

# Pollen rain–vegetation relationship along an elevational gradient in the Serra dos Órgãos National Park, southeastern Brazil

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1	Pollen rain-vegetation relationship along an elevational gradient in the Serra dos Órgãos
2	National Park, southeastern Brazil

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14

15 Abstract We analyzed modern pollen deposition along an altitudinal gradient in the Brazilian 16 southeastern coastal mountains between 1600 and 2200 m elevation in order to investigate 17 the relationship between modern vegetation and pollen rain, within vegetation composed of 18 montane and upper montane forest in a mosaic with campos de altitude (CDA). The results 19 revealed that the CDA pollen assemblage represents a much larger source area than the 20 forest pollen assemblage, which is comprised of more local taxa. Anemophilous pollen from 21 vegetation at lower elevations is overrepresented in the higher elevation pollen traps. 22 Although arboreal taxa dominate the pollen assemblages – even in the grassland pollen 23 traps – the composition of the pollen traps can be confidently related to the vegetation 24 surrounding the collection site. To improve distinction between grassland and forest 25 dominance in a complex environmental mosaic subject to temporal dynamism, we selected 26 a suite of arboreal pollen taxa aiming to reduce the influence of over- and under-27 representation of some pollen taxa in such kind of environment. Our findings permit more 28 robust interpretation of palaeo-ecological and -geographical relationships between forest 29 and CDA and build a firmer foundation for understanding how future climatic change may 30 impact montane vegetation in SE Brazil.

31 Key words: modern pollen rain, campos de altitude (high elevation grassland), upper
 32 montane forest, tropical mountains, tropical South America.

### 33 **1.** Introduction

34 The Atlantic Forest biome stretches along Brazil's east coast for more than 4000 km, with the 35 Brazilian Highlands as its geographic backbone. The Atlantic Forest, which once covered as much as 1.3 million km<sup>2</sup>, has been drastically reduced in area since European settlement in 36 the 16<sup>th</sup> century (Fundação SOS Mata Atlântica/ INPE, 2017) and is considered one of the 37 38 world's most threatened biomes as well as one of its most important biodiversity hotspots 39 (Myers et al., 2000). Today, some of the largest remaining fragments of the Atlantic Forest 40 are inside national and state protected areas found on the steep slopes of the Serra do Mar 41 and Serra da Mantiqueira in the states of Rio de Janeiro, Minas Gerais, and São Paulo 42 (Ribeiro et al., 2009). Among the ecosystems covered by these protected areas, some of the 43 most important are upper montane forest and campos de altitude (CDA, or named high 44 elevation grasslands), due to their rarity in eastern Brazil and the high numbers of endemic 45 species they support (Martinelli and Bandeira, 1989; Safford and Martinelli, 2000; Spehn et 46 al., 2010). These ecosystems share the summits of eastern Brazil's highest mountains, with 47 upper montane forest often occupying concavities and protected sites and campos de 48 altitude covering mountaintops and convex slopes (Safford, 1999a). Their geographic 49 relationship is dynamic, with forests dominating in the absence of disturbance and when and 50 where climates are warmer and wetter, and campos dominating after fire and in colder and 51 drier periods (Safford, 1999a, 2001; Portes et al., 2018).

52 Over the last two decades palaeoecological studies based on fossil pollen and charcoal 53 records have been carried out in the southeastern Brazilian highlands in order to better 54 understand past, current, and potential future trends in vegetation, climate, and 55 disturbance, as well as to discern synergies between these factors in driving ecological 56 conditions (e.g. Behling, 1995, 1997a, 1997b, 2007; Scheel-Ybert, 2001; Ledru et al., 2005; 57 Behling et al., 2007; Behling and Safford, 2010; Veríssimo et al., 2012; Raczka et al., 2013; 58 Portes et al., 2018). This work has also provided information important to improve the 59 design of conservation and management strategies that aim for sustainability in the face of 60 rapid global change. However, because pollen production, dispersal, and preservation vary 61 widely among plant species, the relationship between pollen rain, local vegetation and 62 environment is not straightforward, which limits the interpretation of the fossil pollen 63 record (e.g. Prentice, 1988). Studies that relate modern vegetation and environment to 64 pollen rain – especially studies carried out along elevational and ecological gradients – can help to better discern pollen production and dispersal patterns, as well as habitat and
elevational relationships among species and ecological communities in order to improve
interpretation of fossil pollen records (e.g. Bartlein et al., 2011; Cárdenas et al., 2014; Jantz
et al., 2014; Markgraf et al., 2002; Montade et al., 2016; Niemann et al., 2010; Rodrigues et
al., 2016; Schüler et al., 2014; Tonello et al., 2009; Weng et al., 2004).

70 Montade et al. (2019) recently developed the first modern pollen dataset for the full Atlantic 71 Forest biome, describing regional vegetation and climate patterns. Based on this dataset, the 72 authors were able to discern four broad "eco-physiognomies" from modern pollen samples, 73 including northeastern Atlantic rain forest, semi-deciduous and riverine forests, lowland rain 74 forest, and high elevation vegetation consisting of forests and grasslands. In the case of the 75 high elevation vegetation group, the authors pointed out that the fine-spatial scale of 76 intercalation of forest and grassland vegetation posed a challenge to further differentiation 77 that only well-designed, local sampling could resolve. Due to the reduced number of modern 78 pollen samples, several sampling methods had to be combined in this regional dataset. 79 Nonetheless, different sampling methods can present different results which could explain 80 this local scale limitation in differentiating vegetation physiognomies. Surface samples may 81 be considered more representative of the pollen production as pollen rain composition 82 commonly varies over 2 and three 3 as well as according to plant specific systems and 83 changing in climatic conditions (Niemann et al., 2010; Montade et al., 2019). In contrast, 84 pollen traps not only provide the representation and distribution patterns of pollen spectra 85 but also the accumulation rates. Moreover, pollen traps present better pollen preservation, 86 diminishing the difficulty and uncertainties in determination of pollen types and allowing to 87 distinguish similar pollen that normally are classified together, and registering pollen with 88 fragile exine that rarely appear in surface samples or in fossil records (Jantz et al., 2014).

89 The dynamic relationship between CDA and forest is of major ecological, conservation, and 90 management interest in southeastern Brazil (Martinelli and Bandeira 1989; Safford, 1999a; 91 2001; Aximoff 2011; Portes et al., 2018). In order to understand how these ecosystems 92 interact over space and time, we require a robust discrimination of their signal in the fossil 93 pollen record, but to this point such a discrimination had been lacking. To fill this gap, we 94 installed a series of pollen traps along a high elevation transect through areas dominated by 95 montane forest, upper montane forest and CDA in Serra dos Órgãos National Park 96 (PARNASO; Fig. 1). We used pollen traps rather than surface samples so as to better preserve 97 fragile pollen types that rarely appear in soil surface samples, to diminish identification 98 errors and to allow the calculation of pollen accumulation rates. Our principal purposes were 99 to (1) investigate the relationship between the modern pollen assemblage and local modern 100 vegetation cover; (2) try to better discriminate between grassland and forest dominance in a 101 complex environmental mosaic subject to temporal dynamism; and (3) augment the modern 102 pollen database of the Brazilian Atlantic Forest biome.

103

## 104 **2.** Environmental settings

#### 105 2.1 Study site

Our pollen traps were located along an elevational gradient in the Serra dos Órgãos, a subrange of the Serra do Mar, within PARNASO (Fig. 1). Founded in 1939 as the third national park in Brazil, PARNASO protects 20,024 ha of lower montane, montane and upper montane forest and campos de altitude of the Brazilian Atlantic Forest biome (ICMBio, 2008). The park is famous for its spectacular landscape and extraordinary levels of biodiversity. Ironically, it is found in one of the most densely populated areas of Brazil, less than 50 km from downtown Rio de Janeiro.

In the Serra dos Órgãos, basement rocks are mostly Late Proterozoic granite and granitoid gneisses. Topographic relief is associated with late Cenozoic reactivation of faults that originally arose during the opening of the Atlantic Ocean in the late Mesozoic (Machado Filho et al., 1983). Soils in the study area are generally shallow, poorly developed, acidic and highly organic with a deep litter layer (Falkenberg and Voltolini, 1995). As a rule, the Serra dos Órgãos follows a SW-NE orientation parallel to the coastline (Riccomini et al., 1989; Safford, 1999a; ICMBio, 2008).

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#### 121 **2.2** *Climate*

122 In the broader region, the climate is mostly controlled by the South Atlantic Convergence 123 Zone (SACZ), with most precipitation falling between November and April (Safford, 1999a). 124 Although the climate for the region has been classified as mesothermic with mild and wet 125 summers and moderate winters without a marked dry season (ICMBio, 2008), a winter dry 126 season (months with <50 mm precipitation) of two to three months occurs most years in the 127 southeastern Brazilian mountains (Nimer, 1977; Safford, 1999b). The annual average 128 temperature at the nearest long-term meteorological station at Teresópolis (22°25.980'S,

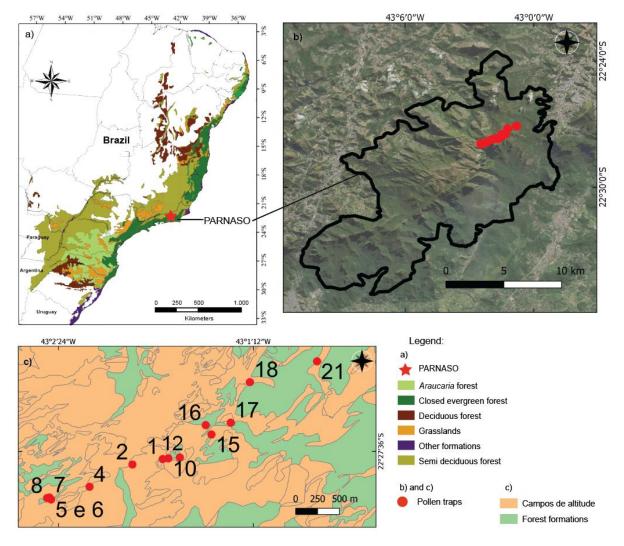




Fig. 1. Location of the study site and the pollen traps. a) national location of Parque Nacional
da Serra dos Órgãos (PARNASO) (adapted from Fundação SOS Mata Atlântica/ INPE, 2017),
b) regional location of PARNASO and c) location of the pollen traps collected in PARNASO.

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42°58.980'W, 1100 m a.s.l.) is 17.6 °C, ranging from 8.6 °C (mean of the coldest month -134 July) to 27.2 °C (mean of the warmest month – February). Mean average precipitation at 135 Teresópolis is 1800 mm, with less than 40 mm in the driest month (July) and 270 mm in the 136 137 wettest (January) (Hijmans et al., 2005). Orographic effects play an important role in 138 modifying the Serra dos Órgãos climate, and elevations higher than Teresópolis are cooler, 139 wetter, and characterized by frequent fog. PARNASO installed temperature data loggers at 140 sites near our transect between September 2012 and February 2014 (C. Cronemberger, 141 PARNASO, pers. comm.). In montane forest at 1600 m elevation (near pollen trap site 21), the mean overall temperature was 15.4 °C, with an absolute maximum of 30.7 °C and a 142 143 minimum of 3.1 °C. In upper montane forest at 2012 m elevation, mean, maximum and

minimum temperatures were 12.7 °C, 25.6 °C, and 1 °C, respectively. Temperatures in the 144 campos de altitude at 1954 m elevation showed a similar mean temperature (12.5 °C), but 145 146 temperatures were more extreme due to the lack of trees and the valley bottom position: max = 27 °C, min = -5.2 °C). Safford (unpub. data) measured -9.8 °C during a July night in 147 148 1997 at this same campos de altitude site. Safford (1999b) measured soil temperatures from 149 depths of >75 cm in deep soil pockets on the summit of Pedra do Sino and obtained an 150 estimate of mean annual temperature of approximately 10.2 °C at 2260 m a.s.l.. Annual 151 precipitation in the Serra dos Órgãos at 2000 m elevation is >2500 mm (Safford, 1999b).

152

#### 153 2.3 Vegetation

154 The vegetation encountered at the study sites is classified as montane Atlantic rain forest 155 (ARF), upper montane ARF, and campos de altitude (CDA) (ICMBio, 2008). Montane ARF 156 occurs from c. 700 to c. 1600 m a.s.l. It typically presents three strata, within the canopy 157 reaching 25-30 m height. Common overstory tree families include Myrtaceae, Lauraceae, 158 Melastomataceae, Fabaceae, Solanaceae, Asteraceae, Rubiaceae, and Euphorbiaceae. 159 Important epiphyte families include Orchidaceae, Bromeliaceae, Gesneriaceae and various 160 ferns. The palm Euterpe edulis, tall Chusquea bamboos, and tree ferns are common in the 161 midstory. Lianas are dominated by Asteraceae, Malpighiaceae, Fabaceae, and Sapindaceae, 162 and shrubs are represented by Rubiaceae, Melastomataceae, Piperaceae, and Begoniaceae, 163 among many other families (Lima and Guedes-Bruni, 1997; Pardo et al., 2007; ICMBio, 2008). 164 Montane habitats grade gradually into upper montane habitats starting above 1300 m a.s.l., 165 with upper montane ARF prevailing at elevations >1600 m a.s.l. (ICMBio, 2008). Due to the 166 common presence of fog, constant winds and other microclimatic conditions, upper 167 montane ARF is characterized by twisted and dwarfed trees and shrubs distributed usually in 168 one stratum <10 m height. A salient feature is the abundance and diversity of epiphytes – 169 especially Orchidaceae, Bromelicaeae, Cactaceae, ferns and mosses - as a result of the high 170 air humidity (Falkenberg and Voltolini, 1995; Safford, 1999a). The most frequent tree and 171 shrub families are Myrtaceae, Proteaceae, Melastomataceae and Malpighiaceae (ICMBio, 172 2008). Important tree genera include Myrsine, Clethra, Piptocarpha, Myrceugenia, 173 Daphnopsis, Roupala, Weinmannia, Symplocos, Ilex, and Ocotea (Behling and Safford, 2010; 174 Gomes, 2015).

175 CDA vegetation dominates above 1800 m a.s.l., covering hilltops and convex slopes as well as

poorly-drained valley bottoms that are affected by cold air drainage (Safford, 1999a; ICMBio,
2008). The CDA is dominated by tall bunchgrasses and sedges (especially *Cortaderia* and *Machaerina*), montane bamboo (*Chusquea*) and a heterogeneous mixture of sclerophyllous
shrubs, particularly from the genera *Baccharis* and *Escallonia*, and the families Asteraceae,
Ericaceae, Melastomataceae, and Myrtaceae. Frequent herbs are *Eryngium*, *Paepalanthus*, *Plantago* and *Xyris*, and lycopods and cool-weather bryophytes are widespread (Behling and
Safford, 2010).

183

## 184 **3.** Material and Methods

#### 185 3.1 Pollen trap design and sampling

186 For collection of the modern pollen assemblage of the mountain vegetation of PARNASO, 23 187 pollen traps were placed along a 4-km section of the Pedra do Sino trail, ranging from 1600 m to 2200 m a.s.l., between the coordinates  $22^{\circ}26'53''S$ ,  $43^{\circ}00'28''W$  and  $22^{\circ}27'53''S$ , 188 189 43°02'28"W (Fig. 1). Each pollen trap was classified according to their respective local 190 vegetation in the field (CDA, upper montane ARF and montane ARF). The trap model used 191 was developed by Behling and formally described in Behling et al. (2001) and tested by Jantz 192 et al. (2013). Each trap was installed about 10 cm above the soil surface in October, 2015 193 and collected in October, 2016 (Table 1).

194

#### 195 3.2 Pollen analysis

196 The pollen grains were extracted from each trap as described in Jantz et al. (2013). Before 197 processing, one tablet of Lycopodium clavatum spores (20,848221546, batch 3862) was 198 added as exotic marker to each sample for influx calculation. Acetolysis was carried out to 199 dissolve cellulose material and to stain the pollen residues. The pollen residue obtained was 200 kept in distilled water until mounted in slides with glycerine for pollen analysis. Samples 201 were counted to a minimum of 300 pollen grains and identification of pollen and spores was 202 based on the reference collection of Brazil and Ecuador at the Department of Palynology and 203 Climate Dynamics, University of Goettingen (Germany). Further support was obtained from 204 literature and electronic pollen keys (Behling, 1993; Melhem et al., 2003; Bush and Weng, 205 2006; Neotropical Fossil Pollen Search Tool developed by Dr. Hermann Behling and Dr. 206 Chengyu Weng, unpublished). Nomenclature follows the Flora do Brasil 2020 207 (http://floradobrasil.jbjr.gov.br). Pollen percentages were calculated excluding aquatics, 208 exotics, unidentified and spores. Pollen diagrams were plotted using the C2 software 209 (Juggins, 2007) and clustered according to the habit and the ecology of the taxa.

- 210
- 211 **Table 1.** List of 23 pollen traps grouped by vegetation zone where each trap was installed,
- 212 with their geographic coordinates and elevation. In black the recovered traps and in gray the
- 213 unfounded ones.

Vegetation	Sample	Coordinate S	Coordinate W	Altitude (m)
	SOPT1	22°27′38.48″	43°01'45.66"	2188
	SOPT10	22°27′38.23″	43°01'43.57"	2180
	SOPT2	22°27'40.50″	43°01'56.86"	2169
	SOPT11	22°27'37.87"	43°01'36.44"	2148
Campos de altitude (CDA)	SOPT15	22°27'29.41"	43°01'27.66″	2128
	SOPT13	22°27'33.08"	43°01'43.46"	2126
	SOPT14	22°27'31.78"	43°01'40.81"	2115
	SOPT3	22°27'44.86"	43°02'4.27"	2107
	SOPT4	22°27′48.70″	43°02′12.70″	2086
	SOPT16	22°27'25.96"	43°01'29.78″	2157
	SOPT12	22°27′37.90″	43°01'39.36″	2134
	SOPT9	22°27'46.30''	43°02'6.97"	2113
	SOPT17	22°27′25.06″	43°01'20.53″	2031
Upper montane ARF	SOPT7	22°27′52.67″	43°02′27.52″	2013
	SOPT8	22°27′52.88″	43°02'28.39″	2008
	SOPT5	22°27′53.40″	43°02'26.91″	2003
	SOPT6	22°27′53.40″	43°02'26.91″	2003
	SOPT18	22°27′10.12″	43°01′13.44″	1923
	SOPT19	22°27'18.18"	43°01'3.40"	1844
	SOPT20	22°27'8.17"	43° 0'53.60"	1671
Montane ARF	SOPT21	22°27′02.41″	43°00'48.67″	1597
	SOPT22	22°26'54.49"	43°00'49.36"	1439
	SOPT23	22°26'53.27"	43°00'28.15"	1287

214

## 215 3.3 Vegetation cover analysis and multivariate analysis

The modern vegetation surrounding each pollen trap was analyzed using the software QGIS (QGIS Developing Team, 2019) based on a Bing aerial image (2019) with support of geographical information from 2008 provided by PARNASO. We delimited buffers of 0.79 ha (50 m radius), 3.14 ha (100 m radius), and 78.6 ha (500 m radius) for each trap (see supplementary material) and identified the percentage of the area dominated by two different components: forest and CDA. The CDA component includes CDA *sensu stricto*, rock

vegetation, and rock outcrops. A coefficient of correlation (r) was calculated between percentage values of vegetation cover and pollen data for the forest and CDA components within each of the buffer areas.

225 A correspondence analysis (CA) was applied with R-packages ADE4 (Dray and Dufour, 2007) 226 and VEGAN (Orkansen et al., 2019) in R-Studio (R-Studio Team, 2016) to investigate 227 correlations between pollen spectra from the pollen traps and the representative 228 vegetation. We focused on the CDA and upper montane forest groups and excluded the 229 montane forest group from the CA as it was characterized by only one sample (SOPT21). In 230 order to reduce noise, the CA was performed with the major pollen taxa (with percentages 231 21% occurring in at least three samples). Percentage values were square-root transformed 232 before performing the CA to stabilize the variance.

To better reconstruct the local changes of ARF in this mosaic of grassland and forest, we defined a group of most distinctive pollen taxa of upper montane ARF composed by *Weinmannia, Myrsine, Clethra,* and Myrtaceae based on the results of the CA and considering pollen assemblages, habit and ecological features. We also considered the facility in distinguishing these taxa (important when comparing several sites involving different palynologists) as well as their abundance and well preservation in fossil samples.

This restricted group of ARF and the ARF group were passively projected on the first andsecond axes of the CA bi-plot.

241

#### 242 **4. Results**

#### 243 4.1 Modern pollen rain

244 Of the original 23 pollen traps only 14 were recovered. A total of 98 pollen types and 24 245 spores were identified from the recovered traps. The most abundant and important taxa are 246 displayed in the pollen diagrams (Figs. 2 and 3). A list of all palynomorphs identified can be 247 found in the supplementary material. The pollen taxa were classified into the following 248 ecological groups based on their habit and ecology: CDA including subgroups herbs and 249 shrubs and Asteraceae; upper montane ARF; montane ARF; sub-aquatics, exotics, tree ferns, 250 and ferns. The separation of the groups follows Safford (1999a), Behling and Safford (2010), 251 Gomes (2015) and Montade et al. (2019).

According to their respective local vegetation and elevation, the pollen sampling sites were separated into three ecological zones: CDA, upper montane ARF, and montane ARF (Table 1). Each zone is typified by a characteristic pollen assemblage composition and abundance. Overall, arboreal taxa predominate in the pollen rain, even in samples taken from CDA vegetation. The five most abundant taxa in all pollen spectra are *Myrsine*, Melastomataceae, Poaceae, Moraceae/Urticaceae, and *Weinmannia*. Asteraceae, Myrtaceae, *Cecropia*, and *Alchornea* were present in all samples, along with the introduced taxon *Pinus*.

259

260 4.1.1 Campos de altitude (5 samples)

261 Although this vegetation zone is characterized principally by herbs, shrubs, and Asteraceae, 262 forest pollen types are up to 65% of all pollen; that is, pollen from the CDA ecological group 263 only contributed an average of 35% of the pollen collected in the traps. In this vegetation 264 type, pollen of Poaceae (16%) and *Baccharis* (c.10%, separated from other Asteraceae pollen 265 types due to its relatively high number of small and long echini (Behling, 1993)) are the best 266 indicators. Pollen taxa of upper montane ARF (Myrsine > 10%, Weinmannia c. 4% and Clethra 267 1%) and montane ARF (Moraceae/Urticaceae c. 12%, Melastomataceae c. 10%, Cecropia 5%, 268 Celtis c. 3%, Myrtaceae 2%, and Alchornea c. 2%) are also abundant. There is high variability 269 among samples for some pollen taxa. For example, Baccharis represents c. 34% and 270 Melastomataceae c. 20% in sample SOPT1 and Cyperaceae almost 12% in SOPT2. Although 271 Eryngium type 2 is generally rare, it occurs at a high percentage in a single sample (SOPT10 > 272 9%). Mimosa scabrella reaches c. 3% in SOPT2 with average of c. 1% in this zone. Spores of 273 tree ferns are almost absent in CDA, the average sum of other spores reaches 3% while the 274 exotic Pinus is about 1% in this zone.

Pollen influx is very low in traps in CDA, the mean value is <2000 pollen grains cm<sup>-2</sup>, varying from 920 to 3055 pollen grains cm<sup>-2</sup>. In the CDA zone, the sum of characteristic CDA taxa produces an average influx of c. 700 pollen grains cm<sup>-2</sup>, while upper montane ARF average influx is 335 pollen grains cm<sup>-2</sup> and the montane ARF average is 945 pollen grains cm<sup>-2</sup>.

279

280 4.1.2 Upper montane ARF (8 samples) and montane ARF (1 sample)

Upper montane vegetation is well represented by its pollen assemblage. The upper montane/montane ARF zone (they are combined here due to similar pollen spectra and the existence of only one sample in the montane ARF zone) is characterized by higher spore sums than the CDA zone. *Myrsine, Weinmannia,* Lauraceae, *Griselinia,* and *Clethra* are the most important upper montane ARF indicator taxa with averages of *c.* 18%, 7%, 4%, 2%, and 286 c. 2%,

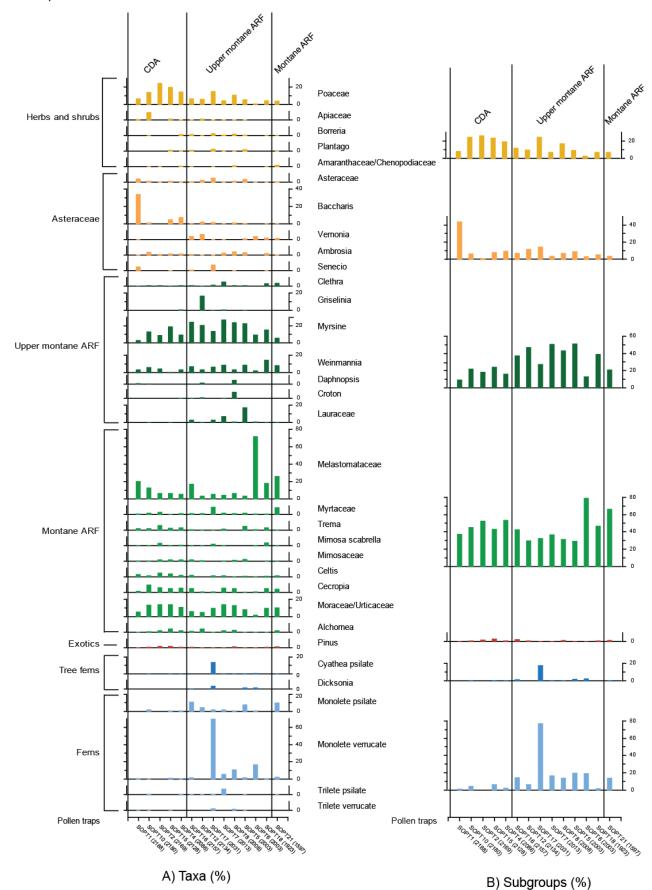


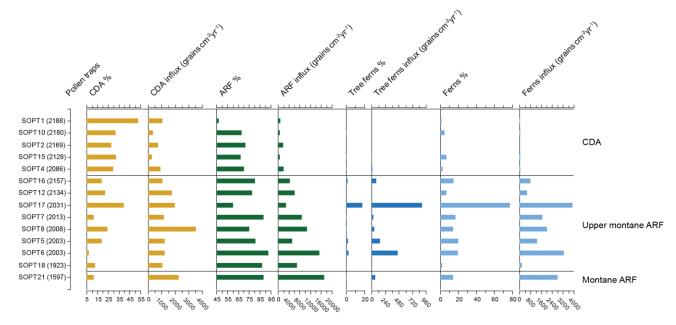


Fig. 2. Percentage diagram of main taxa per groups sorted by vegetation types and altitude.

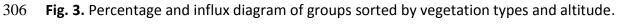
290 respectively. The main montane ARF pollen taxa are Melastomataceae 18%, 291 Moraceae/Urticaceae 9%, Cecropia c. 3% and Myrtaceae 3%. Pollen traps from SOPT17 and 292 SOPT18 have higher values of Mimosa scabrella, 2% and 4% respectively, and 293 Melastomataceae represents 72% of all pollen in the trap SOPT6. Pollen types from the CDA 294 ecological group contribute about 19% of all pollen in the ARF zone, mainly from Poaceae (c. 295 7%), Vernonia (c. 2%), and other Asteraceae types (c. 2%). Two outlying samples are SOPT6 296 (7% CDA pollen) and SOPT17 (c. 40% CDA pollen). The average for tree ferns reaches c. 3%, 297 but SOPT17 shows very high values: Cyathea with 14% and Dicksonia with c. 4%. The group 298 of sub-aquatic taxa is represented by c. 2% and exotics by c. 1% pollen.

Regarding pollen influx in these zones, the average sum is 10,400 pollen grains cm<sup>-2</sup>, varying from 5000 in SOPT17 to 20,000 in SOPT21. The influx of taxa from the upper montane ARF ecological group ranges from 1400 to 6250 pollen grains cm<sup>-2</sup> and taxa correlated with the montane ARF ecological group range from 1700 to 13000 pollen grains cm<sup>-2</sup>. Pollen influx from the CDA ecological group averages 1700 pollen grains cm<sup>-2</sup>.





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## 308 4.2 Vegetation cover and multivariate analysis

Table 2 shows the percentage of CDA and forest vegetation surrounding each pollen trap using spatial buffers of 50 m radius (0.79 ha total area), 100 m radius (3.14 ha) and 500 m

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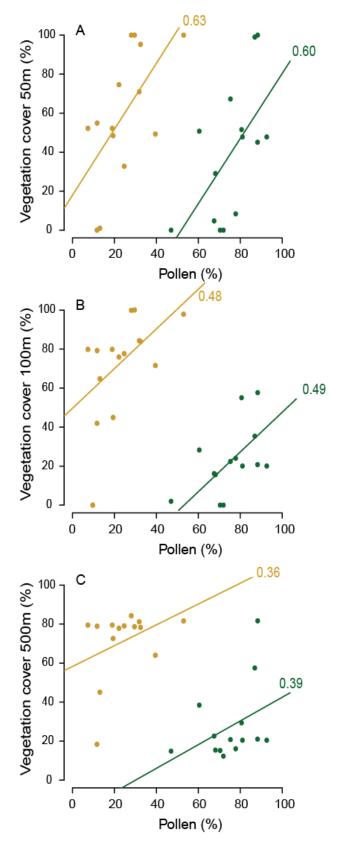
311 (78.6 ha) radius, combined with pollen percentage of the CDA and ARF ecological groups. 312 Applying a smaller buffer would have been interesting if the satellite image presented higher 313 resolution however, with the resolution available, the surrounded vegetation was the same 314 as in the pollen traps classification. Pollen traps installed in CDA are mostly surrounded by 315 CDA vegetation (mean = >70% CDA vegetation) in all sizes of buffer, although the percentage 316 of forest vegetation is higher at the 500 m radius. With buffer at 50 m, the highest % of 317 forest is shown in SOPT10 (c. 30%) and with buffer at 100 m both SOPT10 and SOPT15 reach 318 c. 16%. On the other hand, the area surrounding the pollen traps in upper montane forest 319 only averaged 55% of forest in the small buffer (excluding SOPT21) and <70% in the two 320 larger buffers. The one recovered trap installed in montane forest (SOPT21) at lower altitude 321 is dominated by forest vegetation at all buffer sizes, although the 78.6 ha buffer included a 322 number of patches of open canopy where rock and herbaceous vegetation dominated. The 323 correlation coefficient (r) between the pollen assemblages and the respective vegetation 324 groups dropped as buffer size increased. The coefficients for the CDA group are 0.63 for 50 325 m radius, 0.48 for 100 m and 0.36 for 500 m radius, while in the ARF group the coefficients 326 are 0.60, 0.49, and 0.39 for 50, 100, and 500 m radius, respectively (Fig. 4).

327 A preliminary correspondence analysis using 13 samples clearly separated a group that 328 includes all samples from SOPT6 (supplementary material). This sample is characterized by a 329 high value of Melastomataceae (>70%) due to a local signal. We therefore considered this 330 sample as an outlier and performed a new CA with 12 samples to provide an understanding of the relationships among pollen assemblages and vegetation groups (Fig. 5). The first two 331 332 axes explain 54.6% of the total variation. Axis 1 clearly separates CDA from forest pollen trap 333 samples (Fig. 5a). The most robust CDA indicators include Baccharis (displaced upward along 334 ordination Axis 2 by its strong association with sample SOPT1), Melastomataceae, and 335 Poaceae, as well the woody genera (trees and lianas) Celtis, Trema, and Cecropia, all of 336 which are pioneer taxa in disturbed forest (Fig. 5b). Mimosaceae, Alchornea, and 337 Moraceae/Urticaceae (also largely pioneer/secondary taxa) are located very close to the Axis 338 1 origin line and are not very robust indicators of CDA sites as they occur in all vegetation 339 groups (see Fig. 2). Indicators of forest habitats have a stronger signal in the ordination. The 340 most robust forest indicators according to the results of the CA are Lauraceae, Vernonia, 341 Plantago and Borreria (excluding Lauraceae, they are weedy, mostly herbaceous genera, 342 Plantago is cosmopolitan and Vernonia and Borreria are found mostly in warm, tropical

habitats), followed by the upper montane forest taxa Myrsine, Clethra, Weinmannia, and
Myrtaceae (Fig. 5b).

345 To present an assemblage approach whereby associations of pollen taxa are better 346 indicative of a particular vegetation type, we defined a restricted group representing the 347 ARF. For this restricted group of forest habitat, we considered several aspects to select the 348 taxa. We only considered arboreal pollen taxa. Although evidenced as robust indicators 349 based on the CA (Fig. 5b), we for example excluded *Plantago, Vernonia,* and *Borreria* which 350 represent mostly herbaceous genera and which can also be characteristic of CDA. Among the 351 arboreal pollen taxa, we excluded taxa which are abundant in CDA pollen traps, e.g. Celtis, 352 Alchornea, Trema, Cecropia, Mimosaceae, Moraceae/Urticaceae (Fig. 2 and 5b). Their high 353 relative abundances in CDA pollen traps is certainly due to high pollen productivity of these 354 taxa (Gosling et al., 2009; Jantz et al., 2013; Schüler et al., 2014) and their occurrence as 355 dwarfed trees in or near CDA habitats. The representativeness of the taxa in fossil records 356 was also considered for the selection of taxa. For example, although Lauraceae is one of the 357 best indicators of forest in modern pollen rain (Fig. 2 and 5b), this pollen taxon is generally 358 not well preserved in the fossil pollen records due to its thin exine (Behling, 1993) and it was 359 excluded from the restricted forest group. We finally settled our choice on Weinmannia, 360 Myrsine, Clethra, and Myrtaceae, which are good indicators of upper montane ARF since 361 they are morphologically distinct arboreal pollen taxa and easily distinguished, they are 362 significantly more abundant in upper montane forest than in CDA (Figures 2 and 5b) and 363 they are generally well preserved and abundant in fossil pollen records (Behling, 1997a; 364 Behling et al., 2007; Behling and Safford, 2010; Niemann et al., 2010; Veríssimo et al., 2012). 365 The correlation between the restricted ARF group and the forest vegetation cover at 50 m (r 366 = 0.74) shows a higher correlation than the correlation calculated between the ARF group 367 and forest vegetation cover at 50 m (r = 0.55) in figure 5c. We also try to select taxa to better 368 discriminate CDA, however this was discarded because this group is mostly composed of 369 Poaceae which pollen grains are extremely difficult to be identified to species or genera level 370 due to the rather uniform morphology, and may be over-represented in some fossil records 371 according to the study site (e.g. Gosling et al., 2009).

372



373

Fig. 4. Correlation coefficient (r) between pollen group and modern vegetation for spatial
buffers of 50, 100 and 500 m radius. Pollen traps of CDA are in orange and ARF in green.

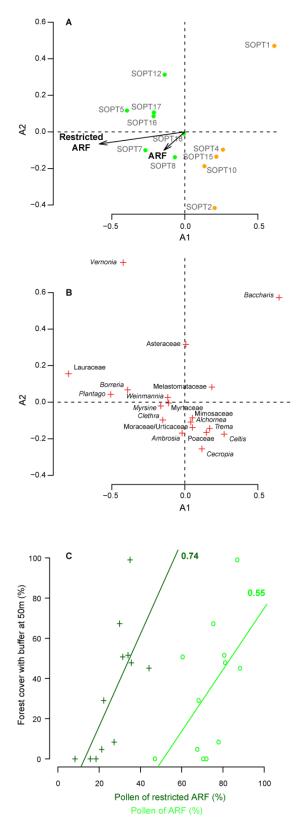




Fig. 5. Correspondence Analysis (CA) for axes 1 and 2 using pollen taxa  $\geq$ 1% in at least three samples. A - distribution of pollen traps (CDA in orange and ARF in green) with the projection of the ARF restricted group and ARF group, B - distribution of pollen taxa, C –correlation between ARF restricted group and forest vegetation cover with buffer at 50 m (dark green) and correlation between ARF and forest vegetation cover with buffer at 50 m (light green).

- 382 **Table 2.** Percentages of total vegetation cover comprised by campos (CDA) and forest (ARF)
- vegetation within areas of 0.79 ha (50 m radius), 3.14 ha (100 m radius) and 78.6 ha (500 m
- radius) surrounding each pollen trap, and pollen % of CDA group and ARF group in each
- 385 pollen trap. Table organized by vegetation type found at the pollen trap site.

Sample	Buffer 50 m		Buffer 100	Buffer 100 m		Buffer 500 m		Pollen	
	Campos	Forest	Campos	Forest	Campos	Forest	CDA	ARF	
CDA (mean)	93.2	6.8	93.2	6.8	80.8	16.07	34.98	65.02	
SOPT1	100.00	0.00	97.89	1.97	81.61	14.85	52.98	47.02	
SOPT10	70.95	29.05	84.29	15.60	81.20	15.39	31.83	68.17	
SOPT2	100.00	0.00	99.90	0.00	84.29	12.29	28.04	71.96	
SOPT15	95.26	4.74	83.93	16.17	78.30	22.60	32.45	67.55	
SOPT4	100.00	0.00	100.08	0.00	78.66	15.19	29.59	70.41	
ARF (mean)	40.6	59.4	63.8	36.2	66.0	34.0	18.73	81.27	
SOPT16	48.44	51.56	44.93	55.08	72.62	29.38	19.38	80.63	
SOPT12	74.60	25.40	75.95	24.03	77.87	16.07	22.16	77.84	
SOPT17	49.25	50.75	71.61	28.28	64.01	38.44	39.54	60.46	
SOPT7	54.91	45.09	79.26	20.78	78.90	21.04	11.75	88.25	
SOPT8	32.75	67.25	77.67	22.40	79.08	20.79	24.67	75.33	
SOPT5	52.20	47.80	79.87	20.06	79.48	20.46	18.95	81.05	
SOPT6	52.20	47.80	79.87	20.06	79.48	20.46	7.36	92.64	
SOPT18	0.99	99.01	64.79	35.37	45.06	57.50	13.07	86.93	
SOPT21	0.00	100.00	0.40	99.60	18.36	81.66	11.68	88.32	

386

## **387 5. Interpretation and discussion**

388 The pollen rain collected by our traps permitted a relatively robust discrimination of campos 389 de altitude (CDA) and upper montane forest (ARF) habitats, even though there was notable 390 overlap between the pollen assemblages. With respect to the CDA, our pollen trap data 391 show that the pollen taxa most indicative of the CDA environment are Poaceae and 392 *Baccharis*. Other common taxa in the CDA pollen traps represent (mostly small tree/shrub) 393 taxa shared with ARF, or pioneer or secondary tree/liana taxa associated with disturbed 394 forest habitats at lower elevations. The upper montane ARF pollen traps were characterized 395 by a suite of taxa that are common to all eastern and southern Brazilian studies of mountain 396 forests (e.g. Portes et al., 2001; Koehler et al., 2002; Sheer and Mocochinski, 2009; Gomes; 397 2015). These include, most prominently, Melastomataceae, Myrsine, and Weinmannia, but 398 also Clethra, Symplocos, Drimys, Croton, Myrtaceae, Ilex, and the tree ferns Cyathea and 399 Dicksonia. In addition, as pollen traps allow better pollen preservation than surface samples, 400 we recorded a high percentage of Lauraceae, which, although very characteristic of upper 401 montane ARF, have thin exine therefore are not commonly found in fossil pollen records 402 (see also Cardenás et al., 2019).

403 These results are strikingly similar to those of Montade et al. (2019), who carried out a broad 404 geographic meta-analysis of 125 modern pollen samples across the Atlantic Forest biome. 405 Montade et al. (2019) also found high levels of pollen taxa overlap between neighboring 406 high elevation vegetation types, including campos de altitude, Araucaria forest, and upper 407 montane Atlantic Forest. They ascribed at least some of this palynological concordance to 408 the mosaic pattern of habitats that characterizes the higher Brazilian mountains (Safford, 409 1999a), where patches of grassland and forests occur in such close proximity that typical 410 pollen sampling methods cannot discern a completely "clean" pollen signature from either 411 habitat. We found the same pattern of pollen "pollution" happening between our CDA and 412 ARF traps. This was especially pronounced in the CDA traps, where upper montane ARF taxa 413 comprised almost 2/3 of the captured pollen. This was due to at least three factors. First, the 414 Brazilian Highlands do not reach the elevations of climatic treeline (Safford, 1999b), 415 therefore the presence and distribution of high-elevation páramo-like grasslands is driven by 416 local-scale environmental and disturbance gradients that lead to a very fine-grained 417 intercalation of grassland and forest patches (Safford, 1999a, 2001). Second, many taxa from 418 the upper montane ARF – such as the prodigious pollen producers Myrsine and Weinmannia, 419 as well as various species of Myrtaceae, Melastomataceae, Croton, Drimys, Clethra, and 420 Symplocos – occur as shrubs or small scattered trees in the campos de altitude (Safford, 421 2007). These are usually interpreted as either remnants of burned forest stands, or pioneers 422 of forest expansion. Third, CDA vegetation is characterized by a much lower pollen 423 production and accumulation rate than the montane or upper montane ARF. The same 424 pattern was recognized by Bush (2000) in a study of páramo vs treeline forests in Central 425 America and by Gosling at al. (2009) in an ecotonal area of tropical forest, semi-deciduous 426 forest and savannah in Colombia. Even though Poaceae is wind-pollinated, most of the 427 genera in the CDA require a pollen vector (c. 71% are insect-pollinated and 5% bird or bat 428 pollinated according to Safford, 2007), and such taxa are always under-represented in the 429 pollen rain. There are also relatively few wind-pollinated taxa in the ARF, but a number of 430 examples secondary forest taxa anemophilous – pioneer or are include 431 Moraceae/Urticaceae, Cecropia, Trema, Celtis, and Alchornea - and their high levels of 432 pollen production, combined with the often up-slope nature of mountain winds, lead to 433 over-representation of these montane taxa in many higher elevation pollen rain studies in 434 the neotropics (e.g. Weng et al., 2004; Niemann et al., 2010; Urrego et al., 2011; Montade et

al., 2019). The relative paucity of CDA pollen in the lower elevation forest traps is driven
probably by the combination of predominantly upslope winds with the very high local
production of pollen in ARF, which masks the downslope movement of CDA pollen (see also
Bush, 2000; Schüler et al., 2014).

439 Another important difference between the CDA and ARF pollen assemblages is the size of the pollen source area. Pollen samples from open areas dominated by Poaceae and subject 440 441 to high influence of wind transport will necessarily represent larger geographic areas than 442 samples from close canopy forests, where local pollen production strongly dominates 443 (Tauber, 1967; Schüler et al., 2014). This explains why, although our ARF traps were found 444 mostly in forest patches surrounded by CDA vegetation (almost 64% of vegetation within 445 100 m of the ARF traps was CDA), they still recorded an average of >80% ARF pollen (Table 446 2). In some cases, forest pollen rain can be strongly influenced by individual trees beneath 447 which the traps are located (Cheng et al., 2020; Niemann et al., 2010; Weng et al., 2004). 448 One obvious case in our study is sample SOPT6, which registered >70% Melastomataceae 449 pollen, while the adjacent sample SOPT5 (only 10 m distant) registered only 3% of this pollen 450 type.

451 A few unexpected results are worth briefly mentioning. The low percentages of *Celtis* and 452 Trema pollen in the lower montane sample SOPT21 – which are typically characteristic of 453 lower montane ARF – are anomalous and may represent masking by Melastomataceae. 454 SOPT21 also recorded a high percentage of *Weinmannia* which, although it produces large 455 amounts of pollen and is usually overrepresented in upper montane environments, is not 456 normally present in lower elevation forest samples. In an arboreal floristic inventory of a 457 montane forest in the PARNASO, Pardo et al. (2007) registered the occurrence of all the 458 arboreal taxa we found in the pollen rain, except for Weinmannia. Cárdenas et al. (2019), 459 studying the modern pollen-vegetation relationship in Araucaria forest in southern Brazil 460 also remarked that although Weinmannia is normally cited as evidence of Araucaria forest, it 461 is much more floristically important at higher elevations.

In order to develop a reasonably accurate process by which fossil pollen records might be used to better discriminate between grassland and forest habitats in such a complex environmental mosaic, we proposed a suite of distinctive upper montane ARF taxa composed of *Weinmannia*, *Myrsine*, *Clethra*, and Myrtaceae.

466 Calculated with more specific taxa than the pollen groups usually used to distinguish forest

467 from CDA, this discrimination group excludes over-represented taxa (e.g. Celtis, Cecropia, 468 Moraceae/Urticaceae as observed in the pollen traps) as well as under-represented taxa 469 (e.g. Lauraceae in fossil samples). Within vegetation cover buffer at 50 m of the sampling 470 site, it reflects better proportion of forest cover (Fig. 5c). We believe this group is more 471 appropriate to discriminate vegetation change between forest habitats and CDA and can be 472 applied to fossil pollen data in order to support palaeo records interpretation. However, as 473 each region presents a different species occurrence pattern, its replication should be treated 474 with caution. It can be transferred to historical pollen data for the given region or other CDA and forest mosaic in similar altitude and in the same mountain range in southeastern Brazil. 475

476 Moreover, data from a sediment core and a pollen trap from the same vegetation type may 477 lead to slightly different results with regard to pollen diversity (Jantz et al., 2013) as the 478 catchment area from which samples are taken may be different. For example, fossil samples 479 from lake sediments represent a large source area and high proportions of Poaceae and 480 Cyperaceae (Gosling et al., 2009). Sediments collect in the mosaic of CDA and forest in the 481 Highlands from southeastern Brazil are basically peats but also bogs, within a more local 482 catchment area (but probably also larger than the pollen trap source area) and the 483 contribution of these taxa are quite well representative of local diversity. Application of our 484 restricted ARF might be therefore more relevant for sites with local catchment area (e.g. 485 peats and bogs) than for site with large source area (e.g. lakes). Other point to consider is 486 that our study was based on 1 year of pollen rain, and probably there is variability in pollen 487 productivity according to changes in climatic conditions through the years. A long-term 488 investigation with pollen traps could be interesting to verify this possible variation.

489

#### 490 **6.** Conclusion

491 Our study of the modern pollen rain along an elevational gradient was focused on 492 supporting palaeo-studies of vegetation and climate dynamics in southeastern Brazil by 493 helping to refine the pollen taxa and spectra that most robustly differentiate CDA and forest 494 habitats. Our assemblages indicated that vegetation distribution is closed related with 495 altitude, even with occurrence of low montane taxa in higher elevations. Although arboreal 496 taxa dominated all of our pollen assemblages, pollen traps located in CDA captured a 497 characteristic mix of grass, herbs, and shrub pollen. The results indicate that the CDA pollen 498 spectra represent much larger geographic areas than forest pollen spectra, which sample

499 local taxa more heavily. Nonetheless, the pollen assemblages accurately reflected the 500 vegetation zone in which they were found, and we were able to specify a characteristic 501 group of taxa for each elevation. Our results underlined that special care must be taken with 502 pollen trap location, as samples can be strongly influenced by a few individual plants if they 503 dominate the trap area. Pioneer tree and liana species with anemophilous pollen disperal 504 dispersion produce copious pollen and were over-represented in CDA pollen traps from 505 higher elevation, these included Melastomataceae, Moraceae/Urticaceae, Cecropia, Trema, 506 and Celtis. As found in other tropical montane studies as well, the main direction of wind-507 driven pollen dispersal seems to be uphill in our study area, although the low presence of 508 CDA pollen in lower elevation forest traps is probably also influenced by masking due to high 509 local pollen production in the study area forests. Finally, we proposed the use of a suite of 510 distinctive taxa which more confidently differentiate CDA and forest habitats from pollen 511 data. We believe that will prove useful to efforts to reconstruct and model climate and 512 vegetation dynamics in such kind of specific environment, with important applications to 513 conservation and management (e.g., developing the natural range of variation of CDA vs. 514 forest areas as a function of landscape and climate) and climate and vegetation science (e.g., 515 developing a more quantitative idea of the dependence of CDA vegetation on climate 516 variability vs. natural disturbances like fire).

517

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## 699 Supplementary Material

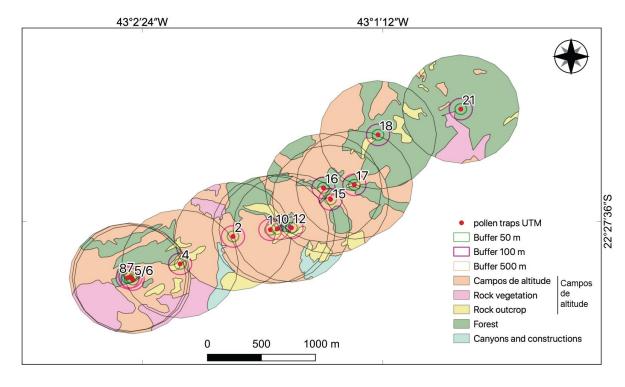
700 List of taxa identified in the pollen rain.

Таха	Group	Vegetation
Poaceae		
Apiaceae		
Eryngium type 1		
Eryngium type 2		
Lamiaceae		
Fabaceae		
Borreria		
Ericaceae		
Plantago		
Amaranthaceae/Chenopodiaceae		
Malpighiaceae		
Valeriana	Herbs and shrubs	
Cactaceae Rhipsalis	Herbs and shrubs	Campos de altitude (CDA)
Cactaceae		
Amaryllis		
Menispermacaceae		
Malvaceae		
Verbena		
Scrophulariaceae		
Ochnaceae		
Polygonum		
Polygala		
Convolvulaceae		
Asteraceae		
Baccharis		
Vernonia	Asteraceae	
Ambrosia		
Senecio		

Таха	Group	Vegetation	
Cyperaceae			
Hydrocotyle			
Xyris	Sub-aquatics	Sub-aquatics	
Typha			
Liliaceae			
Clethra			
Griselinia			
Myrsine			
Weinmannia			
Symplocos tenuifolia type			
Symplocos lanceolata type			
Hedyosmum			
Drimys			
Daphnopsis	Upper Montane ARF		
Croton			
Roupala			
Lauraceae			
Lamanonia		Atlantic rain forest (ARF)	
Fuchsia			
Begonia			
Euphorbia			
Laplacea			
Struthanthus			
Podocarpus			
Araucaria			
Mimosa scabrella			
Melastomataceae	Montane ARF		
Melastomataceae (small)			
Flacourtiaceae			
Myrtaceae			
llex			
Таха	Group	Vegetation	
Mimosaceae			
<i>Mimosa</i> (small)			
Schefflera			
Oreopanax			
Sebastiana commersoniana	Montane ARF	Atlantic rain forest (APE)	
Sebastiana brasiliensis		Atlantic rain forest (ARF)	
Piper			
Trema	1	1	
nemu			
Celtis			

Zanthoxylum		
Meliosma		
Allophyllus		
Luehea		
Pera		
Parapiptadenia		
Matayba		
Bignoniaceae		
Anacardiacceae		
Bauhinia		
Cordia		
Rubiaceae		
Rubiaceae <i>Bridelia</i>		
Lythraea		
Dodonea		
Solanaceae		
Prunus type		
Euterpe/Geonoma		
Cecropia		
Moraceae/Urticaceae		
Alchornea		
Гаха	Group	Vegetation
Sloanea		
Schizolobium		
Rhamnus	Montane ARF	Atlantic rain forest (AR
Tetrorchiolium		
Pinus		
Casuarina	Exotics	Exotics
<i>Cyathea</i> psilate		
<i>Cyathea</i> reticulate		
<i>Cyathea</i> verrucate	Tree ferns	
	Tree ferns	
Dicksonia	Tree ferns	
Dicksonia Lophosoria quadripinnata	Tree ferns	
Dicksonia Lophosoria quadripinnata Lycopodium foveolate	Tree ferns	
Dicksonia Lophosoria quadripinnata Lycopodium foveolate Lycopodium clavatum	Tree ferns	
Dicksonia Lophosoria quadripinnata Lycopodium foveolate Lycopodium clavatum Monolete psilate	Tree ferns	Ferns
Dicksonia Lophosoria quadripinnata Lycopodium foveolate Lycopodium clavatum Monolete psilate Monolete psilate large (> 40 2m)	Tree ferns	Ferns
Dicksonia Lophosoria quadripinnata Lycopodium foveolate Lycopodium clavatum Monolete psilate Monolete psilate large (> 40 @m) Monolete scabrate		Ferns
Cyathea verrucate Dicksonia Lophosoria quadripinnata Lycopodium foveolate Lycopodium clavatum Monolete psilate Monolete psilate large (> 40 @m) Monolete scabrate Monolete echinate	Tree ferns Ferns	Ferns
Dicksonia Lophosoria quadripinnata Lycopodium foveolate Lycopodium clavatum Monolete psilate Monolete psilate large (> 40 @m) Monolete scabrate Monolete echinate Monolete verrucate		Ferns
Dicksonia Lophosoria quadripinnata Lycopodium foveolate Lycopodium clavatum Monolete psilate Monolete psilate large (> 40 ⊡m) Monolete scabrate Monolete echinate Monolete verrucate Monolete verrucate large		Ferns
Dicksonia Lophosoria quadripinnata Lycopodium foveolate Lycopodium clavatum Monolete psilate Monolete psilate large (> 40 @m) Monolete scabrate Monolete echinate Monolete verrucate		Ferns

Pteris type	
Schizaea	
Trilete psilate	
Trilete verrucate	
Trilete scabrate	
Pteridophyta type 6	
Pteridophyta type 4	
Trilete with perispore	
Trilete striate	



 $\,$  Figure S1: Interpretation of the vegetation surrounding each pollen trap and limit of the

spatial buffers of 50 m radius (0.79 ha total area), 100 m radius (3.14 ha total area) and 500
m radius (78.6 ha total area).

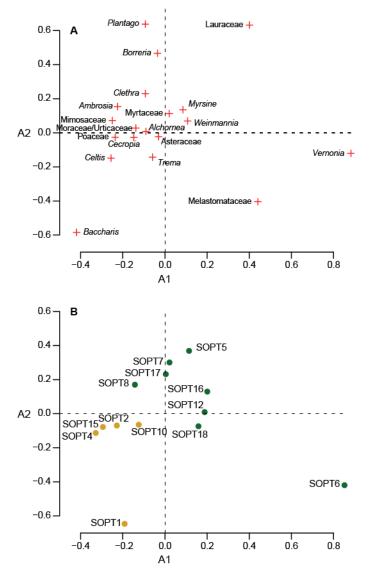


Figure S2: Correspondence Analysis (CA) for axes 1 and 2 using pollen taxa >1% in at least
three samples, including sample SOPT6. A – distribution of pollen taxa, B - distribution of
pollen traps.