Woody population distribution and environmental heterogeneity in a Chaco forest, Argentina

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Abstract. In southern humid Chaco forests dominated by Schinopsis balansae, woody plants are clumped and species composition varies spatially over short distances. We examined how these spatial patterns are associated with local environmental heterogeneity for three size classes of woody individuals: adults, saplings, and seedlings. Our study was based on the detailed description of two forest plots (3200 m² in total) in which we mapped all individuals of woody species, and delimited patches with different microrelief, soil moisture, and ground cover of terrestrial bromeliads. Our results showed that woody-individual distribution is related to local environmental heterogeneity. For all size classes, density of woody individuals was highest on convex patches. These convex patches were dominated by both tree (Acacia praecox and Achatocarpus praecox) and shrub species (Celtis pallida, Capparis retusa and Grabowskia duplicata), while level patches were dominated only by tree species (Schinopsis balansae, Prosopis spp. and Geoffroea decorticans). Drier patches contained all the woody species present in the forest, while wetter patches contained only a subset of them. Within convex patches, trees are likely to occur in places with bromeliad colonies and shrubs in patches without bromeliads. The results suggest forest structure is controlled by environmental heterogeneity associated with microrelief and soil moisture.

Keywords: Bromeliad; Forest structure; Humid; Microrelief; *Schinopsis balansae*; Southern humid Chaco; Subtropical.

Nomenclature: Burkart (1969-1987); Digilio (1971-1974); Pérez Moreau (1994).

Abbreviation: MRPP = Multiple Response Permutation Procedure.

Introduction

Vegetation patterns have long been recognized to be associated with environmental heterogeneity (Gleason 1926; Cooper 1926; Whittaker 1967; Austin 1985). In forest stands, microtopography and soil heterogeneity often determine spatial patterns of woody species regeneration that result in clumped distributions of trees or tree species (Beatty 1984; Huenneke & Sharitz 1986; Streng et al. 1989; Peterson & Pickett 1990; Itoh 1995; Clark et al. 1998; Svenning 1999). Effects of these factors may be complicated by disturbances related to animal activity and tree falls, which remove the upper layers of the soil and generate fine-scale microtopography (Orians 1982; Beatty & Stone 1986; Nakashizuka 1989; Pire et al. 1991; Hansell 1993; Carlton & Bazzaz 1998). In addition, within-forest-stand environmental heterogeneity may be related to plant sociability, due to clonal growth, or to limited dispersion, which can reinforce patterns of tree species distribution (Brokaw 1983; Denslow et al. 1991; Wada 1993; Takahashi 1997). As a consequence of these associations, identifying the controls of forest composition and dynamics requires to characterize the correspondence between forest structure and local environmental heterogeneity.

In the southern humid Chaco, stands of the Schinopsis balansae forest type (quebrachal) have the trees clumped in patches of different species composition (Lewis & Pire 1981; Lewis 1991; Lewis et al. 1997). Two factors have been proposed to account for this spatial pattern: microrelief (Lewis & Pire 1981; Lewis 1991; Barberis et al. 1998), and ground cover heterogeneity (Bordón 1978; Martínez-Crovetto 1980). Sites of these forests are flat in general but they have a conspicuous microrelief (Espino et al. 1983). Because the associated soils have low hydraulic conductivity (Espino et al. 1983), a large proportion of rainfall runs off to local depressions and, as a consequence, the microrelief is associated with a strong spatial pattern of soil moisture and aeration. Ground cover in these forests is also spatially heterogeneous as large gaps have a dense grass cover and shaded areas are often colonized by two prickly bromeliads: Aechmea distichantha and Bromelia serra (Lewis & Pire 1981). This ground cover heterogeneity is likely to affect the movement patterns of water, litter, and propagules among different patches in these forests. Spatial patterns of propagule arrival, as well as

in soil moisture and aeration regimes, associated with microrelief and ground cover patterns are likely to affect establishment and survival of woody individuals and might determine the clumped pattern characteristic of this forest type.

In this paper we assess the associations between local environmental heterogeneity and distribution patterns of woody individuals, as well as species composition in a stand of the *Schinopsis balansae* forest type. Our analysis addressed the following questions for the adult, sapling, and seedling size-classes:

1. Are woody individuals clumped in patches associated with specific topographic positions, soil moisture, or ground cover characteristics? If so, what are the habitats that support higher plant density?

2. Are there any consistent differences in woodyspecies composition among forest patches associated with different topographic positions, soil moisture, or ground cover? If so, what are the differences in woodyspecies composition among habitats?

3. Are there differences in growth form composition (trees or shrubs) among forest patches associated with specific topographic positions, soil moisture, or ground cover characteristics? If so, are these patterns similar for different size classes?

4. Are there differences in the spectrum of dispersal syndromes (bird or small mammal, cattle, wind, or gravity dispersal) of the seedling class among forest patches with different topographic positions, soil moisture, or ground cover?

Material and Methods

Study area

The Gran Chaco spreads over N Argentina, E Bolivia, W Paraguay, and small portions of S Brazil (Cabrera 1976; Prado 1993). The vegetation encompasses a mosaic of dry forests, savannas, grasslands, and wetlands arranged along moisture and salinity gradients (Morello & Adámoli 1974; Prado 1993). In Argentina, four phytogeographic districts are recognized: the eastern Chaco characterized by Schinopsis balansae, the western Chaco by Schinopsis lorentzii, the Sierra Chaco by Schinopsis marginata, and the Savannas Chaco by Elyonurus muticus and Spartina argentinensis (Cabrera 1976). The southernmost portion of the eastern Chaco is the Santa Fe Forest Wedge (Cuña Boscosa Santafesina), which is covered by different forest types arranged along environmental gradients correlated with the elevation gradient, and treeless areas with grasslands or wetlands. At the top of the elevation gradient mixed dense forests or Austro-Brazilian transitional forests are found; downward *Schinopsis balansae* forests (quebrachales) occur, which are the most widespread and characteristic forest type of the area; at the bottom, next to wetlands, *Prosopis nigra* var. *ragonesei* forests (algarrobales) or *Copernicia alba* palm groves (Lewis & Pire 1981; Lewis 1991; Lewis et al. 1994). In the *Schinopsis balansae* forests, most woody species are deciduous, with small leaves and frequently with spiny structures (Lewis et al. 1997), and the soil surface has a noticeable microrelief (Barberis et al. 1998).

This study was conducted in a 400-ha stand of the Schinopsis balansae forest type (Lewis et al. 1997) located at Las Gamas, near Vera, Santa Fe, Argentina (Estación Experimental Tito Livio Coppa, 29° 28' S, 60° 28' W, 58 m a.s.l.). The climate is humid temperate to warm, with a mean annual temperature of ca. 20 °C, and a mean annual precipitation of ca. 1000 mm. Rainfall is concentrated in the summertime (December-March) and a drought of variable length occurs in winter. The forest is located on a mosaic of soils with low hydraulic conductivity and high sodium content (Espino et al. 1983). During the first half of the 20th century, this stand was heavily lumbered for the tannin industry, and subsequently for fuel extraction and charcoal production. Nowadays, this stand, like most of the Santa Fe Forest Wedge forests, although partially recovered, is not completely mature or at a steady state, and cattle grazing and mild firewood extraction are now main disturbances.

Data

Habitat

We positioned two parallel plots, one 220 m \times 10 m and the other 100 m \times 10 m, within one of the farthest paddocks of the forest stand from Las Gamas village (Barberis 1998). As one of the plots was planned to be a cattle exclosure (cf. Lewis et al. 1997), their location within the paddock was restricted for cattle management purposes. In March 1989, we classified patches into five habitats: convex patches with bromeliad colonies (Eb), convex patches without bromeliad colonies (E), dry plains (Pd), wet plains (Ph), and depressions (D; Barberis et al. 1998). Patches were mapped following their contour in the field (scale 1:100; Barberis et al. 1998). Microrelief was assessed with an optical level along the centre of each plot. Maximum differences in altitude between convex patches and adjacent depressions were ca. 55 cm (Barberis 1998). Soil moisture was subjectively characterized 6 days after a 21-mm rainfall. Patches where the soil was well drained were classified as dry, while patches where the soil was still soaked or flooded were classified as wet. As these rather crude soil-moisture classes were closely associated with different herbaceous community types (Lewis & Pire 1981) we assumed that they reflected

adequately the heterogeneity of soil-moisture regime. Based on this characterization, convex patches were classified as dry, depressions were classified as wet, and plains were split into dry and wet (Barberis et al. 1998). Patch areas included in our plots ranged between 5 m² and 260 m² (Barberis 1998). In our analyses, we only included the 34 patches that covered over 20 m² in the plots (6 Eb, 6 E, 8 Pd, 7 Ph, and 7 D).

Vegetation

In March 1989, we mapped, identified to the species level, and measured for height all woody individuals in the plots. We classified all individuals as adults, saplings, or seedlings using height as a proxy variable (Lewis et al. 1997). Adults were defined as individuals taller than 0.6 m for shrub species, and taller than 1.6 m for tree species; saplings were defined as individuals between 30 cm and adult height; and seedlings were identified as individuals < 30 cm tall. Species were classified as shrubs or trees depending on whether the individuals branched out at the base or not respectively. Achatocarpus praecox and Capparis retusa, whose individuals can adopt either form, were classified based on the most frequent growth form in our stand (i.e., Achatocarpus praecox as a tree and Capparis retusa as a shrub). Within our plots, there were 29 woody species (15 trees, 13 shrubs, and one undetermined), 18 of which had individuals in all three size classes (i.e. adults, saplings, and seedlings), four in two classes, and the other seven in only one class.

Analysis

Association between environmental heterogeneity and spatial distribution of woody individuals

To analyse the spatial association between woody individuals and habitats, we overlaid the woody-individual map onto the habitat-patch map, and counted all woody individuals in every patch larger than 20 m². For each size class (i.e., adults, saplings, and seedlings), density was compared among habitats using generalized linear models (Dobson 1990). In these models, the number of individuals in each patch was treated as a Poisson variable whose expected value was a function of the patch area and the patch habitat. While the patch area functioned as a covariate, hypotheses were tested about differences in the parameters associated with each habitat. To correct for overdispersion of the data, the models were fitted by quasi-maximum likelihood (McCullagh & Nelder 1989), using SAS, Proc GENMOD (Anon. 1996). Within the models, multiple comparisons were performed between pairs of habitats. Confidence levels in these comparisons were adjusted by the Bonferroni method (Neter et al. 1990).

Relationship between environmental heterogeneity and forest species composition

We tested for consistency of species composition differences among habitats using a Multiple Response Permutation Procedure (MRPP; Biondini et al. 1988). We ran separate tests comparing species composition of the adult, sapling, and seedling components between pairs of habitats. In the tests, each patch corresponded to a multivariate observation containing the densities of each species, and the habitats were the classes compared. Depressions were not included in these analyses because in each patch the number of individuals was too small to adequately characterize the species composition. 1 - Sørensen index of similarity was used as a measure of dissimilarity. Differences between treatments were considered significant at a P-level < 0.0083 (Bonferroni's correction: $\alpha = 0.05/6$ comparisons). In addition, 1 - Sörensen index of similarity was used to compare the floristic composition among size classes for each habitat at the forest scale; and the β -diversity index (Whittaker 1967) to assess species-composition variability among patches. Computation of the distances was performed using the PC-ORD software (McCune & Mefford 1997). To test for differences in the proportions of tree and shrub species among habitats we used χ^2 tests (Sokal & Rohlf 1995). These tests were run for the adult and seedling classes.

Relationship between environmental heterogeneity and dispersal syndrome composition

We used published data (Caziani 1996; Feldman & Feldman 1987), information from N. Montaldo, G. Roitman and M. Cabido, and our field observations to classify woody species by their dispersal syndrome (see App. 1). We distinguished four groups: (1) Birds or small mammals; (2) Cattle; (3) Wind; (4) Gravity. We used χ^2 -tests (Sokal & Rohlf 1995) to examine the association between environmental heterogeneity and dispersal syndrome of the species for the seedling class.

Results

Spatial distribution of woody individuals

For all size classes, the generalized linear models revealed significant differences in the density of woody individuals among patches of different habitats (Adults $F_{4,29} = 29.66$, P < 0.0001; saplings $F_{4,29} = 45.54$, P < 0.0001; seedlings $F_{4,29} = 7.83$, P < 0.0002). For adults, mean density was significantly higher in the convex patches (Eb, E) than in all other patch types, and significantly higher in dry plains (Pd) than in wet plains (Ph) and depressions (D; Fig. 1a). There were no significant

differences in average adult density between convex patches with and without bromeliad-dominated ground cover (Eb, E), or between wet plains (Ph) and depressions (D; Fig. 1a). For saplings, mean density was significantly higher in convex patches (Eb, E) than in patches of other habitats; while there were no significant differences between sapling densities in Eb and E, or among Pd, Ph, and D (Fig. 1b). For seedlings, mean densities were significantly lower in the wet plains (Ph) than in the dry patches (Eb, E, Pd). In depressions (D), mean seedling density was very low but varying among patches; consequently, mean seedling density in the depressions only differed significantly with that on convex patches without bromeliads (Fig. 1c).

Environmental heterogeneity and species composition

The MRPP tests detected significant differences in woody-species composition among habitats more frequently for the adult than for the sapling and seedling components (Table 1). For the adult class, species composition differed significantly between convex (Eb, E) and level (Pd, Ph) patches. No significant species composition differences were found between patches Eb and E or between dry and wet plains. For the sapling class, the MRPP tests showed significant species-composition differences between Eb patches and plains (Pd, Ph) and between convex patches and wet plains (Ph). However, these tests showed no significant differences in species composition between E patches and dry plains (Pd). For the seedling class, significant differences in species composition were found between Eb patches and plains. In contrast, no significant differences were found between convex patches (Table 1). In general, total numbers of woody species were higher in dry (Eb, E, Pd) than in wet patches (Ph); the variability in species composition among individual patches of each habitat, as measured by the β -diversity (Whittaker 1967) was lower in convex patches than in plains (Table 1).

Lists of dominant woody species of each habitat were largely coincident for the adult and sapling size classes but markedly different between these and the seedling class (Fig. 2). In the adult component, convex patches with bromeliad ground cover were dominated by the tree species Acacia praecox and Achatocarpus praecox and by the shrub Celtis pallida; convex patches without bromeliads were dominated by the shrub species C. pallida, Capparis retusa, and Grabowskia duplicata; and plains (Pd and Ph) by the tree species Acacia praecox, Schinopsis balansae, Prosopis spp. and Geoffroea decorticans (Table 1). In the sapling class, convex patches were dominated by A. praecox, Achatocarpus praecox, C. pallida, G. duplicata, and Myrcianthes cisplatensis; while the plains were domi-

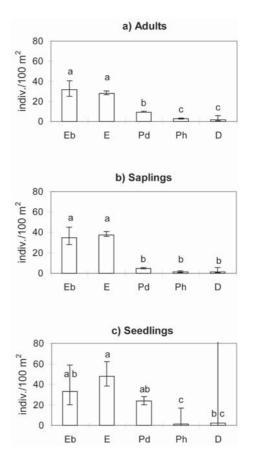


Fig. 1. Mean density and 95% confidence intervals for (**a**) adults, (**b**) saplings (**c**) and seedlings of woody species (individuals/100 m²) in each habitat. Means with the same letters are not significantly different (Bonferroni's method; P < 0.005). Eb = convex patches with bromeliads; E = convex patches without bromeliads; Pd: = dry plains; Ph = wet plains; D = depressions. For seedlings, the upper limit of the confidence interval in depressions (D) is ca. 165 individuals/100 m².

nated by *C. pallida*, *Geoffroea decorticans*, and *Prosopis* spp. (Table 1). In contrast, in the seedling class, two species with low density of adults and saplings (*M. cisplatensis* and *Aspidosperma quebracho-blanco*) were dominant in all types of habitats (Table 1).

In the seedling class, the proportion of tree species relative to shrub species did not differ significantly among habitats ($\chi^2_3 df = 3.24$; P = 0.355; Fig. 3). In contrast, in the adult class, the proportion of trees relative to shrubs differed significantly among habitats ($\chi^2_3 df = 49.76$; P < 0.001). As trees and shrubs tended to co-dominate on the convex patches the proportion of trees was significantly lower in convex than in level patches ($\chi^2_1 df = 33.54$; P < 0.001; Fig. 3). In convex patches, the proportion of trees was significantly lower in convex than in level patches ($\chi^2_1 df = 33.54$; P < 0.001; Fig. 3). In convex patches, the proportion of trees was significantly higher on those with a bromeliad dominated ground cover than on those without bromeliads ($\chi^2_1 df = 14.61$; P < 0.001).

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Table 1. Distribution of adult, sapling, and seedling individuals of woody species among different habitats. Results based on MRPP tests comparing habitats according to their species composition in different patches for adults, saplings, and seedlings of woody species. For each size class, habitats with a different letter are significantly different at a *P*-level of 0.0083 according to MRPP tests. Values show the relative density of individuals of each species in each habitat, and the column total shows total density (individuals/ 100 m²) of each habitat. Bold values indicate that the species was defined as dominant in this habitat (i.e., relative density higher than 10%). Habitat codes: Eb = convex patches with bromeliads; E = convex patches without bromeliads; Pd = dry plains; Ph = wet plains. 'Other species' include in the adult class: *Acacia caven, Acanthosyris falcata* and *Tabebuia nodosa*; in the sapling class: *Acacia caven, Banara umbraticola, Caesalpinia paraguariensis, Holmbergia tweedii* and *Senna pendula* var. *paludicola*; in the seedling class: *Banara umbraticola, Jodina rhombifolia, Sapium haematospermum*, and a non-identified species. Growth form codes: T = trees, S = shrubs.

	Adults			Saplings			Seedlings					
Habitat	Eb	Е	Pd	Ph	Eb	Е	Pd	Ph	Eb	Е	Pd	Ph
MRPP results	а	a	b	b	а	ab	bc	с	а	ab	b	b
T Acacia praecox	28	9	31	4	14	14	8		14	7	6	8
T Achatocarpus praecox	14	9	1		18	15	8		5	2	3	
S Celtis pallida	11	23	3		9	21	18	9	4	6	3	
S Capparis retusa	8	11	1		7	8			7	3	5	
S Grabowskia duplicata		16	1	9	1	20		9			1	8
T Schinopsis balansae	6	3	16	26	5		5	9	7	4	9	25
T Geoffroea decorticans		8	12	30		5	21	18		1	5	17
T Prosopis spp.	2	3	19	22		1	18	36	1		2	
T Myrcianthes cisplatensis	7	3	3		27	4	3		28	42	31	42
T Aspidosperma quebracho-blanco	2	1	3	4	1		5		11	16	12	
S Lycium cuneatum	1				2			9	3	2	14	
S Maytenus vitis-idaea	8	3	3	4	7	4	3		2	1	1	
T Sideroxylon obtusifolium	3	1	3		1				7	2	2	
T Ziziphus mistol	4		1							2	1	
S Schinus fasciculatus	4	1			1		3		1		1	
S Celtis iguanea	2	3					3			1		
S Coccoloba argentinensis	3				2				3	5		
S Erythroxylum microphyllum		3			1	2	3		5	7	5	
S Aloysia gratissima		1			1	2	3					
Other species	1	3	3		3	2		9	1	1	2	
Density (individuals/100 m ²)	31.60	28.16	9.21	2.67	34.76	37.17	4.75	1.28	33.02	48.06	23.77	1.3
umber of species	17	18	15	7	20	14	13	7	16	16	19	5
umber of species per sector	9.17	6.50	3.75	1.86	8.50	5.33	2.63	1.14	9.50	7.00	4.88	1.2
ange of number of spp. per patch	(4-16)	(3-12)	(1-11)	(0-5)	(2-15)	(0-7)	(0-9)	(0-3)	(6-14)	(2-12)	(0-16)	(0-
-diversity	1.85	2.77	4.00	3.77	2.35	2.63	4.95	6.13	1.68	2.29	3.90	3.8

Relationship between environmental heterogeneity and dispersal syndrome composition

In the seedling class, there were significant differences among habitats in the dispersal-syndrome profile of recruited individuals (χ^2_3 d.f. = 18.52; *P* < 0.001) (species dispersal syndromes are given in App. 1). The

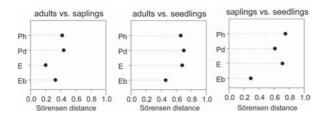


Fig. 2. 1– Sörensen index among different components of the forest (adults vs. saplings, adults vs. seedlings, and saplings vs. seedlings) in each habitat. Habitat codes: Eb = convex patches with bromeliads; E = convex patches without bromeliads; Pd = dry plains; Ph = wet plains.

proportion of seedlings from species dispersed by gravity was higher, and the proportion of seedlings from species dispersed by cattle was lower in convex than in level patches (Fig. 4). The proportions of seedlings from species dispersed by birds or wind were similar among habitats (Fig. 4).

Discussion

Environmental heterogeneity and spatial distribution of woody individuals

In Schinopsis balansae forests of the humid Chaco, patches of closed forest typically alternate with stretches of savanna-type vegetation (Morello & Adámoli 1974; Lewis & Pire 1981; Lewis 1991; Placci 1995; Lewis et al. 1997). In our plots, this pattern was strongly associated with microrelief. Convex patches (Eb, E) supported closed canopy forest with high density of adult trees and saplings and a ground cover containing prickly bromeliad patches and high density of tree and shrub seedlings. In contrast, level and concave patches (Pd, Ph, D) supported open vegetation with low density of trees and saplings and a dense grassy ground cover. Seedling density was similar to that on convex patches in dry plains (Pd) but substantially lower in the wetter patches (Ph, D).

The association between microtopography and distribution of woody individuals suggests that, in our forest, environmental heterogeneity might strongly influence the regeneration of woody species. In convex patches, high density of adult trees is likely to result in abundant primary seed dispersion (cf. Augspurger & Franson 1988; Schupp et al. 1989). As the closed canopy intercepts the rain and the bromeliad clusters trap seeds and slow down run-off, secondary dispersion away from the convex patches is likely to be reduced. In level patches, in contrast, low tree density possibly results in reduced primary seed dispersion and, because run-off is intense as a result of grazing and trampling reducing soil cover and permeability, many seeds are likely to be washed away into the swamps (Barberis pers. obs.). In addition to these patterns of seed dispersion, differences in seedling and sapling mortality possibly reinforce the spatial pattern of woody-individual distribution. In the plains and depressions, mortality is likely to be high as seedlings and saplings of woody species are exposed to rather extreme environmental conditions. In the plains and depressions, moisture of the upper soil layers is strongly seasonal as the sites are frequently flooded in summer and very dry in winter (Espino et al. 1983). As a consequence, woody plants are exposed to root anoxia

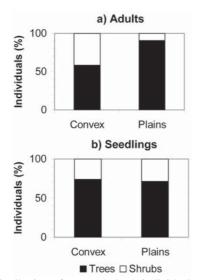


Fig. 3. Distribution of tree and shrub individuals in convex patches and plains for (a) the adult and (b) the seedling classes.

in the summer and to water stress and strong competition from grasses during winter droughts (Parodi 1942). These hardships are intensified by cattle trampling compacting the topsoil and damaging seedlings directly. In addition, summer growth of grasses and sedges in the plains and depressions builds up biomass that becomes very flammable after winter drought, and, although fires are not very common (Morello 1970), when they occur, they produce high mortality of woody individuals (Pire pers. obs.). In contrast, in convex patches, topsoil moisture is less fluctuating, grass density is lower, and prickly bromeliad colonies prevent cattle trampling (Bordón 1978) and surfacefire spread (Tortorelli 1947), determining a more favourable habitat for the establishment and survival of trees and shrubs. Our seedling counts are consistent with the notion that patterns of seed arrival, and seedling establishment and survival, account for the patterns of woody individual density in our forest.

Clumped distribution of woody species has also been observed in xerophytic forests of the semi-arid Chaco (Morello & Adámoli 1974), and the *Celtis tala* forest of the Espinal province, a phytogeographic area confined to the Chaco Domain (Parodi 1940). In both areas, as in our study, the forest is located on positive relief with welldrained soils (e.g. silty loam in the semi-arid Chaco and calcareous soils in the coast of the Espinal province).

In this study we did not consider the probable compositional, structural, and functional differences between the edge and the interior of the forest. For example, in an old-growth stand of the semi-arid Chaco, the edge showed a very dense cover of thin stems and higher cover near the ground in the shrub stratum compared to the interior of the forest (López de Casenave et al. 1995). Likewise, sapling density of *Celtis tala* was higher at the edge than in the interior of the forest or the grassland in a 'talar' forest of the Espinal province (Arturi 1997). However, there was no difference in seedling numbers of *Celtis tala* among environments, suggesting that differences in sapling number was not related to seed availability or germination, but to seed-ling mortality (Arturi 1997). A similar pattern was ob-

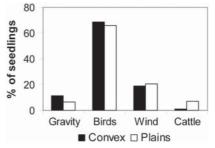


Fig. 4. Distribution of woody seedlings from species with different dispersal syndrome in convex patches and plains.

served in our stand of *Schinopsis balansae* where seedlings of most species grew all over the ground in convex patches, whereas saplings were mainly located at the edge of convex habitats (Barberis 1998).

Environmental heterogeneity and species composition

In our forest, species composition differences are consistently associated with local environmental heterogeneity. While most woody species in the forest occur on convex patches and dry plains, only a subset without exclusive species occurs on wet plains (Ph). On the convex patches, the forest is dominated by both trees and shrubs, whereas in the plains, the forest is dominated by tree species only. This pattern is clear for the adult stratum but less evident for the sapling and even less for the seedling strata suggesting that woody species distribution might reflect spatial patterns both of seed dispersion and/or of growth and survival (cf. Augspurger & Franson 1988; Schupp et al. 1989; Schupp 1995).

Patterns of seed dispersion

Patterns of seed dispersion are likely to differ among patches as a result of the differences in vegetation structure. On the convex patches, seedlings of woody species with multiple dispersal syndromes, and especially those dispersed by birds and small mammals or reptiles, were well represented (see App. 1). On level patches, in contrast, seedlings of species dispersed by birds or small animals were underrepresented (only Myrcianthes cisplatensis and Grabowskia duplicata were present), and species dispersed by cattle (Geoffrea decorticans) or wind (Schinopsis balansae) were overrepresented. These data suggest that seed dispersal by cattle and wind predominates on the level patches while dispersal by birds and small animals, or by gravity, predominates on convex patches, essentially as a result of vegetation structure differences (Augspurger & Franson 1988; Schupp et al. 1989). Seedling growth and survival may later change the pattern of sapling distribution. However, this issue is in need of further research in order to find out which one of these processes is relatively more important.

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App. 1. Tree and shrub species present in a *Schinopsis balansae* forest of the Southern Humid Chaco arranged according to their main dispersal modes. A non-identified species was not considered. We used published data (Caziani 1996; Feldman & Feldman 1987), personal communications by N. Montaldo, G. Roitman, and M. Cabido, and our field observations to classify the woody species by dispersal syndrome.

Growth form	Dispersal mode	Species	Family	Fruit	
Trees	Birds and small mammals	Acanthosyris falcata	Santalaceae	Drupe	
		Achatocarpus praecox	Achatocarpaceae	Drupe	
		Jodina rhombifolia	Santalaceae	Capsule with white arillate seeds	
		Myrcianthes cisplatensis	Myrtaceae	Berry	
		Sapium haematospermum	Euphorbiaceae	Capsule with white arillate seeds	
		Sideroxylon obtusifolium	Sapotaceae	Berry	
		Ziziphus mistol	Rhamnaceae	Drupe	
	Cattle	Acacia caven	Fabaceae (Mimosoideae)	Indehiscent legume	
		Caesalpinia paraguariensis	Fabaceae (Caesalpiniodeae)	Indehiscent legume	
		Geoffroea decorticans	Fabaceae (Papilioniodieae)	Drupe	
		Prosopis spp.	Fabaceae (Mimosoideae)	Fleshy legume	
	Gravity	Acacia praecox	Fabaceae (Mimosoideae)	Legume	
	Wind	Aspidosperma quebracho-blanco	Apocynaceae	Capsule with winged seeds	
		Schinopsis balansae	Anacardiaceae	Samara	
		Tabebuia nodosa	Bignoniaceae	Capsule with winged seeds	
Shrubs	Birds and small mammals	Banara umbraticola	Flacourtiaceae	Berry	
		Capparis retusa	Capparidaceae	Capsule with silique form	
		Celtis iguanea	Ulmaceae	Drupe	
		Celtis pallida	Ulmaceae	Drupe	
		Coccoloba argentinensis	Polygonaceae	Achene with fleshy calyx	
		Erythroxylum microphyllum	Erythroxilaceae	Drupe	
		Grabowskia duplicata	Solanaceae	Drupe	
		Holmbergia tweedii	Chenopodiaceae	Berry	
		Lycium cuneatum	Solanaceae	Berry	
		Maytenus vitis-idaea	Celastraceae	Capsule with red arillate seeds	
		Schinus fasciculatus	Anacardiaceae	Drupe	
	Gravity	Aloysia gratissima	Verbenaceae	Schizocarp	
		Senna pendula var. paludicola	Fabaceae (Caesalpinioideae)	Drupe	