



Deposited via The University of Leeds.

White Rose Research Online URL for this paper:

<https://eprints.whiterose.ac.uk/id/eprint/137066/>

Version: Accepted Version

Article:

Morandi, PS, Schwantes Marimon, B, Marimon-Junior, BH et al. (2020) Tree diversity and above-ground biomass in the South America Cerrado biome and their conservation implications. *Biodiversity and Conservation*, 29 (5). pp. 1519-1536. ISSN: 0960-3115

<https://doi.org/10.1007/s10531-018-1589-8>

© Springer Nature B.V. 2018. This is an author produced version of a paper published in *Biodiversity and Conservation*. Uploaded in accordance with the publisher's self-archiving policy.

Reuse

Items deposited in White Rose Research Online are protected by copyright, with all rights reserved unless indicated otherwise. They may be downloaded and/or printed for private study, or other acts as permitted by national copyright laws. The publisher or other rights holders may allow further reproduction and re-use of the full text version. This is indicated by the licence information on the White Rose Research Online record for the item.

Takedown

If you consider content in White Rose Research Online to be in breach of UK law, please notify us by emailing eprints@whiterose.ac.uk including the URL of the record and the reason for the withdrawal request.

[Click here to view linked References](#)

1 **Tree diversity and above-ground biomass in the South America Cerrado biome and**
2 **their conservation implications**

3

4 Paulo S. Morandi^{1,2}, Beatriz Schwantes Marimon^{1,3*}, Ben Hur Marimon-Junior^{1,3}, James A.
5 Ratter⁴, Ted R. Feldpausch⁵, Guarino Rinaldi Colli⁶, Cássia Beatriz Rodrigues Munhoz⁶,
6 Manoel Cláudio da Silva Júnior⁶, Edson de Souza Lima⁷, Ricardo Flores Haidar⁶, Luzmila
7 Arroyo⁸, Alejandro Araujo Murakami⁸, Fabiana de Góis Aquino⁹, Bruno Machado Teles
8 Walter¹⁰, José Felipe Ribeiro⁹, Renata Françoso⁶, Fernando Elias³, Edmar Almeida de
9 Oliveira¹, Simone Matias Reis^{1,2}, Bianca de Oliveira³, Eder Carvalho das Neves³, Denis Silva
10 Nogueira³, Herson Souza Lima⁷, Tatiane Pires de Carvalho⁷, Silvo Alves Rodrigues¹¹, Daniel
11 Villarroel⁸, Jeanine M. Felfili^{6†}, Oliver L. Phillips²

12

13 ¹Programa de Pós-graduação em Biodiversidade e Biotecnologia (BIONORTE), UFAM–
14 UNEMAT, P.O. Box 08, Nova Xavantina, MT 78690-000, Brazil

15 ²University of Leeds, School of Geography, LS2 9JT, Leeds, United Kingdom

16 ³Universidade do Estado de Mato Grosso (UNEMAT), Programa de Pós-graduação em
17 Ecologia e Conservação, P.O. Box 08, Nova Xavantina, MT 78690-000, Brazil

18 ⁴Royal Botanic Garden Edinburgh, Edinburgh, EH3 5LR, Scotland, United Kingdom

19 ⁵Geography, College of Life and Environmental Sciences, University of Exeter, Exeter, EX4
20 4RJ, United Kingdom

21 ⁶Universidade de Brasília, P.O. Box 04357, Brasília, DF 70919-970, Brazil

22 ⁷Instituto Pró-Carnívoros, Av. Horácio Neto, 1030, Parque Edmundo Zanoni, Atibaia/SP,
23 12945-010

24 ⁸Museo de Historia Natural Noel Kempff Mercado, Universidad Autónoma Gabriel Rene
25 Moreno, Av. Irala 565, Casilla 2489, Santa Cruz, Bolivia

26 ⁹Embrapa Cerrados, BR 020, Km 18, P.O. Box 08223, Planaltina, DF 73310-970, Brazil

27 ¹⁰Embrapa Recursos Genéticos e Biotecnologia, Herbário CEN, PO Box 02372, Brasília, DF.

28 70770-900, Brazil

29 ¹¹Universidade Federal de Mato Grosso, Cuiabá, MT 78060-900, Brazil

30 † *In memoriam*

31 ***Corresponding author:** biamarimon@unemat.br; phone-fax: +55 66 3438 1224

32

33 **Acknowledgments**

34 PSM, FE, EAO, SMAR, BO, ECN and DN thank the Science without Borders Program,

35 Conselho Nacional do Desenvolvimento Científico e Tecnológico (CNPq), Coordenação de

36 Aperfeiçoamento de Pessoal de Nível Superior (CAPES), and Fundação de Amparo à

37 Pesquisa do Estado de Mato Grosso (FAPEMAT) for funding and scholarships. Financial

38 support was provided by CNPq through projects PELD 403725/2012-7 and 441244/2016-5,

39 PVE 401279/2014-6 (including 207406/2015-4) and PPBIO 457602/2012-0, and by CAPES

40 (PVE 177/2012). GRC thanks CAPES, CNPq, Fundação de Apoio à Pesquisa do Distrito

41 Federal (FAPDF), and USAID's PEER program under cooperative agreement AID-OAA-A-

42 11-00012 for financial support. OLP is supported by an ERC Advanced Grant 291585 ("T-

43 FORCES") and is a Royal Society-Wolfson Research Merit Award holder.

44 **Abstract** Less than half of the original two million square kilometers of the Cerrado
45 vegetation remains standing, and there are still many uncertainties as to how to conserve and
46 prioritize remaining areas effectively. A key limitation is the continuing lack of
47 geographically-extensive evaluation of ecosystem-level properties across the biome. Here we
48 sought to address this gap by comparing the woody vegetation of the typical cerrado of the
49 Cerrado-Amazonia Transition with that of the core area of the Cerrado in terms of both tree
50 diversity and vegetation biomass. We used 21 one-hectare plots in the transition and 18 in the
51 core to compare key structural parameters (tree height, basal area, and above-ground
52 biomass), and diversity metrics between the regions. We also evaluated the effects of
53 temperature and precipitation on biomass, as well as explored the species diversity *vs.*
54 biomass relationship. We found, for the first time, both that the typical cerrado at the
55 transition holds substantially more biomass than at the core, and that higher temperature and
56 greater precipitation can explain this difference. By contrast, plot-level alpha diversity was
57 almost identical in the two regions. Finally, contrary to some theoretical expectations, we
58 found no positive relationship between species diversity and biomass for the Cerrado woody
59 vegetation. This has implications for the development of effective conservation measures,
60 given that areas with high biomass and importance for the compensation of greenhouse gas
61 emissions are often not those with the greatest diversity.

62
63 **Key words:** Diversity-biomass; Richness; Carbon stocks; Core area; Transition; Neotropics

64 **Introduction**

65 As many as two hundred studies recognize the South American Cerrado savannas as a global
66 center of diversity, largely on the basis of its 12,000-plant species which include many
67 endemics (e.g. Mendonça et al. 2008; Brazilian Flora 2016). A likely driver of this high
68 species richness is the heterogeneity of landscapes found within this region (Felfili et al.
69 2005a; Mendonça et al. 2008). While the importance of this biodiversity has been recognized
70 for at least two decades (e.g., Ratter et al. 1997; Silva and Bates 2002; Klink and Machado
71 2005; Kier et al. 2005; Silva et al. 2006; BFG 2015), the importance of the Cerrado for
72 ecosystem services such as carbon storage and hence climate mitigation is less appreciated
73 (Grace et al. 2006), and the number and size of conservation units are still insufficient to
74 avoid biodiversity losses (Françoso et al. 2015). In addition to establishing a more complete
75 network of conservation areas covering the whole region, Bridgewater et al. (2004) also
76 recommended a complementary regional focus to guarantee the adequate protection of
77 geographical variations in species. Less than half the two million square kilometers originally
78 occupied by the Cerrado are now intact (Sano et al. 2010; Lahsen et al. 2016); thus,
79 understanding the distribution of remaining species diversity and carbon stocks within this
80 region represents an urgent challenge for its conservation.

81 Most biodiversity and ecosystem ecology work in the Cerrado has focused on the core
82 region, often relatively close to major population and academic centers such as Brasília
83 (Federal District). The greatest research deficits lie well to the north and west of here
84 (Miranda et al. 2014). In particular, while an extensive and complex transition exists between
85 the Cerrado and the Amazon Forest (Ratter et al. 1973; Marimon et al. 2006, 2014), no study
86 has yet compared the transitional vegetation with that of the core region using the
87 standardized, fixed-area and quantitative inventory protocols required for a robust analysis of
88 most ecosystem properties. Indeed, there has been little large-scale evaluation of structural

89 ecosystem-level properties at all across the Cerrado. In particular, for the key parameters of
90 tree size, basal area and biomass—and hence above-ground carbon storage—the only studies
91 we are aware of that included transition zone sites were based on only one or two sites. Yet,
92 taking the published evidence together (Felfili et al. 1992; Castro and Kauffman 1998;
93 Marimon-Junior and Haridasan 2005; Kunz et al. 2009; Marimon et al. 2014), it appears that
94 the trees of the savanna formations in the Cerrado-Amazonia Transition might have greater
95 basal area or biomass than similar formations in the core region of the Cerrado.
96 Understanding how above-ground biomass varies among different areas of Cerrado and how
97 this parameter responds to environmental and geographic factors will help reduce
98 uncertainties in estimating carbon stocks and may contribute to greater reliability in
99 conservation policies formulation. Forest biomass, for example, may be partly driven by
100 climatic factors, such as precipitation and temperature (Silvertown et al. 1994; Larjavaara and
101 Muller-Landau 2011), and topography, through its effects on water table levels (Fonseca and
102 Silva Júnior 2004). Yet, this correlation may sometimes be weak and dependent on
103 vegetation type (Stegen et al. 2011), while for the Cerrado core region the above-ground
104 biomass of typical cerrado species may even be negatively correlated with precipitation
105 (Miranda et al. 2014).

106 More generally, there are reasons to expect transition and core regions to differ
107 ecologically beyond considerations of mean climate conditions. For example, the transition
108 can have suboptimal environmental conditions relative to the core of the adjacent
109 ecosystems, potentially reducing species richness (van der Maarel 1990). For similar reasons,
110 the center-periphery hypothesis predicts that, due to harsher environmental conditions,
111 peripheral populations should be smaller, less abundant and more fragmented, resulting in
112 reduced demographic performance and genetic variation (Pironon et al. 2016). This would
113 lead to the communities at the core being more stable and structurally distinct, while the more

114 unstable and fluctuating environments at the transition select for species and genotypes able
115 to tolerate more variable conditions (Hardie and Hutchings 2010). Alternatively, Kark and
116 van Rensburg (2006) suggested that precisely because populations in transitional regions are
117 likely to include a wide range of taxa adapted to environmental instability, this would in fact
118 result in them having greater species richness, and the potential to become centers for
119 speciation.

120 These intriguing but conflicting viewpoints emphasize the potential existence of
121 different patterns of diversity within the same biome, which need to be considered to develop
122 effective conservation measures. In the specific case of the Cerrado, the picture remains
123 unclear with respect to large-scale diversity patterns. Some studies have suggested that the
124 core region of the Cerrado has relatively high species richness, due to its proximity to the
125 center of species dispersal, whereas more peripheral regions are likely to be poorer in species
126 despite the influence of adjacent biomes (Eiten 1972; Fernandes and Bezerra 1990; Rizzini
127 1997; Castro et al. 1999). However, others have taken the view that the Cerrado-Amazonia
128 Transition should have greater species richness than the core region, driven by their
129 proximity to Amazonia (Ratter et al. 1973, 2003; Felfili et al. 2002; Marimon et al. 2006,
130 2014). In parallel to the gap in Cerrado center–periphery studies noted above, what has been
131 lacking so far is an evaluation of basic patterns of tree diversity using adequately replicated
132 and fully standardized quantitative inventories across the biome.

133 While a better understanding of the distribution of plant diversity and biomass, and
134 their environmental drivers across the Cerrado is necessary for adequate conservation
135 planning, evaluating the diversity-biomass relationship itself is also important, both for the
136 mitigation of climate change and for biodiversity conservation. A positive diversity-biomass
137 relationship would indicate useful synergies between the goals of biodiversity protection and
138 climate protection, while a negative one implies that difficult trade-offs become necessary

139 (Gardner et al. 2012). Several experimental studies elsewhere show that enhanced plant
140 diversity can promote higher productivity and biomass, via mechanisms that include niche
141 partitioning and species interactions that allow diverse communities to exploit resources
142 more efficiently (e.g. Cardinale et al. 2012; Ruiz-Benito et al. 2014). However, within
143 savanna ecosystems the covariation between ecosystem diversity and carbon properties is
144 largely unstudied. Therefore, whether such mechanisms and relationships matter in the
145 Cerrado, and any possible implications for conservation strategies, remains unknown.

146 Here, to help address these uncertainties in the geographical pattern, environmental
147 drivers, and potential associations between Cerrado diversity and biomass, we conduct a
148 large-scale analysis of these properties using distributed and standardized fixed-area
149 quantitative ecological sampling plots. First, we investigate whether or not the structure and
150 diversity of arboreal vegetation of the typical cerrado physiognomy (*sensu* Ribeiro and
151 Walter 2008, a mixed arboreal-shrub vegetation with cover up to 50%) varies significantly
152 between the Cerrado-Amazonia Transition and the core region. We then set out to evaluate
153 the effects of potential climate drivers on typical cerrado structure, and the potential
154 interaction between biomass and diversity. Our working hypotheses are (i) that the typical
155 cerrado vegetation of the Cerrado-Amazonia Transition has greater basal area, biomass, and
156 species diversity than at the core region, (ii) that biomass is influenced by climatic factors,
157 such as precipitation and temperature, and (iii) that biomass is positively associated with
158 diversity, independently of the potential influences of climate on biomass.

159

160 **Material and methods**

161 **Study areas**

162 We used data from standardized floristic and phytosociological surveys conducted across the
163 central portion of the Cerrado (core area – CA) and the Cerrado-Amazonia Transition (TR),

164 i.e., the ecotone between the two largest biomes in South America (Fig. 1, Table S1). We
165 used a zone of 150 km from the line that delimits the Cerrado and Amazonia to define the TR
166 (IBGE 2004; Ivanauskas et al. 2008). We analyzed data from 39 permanent one-hectare plots
167 installed in typical cerrado (*cerrado stricto sensu*) vegetation, 21 located in the TR and 18 in
168 the CA (Fig. 1). We established plots in conservation units or in legal reserves of private
169 properties in the Brazilian Federal District (CA), the Brazilian states of Mato Grosso (TR),
170 Tocantins (CA), Bahia (CA), Goiás and Minas Gerais (CA), and in the Noel Kempff National
171 Park in Bolivia (TR) (Fig. 1; Table S1). At each site, we selected the largest and best-
172 preserved remnants of natural vegetation, within which we established plots randomly. In
173 these areas, mean annual precipitation varied almost two-fold from 1043 mm to 1951 mm,
174 and mean temperatures also ranged widely, from 19.3 °C to 26.9 °C (WorldClim 1.4; Hijmans
175 et al. 2005).

176

177 **Data collection**

178 We identified and measured the diameter and total height of all woody plants with a diameter
179 of at least 10 cm at a height of 30 cm from the ground, following standard protocols used in
180 the Amazon forest (Phillips et al. 2010) and Cerrado (Felfili et al. 2005b). We identified
181 species through comparison with voucher material available in herbaria, and consultation
182 with specialists. The nomenclature was based on APG III (2009) and we confirmed the
183 species names and synonymies using the Brazilian Flora (2016), with the *flora* package in the
184 R environment (R Core Team 2018). We deposited botanical specimens in the permanent
185 collections of *Herbário* NX (UNEMAT – Nova Xavantina campus, MT), *Herbário* UB
186 (University of Brasília), *Herbário* IBGE (Brazilian Institute of Geography and Statistics),
187 *Herbário* CEN (*Embrapa Recursos Genéticos e Biotecnologia*, Brasília, DF) and *Herbario*
188 *del Oriente Boliviano* (USZ).

189 For each plot we calculated tree density (individuals/ha), mean tree height (m), mean
190 tree diameter (cm), total basal area ($\text{m}^2 \cdot \text{ha}^{-1}$) and total above-ground biomass ($\text{Mg} \cdot \text{ha}^{-1}$),
191 which were used as structural parameters of the vegetation. We estimated tree height from
192 tree diameter for 10 of the TR plots using the model:

$$193 \quad H = a \times (1 - e^{-b \times D^c}),$$

194 where a , b and c are parameters of model and D is the tree diameter (Feldpausch et al. 2012).

195 To assess the adequacy of this model, we compared height measurements from 3657 trees
196 collected in the field with their estimated heights. The correlation between the field data and
197 estimated heights was significant ($r = 0.59$, $p < 0.01$). We calculated above-ground biomass
198 (hereafter biomass) from tree diameter using the Schumacher-Hall model:

$$199 \quad Y = \beta_0 D^{\beta_1} H^{\beta_2} \varepsilon,$$

200 where β_0 , β_1 , β_2 are model parameters, D is tree diameter (at 30 cm from the ground), H is
201 tree height and ε is the random error term (Schumacher and Hall 1933), with parameter
202 values developed specifically for species of the typical cerrado physiognomy ($\beta_0 = 0.03047$,
203 $\beta_1 = 2.27159$, $\beta_2 = 0.89748$; Rezende et al. 2006).

204 For each plot, we calculated species richness, Shannon information index (H')
205 (Shannon 1948), Fisher's log series α (Fisher et al. 1943) and Pielou's evenness (J') (Pielou
206 1969), which were used as diversity parameters (Magurran 2004). We also calculated, for
207 each plot, the species richness rarefied to the same number of individuals in the smallest
208 sample, i.e., 169 individuals based on the plot with the smallest number of trees (Hurlbert
209 1971). All diversity parameters were calculated with the package *vegan* (Oksanen et al.
210 2017).

211

212 **Statistical analyses**

213 To evaluate associations within structural and diversity parameters, we used the Pearson
214 correlation coefficient. We assessed differences between CA and TR in structural and
215 diversity parameters of the vegetation using boxplots and *t*-tests and, when such differences
216 existed, we used Bayesian model averaging to identify the most important predictors of the
217 two regions. In this analysis, structural and diversity parameters were used as explanatory
218 variables and region (CA and TR) as the response variable. Bayesian model averaging, an
219 extension of the usual Bayesian inference methods, models both parameter and model
220 uncertainty using Bayes' theorem to produce parameter and model posteriors and, thus,
221 allows for model selection by full enumeration of the model space when the number of
222 predictors is not large (Hoeting et al. 1999; Fragoso et al. 2018). We conducted Bayesian
223 model averaging with the BMS package (Zeugner and Feldkircher 2015).

224 To assess differences in the total (regional) pool of species between CA and TR, we
225 built individual-based and sample-based species accumulation curves (Gotelli and Colwell
226 2001). Further, to account for unseen species in our collection of sampled plots, we used
227 abundance-based and incidence-based non-parametric estimators of species richness (Colwell
228 and Coddington 1994; O'Hara 2005). Abundance-based estimators (Chao1 and ACE) were
229 applied to the total counts of species in each region (CA vs. TR), while incidence-based
230 estimators (Chao, Jackknife1, Jackknife2 and Bootstrap) were applied to the species frequencies
231 in the plots for each region. Species accumulation curves and non-parametric estimators were
232 calculated with the *vegan* package (Oksanen et al. 2017).

233 To investigate the relationships between biomass, diversity and climate, we used a
234 modification of Bayesian model averaging to address model uncertainty in the presence of
235 spatial autocorrelation, due to the inherent spatial dependencies among the observations
236 (Legendre 1993). In this analysis, the spatial dependencies among observations are removed
237 through a semiparametric spatial filtering approach based on selected eigenvectors extracted

238 from the spatial weight matrix (Tiefelsdorf and Griffith 2007). Considering the important
239 effects that uncertainty in the type of spatial weight matrix (neighborhood relationships) can
240 have on model parameter estimates, the spatial Bayesian model averaging method addresses
241 both the uncertainty over model specification and the uncertainty regarding the choice of
242 neighborhood relationships in the spatial regression model (Cuaresma and Feldkircher 2013).
243 We implemented spatial Bayesian model averaging using package spatBMS (Feldkircher
244 2010), using 10^6 iterations, 10^5 burn-in draws, the reversible-jump model-sampler algorithm,
245 and default settings for the other parameters. We used eight different spatial weight
246 matrices— k nearest-neighbors ($k = 1, 2, 4$ and 6), Delaunay's triangulation, Gabriel graph,
247 relative neighbor graph, and sphere of influence graph—built with package spdep (Bivand et
248 al. 2013, Bivand and Piras 2015). To assess the adequacy of the spatial filtering, we
249 compared P -values of the Moran's I (Moran 1950ab) test for spatial autocorrelation obtained
250 from the 100 best models versus 100 ordinary least-squares models using the same
251 predictors.

252 In the spatial Bayesian model averaging analysis, we used biomass as the response,
253 and diversity and climate parameters as predictors. Prior to analysis, we selected diversity
254 parameters based on a variance inflation factor (VIF) maximum threshold score of 4 (Quinn
255 and Keough 2002), using package usdm (Naimi et al. 2014). This resulted in only species
256 richness and Pielou's evenness being retained for analysis (results not shown). Further, we
257 incorporated tree density and the distance from each plot to the line separating Amazonia
258 from the Cerrado (IBGE 2004) as additional predictors, to control for any effects these
259 parameters might have on biomass. We also ran a bivariate regression for both regions
260 combined (CA and TR) to evaluate the relationship between biomass and climate parameters.
261 The climate parameters consisted of temperature and precipitation, obtained from *WorldClim*

262 1.4, with a resolution of 30 s (Hijmans et al. 2005) and edited in the raster package (R Core
263 Team 2018).

264 One TR plot (TR16 – Table S1), located within a protected area, had exceptionally high
265 biomass (outlier) possibly due to the long-term protection from disturbances such as fire. The
266 vegetation in this area is becoming denser and shifting from a savanna-like into a woodland
267 physiognomy (Morandi et al. 2016), even though the habitat is still clearly consistent with
268 that of the typical cerrado (Marimon-Junior and Haridasan 2005; Marimon et al. 2014). We
269 retained this plot because it demonstrates the importance and effect of the establishment of
270 protected areas but, to avoid potentially undesirable effects, we removed it from all
271 regression analyses involving biomass.

272

273 **Results**

274 **Vegetation structure**

275 Summaries of vegetation structure parameters from each plot are in Table S2. Overall, the
276 strongest correlations were between tree basal area *vs.* biomass, followed by density *vs.*
277 biomass (Fig. S1). Tree height and total biomass were significantly higher in TR plots (Table
278 1, Fig. S2). There were no differences between CA and TR plots in tree density, diameter and
279 basal area (Table 1, Fig. S2). Bayesian model averaging indicated that, by and large, tree
280 height was the best predictor of CA and TR plots: it had the largest standardized coefficient,
281 with a 95% credibility interval that did not include zero, and the largest posterior inclusion
282 probability (Table 2). Further, in all models containing height its coefficient was positive,
283 indicating larger values in the TR, and the top model, including just height, concentrated 26%
284 of the posterior model probabilities (Fig. 2). The remaining predictors had much lower
285 standardized coefficients and posterior inclusion probabilities. The second-best model,
286 including height and diameter, concentrated an additional 21% of the posterior model

287 probabilities, with the contribution of remaining models being much smaller (Fig. 2). In all
288 but one model containing diameter, its coefficient was negative. Biomass, which had the
289 second largest standardized coefficient, behaved similarly with a negative coefficient in all
290 but one model (Table 2, Fig. 2). This indicates that, after accounting for differences in height,
291 tree diameter and biomass are smaller in TR plots.

292

293 **Vegetation diversity**

294 We recorded 233 species in all plots combined, with 177 in the CA plots and 172 in the TR
295 plots. Summaries of vegetation diversity parameters from each plot are in Table S2. The
296 individual-based and sample-based species accumulation curves indicated that the CA has a
297 larger species pool than the TR (Fig. 3). Likewise, all abundance-based and incidence-based
298 non-parametric estimators indicated larger species richness in the CA (Table S3). Except for
299 Pielou's evenness (J'), the correlations between all diversity parameters were high (Fig. S3).
300 There were no differences between CA and TR plots in tree diversity parameters (Table 1,
301 Fig. S4). Overall, these results indicate higher regional diversity in the CA, but no differences
302 in local (plot) diversity between CA and TR.

303

304 **Relationships between biomass, diversity and climate**

305 The spatial Bayesian model averaging analysis indicated that the spatial weight matrix based
306 on the Gabriel graph had the highest posterior model probability (48.3%). By and large, tree
307 density was the single best predictor of plot biomass: it had the largest standardized
308 coefficient, with a 95% credibility interval that did not include zero, and the largest posterior
309 inclusion probability (Table 3). In all models containing density, its coefficient was positive
310 and the top model, including just density, concentrated 21% of the posterior model
311 probabilities (Fig. 4). The remaining predictors had much lower standardized coefficients and

312 posterior inclusion probabilities. The second-best model, including density, richness, and
313 evenness, concentrated an additional 17% of the posterior model probabilities, with the
314 contribution of remaining models being much smaller (Fig. 4A). In all models containing
315 species richness, the second-best predictor, its coefficient was negative (Table 3, Fig. 4A).
316 The importance of the remaining predictors was much smaller. The incorporation of
317 eigenvectors in the analysis successfully removed the spatial autocorrelation from the
318 regression residuals (Fig. 4B). Summing up, the results indicate that after accounting for
319 differences in density, species richness and biomass tend to be negatively correlated in the
320 study plots. The results of bivariate regression indicated that, when evaluated separately,
321 temperature is a good positive predictor of the biomass ($r^2 = 0.21$, $p < 0.01$; Fig. S5).

322

323 **Discussion**

324 We found that plots in typical cerrado vegetation of the Cerrado-Amazonia Transition
325 (TR) had much greater biomass (58% more) than those of the core area (CA) of the Cerrado.
326 By contrast, species richness and diversity are similar between the TR and CA. We also find
327 that for typical cerrado trees there is no systematic relationship between species diversity and
328 biomass. Thus, our first hypothesis, which suggested that the cerrados of the TR have greater
329 tree size and ecosystem biomass and greater species diversity than the CA cerrados, was
330 partly corroborated, given that only the structural variables differed as predicted. Our second
331 hypothesis was supported, given that the climatic variables predict biomass. The species
332 diversity-biomass relationship was weak and, if anything, negative, meaning that the third
333 hypothesis was rejected. These findings are discussed in more detail below, together with an
334 assessment of the implications for conservation.

335

336 **Structure**

337 The biomass and tree height in typical cerrado plots in the transition (TR) were all
338 significantly greater than those recorded in the core area (CA) and in previous studies spread
339 in the Cerrado biome (Castro and Kauffman 1998; Vale and Felfili 2005; Rezende et al.
340 2006; Paiva et al. 2011; Miranda et al. 2014). Several small-scale (1 hectare) local studies in
341 single sites within the TR had already indicated that the cerrados of this zone may have
342 greater basal area than those of the more central regions of the Cerrado biome (Felfili et al.
343 2002; Marimon-Junior and Haridasan 2005; Kunz et al. 2009; Marimon et al. 2014).
344 However, this is the first time that a biome-scale study, which compares different regions
345 directly with multiple, replicated plots, has detected such a pattern. The factors that affect the
346 variation in biomass are discussed below.

347 From a conservation perspective, the clear structural differences between TR and CA
348 cerrados are a new find, which has important implications. While the vegetation is defined as
349 typical cerrado (Ribeiro and Walter 2008) in both cases, the unique structural characteristics
350 found in each region should be considered for the development of habitat management
351 practices. In other words, a conservation unit that protects typical cerrado in the core area
352 will likely not be representative of the same physiognomy in the Cerrado-Amazonia
353 Transition. This reinforces the position of Primack and Rodrigues (2001), who argued that
354 conservation units should encompass physiognomies that are representative of environments
355 on a wide geographic scale. In the specific case of the Cerrado-Amazonia Transition, the
356 region also coincides with that of the ‘arc of deforestation’ (Fearnside 2005; Marimon et al.
357 2014), where the landscape is dominated by agricultural frontiers, reinforcing the urgent need
358 for the establishment of conservation units in this big region. In this context, the maintenance
359 of private reserves is also an important strategy to conserve portions of cerrado along its wide
360 geographic distribution.

361 The maps available on the site of the Mato Grosso State Environment Secretariat
362 (SEMA: <http://www.sema.mt.gov.br/>) show that the unique state conservation unit of the TR
363 that include Cerrado vegetation are all part of Morte-Araguaia river basin, which is subject
364 to seasonal flooding (Marimon et al. 2015). In the Araguaia State Park for example, the
365 predominant physiognomy is the *murundus* grassland, in which patches of typical cerrado are
366 found only on the higher terrain, which is free of seasonal flooding. Throughout the state
367 there is no fully protected area within a 200 km distance of the established limit between the
368 Cerrado and Amazon biomes (IBGE 2016) in which the predominant vegetation is typical
369 cerrado *not* subject to seasonal flooding (SEMA 2016). Given that TR cerrados are
370 structurally different from those found in the CA, it is important to establish typical cerrado
371 conservation units within the non-flooded areas of the TR.

372

373 **Species diversity**

374 While several previous studies have indicated that the typical cerrados of the TR have
375 greater species diversity per unit area (alpha diversity) than those of the core area (Felfili et
376 al. 2002; Ratter et al. 2003; Bridgewater et al. 2004), this was clearly not the case in our
377 study in which well replicated, quantitative ecological sampling was conducted across both
378 TR and CA. We conclude that tree species diversity does not vary notably between the
379 central and outer regions of the Cerrado, even in the TR, where the contribution of the
380 Amazonian flora increases (Eiten 1972; Ratter et al. 1973, 2003; Castro et al. 1999; Felfili et
381 al. 2002; Bridgewater et al. 2004; Marimon-Junior and Haridasan 2005).

382 In a recent study it was stated that there is a greater overlap of species in the central
383 portion of the Cerrado, which is reflected in higher species richness in the core area than in
384 the border (Françoso et al. 2016). However, that study may have been influenced by
385 sampling gaps, as the TR was under-represented. In addition, the above study was based on

386 binary presence-absence data, which may not be sufficiently robust given that population size
387 is an important aspect of species diversity, and a fundamental parameter for the development
388 of conservation measures (Felfili et al. 2005a; Mews et al. 2014).

389 While our results indicate that alpha diversity did not vary between the CA and TR, there
390 is a suggestion that beta diversity was higher in the CA, possibly due to the more stable
391 climate in this area (Werneck et al. 2012) which would be reflected in increased niche
392 specialization (Moldenke 1975). Even so, neither our study nor previous work using different
393 methods (Eiten 1972; Fernandes and Bezerra 1990; Rizzini 1997; Castro et al. 1999) strongly
394 suggests that the TR is relatively species-poor or less diverse than the central area of the
395 Cerrado. Marimon et al. (2014) observed that the vegetation of the transition zone, in
396 addition to being hyperdynamic, is in disequilibrium, and Werneck et al. (2012) suggested
397 that the lower diversity in the transition zone may reflect this instability. However, the
398 instability normally observed in ecotones (e.g. van der Maarel 1990; Werneck et al. 2012;
399 Pironon et al. 2016) does not appear to have affected tree species richness and diversity in the
400 TR. For all these reasons, it is essential to consider both the TR and CA when designing
401 conservation units, to guarantee the preservation of intrinsic vegetation properties of each
402 region. As agricultural frontiers are still rapidly advancing within the TR (Marimon et al.
403 2014), the complete absence of conservation units in typical cerrados is a significant concern.

404

405 **Determinants of biomass variation**

406 In our study, tree density was the most important predictor of biomass variation. In other
407 studies, precipitation and temperature were determinants of biomass in South African
408 savannas (Scholes et al. 2002). In contrast with our results, however, Miranda et al. (2014)
409 found a negative correlation between biomass and precipitation levels, albeit in an analysis in

410 which the TR was under-represented. Moreover, none studies referred here has used density
411 as predictor of biomass.

412 Miranda et al. (2014) however suggest that biomass was greater in areas with reduced
413 seasonality, which may also be relevant to the present study, given that TR cerrados are
414 located in a region where the mean annual precipitation (1659 mm) is approximately 200 mm
415 (14% – Table S1) higher than that in the CA (1446 mm), and seasonality is less pronounced
416 (Keller-Filho et al. 2005; Alvares et al. 2013). This reinforces the effect of its proximity to
417 the Amazon Forest (Felfili et al. 2002; Marimon-Junior and Haridasan 2005; Torello-
418 Raventos et al. 2013), which may impact tree growth. Additionally, if we consider the results
419 of the bivariate regression models, temperature and precipitation have a direct effect on
420 biomass, with the TR contributing most to this tendency.

421

422 **Diversity-biomass relationships and implications for conservation**

423 We observed no positive diversity vs. biomass relationship across all plots. It is notable that
424 the lack of correlation between biomass and diversity metrics remains despite the fact that
425 only biomass is associated with temperature and to precipitation, and this clearly argues
426 against their being a positive effect of tree species diversity on carbon storage within the
427 Cerrado. It is interesting to note that these findings parallel a recent report from across the
428 tropical moist forest biome (i.e., Amazonia, Africa, Southeast Asia), for which there is also
429 no detectable relationship between community diversity and carbon storage except at the very
430 smallest scales (0.04 ha) (Sullivan et al. 2017). Torello-Raventos et al. (2013), analyzing the
431 structural and floristic data from three continents, observed that there is not necessarily a
432 congruence between floristic and structural groupings for vegetation types in the forest-
433 savanna transition zone. Therefore, to the extent that positive diversity-function mechanisms

434 and relationships might exist, within the two largest tropical biomes on Earth they do no
435 translate into a significant effect on carbon storage.

436 As a practical consequence, it cannot be assumed that efforts made to conserve the
437 diversity of typical cerrado will have clear co-benefits (cf. Day et al. 2013) for climate
438 protection, since the areas with higher diversity do not necessarily coincide with those with
439 highest biomass. According to Gardner et al. (2012), when this relationship is inverse or
440 nonexistent, as in the case of the Cerrado, then decisions on the conservation of carbon stocks
441 or species diversity will imply difficult trade-offs for institutions responsible for the
442 conservation of biodiversity and the reduction of greenhouse gases. For the Cerrado the
443 implications seem clear—it is necessary to carefully design a biome-wide conservation
444 network that can protect both high levels of species diversity and also store large stocks of
445 carbon, and not assume that protection for one purpose automatically guarantees the other.

446 As we have already argued, there is clearly now a deeply concerning gap in the
447 protection of TR cerrado. Furthermore, the similar tree species richness and diversity
448 observed in the typical cerrado of the CA and TR, together with the greater tree heights and
449 biomass in the TR, are consistent with the notion that populations of transition zones may be
450 better adapted to environmental instability and impacts, and would be more capable of
451 persisting through periods of climate change (Kark and van Rensburg 2006), were they to
452 survive direct removal as part of Brazil's agricultural revolution. While the high
453 environmental heterogeneity of the Cerrado (Felfili et al. 2005a; Mendonça et al. 2008; BFG
454 2015) cannot be overlooked in the planning of the network of conservation units
455 (Bridgewater et al. 2004), it is clearly vital to increase protection of the TR, threatened as it is
456 by intense anthropogenic pressures that may provoke the disappearance of this unique and
457 valuable environment.

458

459 **References**

- 460 Alvares CA, Stape JL, Sentelhas PC, Moraes JLM, Sparovek G (2013) Köppen's climate
461 classification map for Brazil. *Meteorol Z* 22:711–728. [https://doi.org/10.1127/0941-](https://doi.org/10.1127/0941-2948/2013/0507)
462 2948/2013/0507
- 463 APG III – Angiosperm Phylogeny Group (2009) An update of the Angiosperm Phylogeny
464 Group classification for the orders and families of flowering plants: APG III. *Bot J Linn*
465 Soc 161:105–121. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1095-8339.2009.00996.x>
- 466 BFG - The Brazil Flora Group (2015) Growing knowledge: an overview of seed plant
467 diversity in Brazil. *Rodriguésia* 66:1085–1113. [https://doi.org/10.1590/2175-](https://doi.org/10.1590/2175-7860201566411)
468 7860201566411
- 469 Bivand R, Hauke J, Kossowski T (2013) Computing the Jacobian in Gaussian spatial
470 autoregressive models: an illustrated comparison of available methods. *Geogr Anal*
471 45:150-179. <https://doi.org/10.1111/gean.12008>
- 472 Bivand R, Piras G (2015) Comparing implementations of estimation methods for spatial
473 econometrics. *J Stat Softw* 63:1-36. <https://doi.org/10.18637/jss.v063.i18>
- 474 Brazilian Flora (2016) Rio de Janeiro Botanical Garden. <http://floradobrasil.jbrj.gov.br/>.
475 Accessed 22 June 2016
- 476 Bridgewater S, Ratter JA, Ribeiro JF (2004) Biogeographic patterns, β -diversity and
477 dominance in the cerrado biome of Brazil. *Biodivers Conserv* 13:2295–2317.
478 <https://doi.org/10.1023/B:BIOC.0000047903.37608.4c>
- 479 Cardinale BJ, Duffy JE, Gonzalez A et al (2012) Biodiversity loss and its impact on
480 humanity. *Nature* 486:59–67. <https://doi.org/10.1038/nature11148>
- 481 Castro EA, Kauffman JB (1998) Ecosystem structure in the Brazilian Cerrado: a vegetation
482 gradient of aboveground biomass, root mass and consumption by fire. *J Trop Ecol*
483 14:263–283. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0266467498000212>

484 Castro AAJF, Martins FR, Tamashiro JY, Shepherd GJ (1999) How rich is the flora of
485 Brazilian Cerrados? *Ann Mo Bot Gard* 86:192–224. <https://doi.org/10.2307/2666220>

486 Colwell RK, Coddington JA (1994) Estimating terrestrial biodiversity through extrapolation.
487 *Philos Trans R Soc Lond, B, Biol Sci* 345:101-118.
488 <https://doi.org/10.1098/rstb.1994.0091>

489 Cuaresma JC, Feldkircher M (2013) Spatial filtering, model uncertainty and the speed of
490 income convergence in Europe. *J Appl Econom* 28:720-741.
491 <https://doi.org/10.1002/jae.2277>

492 Day M, Baldauf C, Rutishauser E, Sunderland TCH (2013) Relationships between tree
493 species diversity and above-ground biomass in Central African rainforests: implications
494 for REDD. *Environ Conserv* 41:64–72. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0376892913000295>

495 Eiten, G (1972) The cerrado vegetation of Brazil. *Bot Rev* 38:201–341

496 Fearnside PM (2005) Deforestation in Brazilian Amazonia: history, rates, and consequences.
497 *Conserv Biol* 19:680–688. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1523-1739.2005.00697.x>

498 Feldkircher M (2010) spatBMS: Bayesian Model Averaging with Uncertain Spatial Effects,
499 R package version 0.0. <http://bms.zeugner.eu>

500 Feldpausch TR, Lloyd J, Lewis SL et al (2012) Tree height integrated into pantropical forest
501 biomass estimates. *Biogeosciences* 9:1–23. <https://doi.org/10.5194/bg-9-3381-2012>

502 Felfili JM, Silva-Júnior MC, Rezende AV et al (1992) Análise comparativa da florística e
503 fitossociologia da vegetação arbórea do cerrado *sensu stricto* na Chapada Pratinha, DF-
504 Brasil. *Acta Bot Bras* 6: 27–46. <https://doi.org/10.1590/S0102-33061992000200003>

505 Felfili JM, Nogueira PE, Silva Júnior MC, Marimon BS, Delitti WBC (2002) Composição
506 florística e fitossociologia do cerrado sentido restrito no município de Água Boa-MT.
507 *Acta Bot Bras* 16:103–112. <https://doi.10.1590/S0102-33062002000100012>

508 Felfili JM, Sousa-Silva JC, Scariot A (2005a) Biodiversidade, ecologia e conservação do
509 Cerrado: avanços no conhecimento. In: Scariot A, Sousa-Silva JC, Felfili JM (orgs)
510 Cerrado: ecologia, biodiversidade e conservação. Ministério do Meio Ambiente, Brasília,
511 pp 25–44

512 Felfili JM, Carvalho FA, Haidar RF (2005b) Manual para o monitoramento de parcelas
513 permanentes nos biomas Cerrado e Pantanal. Universidade de Brasília, Departamento de
514 engenharia florestal. Brasília

515 Fernandes A, Bezerra P (1990) Estudo fitogeográfico do Brasil. Stylus Comunicações,
516 Fortaleza

517 Fisher RA, Corbet AS, Williams CB (1943) The relation between the number of species and
518 the number of individuals in a random sample of an animal population. *J Anim Ecol*
519 12:42–58. <https://doi.org/10.2307/1411>

520 Fonseca MS, Silva Júnior MC (2004) Fitossociologia e similaridade florística entre trechos
521 de Cerrado sentido restrito em interflúvio e em vale no Jardim Botânico de Brasília, DF.
522 *Acta Bot Bras* 18:19–29. <https://doi.org/10.1590/S0102-33062004000100003>

523 Fragoso TM, Bertoli W, Louzada F (2018) Bayesian model averaging: A systematic review
524 and conceptual classification. *Int Stat Rev* 86: 1–28. <https://doi.org/10.1111/insr.12243>

525 Françaoso RD, Brandão R, Nogueira CC, Salmona YB, Machado RB, Colli GR (2015)
526 Habitat loss and the effectiveness of protected areas in the Cerrado Biodiversity Hotspot.
527 *Nat Conservação* 13:35–40. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ncon.2015.04.001>

528 Françaoso RD, Haidar RF, Machado RB (2016) Tree species of South America central
529 savanna: endemism, marginal areas and the relationship with other biomes. *Acta Bot*
530 *Bras* 30:78–86. <https://doi.org/10.1590/0102-33062015abb0244>

531 Gardner TA, Burgess ND, Aguilar-Amuchastegui N et al (2012) A framework for integrating
532 biodiversity concerns into national REDD+ programmes. *Biol Conserv* 154:61–71.
533 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.biocon.2011.11.018>

534 Gotelli NJ, Colwell RK (2001) Quantifying biodiversity: procedures and pitfalls in the
535 measurement and comparison of species richness. *Ecol Lett* 4:379–391.
536 <https://doi.org/10.1046/j.1461-0248.2001.00230.x>

537 Grace J, San Jose J, Meir P, Miranda HS, Montes RA (2006) Productivity and carbon fluxes
538 of tropical savannas. *J Biogeogr* 33:387–400. [https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-
539 2699.2005.01448.x](https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2699.2005.01448.x)

540 Hardie DC, Hutchings JA (2010) Evolutionary ecology at the extremes of species' ranges.
541 *Environ Rev* 18:1–20. <https://doi.org/10.1139/A09-014>

542 Hijmans RJ, Cameron SE, Parra JL, Jones PG, Jarvis A (2005) Very high resolution
543 interpolated climate surfaces for global land areas. *Int J Climatol* 25:1965–1978.
544 <https://doi.org/10.1002/joc.1276>

545 Hoeting JA, Madigan D, Raftery AE, Volinsky CT (1999) Bayesian model averaging: A
546 tutorial. *Stat Sci* 14:382–401

547 Hurlbert SH (1971) The nonconcept of species diversity: A critique and alternative
548 parameters. *Ecology* 52:577–586. <https://doi.org/10.2307/1934145>

549 IBGE – Instituto Brasileiro de Geografia e Estatística (2016) Mapa de biomas Brasileiros.
550 IBGE, 2004. Mapa de biomas do Brasil. Escala 1:5.000.000. Rio de Janeiro: IBGE 2004. in
551 <http://portaldemapas.ibge.gov.br/> (Acesso em: 14 dez. 2016).

552 Ivanauskas, N.M., Monteiro, R., Rodrigues, R.R. 2008. Classificação fitogeográfica das
553 florestas do Alto Rio Xingu. *Acta Amazonica*. 38, 387–402.
554 <http://dx.doi.org/10.1590/S0044-59672008000300003>

555 Kark S, van Rensburg BJ (2006) Ecotones: marginal or central areas of Transition? *Isr J Ecol*
556 *Evol* 52:29–53. <https://doi.org/10.1560/IJEE.52.1.29>

557 Keller-Filho T, Assad ED, Schubnell PR, Lima R (2005) Regiões pluviometricamente
558 homogêneas no Brasil. *Pesqui Agropecu Bras* 40:311–322

559 Kier G, Mutke J, Dinerstein E, Ricketts TH, Küper W, Kreft H, Barthlott W (2005) Global
560 patterns of plant diversity and floristic knowledge. *J Biogeogr* 32:1107–1116.
561 <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2699.2005.01272.x>

562 Klink CA, Machado RB (2005) Conservation of the brazilian Cerrado. *Conserv Biol* 19:707–
563 713. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1523-1739.2005.00702.x>

564 Kunz SH, Ivanauskas NM, Martins SV (2009) Estrutura fitossociológica de uma área de
565 cerradão em Canarana, Estado do Mato Grosso, Brasil. *Acta Sci Biol Sci* 32:255–261.
566 <https://doi.org/10.4025/actascibiolsci.v31i3.1625>

567 Lahsen M, Bustamante MMC, Dalla-Nora EL (2016) Undervaluing and overexploiting the
568 Brazilian Cerrado at our peril. *Environment* 58: 4–5.
569 <https://doi.org/10.1080/00139157.2016.1229537>

570 Larjavaara M, Muller-Landau HC (2011) Temperature explains global variation in biomass
571 among humid old-growth forests. *Global Ecol Biogeogr*, 21:998–1006.
572 <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1466-8238.2011.00740.x>

573 Legendre P (1993) Spatial autocorrelation: trouble or new paradigm. *Ecology* 74:1659-1673.
574 <https://doi.org/10.2307/1939924>

575 Magurran AE (2004) *Measuring Biological Diversity*. Blackwell Publishing, Malden, MA

576 Marimon BS, Lima EDS, Duarte TG, Chieregatto LC, Ratter JA (2006) Observations on the
577 vegetation of Northeastern Mato Grosso, Brazil. IV. an analysis of the Cerrado-
578 Amazonian forest ecotone. *Edinb J Bot* 63:323-341.
579 <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0960428606000576>

580 Marimon BS, Marimon-Junior BH, Feldpausch TR et al (2014) Disequilibrium and
581 hyperdynamic tree turnover at the forest-savanna transition zone in southern Amazonia.
582 *Plant Ecol Divers* 7:281–292. <https://doi.org/10.1080/17550874.2013.818072>

583 Marimon BS, Colli GR, Marimon-Junior BH et al (2015) Ecology of floodplain *Campos de*
584 *Murundus* Savanna in Southern Amazonia. *Int J Plant Sci* 176:670–681.
585 <https://doi.org/10.1086/682079>

586 Marimon-Junior BH, Haridasan M (2005) Comparação da vegetação arbórea e características
587 edáficas de um cerradão e um cerrado sensu stricto em áreas adjacentes sobre solo
588 distrófico no leste de Mato Grosso, Brasil. *Acta Bot Bras* 19:913–926.
589 <https://doi.org/10.1590/S0102-33062005000400026>

590 Mendonça RC, Felfili MJ, Walter BMT et al (2008) Flora vascular do bioma Cerrado:
591 checklist com 12.356 espécies. In: Sano SM, Almeida SP, Ribeiro JF (eds) *Cerrado:*
592 *ecologia e flora*. Embrapa Cerrados, Brasília, pp 421–1182

593 Mews HA, Pinto JRR, Eisenlohr PV, Lenza E (2014) Does size matter? Conservation
594 implications of differing woody population sizes with equivalent occurrence and
595 diversity of species for threatened savanna habitats. *Biodivers Conserv* 23:1119–1131.
596 <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10531-014-0651-4>

597 Miranda SC, Bustamante M, Palace M, Hagen S, Keller M, Ferreira LG (2014) Regional
598 variations in biomass distribution in Brazilian savanna woodland. *Biotropica* 46:125–
599 138. <https://doi.org/10.1111/btp.12095>

600 Moldenke AR (1975) Niche specialization and species diversity along a California transect.
601 *Oecologia* 21:219–242. <https://doi.org/10.1007/BF02404674>

602 Moran PAP (1950a) Notes on continuous stochastic phenomena. *Biometrika* 37:17-23.
603 <https://doi.org/10.1093/biomet/37.1-2.17>

604 Moran PAP (1950b) A test for the serial independence of residuals. *Biometrika* 37:178-181.
605 <https://doi.org/10.1093/biomet/37.1-2.178>

606 Morandi PS, Marimon-Junior BH, Oliveira EA, Reis SM, Valadão MX, Forsthofer M,
607 Marimon BS (2016) Vegetation succession in the Cerrado-Amazonian forest transition
608 zone of Mato Grosso state, Brazil. *Edinb J Bot* 73:83-93.
609 <https://doi.org/10.1017/S096042861500027X>

610 Naimi B, Hamm NAS, Groen TA, Skidmore AK, Toxopeus AG (2014) Where is positional
611 uncertainty a problem for species distribution modelling? *Ecography* 37:191-203.
612 <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1600-0587.2013.00205.x>

613 O'Hara RB (2005) Species richness estimators: How many species can dance on the head of a
614 pin? *J Anim Ecol* 74:375-386. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2656.2005.00940.x>

615 Oksanen J et al. (2017) *vegan: Community Ecology Package*. R package version 2.4-5.
616 <https://CRAN.R-project.org/package=vegan>

617 Paiva AO, Rezende AV, Pereira RS (2011) Estoque de carbono em cerrado *sensu stricto* do
618 Distrito Federal. *Revista Árvore* 35:527-538. [https://doi.org/10.1590/S0100-](https://doi.org/10.1590/S0100-67622011000300015)
619 [67622011000300015](https://doi.org/10.1590/S0100-67622011000300015)

620 Phillips OL, Baker TR, Brienen R, Feldpausch TR (2010) Field manual for plot
621 establishment and remeasurement. URL: <http://www.geog.leeds.ac.uk/projects/rainfor>.

622 Pielou EC (1969) *An Introduction to Mathematical Ecology*. Wiley-Interscience, New York

623 Pironon S, Papuga G, Villellas J, Angert AL, García MB, Thompson JD (2016) Geographic
624 variation in genetic and demographic performance: new insights from an old
625 biogeographical paradigm. *Biol Rev* 92:1877-1909. <https://doi.org/10.1111/brv.12313>

626 Primack RB, Rodrigues E (2001) *Biologia da conservação*. Midiograf, Paraná, Brasil

627 Quinn GP, Keough MJ (2002) *Experimental design and data analysis for biologists*.
628 Cambridge University Press, Cambridge

629 R Core Team (2018) R: A language and environment for statistical computing. R Foundation
630 for Statistical Computing. Vienna, Austria. <http://www.R-project.org> [ver. 3.5.0]

631 Ratter JA, Richards PW, Argent G, Gifford DR (1973) Observations on the vegetation of
632 northeastern Mato Grosso: I. The woody vegetation types of the Xavantina-Cachimbo
633 Expedition area. *Philos Trans R Soc Lond B Biol Sci* 266:449–492.
634 <https://doi.org/10.1098/rstb.1973.0053>

635 Ratter JA, Ribeiro JF, Bridgewater, S (1997) The Brazilian cerrado vegetation and threats to
636 its biodiversity. *Ann Bot London* 80:223–230. <https://doi.org/10.1006/anbo.1997.0469>

637 Ratter JA, Bridgewater S, Ribeiro JF (2003) Analysis of the floristic composition of the
638 Brazilian Cerrado vegetation. III: comparison of the woody vegetation of 376 areas.
639 *Edinb J Bot* 60:57–109. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0960428603000064>

640 Rezende AV, Vale AT, Sanquetta CR, Figueiredo Filho A, Felfili JM (2006) Comparação de
641 modelos matemáticos para estimativa do volume, biomassa e estoque de carbono da
642 vegetação lenhosa de um cerrado *sensu stricto* em Brasília, DF. *Sci For* 71:65–76

643 Ribeiro JF, Walter BMT (2008) As principais fitofisionomias do bioma Cerrado. In: Sano
644 SM, Almeida SP, Ribeiro JF (eds) *Cerrado: ecologia e flora*. Embrapa Informação
645 Tecnológica, Brasília, pp 151–212

646 Rizzini CT (1997) *Tratado de Fitogeografia do Brasil*, 2nd ed. Ambito Cultural, São Paulo

647 Ruiz-Benito P, Gómez-Aparicio L, Paquette A, Messier C, Kattge J, Zavala M (2014)
648 Diversity increases carbon storage and tree productivity in Spanish forests. *Global*
649 *Ecology and Biogeography* 23, 311–322. [10.1111/geb.12126](https://doi.org/10.1111/geb.12126)

650 Sano EE, Rosa R, Brito JL, Ferreira LG (2010) Land cover mapping of the tropical savanna
651 region in Brazil. *Environ Monit Assess* 166:113-124. [https://doi.org/10.1007/s10661-](https://doi.org/10.1007/s10661-009-0988-4)
652 [009-0988-4](https://doi.org/10.1007/s10661-009-0988-4)

653 Scholes RJ, Dowty PR, Caylor K, Parsons DAB, Frost PGH, Shugart HH (2002) Trends in
654 savanna structure and composition along an aridity gradient in the Kalahari. *J Veg Sci*
655 13:419–428. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1654-1103.2002.tb02066.x>

656 Schumacher FX, Hall FDS (1933) Logarithmic expression of timber-tree volume. *J Agric*
657 *Res* 47:719-734

658 SEMA – Secretaria de Estado de Meio Ambiente (2016) Unidades de Conservação
659 Estaduais.
660 http://www.sema.mt.gov.br/index.php?option=com_content&view=article&id=155&Itemid=288. Accessed 17 November 2016

661

662 Shannon CE (1948) A mathematical theory of communication. *Bell Syst. Tech. J.* 27:379-423

663 Silva JMC, Bates J (2002) Biogeographic patterns and conservation in the South American
664 Cerrado: a tropical savanna hotspot. *Bioscience* 52:225–233.
665 [https://doi.org/10.1641/0006-3568\(2002\)052\[0225:BPACIT\]2.0.CO](https://doi.org/10.1641/0006-3568(2002)052[0225:BPACIT]2.0.CO)

666 Silva JF, Fariñas MR, Felfili JM, Klink CA (2006) Spatial heterogeneity, land use and
667 conservation in the cerrado region of Brazil. *J Biogeogr* 33:536–548.
668 <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2699.2005.01422.x>

669 Silvertown J, Dodd ME, McConway K, Potts J, Crawley M (1994) Rainfall, biomass
670 variation, and community composition in the Park Grass Experiment. *Ecology* 75:2430–
671 2437. <https://doi.org/10.2307/1940896>

672 Stegen JC, Swenson NG, Enquist BJ et al (2011) Variation in above-ground forest biomass
673 across broad climatic gradients. *Global Ecol Biogeogr* 20:744–754.
674 <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1466-8238.2010.00645.x>

675 Sullivan MJP, Talbot J, Lewis SL et al (2017) Diversity and carbon storage across the
676 tropical forest biome. *Sci Rep* 7:39102. <https://doi.org/10.1038/srep39102>

677 Tiefelsdorf M, Griffith DA (2007) Semiparametric filtering of spatial autocorrelation: the
678 eigenvector approach. *Environment and Planning A* 39:1193-1221. <https://doi.org/DOI>
679 10.1068/a37378

680 Torello-Raventos M, Feldpausch TR , Veenendaal E, Schrodt F, Saiz G, Domingues TF,
681 Djagbletey G, Ford A, Kemp J, Marimon BS, Marimon-Junior BH, Lenza E, Ratter JA,
682 Maracahipes L, Sasaki D, Sonké B, Zapfack L, Taedoumg H, Villarroel D, Schwarz M,
683 Quesada CA, Ishida FY, Nardoto GB, Affum-Baffo K, Arroyo L, Bowman DMJS.,
684 Compaore H, Davies K, Diallo A, Fyllas NM, Gilpin M, Hien F, Johnson M, Killeen TJ,
685 Metcalfe D, Miranda HS, Steininger M, Thomson J, Sykora K, Mougouin E, Hiernaux P,
686 Bird MI, Grace J, Lewis SL, Phillips OL, Lloyd J (2013) On the delineation of tropical
687 vegetation types with an emphasis on forest/savanna transitions. *Plant Ecol Divers* 6:
688 101-137. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/17550874.2012.762812>

689 Vale AT, Felfili JM (2005) Dry biomass distribution in a cerrado *sensu stricto* site in central
690 Brazil. *Revista Árvore* 29:661–669. <https://doi.org/10.1590/s0100-67622005000500001>

691 van der Maarel E (1990) Ecotones and ecoclines are different. *J Veg Sci* 1: 135–138

692 Werneck FP, Nogueira C, Colli GR, Sites JW, Costa GC (2012). Climatic stability in the
693 Brazilian Cerrado: implications for biogeographical connections of South American
694 savannas, species richness and conservation in a biodiversity hotspot. *J. Biogeogr*
695 39:1695–1706. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2699.2012.02715.x>

696 Zeugner S, Feldkircher M (2015) Bayesian model averaging employing fixed and flexible
697 priors: The BMS package for R. *J Stat Softw* 68:1-37.
698 <https://doi.org/10.18637/jss.v068.i04>

699 **Figure Captions**

700

701 **Fig. 1** Geographic location of 39 one-hectare plots of typical cerrado in the core area of the
702 Cerrado (brown circles) and at the Cerrado-Amazonia Transition (green circles) in South
703 America. Shading indicates the ranges of Cerrado and Amazonia. Lines represent country
704 boundaries

705

706 **Fig. 2** Bayesian model averaging of vegetation structure parameters for 39 one-hectare plots
707 of typical cerrado in the core region of the Cerrado and at the Cerrado-Amazonia transition.
708 The Y-axis contains the predictors of core vs. transition plots, while the X-axis is scaled by
709 the posterior model probabilities. Colors indicate predictor inclusion in each of the 32 models
710 assessed (the full set of possible models). Positive coefficients are indicated by blue, negative
711 coefficients by red, and white indicates non-inclusion of the respective predictor

712

713 **Fig. 3** Individual-based (top) and sample-based (bottom) species accumulation curves for
714 trees from 39 one-hectare plots of typical cerrado in the core region of the Cerrado and at the
715 Cerrado-Amazonia transition. The continuous lines represent the mean and the shaded areas
716 the 95% confidence interval

717

718 **Fig. 4** Spatial Bayesian model averaging of tree above-ground biomass, diversity and climate
719 parameters for 39 one-hectare plots of typical cerrado in the core region of the Cerrado and at
720 the Cerrado-Amazonia transition. Above-ground biomass represents plot totals. Distance to
721 transition boundary represents linear distance from each plot to the line separating Amazonia
722 from the Cerrado (IBGE 2004). The Y-axis contains the predictors of total tree above-ground
723 biomass in plots, while the X-axis is scaled by the posterior model probabilities. Colors
724 indicate predictor inclusion in each of the 32 models assessed. Positive coefficients are
725 indicated by blue, negative coefficients by red, and white indicates non-inclusion of the
726 respective predictor

1 **Table 1** Summary statistics of vegetation structure and diversity parameters for 39 one-hectare plots of typical cerrado in the core region of the
 2 Cerrado and at the Cerrado-Amazonia transition. Values indicate mean \pm one standard deviation and *t*-test statistics. Tree height and diameter
 3 represent plot means, whereas basal area and above-ground biomass represent plot totals. n: number of plots sampled

Parameter	Core area (n= 18)	Transition (n= 21)	<i>t</i>	<i>P</i>
Vegetation structure				
Density (individuals.ha ⁻¹)	304.3 \pm 71.7	355.5 \pm 152.3	-1.372	0.181
Height (m)	4.5 \pm 0.5	5.8 \pm 0.5	-8.454	< 0.001
Diameter (cm)	14.4 \pm 0.7	14.9 \pm 1.6	-1.155	0.258
Basal area (m ² .ha ⁻¹)	5.6 \pm 1.7	6.9 \pm 3.1	-1.590	0.122
Above-ground biomass (Mg.ha ⁻¹)	20.4 \pm 6.5	32.4 \pm 16.5	-3.052	0.005
Vegetation diversity				
Species richness	45.6 \pm 11.4	45.6 \pm 12.0	-0.004	0.997
Rarefied species richness	37.4 \pm 7.3	37.0 \pm 8.3	0.162	0.872
Shannon information index (<i>H'</i>)	3.0 \pm 0.4	3.1 \pm 0.4	-0.945	0.351
Fisher's log-series α	15.3 \pm 4.5	14.4 \pm 4.3	0.641	0.525
Pielou's evenness (<i>J'</i>)	0.80 \pm 0.07	0.83 \pm 0.05	-1.606	0.117

1 **Table 2** Bayesian model averaging of vegetation structure parameters for 39 one-hectare plots of typical cerrado in the core region of the
 2 Cerrado and at the Cerrado-Amazonia transition. PIP: posterior inclusion probabilities, i.e., sum of posterior model probabilities for all models
 3 wherein a predictor was included; PostMean: standardized coefficients averaged over all models; PostSD: standard deviations of standardized
 4 coefficients; CondPosSign: sign certainty, i.e., posterior probability of a positive coefficient expected value conditional on inclusion; 95%
 5 PostCI: 95% credibility interval of the posterior probability distribution. Tree height and diameter represent plot means, whereas basal area and
 6 above-ground biomass represent plot totals

Parameter	PIP	PostMean	PostSD	CondPosSign	95% PostCI
Height (m)	1.000	0.874	0.161	1.000	0.3691 – 0.7576
Diameter (cm)	0.386	-0.067	0.129	0.067	-0.1642 – 0.0798
Density (individuals.ha ⁻¹)	0.301	0.094	0.222	1.000	-0.0005 – 0.0038
Above-ground biomass (Mg.ha ⁻¹)	0.274	-0.142	0.395	0.136	-0.0743 – 0.0088
Basal area (m ² .ha ⁻¹)	0.235	0.035	0.365	0.520	-0.1935 – 0.3599

7

1 **Table 3** Spatial Bayesian model averaging of tree above-ground biomass versus diversity and climate parameters for 39 one-hectare plots of
 2 typical cerrado in the core region of the Cerrado and at the Cerrado-Amazonia transition. PIP: posterior inclusion probabilities, i.e., sum of
 3 posterior model probabilities for all models wherein a predictor was included; PostMean: standardized coefficients averaged over all models;
 4 PostSD: standard deviations of standardized coefficients; CondPosSign: sign certainty, i.e., posterior probability of a positive coefficient
 5 expected value conditional on inclusion; 95% PostCI: 95% credibility interval of the posterior probability distribution. Above-ground biomass
 6 represents plot totals. Distance to transition boundary represents linear distance from each plot to the line separating Amazonia from the Cerrado
 7 (IBGE 2004).

Parameter	PIP	PostMean	PostSD	CondPosSign	95% PostCI
Density (individuals.ha ⁻¹)	1.000	0.697	0.111	1.000	0.4914 – 0.9210
Species richness	0.462	-0.133	0.171	0.000	-0.5038 – 0.0910
Pielou's evenness (<i>J'</i>)	0.273	0.037	0.084	0.916	-0.0628 – 0.2583
Temperature (°C)	0.198	0.026	0.079	1.000	-0.1237 – 0.2532
Precipitation (mm)	0.174	0.009	0.052	0.816	-0.1109 – 0.1772
Distance to transition boundary (km)	0.148	0.002	0.057	0.485	-0.1660 – 0.2192

Figure 1







