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**EFEITO DAS PERTURBAÇÕES ANTRÓPICAS SOBRE POPULAÇÕES DE
EUPHORBIACEAE EM ÁREAS DE CAATINGA, NORDESTE DO BRASIL**

RECIFE

2012

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“DA FELICIDADE:

Quantas vezes a gente, em busca da ventura,

Procede tal e qual o avozinho infeliz:

Em vão, por toda parte, os óculos procura

Tendo-os na ponta do nariz!”

Mário Quintana.

*Àquela que mesmo sem
entender muito bem o que eu
fazia, sempre esteve ao meu
lado, minha mãe, Justina Rito.*

Dedico.

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APRESENTAÇÃO

As populações vegetais apresentam um comportamento dinâmico em resposta a nascimentos e mortes de indivíduos e este comportamento é definido por diferentes estratégias de vida que garantem a sobrevivência e reprodução em ambientes distintos. O estudo da estrutura de populações vegetais fornece informações sobre as estratégias ecológicas das espécies e ajuda no entendimento de como variações temporais e espaciais podem influenciar o recrutamento, a mortalidade e a dinâmica de sucessão dessas espécies em ecossistemas com diferentes características. Atualmente, um grande desafio para os ecólogos é identificar fatores que regem o comportamento dinâmico das populações e assim, prever como mudanças ambientais afetam sua viabilidade (BULLOCK *et al.*, 1996; BRUNA, 2003; MANDUJANO *et al.*, 2007).

Populações e comunidades vegetais podem ser afetadas tanto por distúrbios ambientais naturais como por distúrbios de origem antrópica (COMITA *et al.*, 2010). A alteração de habitat pelas pressões antrópicas é hoje o principal fator responsável por modificações na estrutura de comunidades e, conseqüentemente, na prestação de serviços ecológicos de muitos ecossistemas em todo o planeta (SALA *et al.*, 2000). Isso tem se agravado porque em muitos ambientes as perturbações antrópicas tem causado a hiperproliferação de espécies adaptadas a perturbação, desencadeando um processo de homogeneização biótica (MICKNEY & LOCKWOOD, 1999; LÔBO *et al.*, 2011).

O processo de degradação de paisagens naturais da Caatinga tem acelerado nas últimas décadas, principalmente por meio das perturbações antrópicas crônicas. As perturbações antrópicas crônicas se caracterizam pela persistência e frequência de retirada de pequenas quantidades de biomassa da vegetação, seja de recursos madeireiros como também recursos não madeireiros. Isso porque a Caatinga tem um longo histórico de ocupação em que, em geral, os moradores subsistem dos recursos

florestais. Porém, não se conhece ainda muito bem as consequências da degradação destas paisagens para a perda da biodiversidade, muito menos para a estruturação das populações e comunidades vegetais (CASTELLETTI *et al.*, 2003; LEAL *et al.*, 2005). Estudar como as espécies vegetais em áreas de Caatinga podem se comportar frente a esses crescentes distúrbios fornece importantes subsídios para compreensão das consequências das ações antrópicas na manutenção da biodiversidade nesse ecossistema. Assim, este estudo se propôs a avaliar como espécies de Euphorbiaceae, uma das famílias mais ricas da Caatinga e composta por várias espécies pioneiras, respondem a perturbações antrópicas crônicas. Este trabalho é composto por uma fundamentação teórica e por um capítulo estruturado em forma de artigo científico a ser enviado ao periódico *Environmental Conservation*.

FUNDAMENTAÇÃO TEÓRICA

Respostas vegetacionais à perturbação antrópica

As atividades humanas têm alterado de forma intensa os ambientes naturais e a biota do planeta. A modificação de ambientes naturais pela ação humana tem ocorrido principalmente devido à exploração não sustentável de recursos naturais e à expansão das áreas urbanas (CHAPIN III *et al.*, 2000; CHAPIN III, 2003). Como consequência dessas atividades, grandes áreas de vegetação pristina estão sendo completamente removidas, severamente modificadas ou transformadas em conjuntos de pequenos fragmentos (FOLEY *et al.*, 2005; SAUNDERS *et al.*, 1991). Atualmente, a área florestada no mundo todo corresponde a apenas 31% da área total (FAO, 2010). Cerca de 13 milhões de hectares de floresta no mundo foram convertidos, por ano, para outros usos ou perdidos por causas naturais entre 2001 e 2010, em comparação a 16 milhões de hectares/ano no período de 1991-2000 (FAO, 2011). Embora tenha ocorrido esta diminuição, a taxa global de desflorestamento permanece bastante alta (FAO, 2011), fazendo com que esta ainda seja a maior ameaça a diversidade global (SALA *et al.*, 2000).

A retirada de cobertura vegetal promove a remoção direta de diversas espécies. Contudo, as ações antrópicas também alteram fatores físicos do ambiente como temperatura, luminosidade, umidade e disponibilidade de nutrientes no solo (SANTOS *et al.*, 2009; GALINDO, 2007). Estas alterações abióticas afetam a distribuição de espécies nos remanescentes florestais, uma vez que espécies vegetais e animais sensíveis a essas novas condições impostas pelo ambiente antropizado serão removidas e substituídas por espécies mais resistentes (SILVA *et al.*, 2007; MANDUJANO *et al.*, 2007). Além dessas mudanças abióticas e bióticas, as perturbações antrópicas também tendem a reduzir a área do habitat, simplificar a flora e a fauna abrigada pelas áreas

remanescentes, diminuindo a qualidade do habitat (ARROYO-RODRÍGUEZ & MANDUJANO, 2006). Por fim, todas estas alterações afetam negativamente as funções do ecossistema como a ciclagem de nutrientes, regime de chuvas e sucessão ecológica (MILCHUNAS & LAUENROTH, 1993; FLEISCHNER, 1994; CURTIN, 2002; WILSON, 1994; HONGO *et al.*, 1995; NEIL *et al.*, 1995).

De forma geral, espécies que possuem baixas taxas de crescimento individual e populacional, alta mortalidade durante as fases juvenis e baixas taxas de recrutamento são aquelas que têm maior dificuldade em permanecer em um habitat modificado antropicamente. Estas espécies têm grande dificuldade em recuperar suas populações e persistirem após um evento de perturbação (SCHMALZEL *et al.*, 1995; CONTRERAS & VALVERDE, 2002; ESPARZA-OLGUÍN *et al.*, 2002, 2005; ALVAREZ *et al.*, 2004; MANDUJANO *et al.*, 2007). Frente a eventos de perturbação, essas espécies apresentam rápidas mudanças em sua estrutura e distribuição populacional e algumas dessas respostas a esses eventos podem ser visualizadas principalmente através de estágios de vida predominantes, fecundidade e sobrevivência (SILVA *et al.*, 2007; MANDUJANO *et al.*, 2007; BULLOCK *et al.*, 1996; RODRIGUES *et al.*, 2000). Ureta & Martorell (2009), avaliaram o efeito do distúrbio antrópico em duas espécies de cactos (*Mammillaria dioxanthocentron* e *Mammillaria hernandezii*) em região semi-árida do México. Estes autores encontraram que reduções na sobrevivência e reprodução e alta mortalidade de adultos em áreas de intenso distúrbio resultaram em alterações na taxa de crescimento populacional.

Por outro lado, há também espécies que se beneficiam com as mudanças do ambiente após eventos de perturbação. Dentre elas podemos destacar espécies vegetais invasoras e ruderais (FREEDMAN *et al.*, 1996; PAKEMAN 2004). O que faz com que estes grupos de espécies se beneficiem em habitats perturbados, aumentando suas

abundâncias, são características fisiológicas e ecológicas que as permitem colonizar os ambientes perturbados com baixa cobertura vegetal e condições microclimáticas extremas (HOBBS & HUENNEK, 1992; PYSEK *et al.*, 2002; REJMÁNEK *et al.*, 2005). Dentre estas características estão: sistemas de polinização e dispersão pouco especializados, grande produção de sementes de pequeno tamanho, alta germinabilidade, crescimento rápido e reprodução clonal (REJMÁNEK & RICHARDSON, 1996; PRINZING *et al.*, 2002; SUTHERLAND, 2004; REJMÁNEK *et al.*, 2005). As perturbações fazem com que as espécies com este tipo de estratégia proliferem-se e o aumento de suas abundâncias pode ocasionar a homogeneização da biota destes ambientes perturbados (MICKNEY & LOCKWOOD, 1999). Santos *et al.* (2008), em estudo realizado na floresta Atlântica nordestina, observou que espécies de árvores pioneiras representaram mais de 80% das espécies com diâmetro à altura do peito ≥ 10 cm em pequenos fragmentos e bordas de grandes áreas de floresta. Em florestas tropicais úmidas, a hiper-proliferação de pioneiras atrelada à mortalidade de grandes árvores contribui para a simplificação da flora (LAURANCE *et al.*, 1997; NASCIMENTO & LAURANCE, 2004).

Florestas secas e suas ameaças

Florestas tropicais secas são ecossistemas característicos de regiões áridas e semi-áridas marcadas por sazonalidade pronunciada com a ocorrência de muitos meses de seca (MOONEY *et al.*, 1995). Nestes ambientes, a vegetação é tipicamente dominada por árvores decíduas, a média anual de temperatura está acima dos 25°C, a precipitação anual está em torno de 300 e 900 mm e nos meses de seca a precipitação não excede os 100 mm (SÁNCHEZ-AZOFEIFA *et al.*, 2005). De acordo com Murphy & Lugo (1986), 42% das florestas tropicais e subtropicais são florestas secas. Miles *et al.* (2006)

estimaram que a área remanescente de florestas secas em todo o mundo era de 1.048,700 km², incluindo Caatinga e Cerrado. Desta área, 54,2% encontram-se na América do Sul, 12,3% nas Américas do norte e central, 13,1% na África, 16,4% na Eurásia e 3,8% na Austrália, parte insular da Ásia e sudeste asiático (MILES *et al.*, 2006). Porém, sua atual distribuição é apenas uma fração da cobertura original que foi convertida principalmente em campos agricultáveis e pastos (FAO, 2007).

As mudanças no uso de terra ocorridas nestes ambientes áridos estão atreladas às interações complexas entre sistemas naturais e sociais (LAMBIN *et al.*, 2001, 2003). As principais ameaças reportadas para florestas secas estão relacionadas à alta densidade populacional em áreas naturais (MILES *et al.*, 2006). Estas populações geram mudanças no uso do solo e também tem grande influência na introdução e propagação de espécies invasoras (KÜHN & KLOTZ, 2006). Isso ocorre porque nas áreas de clima seco a menor estatura da vegetação, o clima mais adequado para a criação de animais e a disponibilidade de forragem natural facilitam a implantação de agricultura e a criação de animais de forma extensiva (MURPHY & LUGO, 1986; REID *et al.*, 2008). Por isso, de maneira geral, as principais mudanças no uso do solo para estes ambientes envolvem atividades como a agricultura (MOFFATT *et al.*, 2004), a extração de madeira (PRESS, 2006) e a criação extensiva de caprinos e bovinos (JACKSON *et al.*, 2003; PAKEMAN, 2004; ZHAO *et al.*, 2007).

As perturbações antrópicas podem ser classificadas como agudas ou crônicas (SINGH, 1998). As perturbações agudas consistem na total descaracterização de uma área por corte raso da vegetação; já as do tipo crônicas ocorrem como uma atividade constante que modifica o ambiente de maneira gradual, não descaracterizando o ambiente de maneira drástica (SINGH, 1998; MARTORELL & PETERS, 2005). Trabalhos recentes apontam que, em ambientes áridos e semi-áridos, os quais abrigam

os remanescentes de florestas secas, as perturbações antrópicas mais comuns são as crônicas (MATORELL & PETERS, 2008; MATORELL & PETERS, 2005). Estas são exemplificadas pela atividade de extração seletiva de madeira e criação extensiva de animais (MATORELL & PETERS, 2008; MATORELL & PETERS, 2005). Devido aos ambientes secos possuírem baixa produtividade e, por isso, lenta recuperação, as modificações decorrentes das perturbações crônicas não são completamente recuperadas antes que um distúrbio subsequente aconteça. Dessa maneira, os efeitos tornam-se cumulativos e a recuperação total do ambiente não acontece (NILSSON & GRELSSON, 1995). É importante que a análise dos efeitos das modificações provocadas pelas perturbações crônicas seja realizada em uma escala contínua, uma vez que uma análise dicotômica não permite avaliar os diferentes graus de perturbação que o ambiente possui (WATT, 1988).

A degradação de ambientes naturais está intimamente ligada às mudanças sociais, políticas e econômicas nos âmbitos nacional e internacional, mas de uma maneira não menos importante e impactante, está ligada também às mudanças em pequena escala como a oferta do mercado de trabalho local e o ciclo de vida de famílias rurais (CALVO-ALVARADO *et al.*, 2009). A utilização de serviços e recursos de ambientes secos não é apenas inevitável como também indispensável para o desenvolvimento de atividades econômicas e sociais. Porém, é importante identificar o grau de sustentabilidade destas práticas e que práticas oferecem risco para a manutenção da integridade estrutural e funcional dos ambientes naturais (MAASS *et al.*, 2010).

A Caatinga e seu atual estado de conservação

A Caatinga é um mosaico vegetacional caracterizado pela presença de arbustos espinhentos e trechos de florestas secas (LEAL *et al.*, 2005). Possui uma área original de

cerca de 86.411 km² e estende-se por todos estados do nordeste brasileiro e parte de Minas Gerais (2%), sendo menos representativa no estado do Maranhão (1%; LEAL *et al.*, 2005; MMA/IBAMA, 2011; IBGE, 1985; GIULLIETTI *et al.*, 2004). Este ecossistema possui uma diversidade de mais de 2.000 espécies de plantas vasculares, peixes, répteis, anfíbios, aves e mamíferos e grande número de endemismos (de 7% em aves a 57% em peixes; LEAL *et al.*, 2005). As fisionomias vegetais da Caatinga são diversas e estendem-se por diversas formações geológicas de bacias sedimentares, montanhas e platôs (IBGE, 1985). Em uma classificação amplamente aceita até hoje, Andrade-Lima (1981) reconheceu 12 fitofisionomias baseadas na integração entre o clima e o solo da região.

Durante muito tempo, alguns autores reportaram a Caatinga como um ecossistema pobre e com poucos táxons endêmicos (RIZZINI 1963, 1979; ANDRADE-LIMA, 1982). Desde o Workshop da Caatinga, realizado em 2000 em Petrolina, a Caatinga tem sido reconhecida como um ambiente rico em endemismos e passou a ser considerada uma área prioritária para conservação (GIULIETTI *et al.*, 2002; PRADO, 2003; QUEIROZ, 2006). No entanto, em estudo recente realizado por Santos *et al.* (2011), observou-se que mesmo depois de mais de uma década do início destes debates, este ecossistema permanece negligenciado pelas ações governamentais de preservação e pelos esforços científicos dos grupos de pesquisas das instituições situadas em áreas sob influência do ecossistema. Conseqüentemente, isso torna os avanços científicos e de preservação para este ambiente ainda bastante limitados.

Nas Américas, o Brasil é o segundo país com maior porcentagem de florestas secas degradadas por ações antrópicas (PORTILLO-QUINTERO *et al.*, 2010). Quando comparadas as formações arbustivas de Campos rupestres, Llanos, Chacos, savanas de Beni, Cerrado e Caatinga, a Caatinga é o terceiro ecossistema mais ameaçado (PORTILLO-QUINTERO *et al.*, 2010). Dentre os ecossistemas brasileiros, a Caatinga é

um dos mais ameaçados e alterados pela ação antrópica, principalmente pelo desmatamento, apresentando extensas áreas degradadas, com solos sob intenso processo de desertificação (CASTELLETTI *et al.*, 2003). As atividades de agricultura itinerante ao longo da história geraram uma ocupação territorial desordenada e impactante, o que causou uma redução significativa da biodiversidade regional (MMA, 2002). Em 1993, as atividades agrícolas ocupavam quase 28% da área total da Caatinga (MMA, 1998). Em Pernambuco, as áreas de Caatinga degradadas ultrapassam 25% da área total, sendo 16% destas áreas classificadas como áreas com nível de degradação severo (SÁ *et al.*, 2003). Contrastantemente, apenas 7,4% da área total de Caatinga encontra-se protegida através de unidades de conservação. Destes, apenas 1% é de áreas de proteção integral, os outros 6,4% são protegidos como áreas de uso sustentável (MMA/IBAMA, 2011).

Diante das muitas formas de degradação que a Caatinga experimenta, como a extração de madeira, criação de estradas, criação extensiva de gado e agricultura (Costa *et al.* 2002), alguns autores vêm buscando estimar quanto ainda resta deste ecossistema. Para isso, eles têm utilizado diferentes abordagens e cada uma delas tem apresentado diferentes resultados para o estado de conservação do ecossistema, a depender do tipo de perturbação que é utilizado como base para a análise. Castelletti *et al.* (2003) considerando apenas as áreas cobertas por atividades agrícolas, estimaram que 27,5% (201.786 km²) da Caatinga se encontra modificada. Se somado às áreas agricultáveis e ao impacto das estradas, a área alterada pelo homem varia de 30,4% (223.100 km²) a 51,7% (379.565 km²) dependendo da largura da zona de efeito da estrada adotada (CASTELLETTI *et al.*, 2003). Já baseado em critérios de intensidade de exploração e nível de manejo do solo, Sá *et al.* (2004) concluiu que 66% da Caatinga é degradada, incluindo desde áreas pouco degradadas (7,07%) a severamente degradadas (38,42%). Devido a estas abordagens diferentes, ainda não há uma estimativa adequada sobre o

quanto da vegetação da Caatinga já foi alterada (CASTELLETTI *et al.*, 2003; Oliveira, 2011) Estimativas mais recentes, e sem a determinação da fonte de perturbação, mostram que a região apresentava mais de 50% de sua área alterada pelo homem, aproximadamente 441.117,88 km², até o ano de 2009 (MMA/IBAMA, 2011). Porém, todas estas análises avaliam a Caatinga sem considerar as diferentes formações vegetacionais existentes no ecossistema. Isto torna ainda mais defasado o conhecimento sobre o atual estado de degradação da Caatinga e torna impossível a mensuração do montante de biodiversidade que já foi perdida.

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Plant responses to chronic anthropogenic disturbances in the Caatinga vegetation: from species proliferation to biotic homogenization

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SUMMARY

Chronic anthropogenic disturbances (CAD) have posed tangible threats to biodiversity-relevant tropical biotas but community- and ecosystem-level impacts still remain neglected. Here we address a 152-km² Caatinga landscape in northeast Brazil in order to investigate how Euphorbiaceae species and these seasonally-dry tropical plant assemblages respond to a gradient of chronic anthropogenic disturbances (CAD). Woody plant species were surveyed across 26 0.06-ha plots spatially independent exposed to CAD. Euphorbiaceae species accounted for 78.9% of all plants and 21.5 % of all species, with some species achieving up to 283 individuals per 0.06ha or 92% of all recorded plants. At plot scale, Euphorbiaceae total abundance and relative abundance did not correlate to disturbance level, but total and relative richness were higher in very high-disturbed plots. Among these frequent species, *Jatropha mollissima* abundance experienced a 6-fold increment across the CAD gradient, largely responding to increased similarity among intensively disturbed plots. Finally, the indicator species analysis underscored seven species for three groups of disturbance intensity: low, moderate and very high. In the Caatinga vegetation CAD may result in plant-community homogenization as Euphorbiaceae-dominated plant assemblages emerge. Such assemblages are possible due to the persistence (at least at local level) of several species in parallel to the proliferation of others (i.e. ruderals) as disturbance intensifies.

Key-words: Caatinga, Euphorbiaceae, chronic disturbances, land use, biotic homogenization.

INTRODUCTION

Habitat loss and fragmentation (i.e. acute human disturbance) has drastically altered the availability and quality of tropical forest habitats, particularly the permanent elimination of old-growth stands with negative impacts on tropical biodiversity persistence in human-modified landscapes (Foley *et al.* 2005; Hansen *et al.* 2013; Laurance *et al.* 2014). At demographic/population level, we already know that such acute disturbances may provoke reductions in terms of population number, size and range, what may culminate in local or even regional extinctions as documented across all the tropics, multiple taxa and trophic levels, from predators to plants (Laurance *et al.* 2001). Other species, however, may experience a contrasting trajectory relative to population size and range (i.e. the winner species sensu McKinney & Lockwood 1999). Moreover, both winner and losers tend belong to particular ecological groups, suggesting that biodiversity erosion in human-modified landscapes is not a random process (Laurance *et al.* 2006).

In contrast to acute, chronic human disturbances (sensu Singh 1998) are more subtle because it usually refers to regular, frequent and long-term removal of small amounts of biomass. In the case of forests, we refer to the collection of firewood, fodder and other non-timber forest products (NTFP), and biomass removal via livestock (Singh *et al.* 1984). Depending on its regime, chronic disturbances can impose negative effects from population (recruitment failure, local extinction and proliferation) to ecosystem level as it can drive shifts on soil, hydrology and microclimate conditions (Mishra *et al.* 2004; Portilla-Alonso & Martorell 2011). We shall mention demographic shifts experienced by some cactus species in Mexico (see C. Martorell and collaborators) and the replacement of Himalayan forests by shrub-dominated vegetation (Mehta *et al.*

2008) as illustrative cases. Usually resulting from rural population trying to meet basic patterns of livelihood via exploitation of forest/vegetation resources, chronic disturbance are not expected to be negligible or cease in the presence of environmental regulations (Shahabuddin & Prasad 2004; Kumar & Shahabuddin 2005; Karanth & DeFries 2010); they also threaten the ecological integrity of protected areas (Kumar & Shahabuddin 2005).

Caatinga is a mosaic of seasonally dry tropical forest and scrub vegetation (Pennington *et al.* 2000) that occupies ca. 800,000 km² of northeastern Brazil (17% of territory extension, Portillo-Quintero & Sánchez-Azofeifa 2010). This semiarid biota has been occupied since mid-sixteenth century and currently home over 23 million people (11.8% of the Brazilian population), one of the most populated semiarid regions globally, with 26.03 hab/km² (Ab'Sáber 1999; Medeiros *et al.* 2012). Cattle-raising, wood extraction and subsistence agriculture activities have imposed a continuum of degradation varying from biomass reduction to complete desertification (Leal *et al.* 2005; MMA & IBAMA 2010). To worsen this scenario of high human pressure, strictly protected areas encompass less than 1% of Caatinga cover (Leal *et al.* 2005). Finally, the role played by chronic disturbances on vegetation and plant community structure has been just eventually examined (Sánchez-Azofeifa *et al.* 2005; Santos *et al.* 2011), which limits our ability to propose conservation guidelines and regulations (Leal *et al.* 2005; Lôbo *et al.* 2011).

Here we address Euphorbiaceae species and woody plant communities in a 152-km² Caatinga landscape in order to examine potential effects imposed by chronic anthropogenic disturbances (CAD), particularly firewood collection and browsing by livestock. We adopted the Euphorbiaceae species as a biological model as they refer to a highly diverse group in the Caatinga biota (Silva *et al.* 2003), particularly in human

disturbed sites (Araújo *et al.* 2006). First, we offer family-level related scores across a set of plots covering a CAD gradient. Second, we examine species individual responses to the CAD gradient and correlate them to levels of cross-plot taxonomic similarity; we also report disturbance-level indicator species. Finally, we speculate about potential mechanisms responsible for our uncovered patterns and address theoretical implications on the CAD context.

METHODS

Study site

This study was carried out in a continuous patch of Caatinga vegetation near Parnamirim city (8°5'S; 39°34'W; 393 m asl) in Pernambuco state, NE Brazil. The climate is semi-arid with most of the 550 mm mean annual rainfall falling between January and May (IBGE 1985). The wet season is highly variable in its length, with the dry season lasting for 7-11 months (Nimer 1972; Prado 2003). The predominant soils are non-calcic brown soil, regosols, planosols and podzolic yellow soils (EMBRAPA 2001). The vegetation is mostly scrub, but includes patches of seasonally dry tropical forest (Sampaio 1995; Prado 2003).

Anthropogenic disturbance measure

We established 26 0.06-ha plots (each 30 x 20 m; separated by at least 2 km) over an area of approximately 152 km², with 15 sites on regosols and 11 on non-calcic brown soils. The habitat structure of Caatinga vegetation (especially the lack of a well-developed ground layer) combined with the chronic rather than acute nature of

disturbance (see below), meant that reliable quantification of level of disturbance based on habitat characteristics was not possible. We then used surrogates of intensity of resource use to characterize the levels of disturbance from multiple factors based on 34 semi-structured interviews with local people. This measurement of multi-factor disturbance was adapted from previous studies by Martorell and Peters (2005) and Martorell and Peters (2009) on semiarid ecosystems from Mexico, and is detailed in Leal et al.(2014) . The major disturbances were identified as grazing by stock (goats and cattle), firewood collection, and hunting (Leal *et al.* 2014). Their intensity was inversely related to proximity to rural properties or to the city of Parnamirim (Leal *et al.* 2014). Through the interviews, we collected information on the number of people living in, and the number of stock managed by, each property.

We used five metrics to characterize the level of anthropogenic disturbance in each study area: (1) distance to Parnamirim; (2) distance to nearest farm; (3) distance to nearest road; (4) number of stock (goats and cattle combined) managed by farms within 2 km; and (5) number of people living in farms within 2 km. All spatial analyses were conducted using satellite imagery and ARCGIS software, with distances measured from the centres of sites. We classify sites into four categories of anthropogenic disturbance. For the three distance metrics, categories ranged from 1 (highest distances values) to four (lowest distance values), and, for numbers of stock and people, from 1 (lowest) to 4 (highest). We summed the values of each metric to obtain an overall disturbance score for each site, with the higher the score, the higher the disturbance. We used breakpoints in the frequency distribution of disturbance scores to classify sites into four categories of level of anthropogenic disturbance (for more details see Leal et al 2014).

Plant species surveys

Euphorbiaceae species is a monophyletic group, which have referred in the literature as common component of Caatinga degraded areas (Albuquerque *et al.* 2005; Andrade *et al.* 2005; Carneiro-Torres *et al.* 2011), thereby offering a interesting opportunity to address chronic anthropogenic disturbances (hereafter CAD). In each plot we marked and identified all woody individuals with diameter at soil level ≥ 3 cm and total height ≥ 1 m (Rodal *et al.* 1992). We calculated the total Euphorbiaceae relative abundance and richness in each plot. In addition, we calculated the relative abundance for Euphorbiaceae species that were present in at least 50 percent of sites. As soil type did not influence Euphorbiaceae species richness and abundance, we remove it from analysis. We then used one-way ANOVA to evaluate the disturbance effect in these response variables. Normality of the residuals and homogeneity of variances were verified through Shapiro-Wilk and Levene tests, respectively. Response variables were $\log(10)$ transformed or arcsine-square root transformed (in case of percentage data) when they did not attend the assumptions of tests.

We used community abundance data to compute pairwise Bray-Curtis similarity matrix between sites. Based in Bray-Curtis similarity, we conducted an analysis of similarity (ANOSIM) and calculated the average of similarity percentage (SIMPER) between sites in the same anthropogenic disturbance level. We realized SIMPER analysis to identify plant species contributing mostly to similarity within each level. Afterward, we performed a non-metric multidimensional scaling (NMDS) ordination of all 26 sites using Bray-Curtis dissimilarity matrix of species composition (Krebs 1999). To avoid any bias resulting from highly abundant species and differences in samples sizes, the species abundance data were square root-transformed. To examine if there is a

relationship between the floristic similarity and the changes in Euphorbiaceae group, we plotted the first NMDS axis against (1) Euphorbiaceae relative richness, (2) relative abundance of species contributing mostly to similarity within groups, and (3) species benefitted by disturbance. Finally, we used the compositional community data to realize an indicator species analysis (sensu Dufrêne & Legendre 1997). All the analyses were performed in the software Primer 6.0 and R package.

RESULTS

A total of 5554 plant individuals, distributed among 51 species and 18 families, were recorded across the 26 plots. Euphorbiaceae accounted for 4383 individuals (167.88 ± 61.88 , mean $\pm$ SD), followed by Fabaceae (732 individuals) and Apocynaceae (98 individuals). Euphorbiaceae plants were distributed into 11 species from six genera; *Croton* (88.8% of individuals), *Jatropha* (5.1%) and *Cnidoscolus* (4.1%) were the most abundant genera. Euphorbiaceae accounted for 78.9% of all plants and 21.5 % of all species, with some species achieving up to 283 individuals per 0.06 ha or 92% of all recorded plants.

Despite such contribution, Euphorbiaceae total abundance (168.6 ± 62.9 ; $F_{(3,19)} = 0.859$, $p = 0.479$) and relative abundance ($77.9\% \pm 10.51$; $F_{(3,19)} = 0.479$, $p = 0.7$) were not affected by disturbance level. However, the Euphorbiaceae total and relative richness were higher in very high-disturbed plots ($F_{(3,19)} = 5.396$, $p < 0.001$; $F_{(3,19)} = 4.531$, $p = 0.015$, respectively; Fig.1), with five species being recorded in more than 50% of all plots: *Croton blanchetianus*, *Croton heliotropiifolius*, *Jatropha mollissima*, *Cnidoscolus quercifolius*, and *Sapium glandulosum*. Among these frequent species, *Jatropha mollissima* abundance correlated positively with disturbance level (both in

absolute and relative), while the other four species did not exhibit any trend (Tables 1 and 2). Precisely, *J. molissima* abundance experienced a 6-fold increment, largely responding to increased similarity among intensively disturbed plots (Table 3).

ANOSIM test detected an effect of anthropogenic disturbance on floristic similarity ($R = 0.129$, $p = 0.037$; low versus very high $p = 0.029$). Moreover, the floristic similarity among sites increased with the anthropogenic disturbance level (Table 3) and a detailed analysis of SIMPER, detected *Croton blanchetianus* as common species across the entire disturbance gradient, largely contributing for patterns of species similarity among sites (Table 3). It is important to highlight that, in very high-disturbed sites, from the eight species that contribute mostly to similarity among sites, five were Euphorbiaceae, responsible for 76.48% of species contribution to similarity (Table 3). We did not observe a relationship between the first NMDS axis and the Euphorbiaceae relative richness ($R^2 = 0.005$, $df = 1$, $p = 0.725$) and the *J. molissima* relative abundance ($R^2 = 0.0003$, $df = 1$, $p = 0.927$). However, we observed a relationship between *C. blanchetianus* relative abundance and first NMDS axis ($R^2 = 0.6837$, $df = 1$, $p < 0.0001$; Fig. 2). Finally, the indicator species analysis underscored seven species for three groups of disturbance intensity: low, moderate and very high (Table 4). Two Euphorbiaceae species were pointed out as indicators: *Cnidoscolus vitifolius* as indicator of areas with moderate anthropogenic disturbance jointly others four species belongs other diverse families, while *Jatropha mollissima* was the only indicator species of very high disturbed areas (Table 4).

DISCUSSION

Our findings suggest that (1) Euphorbiaceae species represent a dominant element across Caatinga disturbed stands, (2) although they refer to a monophyletic

group, species do not respond linearly to CAD gradients, at least in terms of species abundance; (3) exception to this pattern refers to species responding positively and dominating plant assemblages in intensively disturbed sites, (4) with potential proliferating species, Euphorbiaceae species richness may increase at habitat level but it drops at habitat or landscape spatial level (i.e. reduced beta diversity), supporting increasing community-level taxonomic similarity as disturbance increases.

Chronic disturbances have been reported in the literature to be as much degrading as acute forms of disturbance such as habitat loss and fragmentation (Singh 1998). It may be particularly true across socioecological contexts marked by the presence of dense and poor rural populations with livelihood largely dependent on the direct exploitation of natural resources including firewood, fodder, and other NTFPs, which result in continuous biomass extraction (Kumar & Shahabuddin 2005). I refer to environmental-dependent human communities (*sensu* Millennium Ecosystem Assessment 2005) as seen today across many regions covered by forests and savannas (Davidar *et al.* 2010; Gaoue *et al.* 2013; Blackie *et al.* 2014). Despite potential degradation driven by CAD, few ecosystems have been examined, with most studies addressing effects on plant population level, particularly exploited species (Shahabuddin & Prasad 2004). As a package of imposed to targeted ecosystems, CAD and is expected to affect targeted species (direct effects), but frequently produce community- and ecosystem level effects by creating physically stressing environments (Sagar & Singh 2003) with evolutionary and ecological impacts mediated by disturbance intensity (Ureta *et al.* 2012). Although most plant responses are not linear across disturbance gradients, a common effect refer to shifts on vital rates leading to population decline or collapse (Vetaas 2000), while some species experience increased recruitment, population growth and density (Martorell *et al.* 2012). Thereby, intermediate levels of CAD can result in higher levels

of species diversity (i.e. by mixing species of different successional status; Kumar & Ram 2005). However as disturbance intensity exceeds some thresholds, trees are replaced by shrubs (in the case of forests), vegetation biomass and structure collapse, plant communities become impoverished and may experience increasing levels of invasion (Mishra *et al.* 2004; Mehta *et al.* 2008). Such trajectories experienced by temperate and tropical dry forests in India suggest that CAD may drive targeted vegetations towards transitional plant assemblages between two extremes: old-growth forest and shrub-dominated vegetation (Singh *et al.* 1984; Mehta *et al.* 2008).

Our results reinforce the notion that some species are able to benefit from CAD, as anecdotally reported for Euphorbiaceae species in the Caatinga vegetation. Furthermore, we offer evidence that such benefit may contribute to the emergence of impoverished and taxonomically similar plant assemblages at landscape level; i.e. a congruent set of signal indicating plant community homogenization partially due to proliferation of particular taxa in response to increasing disturbance. Proliferation of few adapted species and increased species dominance at community level represent an expected response in the case disturbance increments physical stress and environmental filtering (Tilman & Lehman 2001). However it is the first time that proliferation has been demonstrated to be correlated to biotic homogenization as an integrated CAD effect. In the context of anthropogenic disturbances, benefiting species have been referred as weedy (Tilman & Lehman 2001), ruderal (Martorell *et al.* 2012), ecological winners or proliferating species (Tabarelli *et al.* 2012), including both exotic and native species, with much more species assigned as losers than winners (McKinney & Lockwood 1999; Tabarelli *et al.* 2010).

Like species extinction in tropical human-modified landscapes, species proliferation is not a random process since some plant traits or life-history strategies can confer either

vulnerability or increased fitness in particular disturbance scenarios (Laurance *et al.* 2001; Tabarelli *et al.* 2008). A well documented example refers to some small-seeded, pioneer plant species proliferating across human-modified landscapes in the Atlantic forest region (Lôbo *et al.* 2011). Although the reduced number of species examined in this study does not allow us to identify plant traits correlated with species persistence or proliferation in response to disturbance, it is worth mention potential traits exhibited by our winners. *Jatropha molissima* has a low quality wood — low density wood (0.29g/cm^3 ; Vitorio 2013) — and because of this it is not used by local human communities as firewood and for fence constructions, as observed in our set of interviews. Moreover, the low wood density implies in high water reserve that may be used to production of fruits and leaves (Borchert 1980; Rivera *et al.* 2002) and consequently to contribute for plant maintenance in disturbed areas. *J. molissima* also bears flowers along the whole year, it is self-compatible and in natural conditions the percentage of fruit production is 85% (Santos *et al.* 2005). Thus, a high reproductive success and a low use pressure would contribute for its proliferation as documented here.

On the other hand, *C. blanchetianus* seems to be favored by (1) resprouting ability, (2) production of viable seeds per agamospermy (Araujo 1998), and (3) this specie is also able and presents low foraging value for goats sheep and cattle, the main herbivores in Caatinga (Cândido 1998; Moreira *et al.* 2006; Santana *et al.* 2011) achieving 10-45 thousand individuals per hectare in successional areas (Carvalho *et al.* 2001). Note that in the Caatinga vegetation slash-and-burn agriculture leading to soil degradation, firewood collecting, and overgrazing have been reported to the main degrading drivers (Leal *et al.* 2005). In this ecological context, sprouting ability, unpalatable foliage represent key trait (Bond & Midgley 2001). Apparently, Euphorbiaceae species bear

more than a single trait-package conferring low vulnerability or increased capacity to benefit from certain levels of CAD, what is consistent to the both species and family level scores exhibited across our CAD gradient.

The Caatinga vegetation has experienced increasing levels of human disturbances since the first European settlements in the 15th century as the alarming rates of human-driven soil aridization and desertification confirm (Leal *et al.* 2005). Like other tropical biotas with significant conservation value, Caatinga will continue to experience immense the immense challenges posed by poverty, increasing human population and can climate change what makes imperative to conservation objectives and human needs (Karanth & DeFries 2010). Here we offer evidence for a plant-community homogenization driven by CAD as Euphorbiaceae-dominated plant assemblages emerge, probably as transitional assemblages. Such assemblages are possible due to the persistence (at least at local level) of several species in parallel to both the proliferation of others (i.e. ruderals) as disturbance intensifies. As proposed, biotic homogenization also benefits from the extirpation of disturbance-sensitive taxa (McKinney & Lockwood 1999), but it was not documented among Euphorbiaceae species in our setup. This phenomenon add new insights and confirm CAD potential for degradation; it also reinforces that notion that biotic homogenization is a more generalized response to human disturbances as previously advocated (Tabarelli *et al.* 2012). As a first description based on a “natural experiment”, much more information is to address the generality of the patterns documented here as well as the underlying mechanism supporting species proliferation and biotic homogenization in the case we intend offer guidelines for conciliating human livelihood and ecosystem integrity.

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Table 1 Total abundance (individuals/0.1 ha) of five Euphorbiaceae woody species (mean $\pm$ SD) in 0.1 ha plots in different anthropogenic disturbance levels at Caatinga continuous patches, at Parnamirim City, northeast of Brazil.*

	Disturbance level				Two-way ANOVA			
	Low (n=6)	Moderate (n=6)	High (n=6)	Very high (n=8)	Disturbance		Soil	
					F	p	F	P
<i>Croton blanchetianus</i>	90.7 $\pm$ 90.2	126.0 $\pm$ 54.9	99.7 $\pm$ 98.7	134.6 $\pm$ 69.0	1.67	0.21	0.21	0.65
<i>Croton heliotropiifolius</i>	88.3 $\pm$ 116.6	17.2 $\pm$ 33.1	32.2 $\pm$ 35.0	12.0 $\pm$ 20.2	1.08	0.38	0.02	0.89
<i>Jatropha molissima</i>	2.3 $\pm$ 2.9 ^a	3.5 $\pm$ 3.0 ^{ab}	3.5 $\pm$ 5.3 ^{ab}	8.1 $\pm$ 2.9 ^b	3.91	0.02	1.39	0.25
<i>Cnidoscolus quercifolius</i>	5.0 $\pm$ 4.6	2.8 $\pm$ 3.7	5.3 $\pm$ 3.1	5.0 $\pm$ 2.9	1.57	0.23	1.46	0.24
<i>Sapium glandulosum</i>	0.0 $\pm$ 0.0	1.8 $\pm$ 4.0	2.5 $\pm$ 2.8	3.3 $\pm$ 4.5	2.45	0.10	4.42	0.05

*Value in bold denotes significant difference.

Table 2 Relative abundance (%) of five Eupobiaceae woody species (mean $\pm$ SD) in 0.1 ha plots in different anthropogenic disturbance levels at Caatinga continuous patches, at Parnamirim City, northeast of Brazil.*

Species	Disturbance level				Two-way ANOVA			
	Low (n=6)	Moderate (n=6)	High (n=6)	Very high (n=8)	Disturbance		Soil	
					F	p	F	p
<i>Croton blanchetianus</i>	38.1 $\pm$ 35.8	57.1 $\pm$ 14.7	47.4 $\pm$ 31.3	63.2 $\pm$ 18.9	1.41	0.27	1.21	0.29
<i>Croton heliotropiifolius</i>	27.9 $\pm$ 34.9	7.9 $\pm$ 13.4	22.0 $\pm$ 21.7	7.3 $\pm$ 11.4	1.26	0.32	0.60	0.45
<i>Jatropha molissima</i>	0.8 $\pm$ 1.1 ^a	1.5 $\pm$ 1.2 ^{ab}	2.0 $\pm$ 3.3 ^{ab}	4.2 $\pm$ 1.5 ^b	4.35	0.02	0.48	0.50
<i>Cnidoscolus quercifolius</i>	2.3 $\pm$ 2.8	1.6 $\pm$ 2.2	3.1 $\pm$ 1.4	2.7 $\pm$ 1.8	1.81	0.18	3.97	0.06
<i>Sapium glandulosum</i>	0 $\pm$ 0	1.3 $\pm$ 2.8	1.7 $\pm$ 1.8	2.5 $\pm$ 4.0	2.31	0.11	4.31	0.05

*Data in percentage. Value in bold denotes significant difference.

Table 3 The percent contribution of species most strongly contributing to similarity between sites within anthropogenic disturbance groups, based on SIMPER analysis. *

Low (35.9)		Moderate (48.29)		High (50.14)		Very high (54.20)	
Species	Contrib (%)	Species	Contrib (%)	Species	Contrib (%)	Species	Contrib (%)
<i>Croton blanchetianus</i> Müll.Arg.	27.19	<i>Croton blanchetianus</i> Müll.Arg.	46.18	<i>Croton blanchetianus</i> Müll.Arg.	33.84	<i>Croton blanchetianus</i> Müll.Arg.	48.67
<i>Croton heliotropiifolius</i> Kunth	14.29	<i>Senegalia polyphylla</i> (DC.) Britton & Rose	8.13	<i>Croton heliotropiifolius</i> Kunth	13.72	<i>Jatropha mollissima</i> (Pohl) Baill.	13.15
<i>Poincianella pyramidalis</i> (Tul.) L.P. Queiroz	11.43	<i>Anadenanthera colubrina</i> (Vell.) Brenan	7.36	<i>Poincianella pyramidalis</i> (Tul.) L.P. Queiroz	11.83	<i>Cnidoscolus quercifolius</i> Pohl	9.31
<i>Aspidosperma pyrifolium</i> Mart.	9.69	<i>Piptadenia stipulacea</i> (Benth.) Ducke	5.74	<i>Cnidoscolus quercifolius</i> Pohl	10.3	<i>Poincianella pyramidalis</i> (Tul.) L.P. Queiroz	8.7
<i>Cnidoscolus quercifolius</i> Pohl	8.17	<i>Jatropha mollissima</i> (Pohl) Baill.	5.09	<i>Sapium glandulosum</i> (L.) Morong	5.01	<i>Croton heliotropiifolius</i> Kunth	2.82
<i>Fraunhofer multiflora</i> Mart.	5.55	<i>Aspidosperma pyrifolium</i> Mart.	4.06	<i>Aspidosperma pyrifolium</i> Mart.	3.41	<i>Amburana cearensis</i> (Allemão) A.C.Sm.	2.63
<i>Mimosa tenuiflora</i> (Willd.) Poir.	4.08	<i>Croton heliotropiifolius</i> Kunth	3.75	<i>Jatropha mollissima</i> (Pohl) Baill.	3.2	<i>Sapium glandulosum</i> (L.) Morong	2.53
<i>Piptadenia stipulacea</i> (Benth.) Ducke	3.42	<i>Cnidoscolus vitifolius</i> (Mill.) Pohl	3.31	<i>Fraunhofer multiflora</i> Mart.	3.17	<i>Erythroxylum</i> sp.	2.22
<i>Pilosocereus gounellei</i> subsp. <i>gounellei</i>	3	<i>Cnidoscolus quercifolius</i> Pohl	2.6	<i>Anadenanthera colubrina</i> (Vell.) Brenan	2.49		
<i>Jatropha mollissima</i> (Pohl) Baill.	2.29	<i>Cynophalla hastata</i> (Jacq.) J . Presl	1.82	<i>Myracrodruon urundeuva</i> Allemão	2.42		
<i>Bauhinia cheilantha</i> (Bong.) Steud.	1.65	<i>Mimosa tenuiflora</i> (Willd.) Poir.	1.55	<i>Piptadenia stipulacea</i> (Benth.) Ducke	2.18		
		<i>Myracrodruon urundeuva</i> Allemão	1.2				
Cum(%)	90.75	Cum(%)	90.78	Cum(%)	91.57	Cum(%)	90.02

*Bold values in parenthesis indicated the level of similarity within groups. Contrib (%) = percentage of the total similarity among sites within anthropogenic disturbance level that are explained by variation in the abundance of each listed plant species; Cum(%) = cumulative percentage of species contribution to similarity.

Table 4 Result of Indicator species analysis for different anthropogenic disturbance levels at Caatinga continuous patch, at Parnamirim City, northeast of Brazil. *

Specie	Group	Indval	p	Frequence
<i>Pilosocereus gounellei</i>	1	0.6666667	0.0030	4
<i>Anadenanthera colubrina</i>	2	0.6197183	0.0064	15
<i>Colicodendron yco</i>	2	0.5000000	0.0230	3
<i>Cynophala hastata</i>	2	0.4750000	0.0291	4
<i>Cnidoscolus vitifolius</i>	2	0.4482759	0.0254	6
<i>Guapira graciliflora</i>	2	0.4375000	0.0464	4
<i>Jatropha molissima</i>	4	0.4653938	0.0091	20

*Group represents different disturbance levels. 1= Low, 2=Moderate, 4=Very High.

Indval represents the indicator value and to express species importance in communities within groups, is a index given by specificity and fidelity (for more details see Dufrêne and Legendre [1997]). Values of $p \leq 0.05$ indicates significancy and Frequence the number of times that the species was present in sites within a certain level of disturbance.

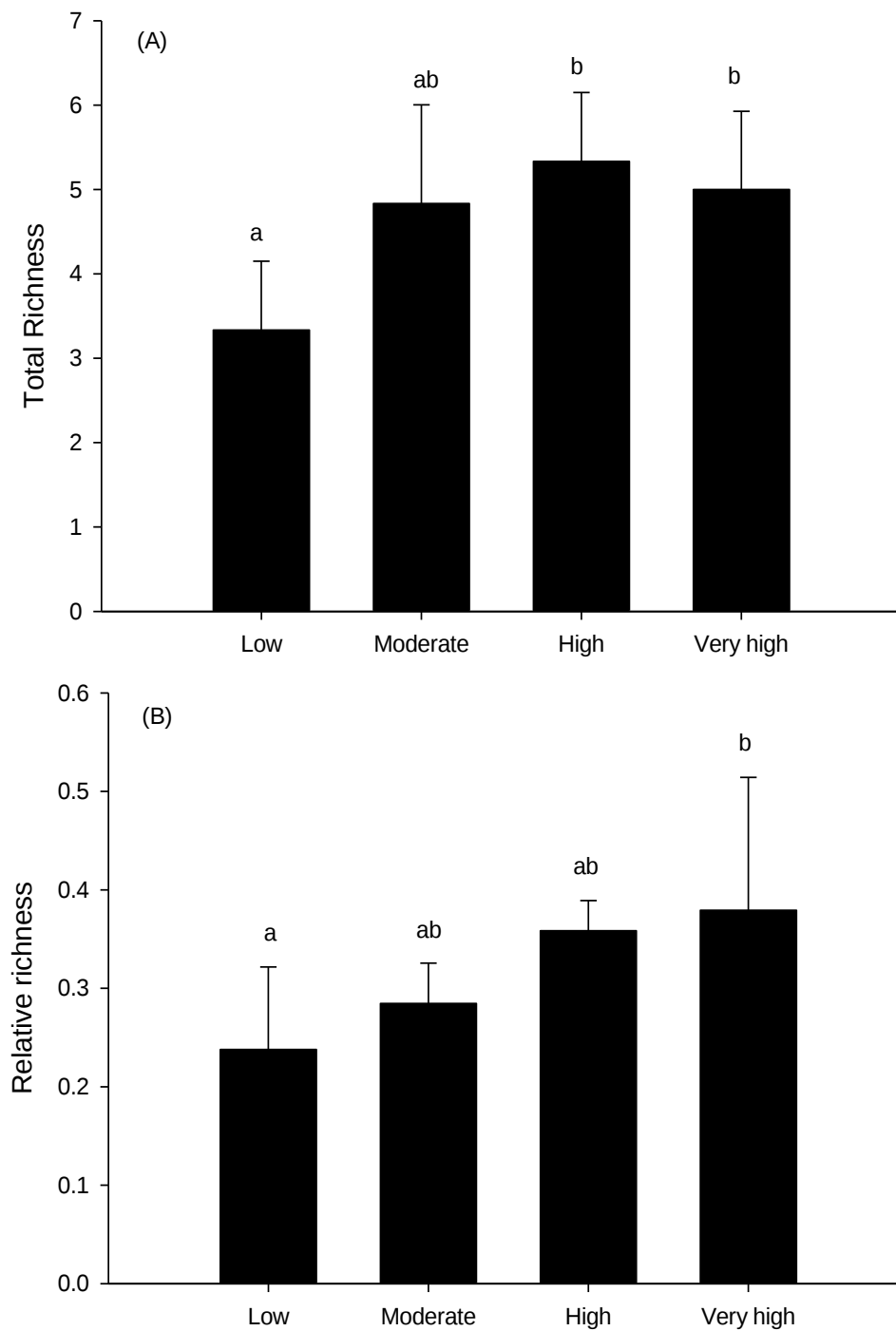


Fig. 1 Euphorbiaceae total richness (A) and relative richness (B) comparisons among different anthropogenic disturbance levels at Caatinga continuous patch, at Parnamirim City, northeast of Brazil. Significant differences in post hoc comparisons (Tukey test) are indicated by different letters. Error bars indicate standard deviation.

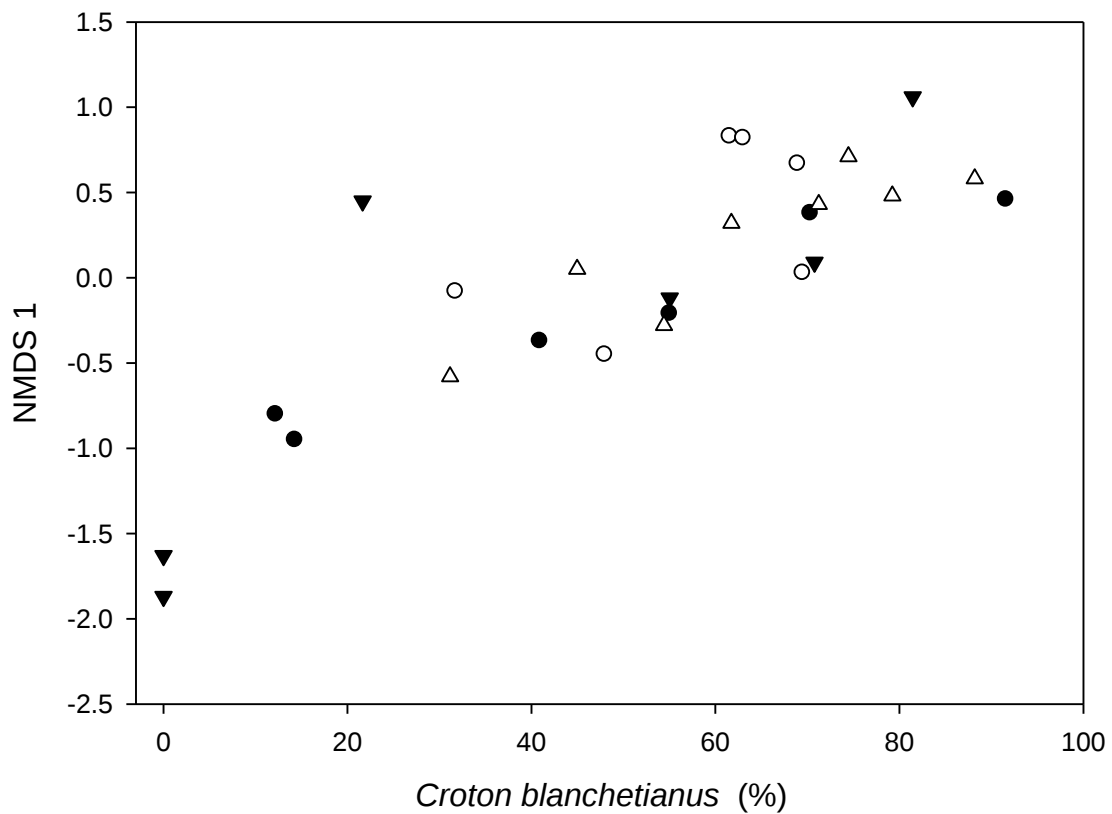


Fig. 2 Relation between *Croton blanchetianus* abundance in sites at different levels of anthropogenic disturbance and the nonmetric multidimensional scaling (NMDS) ordination (axis 1) of 26 sites on the basis of their floristic similarity at Caatinga continuous patch, Parnamirim City, northeast of Brazil. Black triangles= low disturbance; open circles=moderate disturbance; black circles= high disturbance; open triangles=very high disturbance.

RESUMO

Distúrbios antrópicos crônicos tem implicado em ameaças reais à biodiversidade das biotas tropicais, mas seus impactos tanto no nível de comunidade quanto de ecossistema permanecem negligenciados. Este estudo foi realizado em uma área de 152 km² de Caatinga no nordeste do Brasil no intuito de investigar como espécies de Euphorbiaceae e assembleias de plantas em florestas tropicais secas respondem às perturbações antrópicas crônicas. Foram amostrados todos indivíduos adultos de espécies de plantas lenhosas em 26 parcelas espacialmente independentes de 0,06ha. Todas estas parcelas estavam expostas, em diferentes níveis, às perturbações antrópicas crônicas. Euphorbiaceae representou 78.9% de todas as plantas amostradas e 21.5 % de todas as espécies, com algumas espécies alcançando 238 indivíduos por 0,06ha ou 92% de todas as plantas amostradas. Na escala da parcela, a abundância total e abundância relativa de Euphorbiaceae não foi correlacionada com o nível de perturbação, mas a riqueza total e relativa da família foi maior em parcelas com níveis muito altos de perturbação. Dentre as espécies mais frequentes, houve um incremento de seis vezes na abundância de *Jatropha mollissima* ao longo dos níveis de perturbação, em grande parte respondendo ao aumento na similaridade entre parcelas intensamente perturbadas. Por fim, a análise de espécies indicadoras ressaltou sete espécies para três grupos de intensidade de distúrbio: baixo, moderado e muito alto. Na Caatinga as perturbações antrópicas crônicas podem resultar em homogeneização da comunidade de plantas, com assembleias dominadas por Euphorbiaceae. Tal organização de comunidade é possível devido a persistência (pelo menos ao nível local) e proliferação de apenas um grupo de espécies à medida que o distúrbio aumenta.

Palavras-chave: Caatinga, Euphorbiaceae, distúrbios crônicos, uso de terra, homogeneização biótica

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