</i>	(Vogel) H.S. Irwin & Barneby	Fabaceae
<i>Chaptalia exscapa</i>	(Pers.) Baker	Asteraceae
<i>Chaptalia runcinata</i>	Kunth	Asteraceae
<i>Chaptalia sp 1</i>	-	Asteraceae
<i>Chaptalia sp 2</i>	-	Asteraceae
<i>Chaptalia sp 3</i>	-	Asteraceae
<i>Chaptalia sp 4</i>	-	Asteraceae
<i>Chaptalia sp 5</i>	-	Asteraceae
<i>Chaptalia sp 6</i>	-	Asteraceae
<i>Chaptalia sp 7</i>	-	Asteraceae
<i>Chaptalia sp 8</i>	-	Asteraceae
<i>Chevreulia acuminata</i>	Less.	Asteraceae
<i>Chevreulia sarmentosa</i>	(Pers.) Blake	Asteraceae
<i>Clitoria nana</i>	Benth.	Fabaceae
<i>Conyza bonariensis</i>	(L.) Cronquist	Asteraceae
<i>Conyza primulifolia</i>	(Lam.) Cuatrec. & Lourteig	Asteraceae
<i>Crotalaria sp</i>	-	Fabaceae
<i>Cuphea glutinosa</i>	Cham. & Schltl. (Pers.) Sprague ex Britton & P.	Lythraceae
<i>Cyclospermum leptophyllum</i>	Wilson	Apiaceae
<i>Cyperaceae 1</i>	-	Cyperaceae
<i>Cyperaceae 2</i>	-	Cyperaceae
<i>Cyperaceae 3</i>	-	Cyperaceae
<i>Cyperaceae 4</i>	-	Cyperaceae
<i>Danthonia sp</i>	-	Poaceae

<i>Desmanthus virgatus</i>	(L.) Willd.	Fabaceae
<i>Desmodium incanum</i>	DC.	Fabaceae
<i>Dichantherium sabulorum</i>	(Lam.) Gould & C.A. Clark	Poaceae
<i>Dichondra macrocalyx</i>	Meisn.	Convolvulaceae
<i>Dichondra sericea</i>	Sw.	Convolvulaceae
<i>Digitaria violascens</i>	(L.) Link	Poaceae
<i>Eleocharis viridans</i>	Kük. ex Osten	Cyperaceae
<i>Elephantopus mollis</i>	Kunth	Asteraceae
<i>Eragrostis neesii</i>	Trin.	Poaceae
<i>Eragrostis plana</i>	Nees	Poaceae
<i>Eryngium ciliatum</i>	Cham. & Schltld.	Apiaceae
<i>Eryngium horridum</i>	Malme	Apiaceae
<i>Eupatorium ascendens</i>	Sch. Bip. ex Baker	Asteraceae
<i>Euphorbia selloi</i>	(Klotzsch & Garcke) Boiss.	Euphorbiaceae
<i>Evolvulus sericeus</i>	Sw.	Convolvulaceae
<i>Facelis retusa</i>	(Lam.) Sch. Bip.	Asteraceae
<i>Fimbristylis autumnalis</i>	(L.) Roem. & Schult.	Cyperaceae
<i>Fimbristylis dichotoma</i>	(Retz.) Vahl	Cyperaceae
<i>Galactia gracillima</i>	Benth.	Fabaceae
<i>Galianthe fastigiata</i>	Griseb.	Rubiaceae
<i>Galium hirtum</i>	Lam.	Rubiaceae
<i>Galium richardianum</i>	(Gillies ex Hook. & Arn.) Endl. ex Walp.	Rubiaceae
<i>Gamochaeta americana</i>	(Mill.) Wedd.	Asteraceae
<i>Gamochaeta coarctata</i>	(Willd.) Kerguélen	Asteraceae
<i>Glandularia marrubioides</i>	(Cham.) Tronc.	Verbenaceae
<i>Habenaria parviflora</i>	Lindl.	Orchidaceae
<i>Helianthemum brasiliense</i>	(Lam.) Pers.	Cistaceae
<i>Herbertia pulchella</i>	Sweet	Iridaceae
<i>Hydrocotyle exigua</i>	Malme	Araliaceae
<i>Hypochaeris albiflora</i>	(O.K.) Azevêdo-Gonçalves & Matzenbacher	Asteraceae
<i>Hypoxis decumbens</i>	L.	Hypoxidaceae
<i>Juncus capillaceus</i>	Lam.	Juncaceae
<i>Juncus sp</i>	-	Juncaceae
<i>Justicia axillaris</i>	(Nees) Lindau	Acanthaceae
<i>Juvenil 1</i>		-
<i>Kyllinga odorata</i>	Vahl	Cyperaceae
<i>Mecardonia tenella</i>	(Cham. & Schltld.) Pennell	Plantaginaceae
<i>Micropsis spathulata</i>	(Pers.) Cabrera	Asteraceae
<i>Mnesithea selloana</i>	(Hack.) de Koning & Sosef	Poaceae
<i>NI 1</i>	-	-
<i>NI 10</i>	-	-
<i>NI 11</i>	-	-

<i>NI 12</i>	-	-
<i>NI 13</i>	-	-
<i>NI 2</i>	-	-
<i>NI 3</i>	-	-
<i>NI 4</i>	-	-
<i>NI 5</i>	-	-
<i>NI 6</i>	-	-
<i>NI 7</i>	-	-
<i>NI 8</i>	-	-
<i>NI 9</i>	-	-
<i>Nothoscordum montevidense</i>	Beauverd	Alliaceae
<i>Ophioglossum sp</i>	-	Ophioglossaceae
<i>Orthopappus angustifolius</i>	Gleason	Asteraceae
<i>Oxalis brasiliensis</i>	Lodd.	Oxalidaceae
<i>Oxalis conorrhiza</i>	Jacq.	Oxalidaceae
<i>Oxalis eriocarpa</i>	DC.	Oxalidaceae
<i>Oxalis lasiopetala</i>	Zuccarini	Oxalidaceae
<i>Oxalis perdicaria</i>	(Molina) Bertero	Oxalidaceae
<i>Oxalis sp 1</i>	-	Oxalidaceae
<i>Oxalis sp 2</i>	-	Oxalidaceae
<i>Oxalis sp 3</i>	-	Oxalidaceae
<i>Oxypetalum glomeratum</i>	E. Fourn.	Apocynaceae
<i>Paspalum dilatatum</i>	Poir.	Poaceae
<i>Paspalum leptum</i>	Schult.	Poaceae
<i>Paspalum notatum</i>	Fluegge	Poaceae
<i>Paspalum paucifolium</i>	Swallen	Poaceae
<i>Paspalum plicatulum</i>	Michx.	Poaceae
<i>Paspalum pumilum</i>	Nees	Poaceae
<i>Peltodon longipes</i>	Kunth. ex Benth.	Lamiaceae
<i>Pfaffia tuberosa</i>	(Spreng.) Hicken	Amaranthaceae
<i>Piptochaetium montevidense</i>	(Spreng.) Parodi	Poaceae
<i>Piptochaetium stipoides</i>	(Trin. & Rupr.) Hack.	Poaceae
<i>Piriqueta selloi</i>	Urb.	Passifloraceae
<i>Plantago tomentosa</i>	Lam.	Plantaginaceae
<i>Poaceae 1</i>	-	Poaceae
<i>Poaceae 2</i>	-	Poaceae
<i>Poaceae 3</i>	-	Poaceae
<i>Poaceae 4</i>	-	Poaceae
<i>Polygala australis</i>	A. W. Benn.	Polygalaceae
<i>Pomaria stipularis</i>	(Vogel) B.B.Simpson & G.P.Lewis;	Fabaceae
<i>Psidium salutare var. mucronatum</i>	(Cambess.) Landrum	Myrtaceae
<i>Pterocaulon angustifolium</i>	DC.	Asteraceae

<i>Rhynchospora sp</i>	-	Cyperaceae
<i>Richardia grandiflora</i>	(Cham. & Schltld.) Steud.	Rubiaceae
<i>Richardia humistrata</i>	(Cham. et Schlecht.) Steud.	Rubiaceae
<i>Ruellia hypericoides</i>	(Nees) Lindau	Acanthaceae
<i>Ruellia morongii</i>	Britton	Acanthaceae
<i>Scutellaria racemosa</i>	Pers.	Lamiaceae
<i>Senecio brasiliensis</i>	(Spreng.) Less.	Asteraceae
<i>Senecio leptolobus</i>	DC.	Asteraceae
<i>Senecio madagascariensis</i>	(Baker) Humbert	Asteraceae
<i>Senecio selloi</i>	(Spreng.) DC.	Asteraceae
<i>Setaria parviflora</i>	(Poir.) Kerguélen	Poaceae
<i>Setaria sp 1</i>	-	Poaceae
<i>Setaria sp 2</i>	-	Poaceae
<i>Setaria vaginata</i>	Spreng.	Poaceae
<i>Sida rhombifolia</i>	L.	Malvaceae
<i>Sisyrinchium alatum</i>	Hook.	Iridaceae
<i>Sisyrinchium micranthum</i>	Cav.	Iridaceae
<i>Soliva sessilis</i>	Ruiz et Pavón	Asteraceae
<i>Spermacoce verticillata</i>	L.	Rubiaceae
<i>Sporobolus indicus</i>	(L.) R.Br.	Poaceae
<i>Steinchisma hians</i>	(Elliott) Nash.	Poaceae
<i>Stenandrium diphyllum</i>	Nees	Acanthaceae
<i>Stipa nutans</i>	Hack.	Poaceae
<i>Stylosanthes leiocarpa</i>	Vogel	Fabaceae
<i>Stylosanthes montevidensis</i>	Vogel	Fabaceae
<i>Verbena montevidensis</i>	Spreng.	Verbenaceae
<i>Vernonia flexuosa</i>	Sims	Asteraceae
<i>Vernonia nudiflora</i>	Less.	Asteraceae
<i>Vernonia sp</i>	-	Asteraceae

2160

2161

2162 Chapter 2, Appendix IV: Data on plant functional traits for the most comon species on the experimental plots. Traits are indicated with
 2163 the abreviations informed on Table 1.

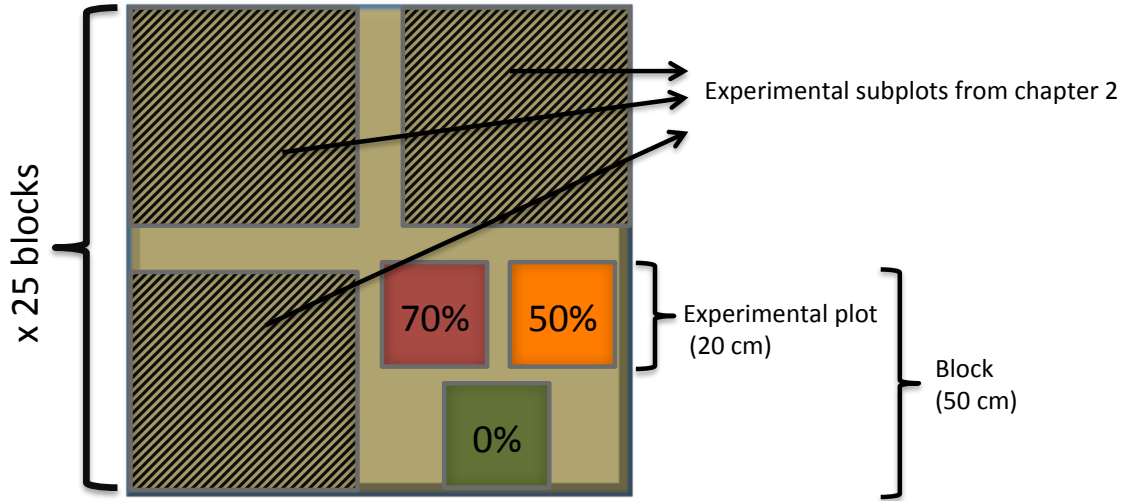
Species\traits	LA	tens	sla	ldmc	form	H	gr	forb	shr	eret	rosu	hcr	geof	tero	came	reser	c4
Abildgaardia_ovata	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	1	1
Andropogon_lateralis	11.11	0.14	0.11	0.38	40.42	175	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	1
Aristida_venustula	0.48	0.03	0.11	0.52	21.13	45	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	1
Aspilia_montevicensis	5.17	0.03	0.25	0.19	2.84	40	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	NA
Axonopus_affinis	6.80	0.83	0.22	0.24	11.31	45	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	1
Baccharis_trimera	1.64	0.03	0.15	0.30	9.01	50	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	NA
Borreria_eryngioides	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	32	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	NA	NA
Spermacoce_verticillata	1.25	0.04	0.37	0.02	3.43	36	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	NA	NA
Briza_subaristata	6.44	0.03	0.15	0.35	42.44	98	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0
Campomanesia_aurea	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0
Carex_phalaroides	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	1	0
Centella_asiatica	3.50	0.12	0.14	0.27	1.87	30	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0
Cerastium_glomeratum	1.45	0.06	0.50	0.13	2.03	20	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
Chevreulia_acuminata	0.37	0.00	0.53	0.29	8.95	NA	0	1	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	NA
Chaptalia_exscapa	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	0	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	1	NA
Chaptalia_runcinata	3.09	0.04	0.16	0.30	3.06	NA	0	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	1	NA
Chevreulia_sarmentosa	0.47	NA	0.32	0.25	6.71	NA	0	1	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	1	NA
Clitoria_nana	3.73	0.28	0.10	0.41	2.16	44	0	1	NA	1	0	0	1	0	0	1	0
Conyza_primulifolia	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	80	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	NA
Mnesithea_selloana	6.48	0.06	0.19	0.35	26.13	NA	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1
Cuphea_glutinosa	0.45	0.00	0.32	0.31	5.59	40	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	1	0
CyclospERMUM_leptophyllum	0.34	0.01	0.25	0.27	4.72	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
Danthonia_sp	1.92	0.05	0.10	0.53	31.34	30	1	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	1	NA

Desmanthus_virgatus	4.78	0.21	0.20	0.34	NA	50	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	1	0
Desmodium_incanum	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	150	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	1	0
Dichondra_macrocalyx	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0
Dichanthelium_sabulorum	2.04	0.12	0.20	0.31	6.48	NA	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0
Dichondra_sericea	2.61	0.03	0.20	0.27	1.34	6	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0
Elephantopus_mollis	35.35	0.07	0.27	0.17	2.19	90	0	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	NA
Eleocharis_viridans	0.67	0.98	0.11	0.48	59.95	55	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	NA
Eryngium_ciliatum	9.36	0.35	0.11	0.19	3.86	100	0	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	0
Eryngium_horridum	48.64	0.11	0.05	0.31	13.87	200	0	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	0
Eragrostis_neesii	1.64	0.01	0.24	0.42	8.86	45	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	1
Eragrostis_plana	6.83	0.06	NA	0.00	75.21	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
Eupatorium_ascendens	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	40	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	1	NA
Euphorbia_selloi	1.65	0.00	0.08	0.54	5.01	20	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	1	0
Evolvulus_sericeus	0.25	0.00	0.21	0.42	3.66	35	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0
Facelis_retusa	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	30	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	NA
Fimbristylis_dichotoma	3.70	2.50	0.19	0.29	42.29	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
Galactia_gracillima	1.16	0.02	0.17	0.26	3.96	14	0	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	NA
Gamochaeta_coarctata	2.50	0.03	0.16	0.25	3.14	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
Galianthe_fastigiata	5.35	0.10	0.08	0.17	4.98	130	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	1	0
Galium_hirtum	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	33	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	NA	NA
Gamochaeta_americana	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	1	0
Galium_richardianum	0.52	NA	0.20	0.39	NA	50	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0
Glandularia_marruboides	0.91	0.03	0.14	0.13	3.63	50	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0
Habenaria_parviflora	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	1	0
Helianthemum_brasiliense	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	30	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0
Herbertia_pulchella	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	27	0	1	0	NA	NA	0	1	0	0	NA	NA
Hypochaeris_albiflora	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	38	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	NA
Hypoxis_decumbens	6.25	0.02	0.42	0.15	16.20	8	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	1	0

Hydrocotyle_exigua	1.56	0.03	0.06	0.92	1.45	15	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0
Justicia_axillaris	1.16	0.05	0.24	0.30	3.19	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
Juncus_capillaceus	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	25	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	1	0
Juncus_sp	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	1	0
Kyllinga_odorata	3.07	0.01	NA	0.00	42.68	43	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	1	1
Micropsis_spathulata	0.34	0.01	0.72	0.06	3.54	8	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	NA	NA
Nothoscordum_montevidense	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	1	0
Orthopappus_angustifolius	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	43	0	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	NA	NA
Oxalis_brasiliensis	0.35	0.00	0.97	0.11	2.20	13	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0
Oxalis_conorrhiza	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	18	0	1	NA	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0
Oxalis_eriocarpa	0.49	0.01	0.21	0.26	1.27	NA	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	NA
Oxalis_lasiopetala	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0
Oxalis_perdicaria	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	0	1	NA	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0
Paspalum_dilatatum	10.50	0.09	0.24	0.22	12.34	NA	1	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	1	1
Paspalum_lepton	1.16	0.04	0.19	0.32	11.59	85	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	NA
Paspalum_notatum	5.61	0.07	0.22	0.29	15.70	120	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	1
Paspalum_paucifolium	1.16	0.05	0.18	0.39	11.34	NA	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	1
Paspalum_plicatum	6.61	0.07	0.15	0.28	36.15	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
Paspalum_pumilum	6.02	0.11	0.21	0.25	7.38	66	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	1
Peltodon_longipes	14.16	0.50	0.17	0.21	1.87	NA	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	1	0
Pfaffia_tuberosa	5.67	0.12	0.14	0.17	2.33	100	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	1	0
Piptochaetium_montevidense	0.64	0.03	0.11	0.44	64.00	60	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0
Piriqueta_selloi	3.60	0.07	0.13	0.28	1.51	25	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	1	NA
Piptochaetium_stipoides	NA	NA	0.15	0.48	NA	100	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0
Plantago_tomentosa	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	48.5	0	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	1	0
Polygala_australis	0.12	0.01	11.60	0.02	NA	19	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0
Psidium_salutare	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0
Pterocaulon_angustifolium	3.95	0.18	0.22	0.15	2.84	70	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	1	NA

Rhynchospora_sp	0.70	0.03	0.17	0.35	25.13	100	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	1	0
Richardia_grandiflora	1.46	0.06	0.14	0.09	4.24	36	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	NA	0
chardia_humistrata	1.32	0.06	0.08	0.28	3.21	6	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0
Ruellia_morongii	10.85	0.17	0.12	0.24	1.81	NA	0	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	0
Scutellaria_racemosa	1.68	0.00	0.24	0.24	2.11	30	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	1	0
Senecio_brasiliensis	1.79	0.02	0.22	0.15	10.84	150	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	NA
Senecio_madagascariensis	0.70	0.01	0.11	0.04	14.18	NA	NA	NA	NA	1	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
Setaria_parviflora	3.56	0.05	0.26	0.26	19.11	80	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	1	1
Senecio_selloi	7.50	0.09	0.13	0.15	2.23	100	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	NA	NA
Setaria_vaginata	3.52	0.04	0.25	0.31	9.20	60	1	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	1	NA
Sisyrinchium_micranthum	1.05	0.01	0.23	0.24	16.96	NA	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0
Sida_rhombifolia	4.32	0.06	0.24	0.26	2.17	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
Sisyrinchium_palmatum	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0
Soliva_sessilis	2.70	0.00	0.21	0.21	4.70	25	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	NA
Sporobolus_indicus	7.66	0.11	0.16	0.39	51.89	130	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	1
Stenandrium_diphyllum	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0
Steinchisma_hians	2.91	0.05	0.23	0.37	18.30	70	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	1	1
Stylosanthes_leiocarpa	0.42	0.06	0.21	0.25	3.78	NA	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	1	0
Stylosanthes_montevidensis	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	60	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	1	0
Stipa_nutans	4.35	0.06	0.16	0.34	NA	140	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	1	0
Vernonia_flexuosa	18.18	0.12	0.13	0.13	5.38	48	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	1	NA
Verbena_montevidensis	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	80	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0
Vernonia_nudiflora	1.02	0.06	0.08	0.44	18.64	80	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	1	NA

Chapter 3, Appendix I. Scheme of the experimental design. Experimental plots indicating the percentage of species richness removal.



Chapter 3, Appendix II. Evolution of species richness and composition in the experimental plots during the experiment. Richness is partitioned into new colonizers (n), removed species resprutings/recolonizations (r), and target species (t).

		2013									2014									2015									Nc																	
		Dec			Jan			Feb			Mar			Apr			May			Nov			Dec			Jan			Feb			Mar			Apr			May			n	r				
Removal intention (%)	Initial richness	n	r	t	n	r	t	n	r	t	n	r	t	n	r	t	n	r	t	n	r	t	n	r	t	n	r	t	n	r	t	n	r	t	n	r	t	n	r							
	0	13	13	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	13	-	21	7	-					
50	14	7	0	7	6	0	4	4	2	5	3	4	6	4	5	6	4	2	4	3	7	5	4	8	6	4	6	5	5	4	6	5	6	2	5	2	2	5	8	4	5	9	4			
70	15	6	0	9	4	0	6	3	1	6	3	2	6	3	4	6	4	1	6	3	7	7	5	4	7	5	6	7	4	3	6	5	2	3	4	2	3	4	6	3	4	8	4			
0	15	15	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	7	-	18	4	-
50	12	6	0	6	6	0	5	5	1	3	4	1	4	6	1	3	6	1	3	6	0	4	4	3	4	5	1	3	4	5	3	4	2	3	4	0	5	4	3	4	4	7	5			
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0	14	14	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	3	-	9	8	-

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0	13	13	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	6	-	18	-	-	-	1	-	11	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	7	-	17	8	-		
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0	14	14	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	0	-	17	-	-	-	7	-	17	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	10	-	18	8	-	
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0	11	11	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	-	11	-	-	-	9	-	18	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	6	-	15	9	-	
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0	10	10	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	9	-	13	-	-	-	2	-	9	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	5	-	12	12	-	
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0	15	15	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	-	10	-	-	-	4	-	12	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	5	-	13	7	-
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0 18 18 - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - 2 - 14 - - - 3 - 15 - - - - - - - - - 11 - 24 9 -

50 20 10 0 8 9 2 3 6 0 2 6 0 6 7 1 5 7 2 2 8 7 4 7 6 4 6 2 6 7 5 5 7 0 1 4 0 2 6 3 4 6 12 4

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50 21 12 0 8 10 1 5 4 1 5 5 1 3 8 1 2 6 0 2 6 2 5 0 3 5 8 2 2 0 2 5 9 0 1 3 0 1 5 5 1 8 6 4

70	17	9	0	6	9	0	5	8	0	3	5	0	4	5	0	4	5	2	2	6	3	5	8	2	5	6	3	5	7	5	5	8	1	4	4	0	3	4	5	4	6	8	5		
0	8	8	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	6	-	13	-	-	-	5	-	11	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	7	-	13	9	-	
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0	14	14	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	5	-	13	-	-	-	3	-	13	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	10	-	19	11	-
50	17	10	0	8	8	1	5	7	1	2	8	1	3	7	0	3	6	0	3	6	6	8	8	7	7	8	6	6	7	8	5	8	3	1	9	2	2	8	10	3	8	10	6		
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Chapter 3, Appendix III: Relationship between targets species initial cover and number of events in which the species were absent in the plots (extinction). Points' shade thickness indicates more points in the same place. P=0.001, in permutation test with permutations restricted within the same sampling unit (subplot). Aerial cover index is modified after (Londo 1976) scale.

