

A quantitative study of modern pollenvegetation relationships in southern Brazil's Araucaria forest

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- ¹ A quantitative study of modern pollen-
- ² vegetation relationships in southern Brazil's

³ Araucaria forest.

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13	Abstract
14	Southern Brazil's highland Araucaria forest is ancient, diverse and unique, but its future is under
15	significant threat from 20 th Century habitat loss and 21 st Century climate change. Palaeoecological
16	studies have revealed that it expanded rapidly over highland grasslands around 1,000 years ago,
17	but whether this expansion was caused by human land use or climate change has been a topic of
18	considerable debate. Discriminating between these potential drivers has so far not been possible

19 with fossil pollen, however, as the palynological representation of floristic and structural differences in Araucaria forest remains poorly understood. Here, we address this shortcoming using 20 21 modern pollen rain from moss polsters and vegetation surveys in forest areas with minimal current 22 human disturbance. We show that forest plots with evident structural differences lack consistent 23 differences in their floristic composition and cannot be reliably distinguished by their pollen spectra. We quantify pollen-vegetation relationships for 27 key tree genera of Araucaria forest, 24 25 showing that, despite significant intra-taxon variability, 22 of these are under-represented or 26 absent in the pollen record. These palynologically under-represented and silent taxa include many 27 of the forest's most ecologically important tree species, with only Araucaria, Lamanonia, 28 Podocarpus, Myrsine and Clethra being more abundant in the pollen rain than vegetation. Our 29 results suggest that subtle structural changes in Araucaria forest, as well as moderate to significant floristic changes, may not be clearly distinguished in fossil pollen records - an important limitation 30 31 when attempting to identify past human and climatic impacts on Araucaria forest via pollen 32 analysis.

33 Key words: Araucaria forest, pollen, moss polsters, modern analogues, human impact

34 1. Introduction

35 1.1. Rationale

Disentangling the past effects of humans and climate on ecosystems requires a rigorous understanding of the vegetation changes that occurred, and how these are reflected in palaeoecological proxies. This is an important undertaking in Brazil's *Araucaria* forest (also known as Mixed Ombrophilous Forest), an ancient, highly diverse and threatened ecosystem in the country's southern highlands. Studies have charted changes in the distribution of *Araucaria* forest in relation to climatic variations since the late Pleistocene (Behling et al., 2004; Ledru et al., 2009),

many finding rapid increases in its pollen abundance about 1,000 years ago which, in some sites, 42 reached levels unprecedented for tens of thousands of years (Behling et al., 2004; Gu et al., 2017). 43 44 This marked expansion ca. 1000 years ago was much more drastic than the steady expansion of 45 Araucaria forest over the previous few millennia, and has been attributed by some authors to 46 ancient human land use, rather than climate change, due to the coincident expansion of the local 47 southern proto-Jê culture (Bitencourt and Krauspenhar, 2006; dos Reis et al., 2014; Lauterjung et 48 al., 2018; Noelli, 2000; Robinson et al., 2018), whose economy, spiritual beliefs and living space 49 were closely linked to the forest (De Souza et al., 2016a; Iriarte et al., 2016; Iriarte and Behling, 2007). 50

Understanding the extent to which Araucaria forest's late-Holocene expansion can be attributed to 51 52 humans versus climate change will improve our understanding of the ecosystem's responses to 53 prevailing climatic conditions – a particularly important endeavour in the face of continuing anthropogenic climate change. With regional temperatures forecast to become warmer, and 54 55 precipitation more variable, as this century progresses (Chou et al., 2014), the cold- and humidity-56 dependent Araucaria forest is likely to contract (Bergamin, 2017; Wrege et al., 2009). 57 Understanding how this iconic forest responded to past variations in climate – and how humans 58 may have altered this response - may help conservationists anticipate and ameliorate the effects of 59 modern climatic changes upon its distribution. This is especially important as Araucaria forest cover was much reduced by the 20th Century logging boom in the states of Paraná, Santa Catarina and 60 61 Rio Grande do Sul (Carvalho and Nodari, 2010), with remnants now covering just 12.6% of the 62 biogeographic region it previously dominated (Ribeiro et al., 2009).

The main proxy used for reconstructing past dynamics of vegetation on the southern Brazilian
 highlands is fossil pollen from lake/bog sediments, the informed and accurate interpretation of

which requires appropriate characterisation and quantification of modern pollen-vegetation
relationships. This is currently poor for Brazil's *Araucaria* forest. Existing pollen-vegetation studies
(Behling et al., 2001; Garcia et al., 2004; Jeske-Pieruschka et al., 2010) are purely qualitative,
identifying *Araucaria* forest's key indicator taxa but giving little insight into the degree to which the
floristic composition or structure of these forests can be resolved palynologically. In this study, we
address this shortcoming, presenting the first quantitative examination of the modern pollenvegetation relationship of *Araucaria* forest and its constituent taxa.

72 1.2. Background

73 Araucaria forest is found at the southern and south-eastern reaches of the Atlantic Forest biome, a 74 global biodiversity hotspot (Colombo and Joly, 2010; Myers et al., 2000). It occupies the biome's 75 high-altitude and low-temperature extreme niches (Neves et al., 2017; Oliveira-Filho et al., 2014), mostly occuring above 500m altitude (Hueck, 1953; Lacerda, 2016) in areas with high annual rainfall 76 77 and climatic conditions classified as Cfb – humid subtropical oceanic climate, with temperate summers and no dry season (Alvares et al., 2013) – under the Köppen system (Higuchi et al., 2012; 78 79 Hueck, 1953). At more southerly latitudes in Brazil, some apparently natural stands of Araucaria forest can also be found at elevations below 500m (Behling et al., 2016). 80

Araucaria forest is home to over 1,500 species of plants, 6% of which are endemic to the Atlantic Forest biome (Neves et al., 2017), and is characterised by the dominance of the conifer *Araucaria angustifolia* in its canopy (Duarte et al., 2014; Leite and Klein, 1990; Meyer et al., 2013). This species has the third highest EDGE score (a metric which combines evolutionary distinctiveness and global endangerment) of all the world's gymnosperms (Forest et al., 2018), imperilled by logging and habitat loss which started in the late 19th Century and reduced the forests' area by 97% within three generations (Carvalho and Nodari, 2010; Thomas, 2013). Other important arboreal species

88 include Dicksonia sellowiana, Podocarpus sellowiana, Matayba elaeagnoides, Lithraea brasiliensis, Clethra scabra, Ocotea porosa, and Prunus myrtifolia (Duarte et al., 2014; Meyer et al., 2013). 89 Araucaria forest is not floristically homogenous, however. Early studies differentiated eight types of 90 91 Araucaria forest (Klein, 1978), and the ecosystem's mixture of tropical and temperate elements 92 varies with longitude, altitude, temperature, river basin, and distance to other forest types (Duarte 93 et al., 2014; Gonçalves and Souza, 2014; Higuchi et al., 2012; Klein, 1975; Oliveira-Filho et al., 2014; Sevegnani et al., 2016). At higher altitudes, under drier conditions and in areas of high fire 94 frequencies and shallower soils, Araucaria forest forms mosaics with campos grasslands (Hueck, 95 96 1966; Müller et al., 2012; Oliveira-Filho et al., 2014), with other ecotones occurring with seasonally 97 deciduous and dense ombrophilous forests at its western and eastern extents, respectively 98 (Gonçalves and Souza, 2014; Oliveira-Filho et al., 2014). Fossil pollen records from the eastern edge of southern Brazil's highland plateau show that the area 99 100 was dominated by campos at the Last Glacial Maximum, with Araucaria forest likely confined to 101 river valleys (Behling, 2002; Behling et al., 2004; Leonhardt and Lorscheitter, 2010). These forests 102 subsequently expanded slightly 4,000-3,000 years ago, and then rapidly 1,500-900 years ago 103 (Behling, 1997a, 1995; Behling et al., 2004; Iriarte and Behling, 2007; Jeske-Pieruschka and Behling, 104 2012; Leonhardt and Lorscheitter, 2010; Silva and Anand, 2011), in some places replacing 105 grasslands within a century (Behling et al., 2004; Iriarte and Behling, 2007). 106 These changes have typically been attributed to climate change (Rodrigues et al., 2016a). However, recent speleothem data (Bernal et al., 2016) show that, although the initial Araucaria forest 107 108 expansion at 4,000 yr BP does correlate with an increase in rainfall, no subsequent climate change 109 accompanies the later, more significant forest expansion at 1,500-900 yr BP (Robinson et al., 2018). 110 This has led several authors to invoke humans as the most likely cause for this most recent, rapid

expansion of *Araucaria* forest (Bitencourt and Krauspenhar, 2006; dos Reis et al., 2014; Iriarte and
Behling, 2007; Noelli, 2000), bolstered by evidence that, under natural conditions, expansion of
forest patches into campos grassland can be extremely slow (less than 100m in 4,000 years (Silva
and Anand, 2011)).

115 Before European arrival, the indigenous people of the highlands, the southern Jê, had lifestyles that 116 were at least semi-sedentary and practised a mixed economy that combined the cultivation of manioc (Manihot esculenta), maize (Zea mays), squash (Cucurbita sp.) and beans (Phaseolus sp.) 117 with hunting, fishing, and gathering forest and riverine resources (Corteletti et al., 2015; De Souza 118 119 et al., 2016b; Henry, 1964; Métraux, 1946; Noelli and De Souza, 2017). Araucaria angustifolia seeds, 120 known as pinhão, have long been a critical food source for the southern Jê (Corteletti et al., 2015; 121 Heineberg, 2014; Henry, 1964; Loponte et al., 2016; Métraux, 1946; Urban, 1985), with one group 122 traditionally defining a year as "one period with no pine nuts" (Henry, 1964, p. 68). Ethnographic studies of extant southern Jê groups have also highlighted the importance of Araucaria forest – and 123 124 A. angustifolia in particular – as a source of spiritual power and cultural identity (Fernandes and 125 Piovezana, 2015; Haverroth, 1997; Hoffmann, 2011; Robinson et al., 2017; Silva, 2002). 126 Archaeological records show that the southern Jê flourished around 1,000 years ago (Iriarte et al., 127 2016, 2013; Noelli and De Souza, 2017; Robinson et al., 2018), as changes in domestic architecture appeared (De Souza et al., 2016b), combining with the arrival of funerary mound-and-enclosure 128 129 complexes (De Souza et al., 2016a; Iriarte et al., 2016) to form highly structured 'sacred landscapes' 130 (Iriarte et al., 2013) in the highlands. The temporal overlap of these changes with the most recent 131 Araucaria forest expansion suggests that more available forest resources likely helped underpin the

cultural changes (Iriarte and Behling, 2007), and there is some evidence that the southern Jê may in

132

turn have helped expand the forest (dos Reis et al., 2014; Lauterjung et al., 2018; Robinson et al.,
2018), though this has not yet been tested with fossil pollen data.

135 1.3. Aims

Quantitative studies of the relationships between present-day Araucaria forest and its constituent 136 137 pollen assemblages are needed to improve the level of ecological detail that can be extracted from 138 fossil pollen records, and thereby obtain a firmer basis for unravelling the relative roles of climate 139 change versus human land use in driving this threatened forest's long-term dynamics over the past 140 several millennia. We therefore conducted a study to quantitatively define the vegetation-pollen relationships of Araucaria forest taxa. Specifically, we analysed floristic inventories from vegetation 141 142 plots, and collected their constituent pollen assemblages from moss polsters, to determine: 1. whether structurally different Araucaria forest patches can be differentiated by their pollen 143 144 spectra, and 2. how the constituent species of these patches are represented in the modern pollen 145 rain.

146 2. Methods

147 2.1. Study site

148 [Insert Figure 1 here]

149 Figure 1: Map of forest plot locations; numbers refer to plot codes (see Table 1 below). Plot colours:

150 Cyan: riverine; Olive: slope; Black: rock outcrop; Purple: open understorey; Orange: closed

151 understorey; Red: disturbed.

152 The Reserva Particular do Patrimonio Natural (RPPN) Emilio Einsfeld Filho (27°58'0.80"S,

153 50°49'20.03"W, 650-990 m a.s.l.), managed by the Florestal Gateados company, is located in the

154 municipalities of Campo Belo do Sul and Capão Alto, southern Santa Catarina State, Brazil (Figure

RPPN Emilio Einsfeld Filho is located on the plateau of the Serra Catarinense, a gently undulating
 landscape. The reserve covers 6,329 hectares of native *Araucaria* forest patches within a wider
 matrix of campos grassland, with the largest density of forest along rivers, valleys and slopes.
 Forested areas have been protected from timber extraction since 1989 and cattle grazing since
 (Zeller, 2010).

- 160 The climate of the area corresponds to Cfb in the Köppen classification: humid subtropical with
- temperate summers and no dry season, but with occurrence of severe frosts (Alvares et al., 2013;
- 162 Formento et al., 2004; Zeller, 2010). Between 2005 and 2009 the reserve's average annual
- temperature was 16°C, with hottest months averaging 31°C, coldest months averaging 6.5°C and a
- lowest recorded temperature of -12°C; in this period annual precipitation varied between 1300 and
- 165 2400 mm, with an average of 129 rainy days a year (Zeller, 2010).
- 166 2.2 Field sampling

167 2.2.1 Vegetation survey

The native Araucaria forest at RPPN Emilio Einsfeld Filho has been subject to ecological studies for
the last 20 years, with permanent plots of 10 x 50 m installed to perform floristic inventories and
study forest dynamics under distinct geographic conditions. Within each plot all trees with d.b.h.
(diameter at breast height) ≥ 10 cm have been recorded (Formento et al., 2004; Maçaneiro et al.,
2018). Percentage abundances were calculated based upon all recorded stems surveyed within
each plot.

The sixteen plots used in this study are located within the oldest and least disturbed areas of forest and incorporate the widest available range of vegetation form and physical setting (Table 1). Data on canopy openness, slope, animal disturbance, geographical feature associations and topographic position were collected during botanical surveys in 2015, and the plots classified into six structural

- 178 categories according to their dominant feature:
- slope: forest patches in areas with > 25% inclination
- rock outcrop: forest patches where rock outcrops cover > 20% of plot surface
- riverine: forest patch bounded by, or entirely within 50 m of, a water course (river or creek)
- open understorey: forest with closed canopy and scarce understorey
- closed understorey: forest with closed canopy and dense understorey
- naturally disturbed: forest patches with evidence of ground disturbance by wild boars

	Forest Plot		Altitude
Plot ID	category	Coordinates	(a.s.l.)
		28° 2'34.70"S,	
114	Slope	50°45'21.40"W	780 m
		28° 3'28.80"S,	
118	Slope	50°45'45.80"W	924 m
	Rock	28° 3'0.10"S,	
117	outcrop	50°45'16.50"W	856 m
		28° 1'17.30"S,	
110	Riverine	50°46'55.50"W	721 m
		28° 1'55.50"S,	
136	Riverine	50°45'59.00"W	740 m
151	L51 Riverine 28° 3'22.5		874 m

	Open	28° 3'16.80"S,	
119	understorey	50°45'51.70"W	929 m
	Open	28° 2'59.00"S,	
122	understorey	50°46'28.10"W	921 m
	Open	28° 3'4.10"S,	
123	understorey	50°46'11.60"W	935 m
	Open	28° 3'42.60"S,	
142	understorey	50°46'26.60"W	922 m
	Open	28° 3'24.30"S,	
144	understorey	50°46'21.50"W	953 m
		28° 4'29.00"S,	
156	Disturbed	50°46'22.10"W	850 m
		28° 4'11.80"S,	
157	Disturbed	50°46'20.90"W	851 m
		28° 4'21.60"S,	
159	Disturbed	50°45'53.60"W	868 m
	Closed	28° 3'40.70"S,	
141	understorey	50°46'14.90"W	931 m
	Closed	28° 3'53.50"S,	
149	understorey	50°45'39.20"W	891 m

Table 1: The studied forest plots, their structural category, and the location and altitude of eachtransect's starting point.

187 2.2.2 Modern pollen rain

188 Using moss polsters to study modern pollen rain has been widely used and recognized as a reliable 189 technique (Atanassova, 2007; Caseldine, 1989; Hicks, 1977; López-Sáez et al., 2010; Pardoe, 2006; 190 Pardoe et al., 2010; Tonkov et al., 2001). Moss polsters can collect several years' pollen (Pardoe et al., 2010), occur naturally within the forest on different substrates and at varied heights (allowing 191 192 for effective capture of pollen rain) and do not need to be installed and managed before analysis 193 (Hicks, 1985). Moss polsters were gathered every 10 m along the 50 m length of each forest 194 inventory plot surveyed. At each collection point, polsters were obtained from ground level 195 (including rocks), chest height (1.20 m) and overhead (1.80 m). The samples for each point of 196 collection were mixed to form one homogeneous sample for each plot (following Pardoe et al., 2010), placed in a labelled, sealed plastic bag, and stored at 4°C to preserve the material. 197

198 2.3. Laboratory methods

Subsamples of 1 cm³ were extracted from each homogenised sample for pollen processing. Each
subsample was centrifuged, washed with distilled water, centrifuged again, then treated with 10%
NaOH and put in a hot-water bath to deflocculate the organics. Afterwards, acetolysis was carried
out in the samples to dissolve cellulose material (Faegri and Iversen, 1989).

Samples were mounted on slides in silicone oil and counted at 400× and 1000× magnification using a Leica DME binocular microscope. Samples were counted to a minimum of 300 terrestrial pollen grains. Aquatic taxa and spores were also counted as is standard practice, but were excluded from the total terrestrial pollen (TTP) sum; non-native species (e.g. pine from recent plantations surrounding the reserve) were also excluded from the TTP sum. For pollen determination, the

- 208 reference collection of the Tropical Palaeoecology Research Group of the University of Reading was
- used, along with several pollen atlases Colinvaux et al. (1999), Hooghiemstra (1984), Roubik and
- 210 Moreno (1991), Behling (1993) and the online Neotropical Pollen Key (Bush and Weng, 2007).
- Diagrams of vegetation and pollen abundance were made using C2 v.1.7.7 (Juggins, 2016).
- 212 2.4. Data analysis
- 213 2.4.1 Vegetation data processing
- Analysis of each plot's floristic inventory data used percentage abundance (relative to the total number of individual trees counted) and relative coverage value (RCV). RCV (expressed as a percentage) indicates the importance of a species within a forest plot, taking into account its individuals' density and dominance.

218
$$RCVi = \frac{(RDoi + RDeni)}{\sum(RDo + RDen)} * 100$$

- 219 RCVi: Relative Coverage Value for species i (%)
- 220 RDoi: Relative dominance for species i (basal area (m²) per hectare)
- 221 RDeni: Relative density for species i (number of individuals per hectare)
- 222 RDo: Relative dominance for all species (m^2 / ha)
- 223 RDen: Relative density for all species (n / ha)
- 224 2.4.2 Statistical analysis of vegetation and pollen data
- 225 To investigate the extent to which structural differences between plots are reflected in their
- vegetation composition and pollen rain, we conducted cluster and Detrended Correspondence
- Analysis (DCA) multivariate analyses using PAST (Hammer et al., 2001) v.3.19 (2018). Raw floristic
- inventory and pollen data were normalised using natural logarithm before running the analyses.
- 229 Only taxa with abundance \geq 2% in two or more plots were considered for cluster and multivariate

analysis.

Cluster analysis was run with hierarchical clustering using the Unweighted Pair Group Method 231 232 (UPGM) algorithm, which iteratively joins clusters based on the average distance between all 233 members of the groups (Kent and Coker, 1992; Legendre et al., 2012). The measure of similarity or 234 distance measurements between samples (forest plots) was calculated using Bray-Curtis index of 235 dissimilarity (Kent and Coker, 1992). The DCA uses the same algorithm as Decorana (Hill and Gauch, 1980), with modifications according to Oksanen and Minchin (1997). The DCA method was 236 preferred as it allows the identification of the ecological variances amongst the forest plots (Correa-237 238 Metrio et al., 2014). 239 To enable direct comparisons between taxa in the vegetation and pollen rain, which were mostly 240 identified at different taxonomic levels, the vegetation-pollen analysis was performed at genus 241 level, with congeneric species combined for the analysis (Burn et al., 2010). 242 To quantify the vegetation-pollen relationships of taxa in this study area, we calculated mean p/v 243 (pollen/vegetation) values (Burn et al., 2010; Gosling et al., 2009; Montade et al., 2016), which are 244 analogous to R values (Davis, 1963). We calculate the p/v value for taxon i as: $p/v_i = \frac{Pollen \ abundance \ (\%) \ averaged \ over \ all \ plots_i}{Vegetation \ abundance \ (\%) \ averaged \ over \ all \ plots_i}$ 245

Although more complex measures of pollen production exist (e.g. Parsons and Prentice, 1981;

Sugita, 2007a, 2007b), p/v values provide a straightforward and intuitive index of the relationship

- 248 between vegetation and pollen abundance and continue to be foundational for vegetation
- reconstruction (Mrotzek et al., 2017).

250 To complement this metric and show the variability in pollen-vegetation relationships between

251 plots, we also calculated a pollen-vegetation abundance differential for taxon *i*:

252 Abundance differential_i = Pollen abundance $(\%)_i$ – Vegetation abundance $(\%)_i$

Plots where a taxon was absent from both the pollen rain and vegetation survey were not included
in calculations of mean differentials. p/v values and abundance differentials could not be calculated
for herbaceous taxa as these were not included in the vegetation survey. Data were plotted using R
v.3.4.2 (R Core Team, 2017) and PAST (Hammer et al., 2001) v.3.19 (2018).

257 3. Results

258 3.1. Vegetation

Across the 16 forest plots, 54 tree species with d.b.h. ≥ 10 cm were recorded, of which 33 had
relative abundances of 2% or higher in at least two plots; the relative (percentage) abundance of
these species within each plot is shown in Figure 2. The most consistently present species were *Lithraea brasiliensis* (15 plots), *Cinnamodendron dinisii* (13 plots), *Myrsine coriacea, Ocotea pulchella* and *Araucaria angustifolia* (12 plots), undifferentiated *Eugenia* sp. (11 plots), and *Calyptranthes* cf. *concinna, Ilex theezans, Pera glabrata, Podocarpus lambertii* and *Zanthoxylum kleinii* (10 plots).

266 The taxa with the highest average abundance in the vegetation were *L. brasiliensis* (9.1%),

267 *Cinnamodendron dinisii* (7.7%), *A. angustifolia* (7.3%), undifferentiated *Eugenia* sp. (6.7%), *O.*

268 pulchella (5.7%), and Calyptranthes cf. concinna (5.0%). Of the common taxa, L. brasiliensis had the

highest maximum abundance (34.2%), followed by Eugenia sp. (26.4%), A. angustifolia (26.1%), E.

270 uniflora (25.7%) and Cinnamodendron dinisii (24.1%). Two less common species with high maximum

abundances were Matayba elaeagnoides (found in three plots, max. 35.6%) and Nectandra

272 *megapotamica* (three plots, max. 28.6%).

273 Generally, tree species that were more abundant also had higher relative coverage values (RCVs;

Figure 3): the taxa with the highest RCVs averaged across all plots were *L. brasiliensis* (10.3%), *A.*

275 angustifolia (10.0%), O. pulchella (7.8%), C. dinisii (6.1%), Styrax leprosus (5.3%) and

undifferentiated *Eugenia* sp. (5.2%). Some species were found in few plots, but had high RCVs

277 where they were present: the less frequent species with the highest RCVs averaged across the plots

in which they were found were *M. elaeagnoides* (15.6%, four plots), *Luehea divaricata* (9.2%, three

279 plots), *N. megapotamica* (9.0%, three plots), *Vernonanthura discolor* (7.4%, five plots), *Sebastiania*

280 commersoniana (7.0%, six plots), Prunus myrtifolia (5.7%, six plots), Piptocarpha angustifolia (5.2%,

two plots), *Myrceugenia* sp. (5.1%, five plots) and *Myrsine umbellata* (5.0%, two plots).

282 3.2. Pollen

170 pollen and spore types were found in the 16 forest plots. Of these, 118 could be identified to family level, 95 of which could be refined to genus, one to species (*llex theezans*). We also assign species names to *Araucaria angustifolia* and *Podocarpus lambertii* because no other species of these genera occur in our study area. The plots' pollen spectra are summarised in Figure 4, where abundant and important taxa are shown.

288 Eight pollen types were found in all 16 plots: *A. angustifolia*, Asteraceae (others total), *Eugenia*

289 type, 'cf Lithraea a (Anacardiaceae)', Myrsine, Poaceae, P. lambertii, and Pteridophyta. Additionally,

Araceae pollen was found in 15 plots, and *Lithraea, Vernonanthura*-type and *Calyptranthes*-type in

14; Sebastiania and undifferentiated Myrtaceae pollen was found in 12 plots, and Clethra, I.

292 theezans and Pteris each in 10 plots. Additionally, Alchornea pollen and Cyathea-type spores were

found at very low levels (average abundance 0.27% and 0.2% respectively) in 11 plots, with Senecio-

type (average 0.35%) and *Mimosa scabrella*-type (average 0.25%) present in 10 plots.

295 Myrsine pollen was the most abundant across all plots (averaging 19.5%), followed by A.

angustifolia (16.6%), Pteridophyta (13.2%), *Podocarpus lambertii* (7.9%) and Poaceae (5.2%).

- 297 Eugenia-type, 'cf Lithraea a (Anacardiaceae)', Asteraceae (others total), Lamanonia, I. theezans,
- 298 *Calyptranthes*-type, *Vernonanthura*-type and *Clethra* pollen all had average abundances between
 299 1% and 5%.
- 300 [Insert Figure 2 here]
- 301 Figure 2: Relative abundance (%) of selected tree species in the vegetation survey. Species included
- in the cluster analysis and DCA are indicated with an asterisk.
- 303 [Insert Figure 3 here]
- Figure 3: Relative Coverage Values (RCVs, %) of selected tree species in the vegetation survey. 'Ave.
- 305 (all)' = sum of RCVs/total number of plots; 'Ave. (present)' = sum of RCVs/number of plots in which
- 306 taxon was present.
- 307 [Insert Figure 4 here]
- 308 Figure 4: Relative abundance (%) of selected pollen types. Taxa included in the cluster analysis and
- 309 DCA are indicated with an asterisk

310 3.3. Plot differentiation

- 311 33 taxa from the vegetation survey and 15 pollen types met the 2% abundance threshold for
- inclusion in the plot differentiation analysis (see section 2.4.2); these are identified with asterisks in
- the summary diagrams (Figures 2 and 4).
- 314 [Insert Figure 5 here]
- Figure 5: Cluster analyses (left; a, c) and DCAs (right; b, d) of plots by vegetation (top; a, b) and
- pollen (bottom; c, d) taxa found in \geq 2 plots at \geq 2% abundance. In the DCAs, convex hulls are
- delimited for structural categories containing three or more plots. Plot types are identified by
- 318 colour and two-letter code (op: open; cl: closed; ri: riverine; di: disturbed; ro: rock; sl: slope; see

319 Table 1).

320	In the cluster analysis of vegetation data (Figure 5a), similarity scores range from ~0.25 to > 0.75.
321	Two plot groupings that are somewhat structurally consistent can be highlighted. One such cluster
322	contains three of the five open-understorey plots (P119, P122 and P123) with the lone slope plot
323	P118 (similarity score > 0.65); the other is the pairing of riverine plots P136 and P110 which, despite
324	having similarity scores < 0.6 relative to each other, are together highly dissimilar to all other plots.
325	In the DCA of vegetation data (Figure 5b), most variation is explained on axis 1 (eigenvalue 0.3781),
326	with values ranging from -196 (Cyathea sp.) to 365 (Nectandra megapotamica). The majority of
327	sample plots are clustered between 0 and 143 on axis 1, with the riverine plots P136 (202) and P110
328	(255) more distinguished. The values on axis 2 (eigenvalue 0.1268) range from -337 (Sapium
329	glandulosum) to 388 (Myrsine umbellata); sample plots are all clustered between 0 and 140 on this
330	axis.
331	In the pollen cluster analysis (Figure 5c), plots' similarity scores range from \sim 0.5 to > 0.85. Two small
332	
001	clusters dominated by open understorey forest plots were found: P122 and P123 (both open;
333	clusters dominated by open understorey forest plots were found: P122 and P123 (both open; similarity > 0.7), and P144 and P119 (both open) with the rocky forest plot P117 (similarity > 0.7).
333	similarity > 0.7), and P144 and P119 (both open) with the rocky forest plot P117 (similarity > 0.7).
333 334	similarity > 0.7), and P144 and P119 (both open) with the rocky forest plot P117 (similarity > 0.7). These two groupings are quite dissimilar from each other, however, and the cluster that contains
333 334 335	similarity > 0.7), and P144 and P119 (both open) with the rocky forest plot P117 (similarity > 0.7). These two groupings are quite dissimilar from each other, however, and the cluster that contains them both also contains seven non-open plots, and excludes the final open plot (P142).
333 334 335 336	similarity > 0.7), and P144 and P119 (both open) with the rocky forest plot P117 (similarity > 0.7). These two groupings are quite dissimilar from each other, however, and the cluster that contains them both also contains seven non-open plots, and excludes the final open plot (P142). In the DCA of pollen spectra (Figure 5d) axis 1 (eigenvalue 0.2454) ranges from -72 (<i>Pteris</i>) to 305
333334335336337	similarity > 0.7), and P144 and P119 (both open) with the rocky forest plot P117 (similarity > 0.7). These two groupings are quite dissimilar from each other, however, and the cluster that contains them both also contains seven non-open plots, and excludes the final open plot (P142). In the DCA of pollen spectra (Figure 5d) axis 1 (eigenvalue 0.2454) ranges from -72 (<i>Pteris</i>) to 305 (<i>Lamanonia</i>), with 15 of the plots clustered between 0 and 119; P151 is located at 184. The forest

340 3.4. Vegetation-pollen relationships.

341 We examined the vegetation-pollen relationships of 27 arboreal genera. Four of these

342 (*Myrceugenia, Nectandra, Ocotea* and *Piptocarpha*) were present in the vegetation but with no 343 identifiable pollen produced or preserved (p/v = 0), and one (*Clethra*) was frequent in the pollen 344 record without being recorded in the vegetation survey (giving it a mathematically infinite p/v345 value). Four other genera had higher average abundances for pollen than vegetation (p/v > 1), and 346 18 were more abundant in the vegetation than pollen (p/v < 1) – see Figure 6.

347 Of the taxa found in both pollen and vegetation datasets, the most over-represented genus is

348 Lamanonia, followed by Podocarpus, Myrsine and Araucaria. In plot P151 Lamanonia was not

recorded in the vegetation but its pollen made up 20.3% of the total; with this data point excluded

350 from the average calculations, *Lamanonia*'s p/v value is 1.25. The most under-represented genera

found in the pollen rain are *Cinnamodendron*, *Allophylus*, *Prunus*, *Styrax*, *Luehea* and *Zanthoxylum*

352 (p/v < 0.05); Casearia, Matayba, Pera and Lithraea also have p/v scores < 0.1. Calyptranthes,

353 *Campomanesia, Eugenia, Sapium, Sebastiania* and *Xylosma* all have p/v values between 0.1 and 0.5.

354 The pollen type 'cf *Lithraea* a (Anacardiaceae)' was three times more common than pollen that

could be confidently identified to the *Lithraea* genus; assigning these grains to *Lithraea* changes the
genus's p/v score from 0.09 to 0.39.

357 [Insert Figure 6 here]

Figure 6: p/v values of key genera of *Araucaria* forest in this study. *Clethra* has an infinitely high p/v value; faint sections in the bars of *Lamanonia* and *Lithraea* reflect alternate calculations of their p/v values (see section 3.4).

361 Between-plot variability in vegetation-pollen relationships is not well demonstrated by p/v values,

362 as their calculation requires a taxon to be present in both vegetation and pollen records for a plot.

363 The only taxon for which this occurs in all plots is *Eugenia*, whose plot-specific p/v scores varied

between 0.04 (P141) and 2.26 (P122), with 14 plots having p/v values < 1. This variability is more

evident with pollen-vegetation abundance differentials (Table 3 and Figure 7). *Myrsine, Araucaria*and *Podocarpus* had the most positive mean values (all above +5%); *Nectandra, Eugenia, Lithraea, Cinnamodendron, Styrax, Ocotea,* and *Matayba* had the most negative mean values (all below -5%). *Lithraea*'s mean differential changes to -5.52% if 'cf *Lithraea* (Anacardiaceae)' pollen is included in
the calculation.

Genus	Mean	Min	Max	Range (Max-Min)
Allophylus	-4.13	-8.57	0.20	8.77
Araucaria	+9.36	-9.48	20.63	30.11
Calyptranthes	-3.44	-17.06	1.09	18.15
Campomanesia	-2.08	-5.71	0.81	6.52
Casearia	-4.17	-13.84	0.45	14.29
Cinnamodendron	-8.08	-24.14	0.44	24.57
Clethra	+1.76	0.37	6.68	6.31
Eugenia	-8.47	-25.92	7.17	33.09
llex	-1.07	-8.73	2.93	11.66
Lamanonia	+2.69	-1.16	20.32	21.49
Lithraea	-8.25	-32.56	0.26	32.82
Luehea	-4.89	-8.89	0.18	9.07
Matayba	-6.29	-34.14	0.36	34.50
Myrceugenia	-4.61	-9.09	-1.75	7.34

Myrsine	+13.88	-3.05	55.75	58.80
Nectandra	-11.73	-28.57	-2.17	26.40
Ocotea	-7.25	-16.36	-1.75	14.61
Pera	-4.83	-21.04	1.21	22.25
Piptocarpha	-3.02	-4.29	-1.75	2.53
Podocarpus	+5.78	-5.73	19.24	24.97
Prunus	-3.21	-6.82	0.23	7.04
Sapium	-1.27	-5.05	0.44	5.49
Sebastiania	-4.35	-25.85	0.55	26.40
Styrax	-7.52	-22.86	0.45	23.31
Vernonanthura	-0.38	-4.89	1.83	6.72
Xylosma	-2.16	-7.02	1.49	8.51
Zanthoxylum	-4.76	-12.73	0.20	12.93

Table 3: Pollen-vegetation abundance differential values (%) for key genera of *Araucaria* forest in
this study.

372 Myrsine had the most extreme positive values: +55.75% (P114, slope), +41.25% (P157, disturbed),

373 +30.70% (P141, closed understorey), +26.38% (P142, open understorey) and +20.48% (P159,

disturbed). Values above +20% also occurred twice for *Araucaria* (+20.63% in P151, riverine, and

+20.30% in P159, disturbed) and once for *Lamanonia* (+20.32% in P151, riverine). Similarly negative

- values (below -20%) were more evenly spread among taxa, with two cases in *Styrax* (-22.86% in
- 377 P122, open understorey, and -20.00% in P141, closed understorey) and one each in Matayba (-

- 378 34.14% in P136, riverine), *Lithraea* (-32.56% in P114, slope), *Nectandra* (-28.57% in P110, riverine),
- 379 Eugenia (-25.92% in P156, disturbed), Sebastiania (-25.85% in P151, riverine), Cinnamodendron (-
- 380 24.14% in P159, disturbed), and *Pera* (-21.04% in P119, open understorey).
- 381 [Insert Figure 7 here]
- 382 Figure 7: Pollen-vegetation abundance differentials (square-root transformed) for selected genera.
- 383 Positive values denote plots where a taxon's pollen was more abundant than its vegetation;
- negative values reflect vegetation being more abundant than pollen. Blank cells denote plots where
- a taxon was absent from both pollen and vegetation data.
- 386 The genus with the greatest difference between maximum and minimum abundance differentials is
- 387 *Myrsine*, with wide variation (> 30%) also found in *Matayba*, *Eugenia*, *Lithraea* and *Araucaria*;
- 388 Nectandra, Sebastiania, Podocarpus, Cinnamodendron, Styrax and Lamanonia had differences
- between 20 and 30%. Most genera had both positive and negative abundance differentials, with
- 390 the exceptions being Clethra (all positive) and Myrceugenia, Nectandra, Ocotea and Piptocarpha (all
- 391 negative). However, few taxa (Araucaria, Eugenia, Ilex, Myrsine, Podocarpus) had differentials > 2%
- in both positive and negative directions.

393 4. Discussion

394 4.1. Detecting structural differences in *Araucaria* forest

395 The vegetation of the studied forest area is characteristic of *Araucaria* forest, containing 19 of its 30

- most important tree species (Schorn et al., 2012). Three of the predominant species in this study (A.
- 397 angustifolia, O. pulchella, P. lambertii), as well as others found at lower levels (Matayba
- 398 elaeagnoides, Lamanonia ternata), are key indicator species (Gonçalves and Souza, 2014). Lithraea
- 399 *brasiliensis*, the most common, abundant and dominant species in our sample plots, is the fifth

400 most important tree across Santa Catarina's *Araucaria* forest, especially significant below 1200 m
401 a.s.l (Meyer et al., 2013; Schorn et al., 2012).

402 The floristic composition of the plots is somewhat variable, with no pair of plots having a similarity 403 score above 0.8 (Figure 5a), but this variability in composition does not generally reflect the 404 structural differences between the plots. This can be seen in the cluster analysis (Figure 5a): three 405 of the open understorey plots (P119, P122, P123) are clustered together along with the slope plot 406 P118, but the remaining two open plots (P142 and P144) are far removed; the cluster that would include all five open plots would have 14 members. Similarly, the disturbed plots P157 and P159 are 407 408 closely paired, but the cluster that would also include the third disturbed plot (P156) would encompass nine plots in total. The riverine plots P110 and P136 are distinct from the rest of the 409 410 plots but cannot be grouped with the third member of the riverine group (P151) without including 411 all sampled plots in the cluster.

412 This pattern is further shown in the DCA (Figure 5b), of which only axis 1 has an eigenvalue > 0.3 (0.3781), which would be suggestive of ecological relevance (Peterson and Gale, 1991; Rezende et 413 414 al., 2015). Here again P110 and P136 are the only plots that are clearly distinguished by their 415 vegetation. Their floristic difference to the other studied plots may partly result from their location 416 at the northern end of the studied area, > 1.5 km from the other plots. Their regeneration stage 417 could also be an explanatory factor: these plots have the highest RCVs for Matayba elaeagnoides, as well as the highest recorded abundances of the pioneer Nectandra megapotamica, two of the 418 419 three highest abundances of Allophylus edulis, and the presence of Sebastiania commersoniana, all 420 of which are important taxa in regenerating Araucaria forest patches (Meyer et al., 2013; Schorn et 421 al., 2012).

422 The most common and abundant tree pollen in our study sites came from Araucaria angustifolia,

Myrtaceae (mainly Eugenia), Anacardiaceae cf Lithraea, Myrsine and Podocarpus, with Lithraea, 423 Vernonanthura-type, Sebastiania, Ilex and Clethra found in the majority of plots at generally low 424 abundances (Figure 4). Pteridophyte spores were both common and abundant, and Poaceae was 425 the most prevalent herbaceous pollen taxon, with Asteraceae and Araceae pollen also common but 426 427 less abundant. The sum of all herbaceous pollen varies from 5-20%, averaging 10% – similar to the 428 5-15% found by Garcia et al. (2004) in a study of Araucaria forest peat deposits in Sao Paulo state, 429 but lower than the 24-60% found by Jeske-Pieruschka et al. (2010) in a forest patch surrounded by 430 campos grassland. The herbaceous pollen counts in the latter were likely increased by influx from 431 the grasslands surrounding the forest, and as a result of disturbance from grazing in the studied 432 forest patch (Jeske-Pieruschka et al., 2010).

433 The plots are less well differentiated by pollen than by their vegetation, as shown by their generally 434 higher cluster similarity scores (Figure 5c). As with the vegetation there are some potential pairings of open understorey plots (P122 and P123; P119 and P144 with the rocky plot P117), but these are 435 436 quite distinct from each other – the cluster that would encompass all five open plots would only 437 exclude the riverine plot P151. No potential groupings in the pollen cluster analysis mirror clusters 438 of the plots' vegetation (Figure 5a,c), and there are no consistent groupings of structurally similar 439 plots. This is also seen in the DCA (Figure 5d), where the eigenvalue for axis 1 (0.2454) may indicate 440 the separation is not ecologically relevant (Peterson and Gale, 1991; Rezende et al., 2015). Here, as in the cluster analysis, the only plot that is clearly distinguished is P151, due in large part to its 441 442 exceptionally high abundance of *Lamanonia* pollen.

These results show that the notable structural differences between the different forest plot
categories are not echoed in the composition of their woody taxa. Since there are no consistent
floristic differences between plot types, it is unsurprising that these structural differences cannot be

detected by their pollen signals – especially as pollen's sensitivity is affected by relatively coarse
taxonomic resolution and differential pollen production and preservation between taxa.

448 4.2. Vegetation-pollen relationships

449 The pollen records of the studied forest plots did not consistently reflect large variations in a 450 taxon's abundance in the vegetation (Figure 6 & 7). L. brasiliensis, for example, makes up 2.9% of 451 the vegetation in P110 and 34.1% in P114 (Figure 2), but *Lithraea* pollen is equally abundant in each 452 plot (1.6%) (Figure 4); its abundance in the vegetation is intermediate in P117 (10.9%) and P118 (12.3%) but its pollen makes up just 0.9% and 1.0% of those plot totals, respectively. This variability 453 454 in vegetation-pollen relationships can also be illustrated with Myrsine: its pollen made up more 455 than half of all counted grains (55.8%) in P114, despite no individuals from the genus being 456 recorded in the vegetation survey; it was also significantly over-represented in P157 (pollen abundance 43.4%, vegetation abundance 2.2%), but proportionately represented in P119 (17.3% of 457 the pollen; 17.0% of the vegetation) and under-represented in P118 (5.7% of the pollen, 8.8% of the 458 459 vegetation).

460 However, general patterns of over- or under-representation of each taxon in the pollen record 461 could be determined – only Araucaria, Eugenia, Ilex, Myrsine and Podocarpus had both positive and 462 negative abundance differentials above 2% (Table 3). The majority (22 of 27) of the arboreal genera 463 examined were under-represented in the pollen record (p/v values <1; Figure 6), with four 464 (Myrceugenia, Nectandra, Ocotea and Piptocarpha) being palynologically silent. These underrepresented taxa include many of the most abundant tree species in the plots, as well as some of 465 the most ecologically important taxa in Araucaria forest (Lithraea, Matayba, Cinnamodendron, 466 467 Ocotea, Prunus and Nectandra) (Sevegnani et al., 2013). The highest p/v value among these key 468 genera is Lithraea's 0.09 (i.e. less than one tenth as abundant in the pollen record as in the

vegetation), and no pollen which could be reliably identified as *Ocotea* or *Nectandra* was counted
at all.

471 Under-representation in the pollen record is common in the Neotropics (Bush, 1995; Bush and 472 Rivera, 1998; Gosling et al., 2009; Haselhorst et al., 2013). This is partly due to the relative rarity of 473 anemophilous plants – generally the most over-represented taxa – in tropical forests, although 474 entomophilous plants are less under-represented in tropical pollen spectra than in temperate regions (Bush, 1995; Viera et al., 2012; Whitehead, 1983). Our results fit this general pattern: of the 475 476 under-represented taxa in our study, *Nectandra* and *Ocotea* are pollinated by thrips (Thysanoptera) 477 (Danieli-Silva and Varassin, 2013; Souza and Moscheta, 2000), and Lithraea, Ilex, Matayba, Prunus, Eugenia and Cinnamodendron depend on bees and other small insects (de Deus et al., 2014; 478 479 Hermes and Köhler, 2006; Imperatriz-Fonseca et al., 1989; Montalva et al., 2011; Tomlinson, 1974; 480 Wilms et al., 1997). Additionally, Ocotea pollen is fragile, with a thin exine that means it preserves poorly (Behling, 1993). By contrast, the over-represented taxa Araucaria (Bittencourt and Sebbenn, 481 2008, 2007) and Podocarpus (Midgley, 1989; Negash, 2003; Wilson and Owens, 1999) are 482 483 anemophilous, as are South American members of Myrsine (Albuquerque et al., 2013; Otegui and 484 Cocucci, 1999), and therefore produce abundant pollen. Lamanonia was over-represented in the pollen record (p/v 5.44; 1.25 when excluding P151) despite 485 486 being insect-pollinated (de Deus et al., 2014; Hermes and Köhler, 2006; Wilms et al., 1997). Its 487 relative abundance of pollen in this study may be explained by its mass-flowering habit (Hermes 488 and Köhler, 2006), so it is possible that Lamanonia's pollen-vegetation relationship varies significantly year-on-year. Clethra is another entomophilous taxon (Freitas and Sazima, 2006) with 489 over-represented pollen in this study: its pollen was found in 10 of the 16 plots at an average 490

491 abundance of 1.10% (0.37-4.58%), but no individuals were recorded in the vegetation (Figure 2)

despite *C. scabra* being the third most important tree species in *Araucaria* forest (Schorn et al.,
2012). Given *Clethra* pollen is not adapted for long-distance travel, it is unlikely to have originated
outside the plots; potentially, individuals from this genus were present but too small to be included
in the survey (i.e. d.b.h. < 10 cm), making it difficult to make a true assessment of the taxon's
pollen-vegetation relationship.

497 4.3. Implications for palaeoecology

498 Our findings have important implications for the interpretation of fossil pollen records. Many of the 499 key taxa used to reconstruct past Araucaria forest dynamics were identified palynologically in this 500 study, but two were largely missing. Pollen from *Mimosa scabrella* and *Weinmannia* is commonly 501 cited as evidence of Araucaria forest (Behling, 1997a, 1995; Behling et al., 2004; Leonhardt and 502 Lorscheitter, 2010) but *M. scabrella* pollen was not abundant (present in 10 of the 16 plots, maximum abundance 0.89%) and Weinmannia pollen was absent; neither species was recorded in 503 the vegetation survey. *M. scabrella* is a species which is especially encouraged by anthropogenic 504 505 forest disturbance, so its absence here may be connected to the relatively long time since the last 506 anthropogenic disturbance of our studied plots. Moreover, both taxa (especially Weinmannia) are much more floristically important at elevations above 1,200 m a.s.l. (Sevegnani et al., 2013) so their 507 absence here is unsurprising, and highlights the biases of existing palaeoecological studies towards 508 high-altitude regions along the eastern edge of the highland plateau (Behling, 2007, 1997a, 1995; 509 510 Behling et al., 2004; Jeske-Pieruschka et al., 2013; Leonhardt and Lorscheitter, 2010; Scherer and 511 Lorscheitter, 2014).

The geographical bias of existing studies can further be seen in the classifications proposed by
Rodrigues et al. (2016b) for distinguishing woodland types in southern Brazil based on pollen
spectra. Although our sites (721-953 m a.s.l.) have vegetation which is most similar to that in the

515 'low Poaceae subtropical forest' (LPSF) category (Behling et al., 2004; Behling and de Oliveira, 2018; 516 Jeske-Pieruschka et al., 2013; Jeske-Pieruschka and Behling, 2012), they are excluded from this 517 group due to their absence of Weinmannia pollen. Instead, our plots would likely be included in the 518 disparate 'low Poaceae subtropical-tropical' (LPST) group, along with two sites in Santa Catarina's 519 coastal tropical forest (9-10 m a.s.l.) (Behling, 1997b, 1995), one in northern Argentina at the 520 westernmost limit of Araucaria forest taxa (604 m a.s.l.) (Gessert et al., 2011), and another at low 521 altitude in south-central Rio Grande do Sul (176 m a.s.l.) (Santa Mônica, unpublished, cited in 522 Rodrigues et al., 2016b). The significant altitudinal, geographical and floristic differences between 523 these sites suggests LPST may not be a true grouping, and that the classification of southern Brazil's 524 forests by their pollen spectra will improve as more westerly plateau sites, with different 525 assemblages of Araucaria forest, are studied.

526 Most of the taxa widely used in palaeoecological studies were here found to be over-represented in the pollen record (Araucaria, Myrsine, Podocarpus, Lamanonia) or under-represented but very 527 528 abundant in the vegetation (Myrtaceae, such as *Eugenia* and *Calyptranthes* which are rarely 529 distinguished to genus in fossil pollen). Fossil Lithraea pollen is quite often identified (Behling, 2007; 530 Behling et al., 2016, 2005; Gessert et al., 2011) or grouped with Schinus (Behling, 1997b, 1997a; 531 Behling et al., 2004; Jeske-Pieruschka et al., 2010) but rarely treated as important (but see Behling, 532 1997a; Gessert et al., 2011); given the floristic importance of *L. brasiliensis* (Meyer et al., 2013; Schorn et al., 2012) and its under-representation in the pollen rain (p/v 0.09-0.39, pollen 8.25% less 533 534 abundant than vegetation on average), the presence and dynamics of *Lithraea* pollen may warrant 535 more detailed examination in future studies. Lithraea is one of several key Araucaria forest taxa we 536 have shown to be either significantly under-represented (Matayba, Cinnamodendron, Prunus) or absent (Ocotea, Nectandra) in the pollen record, even when quite abundant in the vegetation. This 537 538 suggests that some significant changes in past forest composition may not be reflected in fossil

pollen, highlighting a potentially important limitation of pollen as a palaeoecological proxy for
determining this ecosystem's responses to past millennial-scale human land use and climate
changes.

542 The importance of fossil pollen's limited sensitivity to compositional changes in Araucaria forest is 543 reinforced when considering that structural differences between plots were not clearly reflected in 544 their pollen signals. Although the plots had notably different structural characteristics to one another, this was only weakly echoed in the floristic composition of their arboreal component, and 545 even less so in their pollen spectra, which were more similar to each other than the vegetation. This 546 547 implies that pollen records may not clearly detect structural changes in Araucaria forest, especially when these are not accompanied by significant or long-term alterations in floristic composition. 548 549 Further investigations of the sensitivity of pollen rain to larger-scale changes in composition and 550 structure of Araucaria forest might involve integration with the state-wide plot network of the 551 Santa Catarina forest floristic inventory (Vibrans et al., 2010) or palynological examination of forest fragments with relatively intense present human land use, such as caívas, faxinais or ervais (Fichino 552 et al., 2017; Mello and Peroni, 2015; Reis et al., 2018). Such research would aid the interpretation 553 554 of fossil pollen records which do show significant changes with climatic changes and human land 555 use (e.g. Behling et al., 2004), permitting shifts in pollen composition to be more accurately related 556 to changes in the vegetation.

The difficulty of detecting structural and compositional changes in *Araucaria* forest with pollen records has implications for the reconstruction of past human impacts on the forest. Before European arrival, the indigenous southern Jê people lived in semi-subterranean dwellings in the forest, practising swidden cultivation and exploiting *Araucaria angustifolia* nuts and Myrtaceae fruits (Corteletti, 2012; Corteletti et al., 2015; dos Reis et al., 2014; Iriarte and Behling, 2007). It has

been suggested that their lifestyles helped to spread Araucaria forest more quickly than natural 562 563 drivers, such as climate change, and even beyond the forest's natural limits (Bitencourt and Krauspenhar, 2006; Iriarte and Behling, 2007; Lauterjung et al., 2018; Noelli, 2000; Robinson et al., 564 2018), but our findings raise the question of whether, and how, more subtle impacts within the 565 566 forest – especially structural and compositional changes – would be represented in fossil pollen 567 sedimentary archives. There is significant ongoing debate over the extent to which pre-Columbian 568 peoples altered the floristic composition of Amazonian forests (Barlow et al., 2012; Levis et al., 569 2018, 2017; McMichael et al., 2017; Shepard and Ramirez, 2011) and the limitations of fossil pollen analysis in identifying such impacts are well known (e.g. Carson et al., 2016), with recent 570 571 simulations showing that pollen sites in tropical forest-grassland mosaics (like those between 572 Araucaria forest and campos grasslands) may be insensitive to large changes in forest cover (Whitney et al., 2019). The forest plots in our study have been free of human disturbance for 573 574 several decades, so their present condition is unlikely to mirror the full range of southern Jê land 575 use. Nevertheless, our findings highlight potential limitations of pollen analysis as a tool for 576 investigating and reconstructing the role of the southern Jê in shaping the Araucaria forest's 577 floristic composition and structure - the absence of evidence of human impacts may not equate to 578 evidence of their absence.

579 5. Conclusions

In this study, the pollen rain from 16 structurally different *Araucaria* forest plots has been
characterised and compared with floristic inventory data, and 27 tree genera have had their
vegetation-pollen relationships quantified.

583 Our results show that the structurally different plots do not exhibit consistent differences in the 584 floristic composition of their tree taxa. Correspondingly, their structural differences cannot be clearly detected in their pollen rain, with pollen spectra more similar than vegetation betweenplots.

587 On average, the most abundant tree species in the plots are Lithraea brasiliensis, Cinnamodendron 588 dinisii, Araucaria angustifolia, Eugenia sp., Ocotea pulchella and Calyptranthes cf. concinna, 589 representing the typical composition of *Araucaria* forest at this altitude. As well as these, *Styrax* 590 leprosus has a high average relative coverage value (RCV) across all plots, and species including Matayba elaeagnoides, Nectandra megapotamica, Vernonanthura discolor, Prunus myrtifolia, 591 592 Piptocarpha angustifolia, Myrceugenia sp. and Myrsine umbellata have high RCVs in the (relatively 593 few) plots in which they occur. The modern pollen rain of Araucaria forest in our study area (720-920m a.s.l.) is characterised by Myrsine (19.5%), A. angustifolia (16.6%), Pteridophyta (13.2%), 594 595 Podocarpus lambertii (7.9%) and Poaceae (5.2%), along with Eugenia-type, Anacardiaceae cf. 596 Lithraea, Asteraceae (others), Lamanonia, Ilex theezans, Calyptranthes-type, Vernonanthura-type and *Clethra* at lower abundance. 597 Vegetation-pollen relationships vary between plots but general patterns of over- or under-598 599 representation could be identified for the majority of taxa. Araucaria, Lamanonia, Podocarpus, and Myrsine are over-represented in the pollen record (average p/v > 1), and Clethra pollen was 600 frequently identified but the genus is absent from the vegetation survey. All of the other 22 genera 601 602 analysed are under-represented, with Myrceugenia, Nectandra, Ocotea and Piptocarpha 603 palynologically silent. The palynological under-representation of ecologically key Araucaria forest taxa and the lack of 604 605 clear differentiation of structural differences in the forest's pollen spectra have important 606 implications for the interpretation of fossil pollen records, highlighting the challenges of resolving 607 past human impacts and ecological changes within Araucaria forest using this proxy. This

quantitative analysis of vegetation-pollen relationships for key *Araucaria* forest taxa is a key tool for
 interpreting fossil pollen records and understanding past vegetation dynamics on the highlands of
 southern Brazil.

611 Author contributions

MLC and FEM conceived the study; MLC collected moss polsters; MLC and LAS collected vegetation survey data; MLC performed pollen analysis and counting; MLC and OJW analysed the data and interpreted the results; OJW, MLC and FEM drafted the manuscript; all authors commented on the manuscript before submission.

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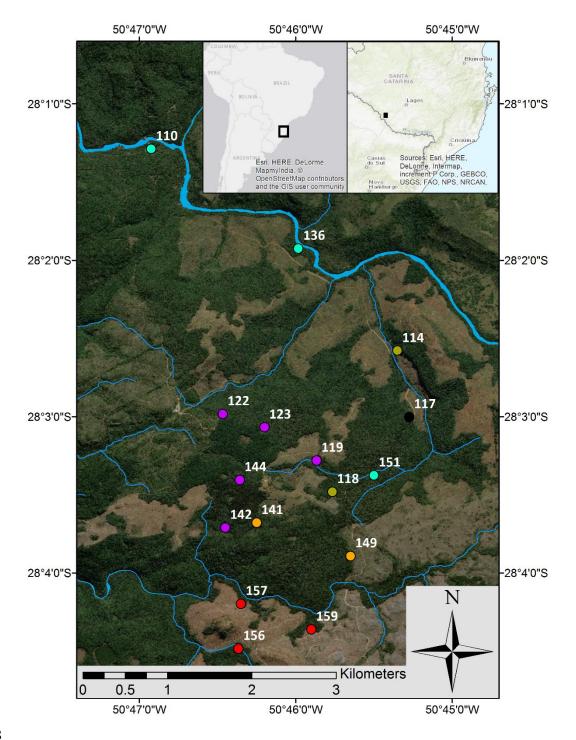
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1054 Figures

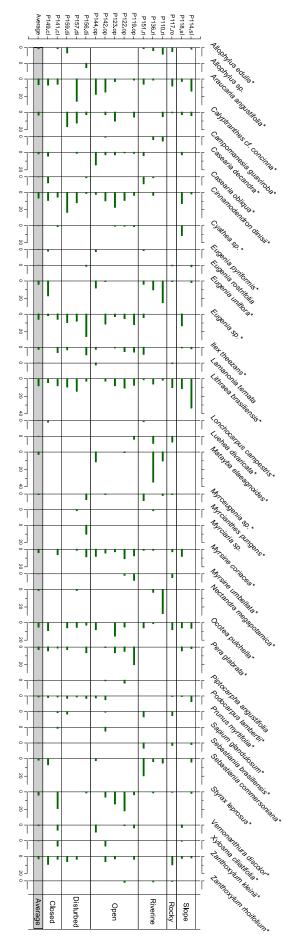
1055 Figure 1: Map of forest plot locations; numbers refer to plot codes (see Table 1 below). Plot colours:

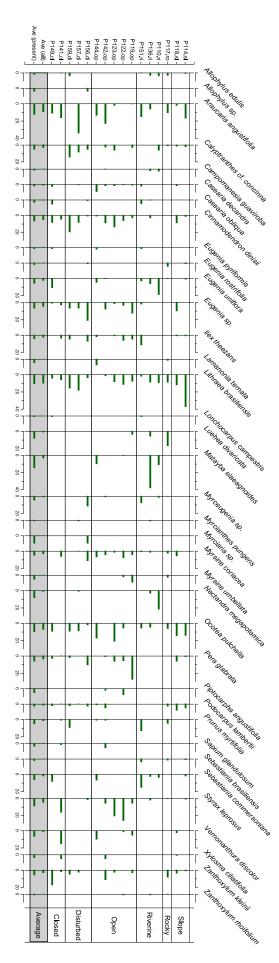
1056 Cyan: riverine; Olive: slope; Black: rock outcrop; Purple: open understorey; Orange: closed

1057 understorey; Red: disturbed.



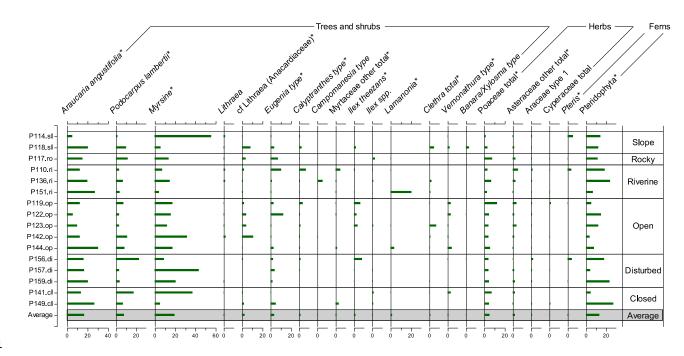
- 1059 Figure 2: Relative abundance (%) of selected tree
- 1060 species in the vegetation survey. Species included in the
- 1061 cluster analysis and DCA are indicated with an asterisk.
- 1062





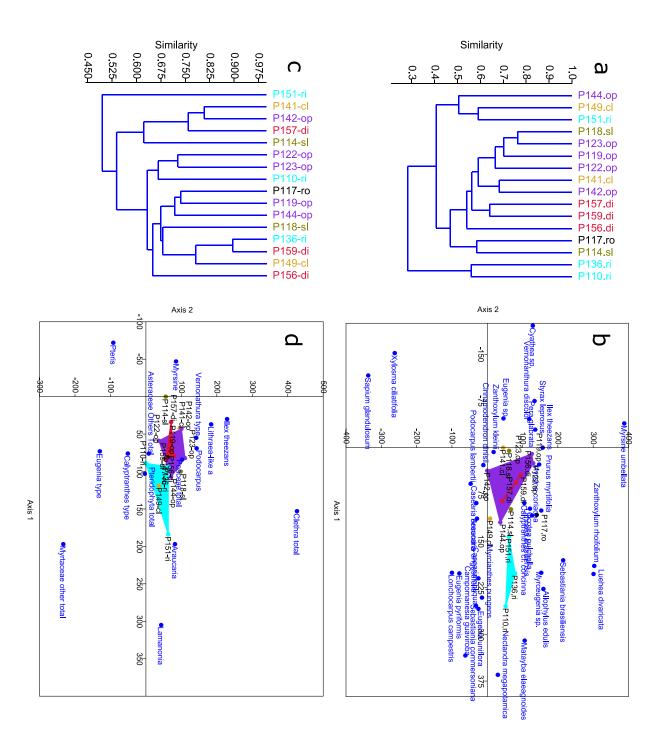
- 1063 Figure 3: Relative Coverage Values (RCVs, %) of selected
- 1064 tree species in the vegetation survey. 'Ave. (all)' = sum of
- 1065 RCVs/total number of plots; 'Ave. (present)' = sum of
- 1066 RCVs/number of plots in which taxon was present.
- 1067
- 1068

1069 Figure 4: Relative abundance (%) of selected pollen types. Taxa included in the cluster analysis and

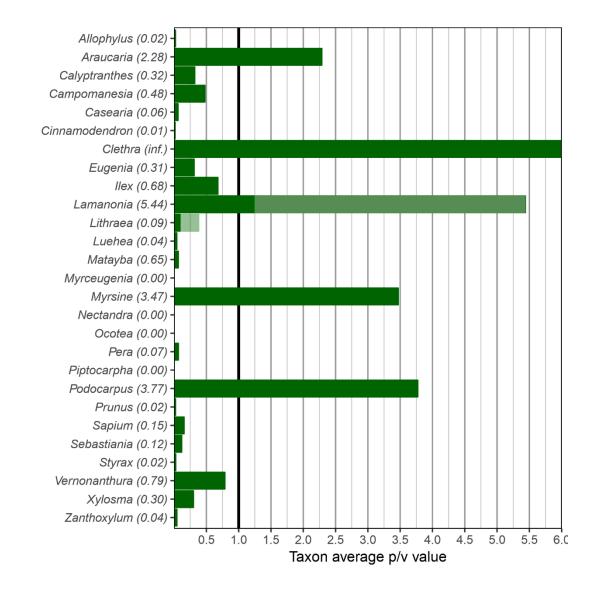


1070 DCA are indicated with an asterisk

Figure 5: Cluster analyses (left; a, c) and DCAs (right; b, d) of plots by vegetation (top; a, b) and
pollen (bottom; c, d) taxa found in ≥2 plots at ≥2% abundance. In the DCAs, convex hulls are
delimited for structural categories containing three or more plots. Plot types are identified by
colour and two-letter code (op: open; cl: closed; ri: riverine; di: disturbed; ro: rock; sl: slope; see
Table 1).



- 1078 Figure 6: p/v values of key genera of Araucaria forest in this study. Clethra has an infinitely high p/v
- 1079 value; faint sections in the bars of Lamanonia and Lithraea reflect alternate calculations of their p/v



1080 values (see section 3.4).

- 1082 Figure 7: Pollen-vegetation abundance differentials (square-root transformed) for selected genera.
- 1083 Positive values denote plots where a taxon's pollen was more abundant than its vegetation;
- negative values reflect vegetation being more abundant than pollen. Blank cells denote plots where
- 1085 a taxon was absent from both pollen and vegetation data.

