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- 6 microclimate at edges in the Brazilian cerrado
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### Abstract

19 The effect of the adjacent non-forested environment on the forest near the edge, 20 edge influence (EI), is an important impact in fragmented landscapes and is believed to 21 vary with factors such as forest structure and edge contrast. In order to improve our 22 understanding of the factors governing the variability in EI, we studied microclimate and 23 vegetation at cerrado edges surrounded by variable land uses in southeastern Brazil, a 24 system with both forest and savanna fragments. We determined the significance, 25 magnitude and distance of EI on microclimate, vegetation structure and grass biomass 26 which we measured along five transects perpendicular to fourteen edges in forest or 27 savanna next to different land uses. We introduce a quantitative measure of edge contrast 28 that considers land uses at different distances from the same edge (e.g., a firebreak 29 between a forest edge and a plantation) and verified whether edge contrast is correlated 30 with EI in this system. Notwithstanding the large variation in EI among variables and 31 study sites, there were some similarities in the patterns of EI between forest and savanna 32 edges. Edge contrast was successfully quantified by our measure but was only correlated 33 with EI on moisture and grass biomass. Our results point to the high variability in EI 34 within a region. Our quantitative measure of edge contrast may be useful in explaining 35 variability in EI. However, much unexplained variation remains in the highly fragmented 36 *cerrado* system which is affected by EI in both forest and savanna fragments.

37

38 Keywords: Edge effects; exotic grasses; moisture; savanna; temperature;
39 vegetation height.

# 40 Introduction

41	Edge influence (EI) has important impacts on habitat fragments, and its
42	assessment is important for the conservation of fragmented ecosystems (Fahrig 2003;
43	Harper et al. 2005). In general terms, EI may be understood as differences in structure,
44	composition and/or function between the forest edge and the forest interior (Harper et al.
45	2005). Edge influence varies among ecosystems and forest types (Delgado et al. 2007)
46	and also within the same ecosystem, mostly due to variability in adjacent land use
47	(Wright et al. 2012; Cilliers et al. 2008), fragment size (Didham and Lawton 1999), edge
48	orientation (Gehlhausen et al. 2000; Honnay et al. 2002), edge age (Chabrerie et al.
49	2013), and vegetation structure (Didham and Lawton 1999; Cadenasso and Pickett 2000).
50	An important edge characteristic is edge contrast, a measure of the difference in
51	ecosystem structure, function or composition between the forest and the adjacent land use
52	(Cadenasso et al. 2003). Higher edge contrast is usually associated with greater material
53	and energy flow across the edge, resulting in greater EI (Ries et al. 2004, Harper et al.
54	2005), as observed in some studies (Reino et al. 2009, Noreika and Kotze 2012);
55	however, this relationship is not universal (Delgado et al. 2007; Alignier and Deconchat
56	2011). Some studies (e.g. Noreika and Kotze 2012) quantify edge contrast with categories
57	such as low, intermediate and high contrast, whereas other use a proxy variable such as
58	management intensity (Chabrerie et al. 2013) or vegetation height and density (Reino et
59	al. 2009). However, the existence of different land uses near the edge, e.g. a firebreak
60	separating the forest from an agricultural field, is not always considered. We address this
61	issue by proposing a form of quantifying edge contrast that considers different land uses
62	at different distances from the edge.

63	Although EI has been studied extensively in forest vegetation (e.g. Didham and
64	Lawton 1999; Delgado et al. 2007), less attention has been paid to grasslands and
65	savannas which are very fragmented, threatened ecosystems with lots of edges (Riiters et
66	al. 2012) (but see Morgan 1999; Pivello et al. 1991; Cilliers et al. 2008; Smit and Asner
67	2012). Savannas differ from forests in having an open woody layer and a ground layer
68	occupied by shade-intolerant grasses (Gottsberger and Silberbauer-Gottsberger 2006;
69	Ribeiro and Walter 2008). Sparse and dense forests may show similar patterns of EI
70	(Wright et al. 2010), and an assessment of EI on different variables in forest and savanna
71	areas located in the same region may help to understand regional variability in EI.
72	We studied EI on vegetation and microclimate in forest and savanna fragments in
73	São Paulo state, South-Eastern Brazil, and related it to edge contrast. Multiple land uses
74	adjacent to the fragments of natural vegetation and the existence of forest and savanna
75	fragments that are part of the cerrado domain make it a good model to study the factors
76	influencing EI variability. The high level of fragmentation also adds to the importance of
77	understanding EI in this system (Klink and Machado 2005; Durigan et al. 2007). Our
78	specific objectives were: (1) to determine EI on microclimate, vegetation structure and
79	abundance of grasses at forest and savanna edges, (2) to introduce a new, quantitative
80	measure of edge contrast which accounts for the existence of different land uses near the
81	edge, and (3) to test whether higher contrast is associated with greater EI in forest
82	fragments.
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86	Methods

#### Study area

88 We studied *cerrado* fragments in São Paulo state, southeastern Brazil, between 89 November 2009 and November 2010. The climate is seasonal with dry winters and wet 90 summers. Average temperature in the study areas varied between 15 and 30°C during the 91 sampling period, with annual precipitation between 1300 and 1600 mm (CIIAGRO 92 2011). We sampled four *cerrado* vegetation types: *campo cerrado*, *cerrado sensu stricto*, 93 dense cerrado and cerradão (Coutinho 1978; Ribeiro and Walter 2008), commonly found 94 on dystrophic aluminium-rich soils (Gottsberger and Silberbauer-Gottsberger 2006). 95 *Campo cerrado* is an open savanna with arboreal cover of 5-20%, dominated by trees and 96 shrubs 2-3 m high; cerrado sensu stricto is a savanna with arboreal cover of 20-50% and 97 average tree height of 3-6 m; dense *cerrado* is a woodland with arboreal cover of 50-70% 98 and a canopy 5-8 m high; and *cerradão* is a woodland or dry forest with a continuous 99 canopy 8-15 m high (Gottsberger and Silberbauer-Gottsberger 2006; Ribeiro and Walter 100 2008). Hereafter, we refer to *campo cerrado* and cerrado sensu stricto as "savanna" and 101 to dense cerrado and cerradão as "forest".

102

103 Sampling design

We sampled three savanna and eleven forest edges distributed among seven fragments adjacent to different land uses (Figure 1, Table 1). All edges had been maintained for at least 20 years. We are aware that the different number of forest and savanna edges makes comparisons more difficult; however, site selection was limited by the need to encompass a variety of land uses only found at the forest edges. We established five 180 m-long transects perpendicular to each edge with a random distance

110	of 20 to 40 m between adjacent transects. Only the forest or savanna side of the edge was
111	sampled to focus on the edge-related changes in the natural vegetation. Each edge site
112	(set of five transects) was at least 300 m from all other edges. Along each transect we
113	sampled 15 distances from the edge, at 0, 2, 5, 10, 15, 20, 30, 40, 50, 60, 80, 100, 120,
114	150, and 180 m. The edge at 0 m was located on an embankment that represented the
115	edge creation line or, when no embankment was present, by an abrupt change in the
116	vegetation. Edge F3 represented a common situation in the study region, namely cerrado
117	vegetation regenerating after eucalypt plantation, but was sampled only up to 100 m
118	because the cerrado beyond 100 m had smaller trees, indicating that it had been
119	regenerating for less time.
120	
121	Data collection and treatment
122	At each sampling point, we measured two microclimatic variables (air
123	temperature and moisture), two structural variables (maximum tree height and canopy
124	
	closure), and graminoid biomass (total, exotic and native). We measured air temperature
125	closure), and graminoid biomass (total, exotic and native). We measured air temperature and moisture once at 1.3 m directly above each sampling point, on clear or slightly
125 126	
	and moisture once at 1.3 m directly above each sampling point, on clear or slightly
126	and moisture once at 1.3 m directly above each sampling point, on clear or slightly overcast days, with an Instrutherm's THAL 300 hygro-thermo-anemometer. The
126 127	and moisture once at 1.3 m directly above each sampling point, on clear or slightly overcast days, with an Instrutherm's THAL 300 hygro-thermo-anemometer. The thermometer was not protected from wind or direct solar radiation but this did not seem
126 127 128	and moisture once at 1.3 m directly above each sampling point, on clear or slightly overcast days, with an Instrutherm's THAL 300 hygro-thermo-anemometer. The thermometer was not protected from wind or direct solar radiation but this did not seem to affect the measurement values except at one savanna edge where it led to measurement
126 127 128 129	and moisture once at 1.3 m directly above each sampling point, on clear or slightly overcast days, with an Instrutherm's THAL 300 hygro-thermo-anemometer. The thermometer was not protected from wind or direct solar radiation but this did not seem to affect the measurement values except at one savanna edge where it led to measurement errors by overheating the instrument. To differentiate between temporal variation and

registered the time of each measurement and detrended the values with the equation  $d = o - e + \overline{o}$ , where *d* is the detrended value, *o* is the observed value,  $\overline{o}$  is the average of all values measured along the five transects at the given site, and *e* is the value predicted by ordinary least sum of squares regression between the measured values and time in the software Past 2.03 (Hammer et al. 2001).

138 We used a 15 m expandable measurement pole to measure maximum tree height 139 up to the highest leaf or branch within one meter of each sampling point. When the trees 140 were taller than the length of the pole (eight sampling points in three sites), we estimated 141 the remaining height; the greatest height estimated in this way was 16.5 m. To measure 142 canopy closure, which was used as a proxy for light availability, we took hemispheric 143 photographs with a Nikon FC-E8 fisheye converter attached to a Nikon Coolpix 5000 144 digital camera, placed on a tripod 1.3 m above ground and leveled. Canopy openness (%) 145 was then measured in the software Gap Light Analyzer (Frazer et al. 1999) and 146 transformed into canopy closure by subtracting from 100%. 147 We collected aerial parts of all graminoids (Poaceae, Cyperaceae and 148 Commelinaceae) in one  $0.5 \ge 0.5$  m plot placed haphazardly up to 0.5 m from each 149 sampling point. The graminoids were then separated into native species and the three 150 most common exotic species: Urochloa decubmens (Stapf) R. D. Webster, Melinis 151 minutiflora P. Beauv. and Panicum maximum Jacq. Afterwards, all graminoids were kiln-152 dried at 70°C for 72 h and weighed. 153 154 **Data analysis** 

155 Analysis of EI

156 We compared fragments with different edge contrasts by analyzing variation in 157 the significance (SEI), magnitude (MEI), and distance (DEI) of EI (Harper et al. 2005). 158 We define SEI as the presence/absence of statistically significant EI, MEI as the 159 difference between edge and interior for a given variable, and DEI as the distance into the 160 forest for which this difference is statistically significant (Harper et al. 2005). We 161 calculated these parameters separately for each edge (study site with five transects) for 162 the following variables: air temperature, moisture, maximum tree height, canopy closure 163 and graminoid biomass (all graminoids, exotic graminoids, native graminoids, U. 164 *decumbens* and *M. minutiflora*). We used the data collected at 120, 150 and 180 m as 165 interior reference values in the analyses because EI on microclimate or vegetation is not 166 likely to extend beyond 100 m in shorter forests (Harper et al. 2005). At the site F2, we 167 used 80 and 100 m as the reference. At each site, MEI was calculated as  $(\overline{e} - \overline{i})/(\overline{e} + \overline{i})$ , where  $\overline{e}$  is the mean of the 168

five values at a given distance from the edge and  $\overline{i}$  is the mean of the interior reference 169 170 values at the given site (Harper et al. 2005). This measure restricts MEI for all variables 171 to between -1 and +1. For temperature, which has no true zero value (absolute zero is not 172 ecologically meaningful), we calculated MEI as the difference, in °C, between edge and 173 interior divided by the range of temperatures observed in this study (i.e. max. - min. 174 observed temperatures =  $16.8^{\circ}$ C). This permitted a comparison among the edges but did 175 not affect the results of the DEI estimates; however, the MEI values for temperature are 176 not directly comparable to the other variables.

We estimated DEI for each variable at each site by means of a randomization
procedure, Randomization Test for assessing Edge Influence (RTEI, Harper and

179	Macdonald 2011), with a routine in R 2.12 (R Development Core Team 2012; code in
180	Online Resource S1). Using this analysis we: 1) calculated MEI using the values at a
181	given distance from the edge, e.g. 0 m, and the reference values; 2) created a pooled
182	dataset with the edge values and the reference values; 3) randomly assigned five of these
183	as edge values and the remaining as reference values; 4) recalculated MEI for the
184	randomized values and repeated steps 2-4. The MEI values obtained from 10 000
185	iterations were then used to calculate the significance of the observed MEI. The analyses
186	were conducted separately for each distance from the edge for each variable. Thus, for
187	each site-variable combination, this test provided the significance of the difference
188	(measured as MEI) between each distance from edge and the reference values.
189	We accounted for multiple testing during the interpretation of the RTEI results by
190	looking for consistent patterns. A significant difference far from the edge that was not
191	preceded by other significant values was ignored unless it was in the first 10 m from the
192	edge. Thus, SEI was considered significant if at least one of the distances between 0 and
193	10 m was significant, and DEI was estimated as the farthest distance from the edge that
194	was preceded by no more than one non-significant consequent value.
195	
196	Correlations between edge influence and characteristics of the edge
197	Because of differences in the patterns of EI between savanna and forest edges, we
198	used only the latter ones to verify whether SEI, MEI and DEI were related to edge
199	exposure, edge height, matrix height, and edge contrast. When SEI was not significant,

200 we used MEI at 0 m and gave a value of 0 for DEI. Otherwise we used the most extreme

201 MEI, which could be located at any distance within the DEI estimate. We used logistic

202 regressions for SEI and linear correlations for MEI and DEI, and assessed their

significance by permutation tests with 5000 randomizations.

204 Edge exposure, or the size of the opening adjacent to the edge (Olofsson and 205 Blennow 2005), was defined as the distance to the nearest vegetation as tall or taller than 206 the cerrado vegetation (e.g., eucalypt plantation, another cerrado area), up to a maximum 207 value of 50 m to avoid the influence of very large values. For edge height, we used the 208 average maximum vegetation height at the sampling points between 0 and 20 m on the 209 forest side of the edge. For matrix height, we used the maximum height between 0 and 40 210 m on the non-forested side of the edge, considering the following estimates for the 211 different elements of the matrix: 0 m for firebreaks, roads and highways, 0.3 - 2 m for 212 grass (Table 1), 1 m for abandoned pasture, 10 m for bamboo patches, and 13 m (edge 213 S3) or 20 m (edges F10 and F11) for eucalypt plantations.

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#### Measurement of edge contrast

215 We used a weighted measure of edge contrast that considers the contrast between 216 the forest and different land uses close to the edge (Figure 2a), based on two assumptions: 217 1) land uses closer to the edge have greater impact on EI and 2) land uses far from the 218 edge also affect EI, though their effect is smaller. This is represented by a weighting 219 function which monotonically decreases to satisfy assumption 1 and reaches an 220 asymptote to satisfy assumption 2. We used two weighting functions, the right-hand side 221 of a normal curve and the negative exponential curve, scaled so that their value at 0 m is 222 equal to 1, generated by the functions *dnorm* and *dexp* in R 2.12. Both may be described 223 by a single parameter,  $\sigma$  (Figure 2c), which is equal to the standard deviation of the 224 normal curve or to (1/rate) of the negative exponential curve. This parameter represents

the distance at which the weighting function is roughly equal to 2/3 and 1/3 of its

226 maximum value for the normal and exponential curves, respectively. Edge contrast was

then calculated as follows (code in Online Resource S2):

1) a function f(x) was created to define edge contrast at each distance, such as f(x)

229 =  $C_1$  for  $0 \le x \le d_1$ ,  $C_2$  for  $d_1 \le x \le d_2$ , etc, where x is the distance into the matrix (Figure 2b);

2) it was multiplied by the weighting function w(x) (Figure 2c) to obtain the
weighted contrast function g(x) (Figure 2d);

4) g(x) was integrated from 0 to the distance  $d_{max}$  and divided by the same integral

233 of w(x) to obtain the weighted edge contrast (WEC) value. The distance  $d_{max}$  is the

furthest distance into the land use which is considered as having an ecologically

235 meaningful effect on EI. We used Monte-Carlo integration, which approximates the area

beneath a curve by generating a large number of random numbers ( $10^5$  in our case),

237 calculating the average value of g(x) for these values, and multiplying by  $d_{max}$  (James

238 1980).

For the normal and exponential weighting functions, we calculated WEC for three values of  $\sigma$  (5, 15 and 30 m) and three of  $d_{max}$  (10, 20 and 40 m) (Table 2). Small values of these parameters put greater emphasis on the land uses closest to the edge, and the use of different values may aid in determing what land uses are most critical in determing EI. We also used a relative measure of edge contrast (WECrel), calculated as edge contrast divided by edge height.

We calculated the average correlation between the 39 explanatory variables and used Bonferroni correction with an adjustment for correlation to adjust the 0.05 significance level (Uitenbroek 1997) for the tests performed for each response variable.

We did not further adjust the tests for the number of response variables in order not to increase the possibility of type 2 error.

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#### 252 **Results**

253 There was much variation in both MEI and DEI among and within variables 254 (Figure 3, Online Resource S3). MEI varied the most for grass biomass, whereas DEI was 255 most variable for microclimate but showed intermediate variation for vegetation height 256 and canopy closure in forest and for grass biomass in savannas (Figure 3). Edge influence 257 on microclimate was significant both for forest and savanna areas, but significant EI on 258 vegetation structure was found mostly in forest areas. Although there were few noticeable 259 differences in EI on microclimate between forest and savanna sites, differences in EI on 260 vegetation structure between the two ecosystem types were more apparent including 261 greater DEI for grass biomass in savannas and for vegetation height in forest. 262 Edge influence on microclimate was significant at eight forest edges and one 263 savanna edge. Mean temperature was significantly higher in the first 5-60 m at one 264 savanna edge and three forest edges and lower in the first 10-80 m of two forest edges 265 (Table 3). Moisture was lower in the first 2-50 m at one savanna edge and six forest 266 edges and higher in the first 40 m at one forest edge.

Edge influence on maximum vegetation height was observed at six forest edges and one savanna edge (Figure 3). Lower vegetation was observed in the first 2-10 m at two forest edges and one savanna edge. At one forest edge maximum vegetation height was greater than in the interior (DEI of 20 m), and at three other forest edges we observed

271 a non-monotonic pattern, with maximum tree height increasing in the first 5 to 10 m and 272 then decreasing, returning to the reference values 15 - 20 m from the edge (Figure 4). 273 Magnitude of EI varied from 0.19 to 0.21 at edges with positive and non-monotonic EI 274 and -0.37 to -0.10 at edges with negative EI (Online Resource S3). 275 Significant EI on canopy closure was observed at nine forest and one savanna 276 edges, with MEI between -0.16 and 0.09. We observed negative EI at eight forest edges, 277 (DEI = 15 m at one edge and up to 2 m at the other edges) and at one savanna edge (DEI278 = 0 m), and positive EI at one forest edge (DEI = 100 m). Significant EI on graminoids 279 was observed at five forest and three savanna edges. We observed increased total 280 graminoid biomass in the first 0 to 5 m at three forest edges and lower biomass in the first 281 5 m at one forest edge (Table 2), but no significant EI on total graminoid biomass at the 282 other edges. At the forest edges, exotic species were found only at the immediate edge 283 except for three plots between 2 and 10 m at two edges, with significant EI at only two 284 edges. At the savanna sites, exotic grasses were found throughout and were significantly 285 more abundant in the first 5 to 20 m from the edge. The biomass of the exotic species U. 286 *decumbens* was above reference values up to 15 m from edge at the savanna sites, and it 287 was also found at 0 m at three forest edges (Figure 5). M. minutiflora was found at two 288 savanna edges without significant EI, and at 0 m at two forest edges. P. maximum was 289 found only at two forest-highway edges. Native graminoids were found throughout all 290 sites, with positive EI at one forest edge (DEI = 0 m) and negative EI at one forest and 291 two savanna edges (DEI of 5 to 10 m).

Edge contrast explained little of the variability in measures of EI. The average correlation between the explanatory variables was 0.80, resulting in a Bonferroni-

294	adjusted significance level of 0.0237. Of the 829 tests performed, only 22 were
295	significant at the 0.05 level and only 5 at the adjusted significance level (Table 4, Online
296	Resource S3). The correlations significant at the 0.05 level indicate a possible effect of
297	edge contrast on EI patterns observed for grass biomass (total and native) and air
298	moisture; four of the latter relationships were also significant at the adjusted significance
299	level. In addition, greater matrix height resulted in a greater MEI on canopy closure,. The
300	results obtained for both weighting functions were similar. Smaller values of $\sigma$ and $d_{max}$
301	seemed to give more significant results for moisture and total grass biomass, whereas
302	larger values gave more significant results for the biomass of native grasses.
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306	Discussion
306 307	Discussion Patterns of EI in forest and savanna
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307 308 309	<b>Patterns of EI in forest and savanna</b> There were some similarities in the patterns of EI between forest and savanna areas. For example, the DEI of 15 to 60 m observed for microclimate is similar to that
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<ul> <li>307</li> <li>308</li> <li>309</li> <li>310</li> <li>311</li> <li>312</li> <li>313</li> </ul>	Patterns of EI in forest and savanna There were some similarities in the patterns of EI between forest and savanna areas. For example, the DEI of 15 to 60 m observed for microclimate is similar to that observed in other studies (Davies-Colley et al. 2000, Wright et al. 2010) and supports the notion that both forest and savanna fragments may have their microclimate affected by edges. Increased light availability may explain the altered microclimate at our forest edges. However, DEI for canopy closure, a proxy for light incidence, was much smaller
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<ul> <li>307</li> <li>308</li> <li>309</li> <li>310</li> <li>311</li> <li>312</li> <li>313</li> <li>314</li> <li>315</li> </ul>	Patterns of EI in forest and savanna There were some similarities in the patterns of EI between forest and savanna areas. For example, the DEI of 15 to 60 m observed for microclimate is similar to that observed in other studies (Davies-Colley et al. 2000, Wright et al. 2010) and supports the notion that both forest and savanna fragments may have their microclimate affected by edges. Increased light availability may explain the altered microclimate at our forest edges. However, DEI for canopy closure, a proxy for light incidence, was much smaller than for temperature, possibly due to edge sealing (Strayer et al. 2003). Not all changes in canopy closure were accompanied by EI on microclimate, and the greater canopy closure

318 movement of warmer, drier air from the matrix towards the vegetation fragment may also 319 play an important role. The unexpected decreases in temperature at two of our edges may 320 have resulted from the movement of cooler air from increased wind at edges (Laurance 321 and Curran 2008, Wright et al. 2010).

322 Vegetation structure and composition was also affected by edges, although the 323 patterns observed for forest and savanna areas were more different. Whereas EI on 324 vegetation height was more conspicuous in forest areas, savanna fragments had more 325 apparent patterns of EI on grass biomass. Our forest edges showed a reasonably 326 consistent pattern of increased maximum vegetation height near the edge, contrary to 327 what has been observed in other studies (Didham and Lawton 1999; Delgado et al.2007; 328 Lima-Ribeiro 2008). Trees at our study edges may have been favored by reduced 329 competition for light (Bowering et al. 2006) and especially water, resulting in increased 330 growth. The non-monotonic pattern observed at several edges may have resulted from the 331 additional action of stressful agents, e.g. windthrow (Laurance and Curran 2008), leading 332 to reduced height at the immediate edge (0 m). A similar non-monotonic pattern has been 333 observed elsewhere for tree basal area (Wright et al. 2010), indicating that EI may be 334 more complex than the commonly assumed two-zone pattern of a gradual and monotonic 335 change from the edge towards the more homogeneous interior forest (see also Alignier 336 and Deconchat 2011).

Changes in the biomass of native and exotic species were also common. As has been observed elsewhere (Gehlhausen et al. 2000; Avon et al. 2010), exotic grasses were restricted to the immediate edges of our forest areas, probably due to increased light only at the immediate edge. In our savanna areas, however, exotic grasses were found

341 throughout the transects and were most abundant in the first 20 m from the edge, with a 342 concomitant decrease in native graminoids. As we had only three savanna edges, these 343 results must be interpreted with care. Still, they suggest that edge-mediated invasions, 344 common in savannas and grasslands (Morgan 1998; Pivello et al. 1999; Cilliers et al. 345 2008), may be a primary process that is a direct result of edge creation (Harper et al. 346 2005). The removal of native vegetation during edge creation may open up space and 347 facilitate the arrival and establishment of exotic grasses, which then spread gradually into 348 the fragment regardless of changes in microclimate or vegetation structure. The invasion 349 of exotic grasses at edges affects native herbaceous and woody species (Pivello et al. 350 1999; Hoffmann and Haridasan 2008).

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#### Relationship with edge contrast

353 Our measure of edge contrast explained little of the variability in EI at the forest 354 edges, as only moisture and grass biomass presented some relationship with edge 355 contrast. It is possible that other measures of contrast, such as canopy cover or species 356 composition, would give different results. However, canopy cover is not always 357 appropriate since a short dense canopy would still allow a lot of light and wind to 358 penetrate the forest at the edge, and composition such as the abundance of exotic species 359 would be relevant only for specific variables. In addition, the difference in species 360 composition would be not be a good measure when assessing edges adjacent to highly 361 modified land uses such as agriculture or highways. The difference in vegetation height 362 can be easily measured for a wide range of land uses with very different characteristics 363 and can also be modified to include temporal variation in land uses. The variation in edge

364 contrast at different distances through time could be multiplied by a two-dimensional
 365 weighting function with spatial and temporal dimensions and integrated to provide a
 366 weighted measure of edge contrast.

367 The small number of significant results may be related to a somehow restricted 368 range of edge contrast in this study. For example, almost all edges were adjacent to a 369 firebreak, which probably played a large role in determining EI patterns. The variability 370 in factors such as edge orientation and age also plays an important role, as well as 371 regional heterogeneity in vegetation structure and composition. Vegetation structure in 372 the *cerrado* is structurally complex at multiple scales (Goncalves and Batalha 2011). 373 Therefore, a larger sample size and a wider range of values of edge contrast may be 374 needed to detect clearer effects on EI. The pattern of more intense EI on moisture at 375 lower-contrast edges was unexpected, probably reflecting the more negative MEI on 376 moisture at the firebreak (low-contrast) edges than at the high-contrast plantation edges. 377 As linear openings often result in EI on microclimate and vegetation (Bowering et al. 378 2006; Avon et al. 2010), the existence of EI at firebreak edges was not unexpected; it is 379 possible that increases in temperature at some higher-contrast edges were buffered by 380 wind from the adjacent land use (Wright et al. 2010).

Apart from microclimatic variables, only SEI and MEI for total and native grasses were related to edge contrast. Both relationships appear to indicate that higher-contrast edges exert a stronger edge influence on native grasses and, as shown by the  $\sigma$  and  $d_{max}$ parameters used in the weighting functions, that this effect is governed by all the different land uses close to the edge, and not only the immediate edge. Given the large number of tests performed, the significant results must be considered carefully, as they may have

arisen by chance alone; still, there are indications that edge contrast may explain some
variation in EI, which has some practical implications. For example, edge-mediated
invasions by exotic grasses seem to be favored by high-contrast edges such as highways,
and this may be addressed in conservation and management projects.

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- 392

# **Conclusions and implications**

393 In this study, we showed that both forest and savanna areas may be subject to 394 edge influence on microclimate and vegetation. For management purposes, we 395 recommend to consider at least 60 m for microclimate and at least 20 m for vegetation 396 structure in the *cerrado* and similar vegetation types when an estimation of DEI is 397 needed. It is also important to keep in mind the possibilities of cascading EI (Ries et al. 398 2004); for example, microclimatic changes may alter the distribution of insects and 399 consequently plant-insect interactions (Meyer and Sisk 2001), whereas grass biomass is 400 related to fire dynamics (Hoffmann et al. 2012). The use of different parameters in the 401 weighted contrast measure may provide clues as to the range of contrasts that have to be 402 considered. Our results show that both the immediate and the overall contrasts can 403 influence EI. Studies on how these contrasts may be managed to minimize EI on different 404 variables could be important for the conservation of fragmented ecosystems. Insightful 405 results may be obtained by using other variables in addition to vegetation height to 406 measure edge contrast and by increasing the number of sites with similar vegetation 407 structure, i.e. forest or savanna.

408

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Table 1. listed in	. Characteristics order of increasi	<b>Table 1.</b> Characteristics of the study sites including location, vegetation type,         listed in order of increasing contrast within the savanna and forest categories.	<b>Table 1.</b> Characteristics of the study sites including location, vegetation type, land use near the edge and edge characteristics. Sites are listed in order of increasing contrast within the savanna and forest categories.	the edge and $\epsilon$	dge characterist	ics. Sites are
Site	Latitude, longitude	Vegetation in the fragment	Land use(s) in the first $40 \text{ m}^{a}$	Edge age <sup>a</sup> (yr)	Orientation (°)	Altitude (m asl)
Savanna	а					
S1	22° 49.79' S, 49° 11.88' W	cerrado <i>sensu stricto</i> native pasture before 1984	1 m-tall grass-dominated firebreak (10 m), pasture	26	15	630
S2	21° 58.62' S, 47° 52.79' W	cerrado sensu stricto Eucalyptus before ~1978	road (10 m), buildings; before 2007: firebreak (8 m), eucalyptus	~32	20	870
S3	22° 12.76' S, 47° 55.59' W	<i>campo cerrado</i> native pasture before 1984	firebreak (14 m), eucalyptus	>20	55	770
Forest						
F1	21° 35.61' S, 47° 46.42' W	dense cerrado	firebreak (5 m), dense cerrado	~20	355	580
F2	22° 36.18° S, 50° 22.55 W	cerradão	firebreak (7 m), cerradão	30	310	570
F3	22° 36.63° S 50° 22.57° W	<i>cerradão</i> Eucalyptus before 1996	firebreak (5 m), 1 m tall Brachiaria grass (5-23 m), bamboo (23-35 m), highway	> 50	310	570

22° 20.20' S, 49° 00.38' W	cerradão	firebreak (3 m), pasture	~30	35	560
cerradão		firebreak (6 m), pasture	>100	40	740
cerradão		firebreak (5 m), 2 m tall Guinea grass (5-21 m), highway (21-31 m), cerradão	> 70	110	740
cerradão		2 m tall Guinea grass (5 m), 0.3 m tall grass (5-23 m), highway	~80	260	680
cerradão		firebreak (6 m), sugarcane	>30	330	615
cerradão		firebreak (7 m), sugarcane	>30	06	640
dense <i>cerrado</i>		firebreak (10 m), eucalyptus	> 21	125	670
dense <i>cerrado</i>		firebreak (10 m), eucalyptus	> 21	125	650

- <sup>a</sup> Information on past land uses and edge age was obtained from landowners, managers and employees of the study areas (A. C. G. 518
- Melo, L. C. A. Neto, P. H. P. Ruffino, A. Fiorucci, A. Malagutti, M. I. S. Lima, R. M. Silva). 519

	0	u			rs.											
	ght is the	plantatio	of edge		paramete			30	d = 40	2.7	4.2	6.3	1.9	2.1	6.8	8.1
	st. Edge hei	rado or tall	Estimates o	or negative	f different J		kponential	$\sigma = 30$	d = 10	3.0	4.2	1.7	5.0	5.5	8.4	8.3
	dge contras	nearest ceri	the edge.	function, e	the effect o		Shape = exponential	= 5	d = 40	2.9	4.2	2.4	5.8	5.7	8.5	8.4
	asures of e	ance to the	t 40 m fron	f the norma	wing how	ontrast		$\sigma =$	d = 10	3.0	4.2	1.8	6.7	6.6	8.6	8.5
	lifferent me	e is the dist	t in the firs	right side o	, in m), shc	Edge contrast		30	d = 40	2.7	4.2	6.9	1.5	1.7	6.5	8.1
	including d	e. Exposure	atrix heigh	(normal = 1	$cs (d = d_{max})$		normal	$\sigma = 30$	d = 10	3.0	4.2	1.6	4.7	5.3	8.4	8.3
	Table 2. Edge and matrix characteristics of the study areas including different measures of edge contrast. Edge height is the	e forest side	average height between 0 and 20 m from the edge on the forest side. Exposure is the distance to the nearest cerrado or tall plantation up to 50 m or classified as $>50$ m. Matrix height is the maximum matrix height in the first 40 m from the edge. Estimates of edge		values of $\sigma$ , and truncation distances ( $d = d_{max}$ , in m), showing how the effect of different parameters.		Shape = normal	5	d = 40	3.0	4.2	1.9	6.3	6.3	8.6	8.4
		1x characteristics of the s 20 m from the edge on th						q = 0	d = 10	3.0	4.2	1.8	6.6	6.6	8.6	8.4
							Matrix	height (m)		1	-2 <sup>a</sup>	13	9.2	7.5	10.0	1.0
	ge and matr	reen 0 and 2	fied as >50	ied with we	ith different		Exposure	(m)		>50	>50	L	5	7	23	>50
	<b>Table 2.</b> Ed	e height betw	50 m or classi	50 m or classi st were obtain	exponential), and with different values of $\sigma$ ,		Edge	height (m)		3.5	2.2	2.0	9.2	7.5	8.9	9.0
		average	up to 5	contras	expone		0:+0			$\mathbf{S1}$	S2	S3	F1	F2	F3	F4
	520	521	522	523	524											

8.7	8.0	9.1	9.1	9.3	10.1	10.3	
8.9	9.4	8.4	9.8	10.2	9.4	8.7	
9.0	9.6	8.3	10.0	10.2	9.5	9.1	
9.0	9.7	8.1	10.2	10.4	9.4	8.7	
8.7	7.8	9.2	9.0	9.2	10.2	10.5	ng area.
8.9	9.3	8.5	9.8	10.1	9.4	8.7	surroundir
9.0	9.7	8.2	10.1	10.4	9.4	8.8	n above the
9.0	9.7	8.2	10.2	10.5	9.4	8.7	levation of 2 m above the surrounding area.
0.5	10.3	2.0	2.0	2.0	20.0	20.0	ted at an elev
>50	31	>50	>50	>50	F10 9.4 10 20.0	10	ent was loca
9.1	10.3	9.7	10.6	F9 10.7	9.4	8.7	<sup>a</sup> This fragm
F5 9.1	F6	F7	F8	F9	F10	F11	

526 Table 3. Edge and interior mean values (± SD) and distance of edge influence
527 (DEI) on temperature and moisture at the 3 savanna (S) and 11 forest (F) edges. All
528 patterns were monotonic.

Site		Temperature		Moisture					
	Edge (°C)	Interior (°C)	DEI (m)	Edge (%)	Interior (%)	DEI (m)			
<b>S</b> 1	$40.1\pm2.2$	$36.4\pm0.9$	60	33.7 ± 3.4	$41.8\pm3.0$	50			
S2	N/A	N/A	N/A	$14.2 \pm 3.6$	$53.8\pm2.0$	ns			
S3	$34.2\pm1.7$	33.1 ± 2.3	ns	$30.6\pm3.7$	$29.6 \pm 1.6$	ns			
F1	$31.1\pm0.9$	$30.1\pm0.7$	ns	$47.4\pm4.3$	$55.4\pm3.9$	15			
F2	38.4 ± 2.4	$34.0\pm1.4$	15	51.5 ± 3.3	$63.3 \pm 4.2$	15			
F3	$29.7\pm0.8$	31.4 ± 1.5	10	57.6 ± 2.9	$58.9\pm3.6$	ns			
F4	33.7 ± 2.1	$31.1\pm0.6$	60	44.6 ± 1.9	$53.2 \pm 4.2$	30			
F5	31.2 ± 1.1	$29.5\pm0.6$	40	61.3 ± 4.4	$71.7 \pm 3.9$	30			
F6	$31.7\pm0.8$	$31.7\pm0.5$	ns	63.1 ± 2.7	69.8 ± 6.1	2			
F7	36.0 ± 2.2	$35.2\pm0.8$	ns	43.2 ± 5.3	$45.8\pm2.4$	ns			
F8	$30.2\pm0.7$	$32.2\pm0.7$	80	$52.0\pm2.9$	$45.8\pm4.4$	40			

F9	$30.2\pm0.7$	$29.9\pm0.8$	ns	$52.0\pm3.4$	$51.0\pm3.3$	ns
F10	$35.3\pm2.4$	33.5 ± 1.2	ns	$49.8\pm7.0$	$61.3\pm4.2$	10
F11	$34.9 \pm 1.8$	$36.3 \pm 1.4$	ns	$56.9\pm4.0$	$44.9\pm2.8$	ns

530 N/A: not available, because of measurement errors at this site.

531 ns: no significant EI observed at this site.

cs. All	leters.	237 are		e.											
vith edge and matrix characteristics. A	values of the $oldsymbol{\sigma}$ and $d_{max}$ param	nificance of 0.02	e adjusted significance of 0.02	Effect of edge	contrast	+ve	-ve	-ve	-ve	-ve	+ve	+ve	+ve	+ve	
		e adjusted sigr				<i>p</i> value	0.0182	0.0454	0.0496	0.0366	0.0394	0.0316	0.042	0.0388	0.0256
snce with	lifferent	cant at th			$d_{max}$	N/A	40	40	40	40	10	20	40	10	
lge influe	pes and c	es signifi			Ь	N/A	30	30	30	30	5			Ś	
Table 4. Relationships for significance (SEI) and magnitude (MEI) of edge influence with edge and matrix characteristics. All	ered including weighting functions with different shapes and different values of the $\sigma$ and $d_{max}$ parameters.	re shown; <i>p</i> value	Only the relationships significant at the unadjusted 0.05 level are shown; <i>p</i> values significant at the adjusted significance of 0.0237 are in bold. Only 22 of 829 tests were significant.	re shown; <i>p</i> valu		Shape	N/A	Normal	Exponential	Normal	Exponential	Normal			Exponential
		ificant at the unadjusted 0.05 level a			Edge or matrix characteristic	Matrix height	Weighted edge contrast		Relative weighted edge contrast		Weighted edge contrast				
Table 4. Relationsh	characteristics were considered including w	Only the relationships signi	in bold. Only 22 of 829 tests were significant.		Response	MEI for canopy closure	MEI for native grasses				SEI for total grasses				
533	534	535	536												

+ve	+ve	+ve	+ve	+ve	+ve	+ve	+ve	+ve	+ve	+ve	+ve	+ve
0.0438	0.047	0.0464	0.0186	0.022	0.0222	0.0458	0.0422	0.0176	0.0318	0.0344	0.0346	0.044
20	10	10	10	20	40	10	10	10	20	40	10	10
	15	30	5			15	30	5			15	30
			Normal					Exponential				
			Weighted edge contrast									
			MEI for moisture									

# List of figure captions

Figure 1. Maps showing the locations of São Paulo state (a), fragments used in this study (b) and the study sites: F1, F8 and F9 in the Jataí Ecological Station (c), F7, F10 and F11 in Vassununga State Park (d), F5 and F6 at the Brazilian Agricultural Research Corporation (e), S2 at the Federal University of São Carlos (f), S3 at the Itirapina Ecological Station (g), F4 at the Bauru Municipal Botanical Garden (h), S1 at the Santa Bárbara Ecological Station (i) and F2 and F3 at the Assis Ecological Station (j). Refer to Table 1 for coordinates and other information.

Figure 2. Example of edge contrast calculation with an edge schematic (a), the contrast at each distance from the edge (b); the weighting function for three SD values (c) and the weighted edge contrast resulting from each of the weighting functions (d). The example is of the dense cerrado – highway edge (F3) bordered by a firebreak, a grass area, a bamboo strip and a highway. In (c) and (d), the lines are for three different values of  $\sigma$ : 5 (solid line), 15 (long dashes), 30 (short dashes). The resulting contrast value (WEC) is equal to the area below the curve in (d) divided by the area below the weighting function in (c).

Figure 3. Variation in magnitude (a) and distance (b) of edge influence among the study sites for microclimate, canopy structure and grass biomass. Results for the two exotic grass species are not presented because they were common only in the three savanna edges. Circles represent forest edges and triangles represent savanna edges; filled

symbols indicate significant EI. Within each variable, edges are organized in order of increasing contrast (left to right), with savanna edges after forest edges. Note that MEI for temperature was calculated simply as the difference, in °C, between edge and interior and divided by the temperature range observed (see methods). The dotted line represents MEI equal to 0.

Figure 4. Patterns of maximum vegetation height (mean  $\pm$  SD) with distance from edge for: (a) F1, (b) F2, (c) F5, (d) F6, (e) F7, (f) F8, (g) F11. Patterns represent significant negative (b,e), positive (d) and non-monotonic (a,c,g) edge influence, as well as a nonsignificant pattern which resembles the non-monotonic one (f). Black circles: values significantly different from interior reference values EI (p < 0.05), gray circles: marginally significant (0.05 ), white circles: non-significant (<math>p > 0.10).

Figure 5. Biomass of all graminoids (a), of the exotic species *Urochloa decumbens* (b) and *Melinis minutiflora* (c), and of native graminoids (d) along the transects at the three savanna sites: S1 (circles), S2 (triangles), and S3 (squares). Filled symbols represent distances that were significantly different from interior reference values (p < 0.05).