



Universidade de Brasília
Instituto de Ciências Biológicas
Programa de Pós-Graduação em Ecologia

**Efeitos da aplicação de herbicida, manejo de solo e semeadura direta para
a restauração de área savânica na Floresta Nacional de Brasília**

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Título:

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Resumo

A restauração de campos e savanas é negligenciada em todo o mundo com o uso de práticas voltadas para ambientes florestais. Especialmente nos trópicos, faltam técnicas que também contemplem o estrato herbáceo para restaurar esses ecossistemas não-florestais. Realizamos um experimento para restaurar uma savana usando semeadura direta com alta densidade de sementes de árvores e subarbustos de crescimento rápido testando diferentes níveis de manejo do solo e herbicida para o controle de gramíneas exóticas no Brasil Central. Fizemos um desenho experimental fatorial que combinou três níveis de manejo do solo (três, seis ou nove gradagens) e três níveis de aplicação de herbicidas (nenhum, uma ou duas) após a semeadura, além do controle. Medimos a cobertura do solo por espécies nativas e exóticas e necromassa. Avaliamos a riqueza e o crescimento das árvores ao final da primeira e segunda estações chuvosas após a semeadura. O herbicida reduziu a cobertura de gramíneas exóticas, aumentando a cobertura vegetal nativa semeada. Espécies nativas semeadas em alta densidade de sementes foram eficazes em fornecer cobertura extensiva do solo, especialmente quando em baixa cobertura de gramíneas exóticas. Parcelas sem aplicação de herbicida apresentaram maior cobertura de plantas nativas no manejo mais intenso do solo. A maior riqueza de espécies arbóreas foi encontrada no nível moderado de manejo do solo (seis gradagens). Há grande variação para as respostas iniciais em áreas restauradas utilizando a semeadura direta em savanas neotropicais, o que evidencia a importância do desenvolvimento de estratégias que permitam o ganho de escala da restauração considerando o estrato herbáceo.

Palavras-chave: Cerrado, Brasil, estrato herbáceo, ecossistemas não florestais, *Urochloa decumbens*

Abstract

Restoration of old-growth grasslands and savannas is worldwide neglected with the use of practices aimed at forest environments. Especially in the tropics, there is a lack of techniques that also contemplate the herbaceous layer to restore these non-forest ecosystems. We conducted an experiment to restore a savanna using direct seeding with high seed density of trees and fast-growing subshrubs testing different levels of soil management and herbicide for control of exotic grasses in a Neotropical savanna, in Central Brazil. We applied a factorial experimental design combining three levels of soil plowing (three, six or nine plowings) and three levels of herbicide application (none, one or two) after sowing, in addition to the control. We measured soil cover by native and exotic species and necromass. We evaluated trees richness and growth at the end of the first and second rainy seasons after sowing. Herbicide reduced the coverage of exotic grasses, boosting the native vegetation cover sowed. Native species sowed in high seed density were effective in providing extensive soil cover, especially under low exotic grass cover. Plots with no herbicide application presented greater native plants cover under more intense soil management. The greatest tree richness was found in the moderate soil management level (six plowings). There is great variation for the initial responses in restored areas using direct seeding in Neotropical savannas, which highlights the importance in developing strategies that allow upscaling restoration considering the herbaceous layer.

Key words: Cerrado, Brazil, herbaceous layer, non-forest ecosystems, *Urochloa decumbens*

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Introdução geral

A restauração de ambientes naturais ganha relevância no panorama ambiental mundial no contexto em que mudanças antrópicas afligem não somente flora e fauna silvestre, mas causam alterações nos modos de vida moderna (Hobbs & Norton 1996; Suding et al. 2015). A perda de habitats, a fragmentação de áreas naturais, as mudanças nos usos da terra e a sobre-exploração de recursos naturais compõem uma teia complexa de paradigmas enfrentados no tempo presente e potencialmente ainda mais latentes para o futuro (Lapola et al. 2014). Nesse cenário, técnicas que visem a restauração de ambientes naturais tornam-se estratégias-chave para contrapor a degradação ambiental, considerando a integridade ecológica dos ambientes, sua história presente e futura, os efeitos buscados em longo prazo e os benefícios para a sociedade (Suding et al. 2015). Dentre as possibilidades, a intervenção em áreas severamente antropizadas por meio da inserção de propágulos, sementes e mudas têm sido opções com potencial em aumentar a complexidade de ambientes outrora estagnados e promover o retorno de, senão todas, ao menos parte das funções ecológicas locais (Aronson et al. 1993; Oliveira et al. 2015; Palma & Laurence 2015; Pellizzaro et al. 2017).

Considerando que a Ecologia da Restauração é um ramo da ciência que apenas recentemente, e de forma rápida, ganha espaço na literatura, a distância entre a teoria e prática é ainda discutida entre estudiosos. Por um lado, as incertezas quanto ao alcance de metas, tempo requerido para restauração, métricas para parametrização de metodologias e resultados e custos denotam um campo ainda em desenvolvimento científico. Por outro lado, discute-se a necessidade (ou mesmo possibilidade) de se estabelecer metodologias unificadas de restauração que se adaptem às realidades ambientais e de recursos disponíveis e prever resultados quando as particularidades dos ambientes degradados fornecem um leque de possibilidades e requerem manejos especificados (Suding 2011).

A atuação de ecólogos da restauração em projetos de larga escala, bem como o treinamento de profissionais que executam os projetos tornam-se assim a base para o aprofundamento do desenvolvimento da Ecologia da

Restauração. A criação de políticas públicas embasadas em resultados de monitoramentos de campo em longo prazo é a ferramenta para incentivar o ganho de escala da restauração ecológica, unindo a obrigação legal da execução, com ciência e experiências de campo para a tomada de decisão com a melhor relação custo-eficiência (Suding 2011).

Para a restauração de ecossistemas não florestais, as metodologias utilizadas por muitos anos para a revegetação em larga escala compreendeu majoritariamente o plantio de mudas arbóreas (Rodrigues et al. 2009; Veldman et al. 2015a; 2015b), em detrimento do estrato herbáceo. Dessa forma, o método que prioriza o crescimento de árvores e formação de dossel baseado nos princípios da sucessão florestal encontra limitações em ambientes savânicos onde o crescimento desses indivíduos é em geral, muito lento (Hoffmann & Franco 2003; Silva et al. 2015; Silva & Vieira 2017) em resposta ao ambiente físico e à sazonalidade. Como resultado, as áreas em restauração tendem a permanecer em estado de degradação, apresentando baixa cobertura por espécies nativas e em sua maioria, dominadas por espécies exóticas no estrato herbáceo, principalmente gramíneas de origem africana introduzidas para pastagem, mas de comportamento invasor no Brasil e outras áreas tropicais no mundo (Schmidt et al. 2019b).

Para o Distrito Federal, até 2018, a legislação acerca da recomposição de vegetação nativa tratava exclusivamente de indivíduos arbustivo-arbóreos e plantios de mudas, com métodos pré-estabelecidos de preparo de solo, técnica de plantio, manutenção de espécies exóticas e monitoramento da área revegetada por um período de dois anos (Distrito Federal 1993; 2003). O método então aplicado para os plantios de restauração no DF resultava, de forma geral, em uma área com a presença de árvores plantadas, mas sem estratificação com espécies nativas, permanecendo um estrato herbáceo dominado por gramíneas exóticas e muito baixas taxas de regeneração natural (Pereira 2017). A legislação engessada atrelada a um mercado de mudas de árvores nativas com limitação de espécies dificultava o acesso a novas tecnologias de restauração, que contemplassem o estrato herbáceo nativo de Cerrado e o ganho de escala dos projetos de restauração. Em 2018, a proposta a restauração ecológica no DF mudou com a promulgação do Decreto nº

39.469/2018 onde a compensação florestal para permitir o uso de outras metodologias além do plantio de mudas de árvores, e exigir um resultado ao final do período de monitoramento do projeto, que contempla a cobertura nativa, exigindo então que os projetos passem a considerar também o estrato herbáceo. Nesse contexto, a metodologia de semeadura direta de espécies de diferentes estratos ganha importância, por permitir técnica e financeiramente, a instalação de projetos de restauração que cumpram as exigências legais e apresentem eficiência em recompor a vegetação nativa de fitofisionomias abertas de Cerrado.

O método da semeadura direta consiste no plantio de sementes diretamente sobre o solo, neste caso utilizando de diferentes estratos que compõem as diferentes fitofisionomias do Cerrado, de modo a promover a cobertura vegetal de espécies nativas de forma rápida, utilizando alta densidade de sementes sobre um solo previamente manejado de forma intensiva. O manejo do solo compreende gradear integralmente a área repetidas vezes antes da semeadura, buscando minimizar a presença de raízes de gramíneas exóticas invasoras e esgotar o tanto quanto possível, o banco de sementes dessas espécies. Essa metodologia vem sendo utilizada de forma crescente para restauração de áreas de Cerrado (Sampaio et al. 2007, Guarino e Scariot 2012, 2014, Silva et al. 2015, Silva e Vieira 2017, Pellizzaro et al. 2017) e em áreas na transição Cerrado-Amazônia (Campos-Filho et al. 2013; Freitas et al. 2019). No Distrito Federal, a metodologia começa a ser utilizada, embasada legalmente pelo Decreto 39.469/2018 onde ficam estabelecidos os Indicadores Ecológicos para a Recomposição da Vegetação Nativa no Distrito Federal de acordo com Nota Técnica 01/2018 (Distrito Federal 2018b).

Um fator ainda em desenvolvimento para alavancar e garantir a utilização plena do método de semeadura direta como técnica principal de restauração é o mercado incipiente de sementes nativas (Schmidt et al. 2019b). Enquanto o mercado de produção de mudas apresenta tecnificação e em geral produz em larga escala com utilização de mão de obra reduzida (Moreira da Silva et al. 2017), as redes comerciais de sementes nativas no Cerrado ainda começam a se consolidar. Entretanto, se por um lado o plantio de mudas de

árvores apresenta mercado mais sólido, a oferta de espécies é reduzida, concentrando principalmente àquelas de fácil coleta, armazenamento e germinação de sementes e crescimento inicial acelerado (Fernandes et al. 2017). Além disso, o plantio exclusivo de mudas de árvores tende a não cumprir exigências legais no que concerne ao estrato herbáceo de ambientes de fitofisionomias abertas. Dentre as vantagens da semeadura direta, a possibilidade de utilização de espécies dificilmente produzidas em viveiros resulta em um consequente aumento da riqueza e complexidade dos ambientes restaurados (Pellizzaro et al. 2017) e garante exequibilidade de projetos de larga escala, uma vez que insere propágulos em alta densidade sem o custo agregado da produção de mudas em viveiro, além de permitir mecanização do preparo de solo ao plantio (Palma & Laurence 2015; Schmidt et al. 2019a). Somado a isso, a forma de comercialização de sementes nativas inclui a inclusão social de famílias de núcleos rurais a fontes de renda seguras e diversificadas (Schmidt et al. 2019b).

O controle de espécies exóticas em áreas restauradas via semeadura direta representa ainda, outro desafio quanto à permanência das áreas restauradas em estado não degradado. Nas savanas brasileiras a invasão biológica de gramíneas africanas representa perda de biodiversidade do estrato herbáceo, formando um ambiente homogêneo em equilíbrio que não fornece condições de reentrada de espécies herbáceas ou subarbustivas nativas ou de regeneração de espécies arbóreas (Cava et al. 2017). Ao ocupar essas áreas as espécies invasoras formam denso estrato herbáceo pela reprodução eficiente, alta produção de sementes, crescimento rápido, competindo de forma desbalanceada com as espécies nativas (Cava et al. 2017; Coutinho et al. 2019). A utilização exclusiva de métodos mecânicos para o controle de gramíneas exóticas, por exemplo, é dificultada ou mesmo impossibilitada quando são introduzidas as espécies nativas de cobertura (subarbustos e capins). Como o solo fica coberto de indivíduos herbáceos nativos em meio aos exóticos, a utilização de roçadeiras costais fica inviabilizada. O combate manual com enxadas por meio de capinas seletivas de capins exóticos é a alternativa para controle nesses casos, mas requer alto investimento em capital humano e tempo, o que eleva os custos da restauração e tende a reduzir a

escala dos projetos. Assim, é requerido o desenvolvimento de estratégias que promovam o aumento dos benefícios ecológicos e apresente custos financeiros exequíveis (Holl & Howarth 2000; Menz et al. 2013). A utilização de combate químico com uso de herbicidas pode ser nesse cenário, alternativa para o controle seletivo das espécies indesejadas. Estes produtos apresentam alta eficiência em levar as espécies alvo à senescência e efeitos prolongados (Rendina et al. 1990; Severino & Christoffoleti 2004), o que tende a reduzir custos com manutenção de espécies exóticas. Além disso, a aplicação direcionada e o uso de produtos seletivos para espécies/formas de vida permite o controle de espécies exóticas em áreas já semeadas (Fonseca & Camposilvan 1987). A utilização de herbicida na restauração ecológica, porém, é vista com insegurança por muitos envolvidos no processo. Sua utilização em áreas protegidas é restrita e quando possível, requer autorização própria em processo que envolve órgãos ambientais e sociedade civil, sendo permitidos apenas compostos químicos registrados e autorizados para uso não-agrícola (NA). Quando da utilização destes herbicidas, existem riscos eminentes independente da forma de aplicação, como a contaminação de corpos d'água e do solo principalmente devido ao vento e chuva, que têm potencial de promover deriva, lavagem de folhas imediatamente após a aplicação, lixiviação e erosão (Van der Werf et al. 2007; Szöcs et al. 2017). A avaliação do comportamento dos herbicidas é complexa, devendo-se considerar os agentes que promovem seu deslocamento físico e transformação química e biológica (Wood et al. 2002; Chaves & Leite 2015; Lewis et al. 2016). Se por um lado a utilização de tecnologias que permitam a restauração de áreas cada vez maiores e de forma mais incisiva no controle de espécies exóticas requer a transformação de paradigmas e a utilização responsável dos agentes de controle, por outro lado, o uso de herbicidas é requerido principalmente durante os primeiros anos após semeadura. Com o controle anual ou bianual de espécies exóticas antes de seu lançamento de sementes de forma que o banco de sementes no solo não seja realimentado, espera-se controle eficiente para impulsionar o desenvolvimento inicial da vegetação nativa semeada e tornar a comunidade autossuficiente em manter o equilíbrio convivendo com uma baixa cobertura de espécies exóticas.

O estudo aqui apresentado foi desenvolvido na Florestal Nacional de Brasília (Flona), gleba 3, localizada a oeste do Distrito Federal. A Flona é uma Unidade de Conservação (UC) de uso sustentável, conforme Lei nº 9.985/2000 (Brasil 2000), que estabelece o Sistema Nacional de Unidades de Conservação (SNUC), apresentando como alguns dos objetivos de criação, a conservação de recursos naturais para uso e a recuperação ambiental. A área em recuperação possuía originalmente 113 hectares e sofreu degradação pela retirada da vegetação original, caracterizada como cerrado sentido restrito recebendo plantios de *Eucalyptus* spp. durante a década de 80 (ICMBio 2016). Até 2014 a área possuía remanescentes arbóreos esparsos da vegetação pretérita (espécies mais comuns: *Dalbergia miscolobium* Benth, *Aegiphila lhotzkiana* Cham., *Stryphnodendron adstringens* (Mart.) Coville, *Dimorphandra mollis* Benth.), sobre um estrato herbáceo composto densamente de gramíneas exóticas, especialmente *Urochloa decumbens* (Stapf) R.D.Webster (capim braquiária) e *Andropogon gayanus* Kunth (capim andropogon exótico).

Em 2014, a área tornou-se alvo de Compensação Florestal da Agência de Desenvolvimento do Distrito Federal (TERRACAP) regida pela legislação então vigente, os Decretos Distritais nº 14.783/1993 e nº 23.585/2003, que estabelecem a compensação para cada indivíduo arbustivo-arbóreo nativo do Cerrado suprimido, o plantio de outros 30 indivíduos arbóreos nativos do bioma e monitoramento do plantio por um período de dois anos. Assim, em 2014, foi instalado o plantio de 557.000 mudas de árvores, seguindo padrões pré-estabelecidos em Termo de Compromisso firmado entre o empreendedor e o órgão ambiental distrital – Instituto Brasília Ambiental (IBRAM). Para tanto, a área foi preparada para plantio com uma intervenção de revolvimento de solo com grade aradora (28'), recebendo sulcos para demarcação das linhas de plantio com subsolador florestal (profundidade de 80 cm) distanciados 2m entre si e adubação orgânica cama de aviário (8 l/cova), mineral com NPK 04-14-08 (200 g/cova) e calagem (100 g/cova). O plantio, realizado entre novembro/2014 e fevereiro/2015, compreendeu 61 espécies arbóreas de ocorrência em áreas savânicas, florestais e campestres de Cerrado e Amazônia, e apenas parte delas faz parte da flora local (Apêndice 1).

Após o plantio de mudas arbóreas, a área teve a vegetação exótica indesejada manejada por meio de roçagens mecanizadas das entrelinhas (trator com roçadeira acoplada) e semi-mecanizada (roçadeiras costais) das linhas de mudas. Com a adubação exacerbada de plantio, que tendeu a favorecer o crescimento intenso das gramíneas exóticas (Daehler 2003; Lindsay & Cunningham 2011) e as roçagens frequentes, que beneficiaram o desenvolvimento dessas plantas estoloníferas (Liu et al. 2007), a invasão biológica no trecho dificultou a sobrevivência de mudas pela vantagem competitiva. Somado a isso, a palhada acumulada sobre o solo, proveniente das roçagens, favoreceu a propagação de incêndios acidentais e criminosos na área, que também apresentava deposição ilegal de lixo e entrada frequente de animais pastadores, contribuindo para a alta taxa de mortalidade de mudas (Figura 1). De modo que em 2016, o levantamento da sobrevivência de mudas não atingiu o esperado, ficando abaixo dos 10% para toda a área, corroborando que o método então utilizado não foi adequado para as especificidades da área ou das estocasticidades que atingiram o plantio durante a fase de manutenção.

O resultado insatisfatório para o plantio da Flona, com a extrema invasão biológica e baixa taxa de sobrevivência de mudas, exigiu a instalação de um novo projeto na área. Assim, em 2017, previu-se o modelo de semeadura direta de capins, subarbustos e árvores em substituição ao plantio apenas de mudas arbóreas, buscando cumprir exigências legais de Compensação Florestal e atender demandas de restauração ecológica da Unidade de Conservação. O estudo aqui desenvolvido apresenta os resultados para os primeiros 18 meses após as intervenções com manejo intensivo do solo, semeadura direta e combate químico aos capins exóticos. O modelo de restauração então implantado requer o plantio das espécies nativas dicotiledôneas no primeiro ano (2018) e controle de capins exóticos com uso de herbicida seletivo (graminocida) ao longo deste primeiro ano após a semeadura. Os capins nativos são então introduzidos no segundo ano, quando a cobertura de gramíneas exóticas foi reduzida pelo manejo intensivo prévio do solo e controle químico, o que também inviabiliza novas aplicações de herbicida em área total, pela entrada no sistema de espécies monocotiledôneas nativas.

Neste caso, o resultado para a cobertura de capins nativos não é apresentado aqui, uma vez que para o cumprimento do cronograma de trabalho, a logística dos levantamentos de campo se deu em um curto prazo após sua sementeira, resultando em uma cobertura de capins nativos ainda irrisória para a área de estudo à época.

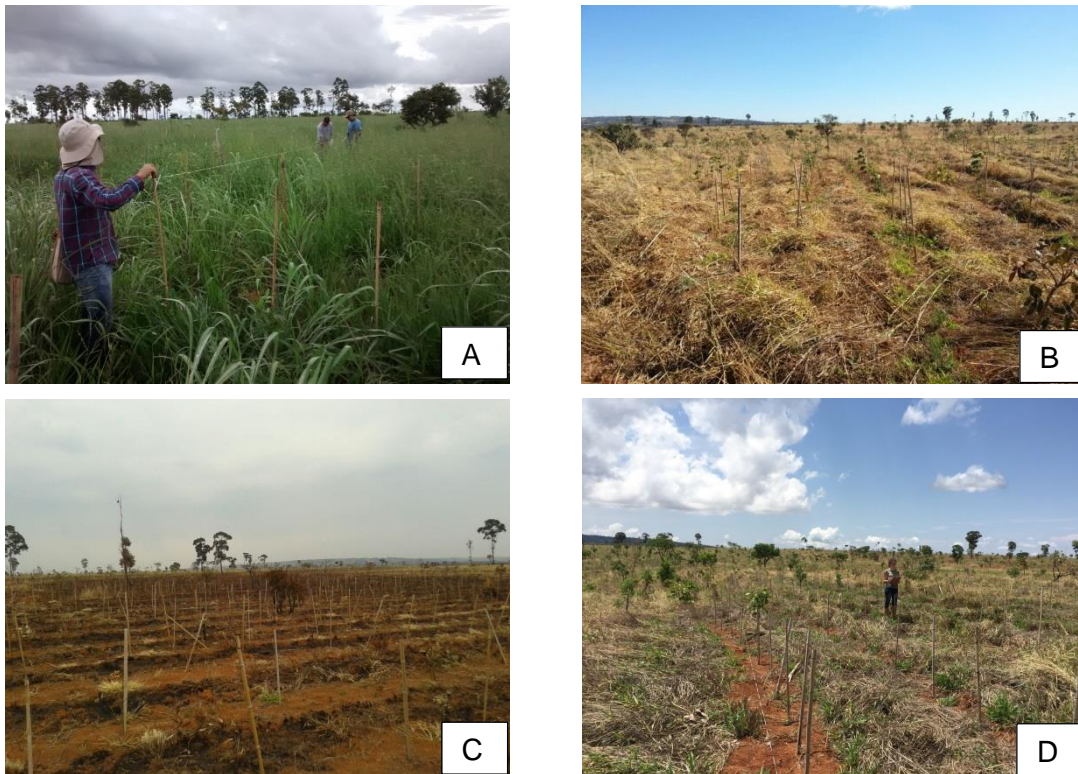


Figura 1. A: Março de 2015: final da primeira estação chuvosa após o plantio das mudas arbóreas. B: Agosto de 2015: área após roçagem e coroamento, durante o primeiro período de estiagem após o plantio de mudas arbóreas. C: Setembro de 2015: área após o primeiro incêndio acidental apresenta alta mortalidade de mudas. D: Outubro de 2015: levantamento da sobrevivência no início do segundo período chuvoso após o plantio de mudas arbóreas.

Objetivos

Diante do histórico da área este trabalho teve por objetivos:

- Avaliar o percentual de cobertura vegetal nativa, exótica e total, em área degradada, após manejo de solo, semeadura direta e controle de gramíneas exóticas com herbicida seletivo;
- Avaliar sobrevivência e crescimento de plântulas de espécies arbustivo-arbóreas ao final da primeira e da segunda estação chuvosa;
- Determinar o melhor nível manejo de solo e número de aplicações de herbicida seletivo para maximizar cobertura e diversidade vegetal.

Hipóteses

- O preparo mais intensivo do solo promoverá o corte mais eficiente das raízes das gramíneas exóticas invasoras e reduzirá mais intensamente o banco de sementes destas espécies;
- A aplicação de herbicida seletivo para gramíneas promoverá o controle mais eficiente das espécies exóticas em duas pulverizações;
- Tanto menor a cobertura de espécies exóticas, maior será a cobertura vegetal de espécies nativas (plantadas, semeadas, rebrotas);
- A maior cobertura de espécies nativas será acompanhada por maior riqueza de espécies nativas.

Testing herbicide, soil plowing and direct seeding to upscale restoration in a Neotropical savanna*

* Artigo submetido para publicação na revista *Restoration Ecology* em junho de 2019, conforme regras do PPGECL/UnB.

Introduction

Techniques that aim to restore large-scale natural environments become key strategies to counteract environmental degradation (Suding et al., 2015). Intervention in severely anthropized areas through tree planting saplings and direct seeding have potential to increase complexity of once-stagnant environments and promote the return of all or part of local ecological functions (Aronson et al. 1993; Oliveira et al. 2015; Palma & Laurence 2015).

Old-growth grasslands and savannas are one of the largest ecosystems in tropical and subtropical regions (Scholes & Archer 1997). Despite that, restoration efforts are concentrated in forest ecosystems around the world and based on the principles of ecological succession through species replacement following an increased limitation of light as canopy closes (Rodrigues et al. 2009; Veldman et al. 2015a). For these open ecosystems, life forms such as herbs, shrubs and subshrubs, besides trees, have different roles for the whole ecosystem functioning (Veldman et al. 2015a). In Central Brazil, old-growth grasslands and savannas dominate a grassland-savanna-forest complex called the Cerrado (Ribeiro & Walter 2008, Schmidt et al. 2019a), which account for 5% of the world's biodiversity (Myers et al. 2000). It is a biodiversity hotspot with about 50% of the original area already converted (MapBiomas 2017). For these areas, the main restoration methods considered only the tree component, neglecting the shrub/herbaceous layer (Veldman et al. 2015a; 2015b), which comprises up to 85% of species richness (Amaral et al. 2017). The restoration on these areas is particularly constricted by biological invasion, especially African grass species introduced as pastures worldwide (Schmidt et al 2019b).

Invasive species can cause changes in the structure of the herbaceous layer of plant communities and reduce biodiversity by competitive exclusion of native herbaceous species (D'Ántonio & Vitousek 1992; Asner & Beatty 1996 Ammond et al. 2013). Additionally, they interfere negatively in the regeneration and recruitment of native woody species by drastically reducing the luminosity

at the soil surface, preventing establishment (Hughes & Vitousek 1993 Hoffmann & Haridasan 2008; Damasceno et al. 2018). The species *Urochloa decumbens* (Stapf) R.D. Webster, *Andropogon gayanus* Kunth and *Melinis minutiflora* P. Beauv. (Poaceae) are invasive alien grass (IAG) from Africa and among the most dominant species in degraded areas of Brazilian savannas and other tropical areas (Zenni & Ziller 2011). Their control in degraded areas is a challenge for restoration and new low cost strategies are being developed, aiming at an efficient control or elimination of exotic grasses. Among these, herbicide use has been considered for exotic control for large-scale restoration programs (Campos-Filho et al. 2013).

In the Brazilian savannas, direct seeding has recently been used to restore degraded areas once it allows mechanization, use of a large number of species, including native shrubs and grasses and presents a lower average cost than the planting of trees seedlings in total area, contributing to upscaling restoration (Campos-Filho et al. 2013; Pellizzaro et al. 2017; Silva & Vieira 2017; Schmidt et al. 2019). Despite advances in restoration of savannas and direct seeding, there are major challenges in developing efficient restoration protocols, especially regarding the control of exotic grasses.

We tested how different intensities of soil management through successive plowings and selective herbicide applications for grasses can reduce IAG cover and increase native vegetation cover in a degraded area during restoration via direct seeding. We expect that (1) IAG cover would decrease with increasing soil management intensity and herbicide applications, and as a consequence, native vegetation cover would increase in these treatments and (2) tree species seedlings would have greater emergence and growth in IAG control treatments due to competition alleviation, and there would be a facilitation relationship between native subshrubs and trees sown.

Methods

Study Area

We conduct the study in Brasilia National Forest, a protected area located 55km northwest of Brasilia, Brazil (15°38'35"S and 48°11'25"W), at an

elevation of 1,120m. The mean annual rainfall is 1,517mm, and 80% of the precipitation falls from October to March. The mean annual temperature is 21°C, with average maximum of 27°C in September and average minimum of 16°C in July (ICMBio 2016). The protected area has 3,071 hectares, and the restoration areas covered 113 hectares. For 20 years, this area has been abandoned after *Eucalyptus* spp. plantations were harvested, becoming predominantly covered by invasive alien grasses (IAG), specially *Urochloa decumbens* (Stapf) R.D.Webster and *Andropogon gayanus* Kunth. The native area adjacent to the experimental site is an open savanna with 873 trees/ha (>5cm diameter at 30cm height) and a basal area of 4.6m²/ha (ICMBio 2016). The soil is a red latosol (oxisol) and in 2014, before the first intervention for restoration, soil analysis indicated more fertile conditions than typical savanna soils in the region (EMBRAPA 1999), probably due to previous soil fertilization and liming (Table 1).

Table 1. Soil analysis previous to planting saplings (August 2014; technical report from Geologica Environmental Consulting) and after soil preparation, direct seeding and IAG control with herbicide (March 2019). Increment from a Cerrado's typical dystrophic red latosol to March 2019. DRL: typical dystrophic red latosol, P: phosphorus, Ca: calcium, Mg: magnesium, K: potassium, Na: sodium, Al: aluminum, H + Al: active acidity, CEC: Cation Exchange Capacity, V: bases saturation, m: aluminum saturation, OM: organic matter.* Freitas & Silveira (1977), ** Ca+Mg (cmol_c/dm³).

Parameter	DRL*	August 2014	March 2019	Increment
pH _{H2O}	4,80	5,30	5,67	15%
P (mg/dm ³)	2,00	1,70	2,07	3%
N (%)	0,06	-	0,25	76%
Ca (cmol _c /dm ³)	0,30**	0,80	0,83	69%
Mg (cmol _c /dm ³)		0,20	0,13	
K (cmol _c /dm ³)	0,03	0,13	0,25	88%
Na (cmol _c /dm ³)	< 0,15	0,04	0,11	
Al (cmol _c /dm ³)	0,80	0,70	0,30	-167%
H + Al (cmol _c /dm ³)	3,90	5,40	4,30	9%
CEC (cmol _c /dm ³)	4,30	6,57	5,63	24%
V (%)	9,00	18,00	25,33	64%
m (%)	> 50,10	37,40	18,67	-168%
OM (%)	1,40 – 2,50	3,35	2,80	11 – 50%

In October 2014, the soil was plowed one time, furrowed and enriched with organic fertilization of 8L of poultry manure, synthetic fertilization of 200g of NPK (04:14:08) and 100g of limestone per cove, following legal obligations (District Decree 14,783/93). After soil preparation the area received 557,000 native tree saplings of 61 species planted in lines every 2m during rainy season (October/2014 to February/2015). These saplings had increasingly mortality rates till peak of 90% in the first 2 years due to factors such as accidental fires, grazing cattle, illegal waste disposal, water shortage during dry season and poor invasive species control. Since restoration was legally required as a form of environmental compensation from previous environmental degradation, restoration efforts remain. In January 2018, direct seeding of native trees and subshrubs was performed in a 50 hectares area, aiming at a higher native cover and to introduce different life forms other than trees.

Experimental Design

Considering the area with the highest saplings mortality rate, we selected 50 hectares to install a direct seeding restoration experiment controlling soil management and biological invasion. We performed an experiment with a nested design, where three levels of soil management (three, six and nine soil plowings) were the parent factor, which had three levels of herbicide application (zero, one or two) to control IAG as the nested factors.

For the soil management treatments, the soil was plowed three (low), six (medium) and nine (high level of intervention) times before sowing, during the dry season and middle of wet season 2017 (May to December). The plowings were made using a 28' plow discs (operating on 25cm depth).

Seeds were collected in a protected area and surroundings 200 km north from the experiment site and acquired from an 80 family's seed collector association, Associação Cerrado de Pé, during 2017. Storage was in masonry sheds in polypropylene bags in the first six months after seed collection and in metal containers for the next three months till sowing. In January 2018, we direct sowed a mixture of seeds of 26 species of trees, shrubs and subshrubs corresponding to approximately 99kg of seeds/ha (Table 2).

Table 2. Species sown by broadcasting using direct seeding organized by growth form. N sown: estimate for number of seeds sown for each species.

Growth form	Family	Species	100 seeds (g)	N sown	Germination (%)
Subshrub	Asteraceae	<i>Lepidaploa aurea</i> (Mart. ex DC.) H.Rob.	0.08 ± 0.03 ^a	5,791,293	10.5 ± 0.7 ^a
	Fabaceae	<i>Stylosanthes capitata</i> Vogel + S. <i>macrocephala</i> M.B. Ferreira & Sousa Costa*	0.27 ± 0.01 ^a	2,430,521	23.3 ± 4.6 ^a
Shrub	Asteraceae	<i>Vernonanthura phosphorica</i> (Vell.) H.Rob.	0.03 ^a	5,191,537	10.0 ^a
	Fabaceae	<i>Mimosa clausenii</i> Benth.	3.16 ± 0.55 ^a	16,614	22.6 ± 12.4 ^a
		<i>Senna alata</i> (L.) Roxb.	5.5 ± 0.28 ^a	14,318	13.0 ± 9.5 ^a
Solanaceae	<i>Solanum lycocarpum</i> A.St.-Hil.	2.78 ± 0.76 ^a	4,091	23.0 ± 20.8 ^a	
Tree	Anacardiaceae	<i>Anacardium occidentale</i> L.	448.43 ^a	1,826	-
		<i>Astronium fraxinifolium</i> Schott	5.66 ^a	23,960	52.0
	Asteraceae	<i>Eremanthus glomerulatus</i> Less.	0.4 ± 0.19 ^a	156,952	32.0 ± 40.9 ^a
	Bignoniaceae	<i>Jacaranda brasiliana</i> (Lam.) Pers	2.73 ± 0.15 ^a	15,065	62.0
		<i>Tabebuia aurea</i> (Silva Manso) Benth. & Hook. f ex S. Moore	1.43 ^b	29,061	6.5 ^g
	Combretaceae	<i>Buchenavia tomentosa</i> Eichler.	113.12 ± 10.77 ^a	2,057	0.0 ^g
		<i>Terminalia argentea</i> Mart. & Zucc.	24.96 ± 0.37 ^a	6,223	0.0 ^g
	Dilleniaceae	<i>Curatella americana</i> L.	1.3 ^c	421,670	29.0 ^a
	Fabaceae	<i>Andira vermifuga</i> (Mart.) Benth.	896 ^d	897	-
		<i>Copaifera langsdorffii</i> Desf.	100.28 ± 9.64 ^a	89	45.5 ^g
<i>Dimorphandra mollis</i> Benth.		17.62 ± 0.37 ^a	4,891	70.0 ^g	
<i>Dipteryx alata</i> Vogel		2259.06 ± 48.47 ^a	345	22.5 ^g	

Growth form	Family	Species	100 seeds (g)	N sown	Germination (%)
		<i>Enterolobium contortisiliquum</i> (Vell.) Morong	45.31 ± 0.81 ^a	12,175	3.7 ± 2.3 ^a
		<i>Hymenaea stigonocarpa</i> Mart. ex Hayne	373.07 ± 101.86 ^a	816	96.5 ^g
		<i>Stryphnodendron adstringens</i> (Mart.) Coville	9.4 ± 0.52 ^a	9,355	17.0 ^g
		<i>Tachigali aurea</i> Tul.	22.02 ± 0.5 ^e	4,510	1.5 ^g
		<i>Vatairea macrocarpa</i> (Benth.) Ducke	142.86 ^a	827	13.0 ± 11.3 ^a
	Metteniusaceae	<i>Emmotum nitens</i> (Benth.) Miers	142.16 ± 34.66 ^f	4,149	-
	Moraceae	<i>Brosimum gaudichaudii</i> Trécul	142.86 ^a	1,681	52.5 ^g
	Sapindaceae	<i>Magonia pubescens</i> A.St.-Hil.	182.32 ± 55.15 ^a	1,097	62.0 ± 38.0 ^a

^a Pellizzaro et al. 2017, ^b Salomão et al. 2003, ^c Carvalho et al. 2011, ^d Ferreira 2014, ^e Mori et al. 2012, ^f Kuhlmann 2012, ^g Germination test for the seed lot used in the experiment.* Commercial variety formed by a mix of *S. capitata* (80%) e *S. macrocephala* (20%).

Soil and vegetation cover

To assess the outcomes of the experiments, we monitored vegetation cover in 20x20m plots (n=4/treatment and 4 control plots where no restoration methods had been applied). We sampled the study plots at the end of the first and second rainy season (June/2018 and May/2019, respectively). In each plot, we established two 20x0.5m subplots where we identified, tagged and measured (plant height) all tree species. To quantify soil cover in these plots, we applied the line-point intercept method (Herrick et al. 2009) in 400 points (every 10cm) along the 20m side of the subplot (Figure 2). We considered three height strata (S1: 0.0-0.5m, S2: 0.5-1.0m, S3: 1.0-1.5m). In each point, we classified plants into functional groups of native species (trees/shrubs and subshrubs) and invasive alien grasses (IAG). We measured every plant found, including sprouts, remnant seedlings (resprouts that emerged after soil management) and seedlings from direct seeding. We classified soil cover groups of straw of IAG, litter of native species and bare soil when no vegetation or necromass occurred. To compare tree growth across treatments, we calculated total height increment by subtracting mean total height from second to first rainy season.

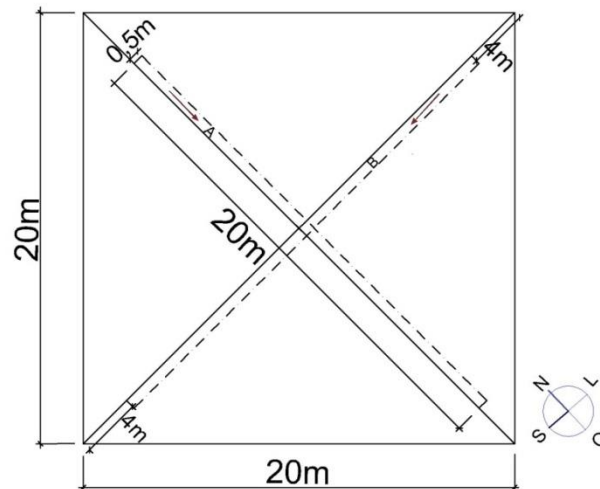


Figure 2. Sketch of diagonals disposition (subplots) of 20 x 0.5 m, within sample units of 20 x 20m. In each diagonal the percentage of native vegetation, exotic and necromass cover, was sampled by the line-point intercept method (Herrick et al. 2009) every 10 cm along the 20 m length and the density, total height and species richness of tree species within the 20 x 0.5 m subplots.

Data Analysis

To determine the effects of soil management, herbicide applications and their interaction on all variables (vegetation and soil cover, richness, density and height of tree species), we used Linear Mixed Effects models. Since the second herbicide application happened by the end of the second rainy season after sowing, we considered seven treatments and a total of 28 study plots for the analyses of the first rainy season (3, 6 and 9 soil plowings crossed with 0 and 1 herbicide application, and the control plots, Table 3). For the analyses of the second rainy season, we considered 10 treatments and 40 plots (3 levels of soil management crossed with 0, 1 and 2 herbicide applications, and the control plots).

All dependent variables, except native, subshrub and straw cover at the end of first rainy season, required adding a variance structure to the model due to heterogeneity of variances. For the post-hoc pairwise comparisons we used Tukey Test at 0.95 significance. Models were fitted using function 'gls' from package 'nlme' (Pinheiro et al. 2019) in R Program (R Core Team 2019).

Table 3. Treatments applied are a factorial combination between soil management intensities and number of herbicide applications. Data collection date (1st: at the end of first rainy season – 5 months after direct seeding; 2nd: at the end of second rainy season – 15 months after direct seeding). Each combination treatment had four 20x20m plots sampled plus four plots for the control.

Herbicide applications	Soil management		
	Low (3 plowings)	Medium (6 plowings)	High (9 plowings)
0	1 st / 2 nd	1 st / 2 nd	1 st / 2 nd
1	1 st / 2 nd	1 st / 2 nd	1 st / 2 nd
2	2 nd	2 nd	2 nd

Results

Soil and vegetation cover at lower stratum

At the end of first rainy season, there was a 72% reduction of the cover of IAG between the sprayed area and the one without exotic control (Figure 3). These differences across treatments remained significant by the end of second rainy season, between the plots with no control of IAG and one or two herbicide applications (Figure 4). The reduction is 61% for the area with one herbicide application and 85% for two sprays herbicide application treatments. Soil management had no effect in the cover of exotic grasses. The control plots showed the highest coverage by exotic grasses, separated from plots receiving all restoration interventions.

IAG control with herbicide increased soil cover by native vegetation. After the first rainy season, considering the treatments with no IAG control, only the plots with low level of soil management presented results similar to the ones treated with one herbicide application (Figure 3). At the end of second rainy season, herbicide application treatments showed 40% higher native vegetation cover than when not controlling exotic grasses. For this, there was no difference between treatments of one and two herbicide applications. The control plots showed the lowest coverage by native vegetation ($3.2 \pm 2.8\%$) compared to the the nine experimental treatments applied ($p < 0.001$).

Decreased IAG cover led to increased native species cover, especially after the first rainy season, but this effect remained by the end of the second rainy season (Figure 5). This native cover was mostly represented by the two subshrub species sowed *Lepidaploa aurea* (Asteraceae) and *Stylosanthes capitata* + *Stylosanthes macrocephala* (Fabaceae) that dominated the ground layer. There was no effect of treatments in relation to tree cover regardless of time of measurement (Figure 3 & Figure 4).

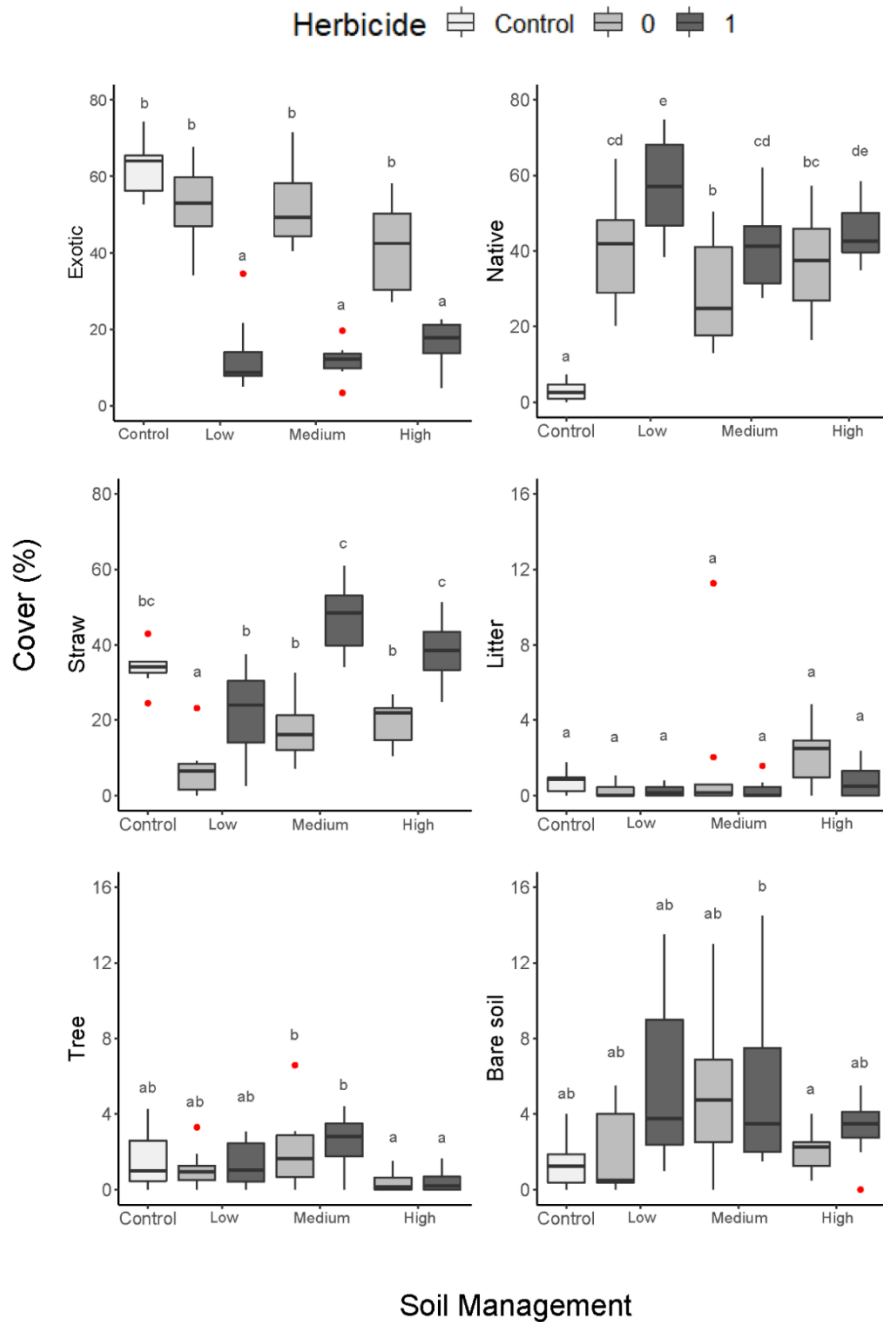
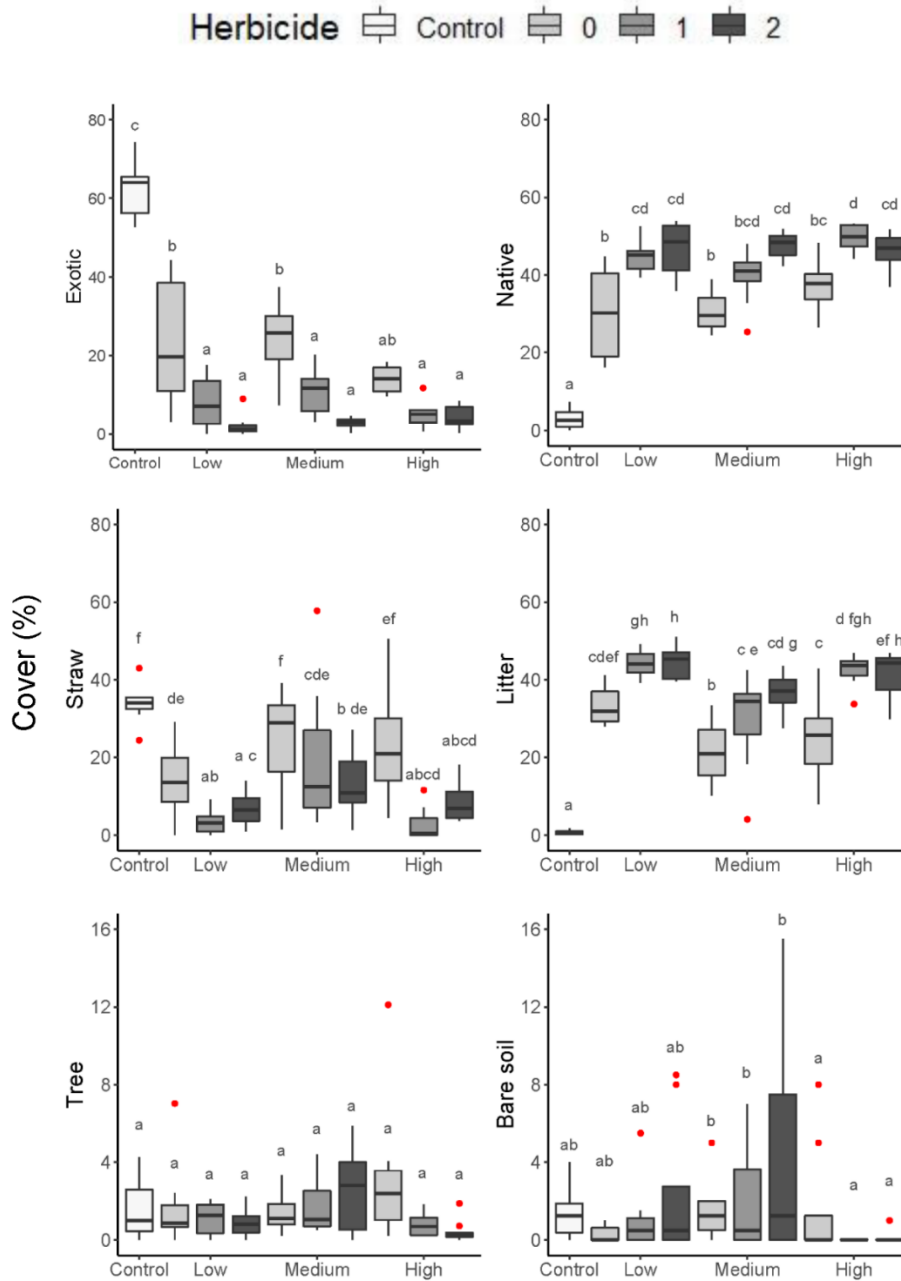


Figure 3. Percentage of soil cover by exotic and native species; IAG straw and native species litter; soil cover by tree species and exposed soil in 28 experimental plots, for the stratum 0.0-0.5m, in treatments of combinations of applications of herbicide and soil management, and control (degraded area without soil preparation, control of exotic species or sowing of native species) at the end of first rainy season. Boxplots based on four observations per treatment show means (central bars), first and third quartile (columns) and 1.5x confidence interval (whiskers). Different letters indicate significant differences between treatments for each group.



Soil Management

Figure 4. Percentage of soil cover by exotic and native species; IAG straw and native species litter; soil cover by tree species and exposed soil in 40 experimental plots, for the stratum 0.0-0.5m, in treatments of combinations of applications of herbicide and soil management, and control (degraded area without soil preparation, control of exotic species or sowing of native species) at the end of second rainy season. Boxplots based on four observations per treatment show means (central bars), first and third quartile (columns) and 1.5x confidence interval (whiskers). Different letters indicate significant differences between treatments for each group.

At the end of first rainy season, straw of IAG (Figure 3) had higher soil cover in treatments with herbicide application. In the second rainy season, there was no pattern regarding this variable. Straw cover was highest in treatment plots with no IAG control with medium and high level of soil management (Figure 4). For litter of native species, during the first rainy season, treatments had no influence on soil cover (Figure 3). However, at the end of second rainy season, in plots with herbicide application, we found higher values of litter cover in low and high level of soil intervention (Figure 4). Percentage of exposed soil was lowest in high level of soil management, after first and second rainy season, with little effect of herbicide applications (Figure 3 & Figure 4).

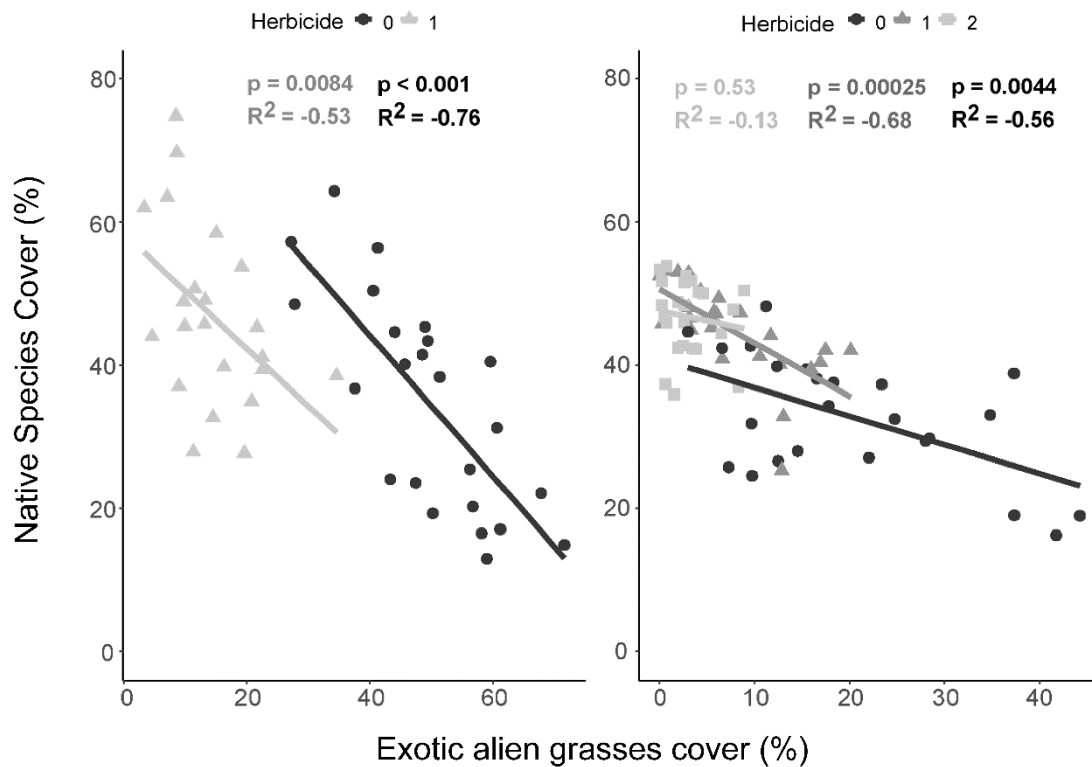


Figure 5. Relationship between native species cover and exotic alien grasses cover (IAG) at the end of first (left) and second (right) rainy seasons. 36 20x20m plots treated with 0, 1 or 2 herbicide applications to control IAG.

Higher strata cover

Height stratification of vegetation cover (S2: 0.5-1.0m, S3: 1.0-1.5m) showed differences between measurements for both strata. There was a reduction on IAG cover from the end of first to second rainy season on S2 (38% decrease, $p<0.001$) and S3 (46% decrease, $p<0.001$). For native vegetation cover, S2 and S3 showed increase in 51% ($p<0.001$) and 62% ($p<0.001$), respectively, from first to second rainy season, with higher native cover found in plots with herbicide application. For S3, at the end of first rainy season, native cover increased with level of soil intervention.

Density, richness and growth of tree species

Overall tree emergence from direct seeding at the end of second rainy season was low, only seven from 24 species emerged, and mean emergence was 12.5% (Table 4). We found richness of 43 species and tree density of 5,083 ind/ha at the end of second rainy season, considering resprouts of remaining trees, planted saplings and seedlings from direct seeding (Table 5). Tree species richness was similar across treatments and higher than in the control plots. There was no effect of treatments on density or total height of tree seedlings. Seedlings from direct seeding had higher height increment than saplings ($p=0.05$). The species with the highest height increment were *Astronium fraxinifolium*, *Enterolobium contortisiliquum*, *Senna alata*, *Mimosa clausenii*, *Anacardium occidentale*, *Dipteryx alata*, *Magonia pubescens* (Figure 6).

Table 4. Tree and shrub species that were converted in seedlings from direct seeding. N 1st: density at the end of first rainy season (ind./ha), N 2nd: density at the end of second rainy season (ind./ha), H 1st: total height at the end of first rainy season (cm), H 2nd: total height at the end of second rainy season (cm), Inc: height increment from first to second rainy season (%), Surv: survival at the end of second rainy season (%).

Family	Species	Growth form	N1st	N2nd	H1st	H2nd	Inc	Surv
Fabaceae	<i>Copaifera langsdorffii</i> Desf.	tree	NA	83.3	-	14.2	-	93.6
Sapindaceae	<i>Magonia pubescens</i> A.St.-Hil.	tree	145.8	125.0	12.7	20.9	64.6	11.4
Fabaceae	<i>Dipteryx alata</i> Vogel	tree	62.5	27.8	13	22.5	73.1	8.0
Anacardiaceae	<i>Anacardium occidentale</i> L.	tree	437.5	125.0	15.9	29.4	84.9	6.8
	<i>Hymenaea stigonocarpa</i> Mart. ex Hayne	tree	NA	55.6	-	23.0	-	6.8
Fabaceae	<i>Senna alata</i> (L.) Roxb.	shrub	770.8	750.0	27	95.9	255.2	5.2
	<i>Enterolobium contortisiliquum</i> (Vell.) Morong	tree	NA	333.3	4.3	19.8	360.5	2.7
	<i>Mimosa clausenii</i> Benth.	shrub	375.0	291.7	34.7	98.5	183.9	1.8
Solanaceae	<i>Solanum lycocarpum</i> A.St.-Hil.	shrub	NA	55.6	-	80.0	-	1.4
Anacardiaceae	<i>Astronium fraxinifolium</i> Schott	tree	145.8	13.9	9.9	70.0	607.1	0.1
Asteraceae	<i>Vernonanthura phosphorica</i> (Vell) H.Rob.	shrub	NA	13.9	-	165.0	-	5.35E-05
Total			1,938	1,875	16.8	58.1	232.7	12.5

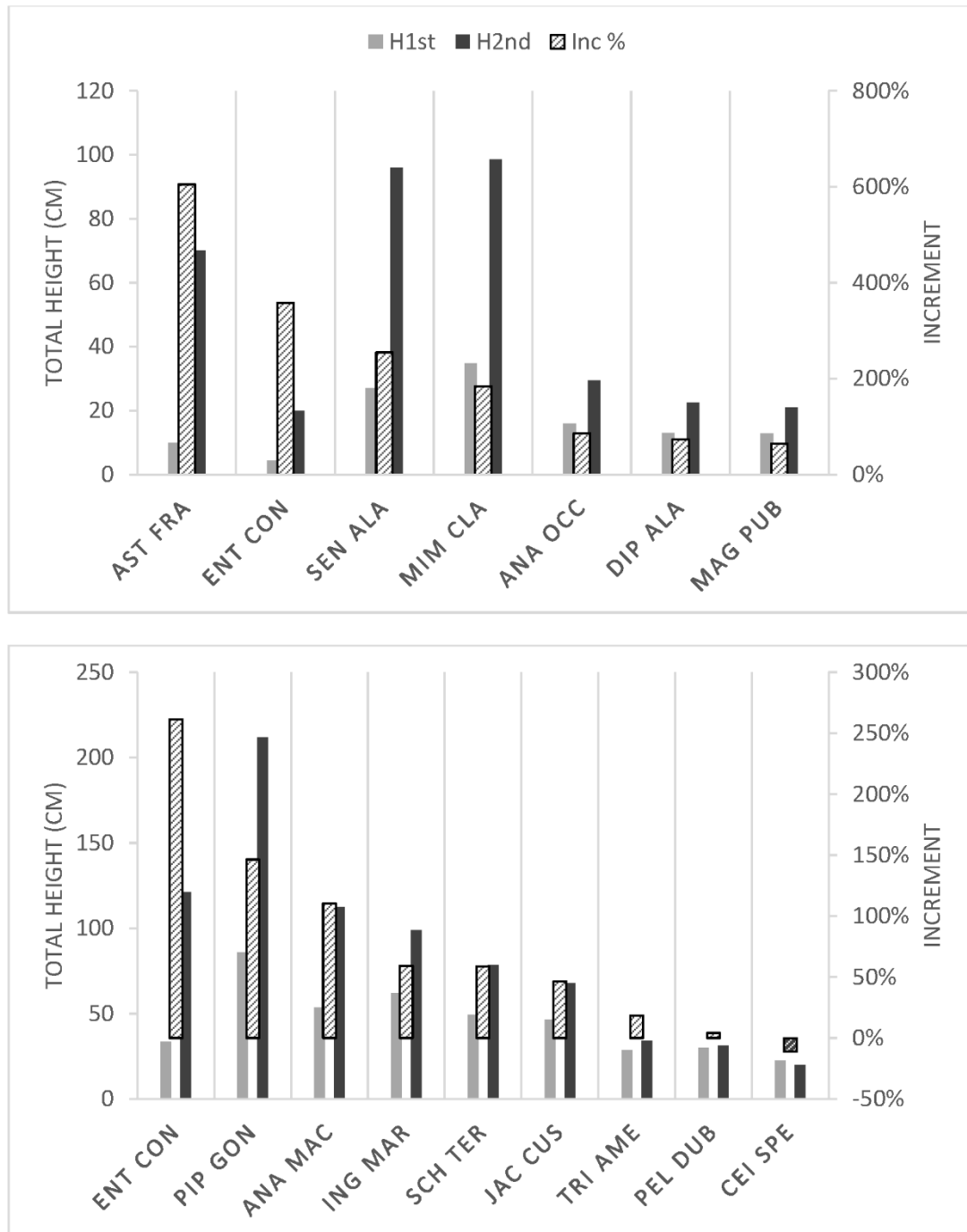


Figure 6. Total height (cm) for seedlings from direct seeding (top) and nurseries (bottom). Gray bars: at the end first rainy season (H1st), black bars: at the end of second rainy season (H2nd), striped bars: height increment (%) from first to second rainy season (Inc %). Top: Ast fra: *Astronium fraxinifolium*, Ent con: *Enterolobium contortisiliquum*, Sen ala: *Senna alata*, Mim cla: *Mimosa clausenii*, Ana occ: *Anacardium occidentale*, Dip ala: *Dipteryx alata*, Mag pub: *Magonia pubescens*. Bottom: Ent con: *Enterolobium contortisiliquum*, Pip gon: *Piptadenia gonoacantha*, Ana mac: *Anadenanthera macrocarpa*, Ing mar: *Inga marginata*, Sch ter: *Schinus terebinthifolius*, Jac cus: *Jacaranda cuspidifolia*, Tri ame: *Triplaris americana*, Pel dub: *Peltophorum dubium*, Cei spe: *Ceiba speciosa*.

Table 5. Phytosociology of the study area at the end of second rainy season for the plots with two herbicide applications. AD: absolut density (ind./ha), RD: relative density (%), AF: absolut frequency (%), RF: relative frequency (%), H: total height (cm).

	Species	Family	AD	RD	AF	RF	H
Remnant seedlings	<i>Anadenanthera macrocarpa</i> (Benth.) Brenan	Fabaceae	257.1	4.92	22.9	3.98	89.1
	<i>Baccharis dracunculifolia</i> DC.	Asteraceae	14.3	0.27	2.9	0.50	86.0
	<i>Bauhinia</i> sp.	Fabaceae	28.6	0.55	5.7	1.00	110.0
	<i>Ceiba speciosa</i> (A.St.-Hil.) Ravenna	Malvaceae	14.3	0.27	2.9	0.50	20.0
	<i>Enterolobium contortisiliquum</i> (Vell.) Morong	Fabaceae	228.6	4.37	28.6	4.98	121.1
	<i>Guazuma ulmifolia</i> Lam.	Malvaceae	114.3	2.19	11.4	1.99	109.0
	<i>Handroanthus impetiginosus</i> (Mart. ex DC.) Mattos	Bignoniaceae	14.3	0.27	2.9	0.50	20.0
	<i>Handroanthus</i> sp.	Bignoniaceae	71.4	1.37	8.6	1.49	64.0
	<i>Inga marginata</i> Willd.	Fabaceae	314.3	6.01	25.7	4.48	98.8
	<i>Jacaranda cuspidifolia</i> Mart.	Fabaceae	128.6	2.46	14.3	2.49	67.8
	<i>Myrcia</i> sp.	Myrtaceae	57.1	1.09	5.7	1.00	43.8
	Myrtaceae 1	Myrtaceae	28.6	0.55	5.7	1.00	90.0
	<i>Peltophorum dubium</i> (Spreng.) Taub.	Fabaceae	57.1	1.09	8.6	1.49	31.3
	<i>Piptadenia gonoacantha</i> (Mart.) J.F.Macbr.	Fabaceae	114.3	2.19	14.3	2.49	211.9
	<i>Psidium guajava</i> L.	Myrtaceae	28.6	0.55	5.7	1.00	30.0
	<i>Psidium</i> sp.	Myrtaceae	14.3	0.27	2.9	0.50	100.0
	<i>Schinus terebinthifolius</i> Raddi	Anacardiaceae	200.0	3.83	17.1	2.99	78.4
	<i>Solanum lycocarpum</i> A.St.-Hil.	Solanaceae	285.7	5.46	28.6	4.98	99.2
	<i>Tapirira guianensis</i> Aubl.	Anacardiaceae	14.3	0.27	2.9	0.50	115.0
	<i>Triplaris americana</i> L.	Polygonaceae	57.1	1.09	5.7	1.00	34.0
	Subtotal		2,042.9	39.1	222.9	38.8	

	Species	Family	AD	RD	AF	RF	H
Sprouts	<i>Aegiphila verticillata</i> Vell.	Lamiaceae	314.3	6.01	37.1	6.47	75.0
	<i>Anacardium humile</i> A.St.-Hil.	Anacardiaceae	114.3	2.19	14.3	2.49	41.3
	<i>Andira vermifuga</i> (Mart.) Benth.	Fabaceae	128.6	2.46	11.4	1.99	22.2
	<i>Baccharis</i> sp.	Asteraceae	71.4	1.37	11.4	1.99	26.4
	<i>Casearia sylvestris</i> Sw.	Salicaceae	85.7	1.64	8.6	1.49	42.5
	<i>Connarus suberosus</i> Planch.	Connaraceae	28.6	0.55	5.7	1.00	25.0
	<i>Davilla</i> sp.	Dilleniaceae	28.6	0.55	5.7	1.00	20.0
	<i>Dyospiros</i> sp.	Ebenaceae	28.6	0.55	2.9	0.50	35.0
	<i>Luehea divaricata</i> Mart. & Zucc.	Malvaceae	14.3	0.27	2.9	0.50	20.0
	<i>Miconia albicans</i> (Sw.) Triana	Melastomataceae	14.3	0.27	2.9	0.50	20.0
	Myrtaceae 2	Myrtaceae	142.9	2.73	5.7	1.00	43.9
	<i>Psidium laruotteanum</i> Cambess.	Myrtaceae	42.9	0.82	5.7	1.00	29.7
	<i>Psidium</i> sp.	Myrtaceae	28.6	0.55	5.7	1.00	71.0
	<i>Sabicea brasiliensis</i> Wernham	Rubiaceae	14.3	0.27	2.9	0.50	150.0
	<i>Solanum lycocarpum</i> A.St.-Hil.	Solanaceae	42.9	0.82	5.7	1.00	133.3
<i>Tabebuia aurea</i> (Silva. Manso) Benth. & Hook	Bignoniaceae	57.1	1.09	8.6	1.49	28.0	
	Subtotal		1,157.1	22.13	137.1	23.88	
Remnant trees	<i>Aegiphila verticillata</i> Vell.	Lamiaceae	85.7	1.64	17.1	2.99	346.7
	<i>Andira vermifuga</i> (Mart.) Benth.	Fabaceae	14.3	0.27	2.9	0.50	190.0
	Subtotal		100	1.91	20.0	3.48	
Seedlings from direct seeding	<i>Anacardium occidentale</i> L.	Anacardiaceae	128.6	2.46	17.1	2.99	29.4
	<i>Astronium fraxinifolium</i> Schott	Anacardiaceae	14.3	0.27	2.9	0.50	70.0
	<i>Copaifera langsdorffii</i> Desf.	Fabaceae	85.7	1.64	17.1	2.99	14.2

Species	Family	AD	RD	AF	RF	H
<i>Dipteryx alata</i> Vogel	Fabaceae	28.6	0.55	5.7	1.00	22.5
<i>Enterolobium contortisiliquum</i> (Vell.) Morong	Fabaceae	342.9	6.56	31.4	5.47	19.8
<i>Hymenaea stigonocarpa</i> Mart. ex Hayne	Fabaceae	57.1	1.09	11.4	1.99	23.0
<i>Magonia pubescens</i> A.St.-Hil.	Sapindaceae	128.6	2.46	22.9	3.98	20.9
<i>Mimosa clausenii</i> Benth.	Fabaceae	300.0	5.74	14.3	2.49	98.5
<i>Senna alata</i> (L.) Roxb.	Fabaceae	771.4	14.75	65.7	11.44	95.9
<i>Solanum lycocarpum</i> A.St.-Hil.	Solanaceae	57.1	1.09	2.9	0.50	80.0
<i>Vernonanthura phosphorica</i> (Vell) H.Rob.	Asteraceae	14.3	0.27	2.9	0.50	165.0
Subtotal		1,928.6	36.89	194.3	33.83	
Total		5,228.6	100	574.3	100	

Discussion

Soil management has been used as a way to reduce the exotic grasses stand in restoration projects in the Cerrado, considering that successive plowings act cutting the perennial invasive grass roots that develop in degraded areas for many years, leading to these individual's elimination. Consecutive plowings also reduces the seed bank of exotic species by stimulating germination after a previous intervention (Carmona 1992; Pellizzaro et al. 2017; Cordeiro 2018). Besides that, more intensive soil preparation creates a fine, aerated, clod-free surface where seeds find more appropriated conditions to germinate (Silva & Vieira 2017). However, for degraded areas that received previous fertilization and liming, preparing the soil for agricultural or silviculture production, soil management alone may not be as effective in controlling IAG. For the Cerrado soils fertilization and liming represent a change in their original low fertility and pH characteristics (Embrapa 1999), making it more complex to control IAG in these more fertile and less acidic soils. Here we showed that soil management even at a higher level of intervention (nine plowings) had little effect on reducing IAG cover, which returns to the areas and again tends to dominate the herbaceous layer. Higher fertility tends to favor growth of more competitive species, especially in degraded to a low level of species richness communities and invaded areas (Daehler 2003; Lindsay & Cunningham 2011; Veldman and Putz 2011). In this context, the elimination of IAG in previously fertilized areas becomes even more complex and could be causing the low effect of soil management over IAG cover.

Herbicide had the main effect on reducing IAG cover. The same result is mentioned for areas in restoration using herbicide IAG control, been reported as a strategy for initial development for revegetation of open natural areas in the world (Masters et al. 1996; Wilson & Pärtel 2003; Hendrickson & Land 2010; Kyser et al. 2013; Thomas et al. 2019). The approach used here is to promote as much grass control as possible before sowing native dicotyledonous species via intensive soil management and, after sowing, to promote IAG control with herbicide on seedlings that emerge or sprout.

Broad soil cover by native vegetation confirms the efficiency of direct seeding in reinserting species of different life forms in areas previously occupied mainly by exotic grasses. Degraded neotropical savannas dominated by exotic grasses tend to stay in a low diversity state up to 25 years after abandonment when restoration method does not account for recomposing the herbaceous layer as well as the tree component of vegetation, by reintroducing native grasses, forbs and shrubs (Cava et al. 2017).

The high coverage of native subshrubs (*Lepidaploa aurea* and *Stylosanthes capitata* + *S. macrocephala*) even in the plots dominated by exotic grasses corroborates the ability of these species in occupying degraded areas and in promote fast soil cover, increasing stratification and richness of the herbaceous layer of areas at early restoration processes. These species are short-lived and considered key in the restoration of Cerrado savannas, when sowed in high seed density, by playing a facilitating role for the establishment of other species sown, mainly trees (Pellizzaro 2016; Silva & Vieira 2017; Coutinho et al. 2019), when competing with exotic grasses during the first 5 years, period in which they persist in the system. *Lepidaploa aurea* is even reported to have allelopathic inhibitory effects on *Urochloa decumbens* (Lopes et al. 2018). Since these species are short-lived, they tend to leave the system, which has to receive other herbs, such as perennial native grasses to promote soil cover and continue the trajectory for the restoration of the herbaceous layer in the area (Coutinho et al. 2019).

Tree species showed slow initial growth, as expected for most Cerrado species (Hoffmann & Franco 2003; Silva et al. 2015; Silva & Vieira 2017). Such reduced initial growth requires the use of strategies to control undesired species during the first years after sowing. Here, we used exotic grass control with herbicide together with high seed density seeding of subshrubs, as a procedure for creating favorable conditions for tree species during early development. Similar strategies have been applied for restoration of forests in western Brazil using direct seeding, inserting filler species, such as green manure, together with species of interest, in order to promote rapid soil cover and reduce development of exotic species when increasing shade on lower layers (Campos-Filho et al. 2013).

The effect of soil management on native cover suggests that when there is no possibility of using herbicide to control IAG, the more intense the intervention level, the better the results in terms of soil cover by native species. The plots with no IAG control showed smaller data variation, especially considering native coverage. The existence of a stable alternative state (Cava et al. 2017; Coutinho et al. 2019) describes this dynamic, where invaded areas tends to limit the development of native species (via unbalanced competition for resources, especially water, space and shading), forming an exotic, dense and homogeneous herbaceous layer for grasslands and open savannas.

Soil cover with necromass (straw or litter) can inhibit invasive grasses by shading their seeds, preventing germination (Silva & Vieira 2017). On the other hand, the generalized coverage of straw can be considered a negative parameter in the restoration when reflecting greater IAG cover. Soil cover showed increase in IAG straw cover with herbicide at the end of first rainy season, but the treatment effect was reduced at the end of second rainy season. The highest cover of straw in treatments with no IAG control at the end of second rainy season is a result of natural senescence of the highest cover of IAG in these plots.

Similarly, litter cover in the first year shows no relation to the treatments, since seedlings, still at early development, did not supply organic matter to the soil in high quantities. On the other hand, in the second year, areas with exotic control, one or two applications of herbicide, showed higher litter cover, suggesting that in these plots there was more vegetative growth of native seeded species than in areas without IAG control.

Considering the high reduction in IAG coverage in higher strata of vegetation, even in the plots where there was no reduction or reduction was minimal in the first 50cm above the ground, it is notable the pattern observed between the first and the second rainy season regarding IAG growth. It is noteworthy that at the end of second rainy season IAG showed a lower vegetative growth, releasing less foliage, but with higher development of the tassel (with flowers and seeds), surpassing the first 50cm from the soil, where the densest cover of native vegetation developed. This reflects the phenotypic

plasticity of IAG to reproduce, even in a precarious state of space, dominated mainly by native subshrubs and with recurrent control with herbicide, corroborating flexibility in behavior in response to interactions with native species and changes in abiotic environment (Mooney & Cleland 2001). For foraging plants, this behavior is described as shade avoidance responses initiated by local and systematic signals (hormonal controls), where is observed elongation responses of stems and petioles (Kroon et al. 2009). Releasing of a high number of propagules is a strategy of invasive species to overcome environmental stochasticity and successfully establish (Simberloff 2009). The development of this grass mainly focused on reproduction, minimizing vegetative development, also impairs herbicide applications on this vegetation, since the high native cover creates an "umbrella effect" on IAG foliage, not allowing the product to reach the leaves (Roux et al. 2008; Colbach et al. 2017), where it is mainly absorbed (Sterling 1994; IUPAC 2019).

The density of tree seedlings (5,083 ind./ha) found at the end of the second rainy season is higher than the tree density reported in natural areas of cerrado (Andrade et al. 2002; Nunes et al. 2002; Assunção & Felfili 2004; Araújo et al. 2012; Aquino et al. 2014). This is an indicative for the evaluation of the restoration in the area, once it reveals the auto regenerative characteristic of the community. High density of seedlings supports the hypothesis of sustainability of the structure of tree community over time, when natural processes of competition and selection must to act on these individuals and that only part of them will reach reproductive age and perpetuate the community renewal cycle (Silva-Júnior & Silva 1988; Pellizzaro 2016). The proportion of seeds converted into seedlings from direct seeding of tree species introduced was lower than the result for the same species in other areas of Cerrado in recovery (Pellizzaro et al. 2017), with 13 species with no appearance in the present experiment.





Figure 7. Restoration development. A) Degraded area and predominance of *Urochloa decumbens* (Jan-2016); B) Area after nine plowings (Jan-2018); C) Aerial photograph showing reminiscent tree individuals (Jan-2018); D) Herbicide application (Mar-2018); E) 2 months after sowing (tree/shrub species: *Hymenaea courbaril*, *Enterolobium contortisiliquum*, *Anacardium occidentale* and *Senna alata*, and subshrub species: *Lepidaploa aurea* and *Stylosanthes capitata* + *S. macrocephala*) (Mar-2018); F) 2 months after direct seeding without herbicide application: both *U. decumbens* and subshrub seedlings of *Lepidaploa aurea* and *Stylosanthes capitata* + *S. macrocephala* emerged from seeds in January 2018 and had amazing differences in vegetative growth 2 months later (Mar-2018); G) Tree sprout of *Kielmeyera coriacea*, subshrub seedlings of *L. aurea* and *S. capitata* + *S. macrocephala* and *U. decumbens* in senescence after herbicide application, 11 months after direct seeding (Apr-2018); H) Aerial photograph evidencing dominance of native sowed subshrubs cover; I) During dry season subshrubs sowed flourish and fructify (Sep-2018); J) Soil cover at the end of second rainy season (May-2019). K) *S. alata* (shrub) and L) *Solanum lycocarpum* (shrub) emerging from dense native subshrub cover (Jan-2019); M) Total height measurement at the end of second rainy season (May-2019).

It should be pointed that even the use of similar restoration techniques can result in different trajectories for areas with different degradation histories or different environmental constraints. In this sense, competition with invasive species, the effects of species priorities and changes in the biophysical environment are potentially determining factors (Suding 2011). In this study, there was a strong reduction in the coverage of exotic grasses, however it is impossible to predict the trajectory of the future land cover for the area when the management actions end. The control of exotic grasses, although only at the beginning of the development of seedlings, favors stems growth of introduced native species or sprouts, boosting later phases of restoration processes (Sampaio et al. 2007). Although it is complex to predict the successional trajectory at the beginning of the restoration process considering the possibilities of bifurcation to undesired alternative stages that may last for many decades, additional adaptive management actions are required for eliminating constrictions and lead to the desired trajectory (Firn et al. 2010; Coutinho et al. 2019).

Restoration of neotropical savannas is still incipient and is often done in an inadequate way, with forest restoration techniques, such as the case of this study area between 2014 and 2016. Overall, herbicide, soil management and native seed addition were all effective in different intensities enhancing native species cover which may facilitate the succession and restoration and reducing IAG in a large-scale restoration project. Exotic species were not extirpated, but two herbicide applications after direct seeding on prepared soil reduced IAG (predominately *U. decumbens*) to a lesser component of the lower ground vegetation replacing them with native species (Figure 7). From this case study and others in progress in the Neotropical savanna, we verified a great variation among areas and for the emergence of seedlings that may be due to several factors, such as climatic variations, seed quality and quantity, competition with IAG, previous degradation conditions, among others. We recommend medium level intensity of soil management and direct seeding of cerrado native species and IAG control with herbicide when legislation allows; when herbicide use is not allowed, more intense soil management is required before direct seeding.

Conclusões e Considerações Finais

O monitoramento em longo prazo de áreas em recuperação é essencial para identificar as ações de manejo adaptativo requeridas para a manutenção das áreas no caminho da autossustentabilidade (Suding 2011). A alta dinâmica em áreas no início da restauração exige a tomada de decisão em tempo, o que requer flexibilidade e conhecimento técnico dos profissionais de restauração. Ao passo que isso dificulta a existência de protocolos padronizados de métodos também cria oportunidades de experimentação e aprendizado.

O cenário de Compensação Florestal no Distrito Federal hoje inclui agências e órgãos públicos e privados, tornando-se fonte para financiamentos de projetos para restauração ecológica e de oportunidades de desenvolvimento de pesquisas e adequações nas metodologias. Nesse contexto, este trabalho, sendo um dos pioneiros em larga escala no Distrito Federal, contribui para a difusão da metodologia de semeadura direta e combate a espécies de gramíneas exóticas com uso de herbicida, consolidando o cumprimento da legislação vigente. O fomento de parcerias governo-acadêmico-privadas conecta diferentes forças de trabalho e financiamento para o aperfeiçoamento de metodologias e expansão da restauração e deve ser incentivada.

Há de se considerar maior flexibilização e incentivo legal às comunidades rurais e tradicionais na coleta de sementes nativas e organização social para comercialização de sementes em larga escala, com maior qualidade de sementes e número de espécies.

São questões que ainda requerem respostas para a restauração de fitofisionomias abertas de Cerrado:

- Qual cobertura máxima de espécies de gramíneas exóticas garante o estabelecimento da vegetação nativa na área e quando é possível excluir o manejo químico com herbicida?
- O custo financeiro de sucessivas gradagens e da utilização de herbicidas (custo aproximado médio para o estudo de caso do experimento é apresentado no Apêndice 2) vale a pena para o ganho de

escala da restauração? Qual o custo ecológico destes manejos? Qual o custo financeiro e ecológico de não as fazer? A utilização de herbicidas pré-emergentes sobre o banco de sementes gramíneas exóticas ou o uso de fogo seguido de dessecação (herbicida de amplo espectro) podem ser alternativas ao manejo intenso do solo quando este for inviabilizado (alto custo ou dificuldades de mecanização) ou o banco de sementes de espécies exóticas for grande o suficiente que exija tantas intervenções no solo que torne o projeto inexecutável.

- Os indicadores ecológicos para avaliação da recomposição da vegetação nativa fazem sentido após quanto tempo de restauração? Para este estudo de caso, a cobertura de vegetação lenhosa nativa (cerca de 3%) apresentou valor muito inferior à norma (30%), após 18 meses de intervenções. A maior parte dos demais indicadores foi atingida logo no primeiro ano de intervenções.
- Como promover implementos agrícolas para a semeadura direta mecanizada que considere os diferentes tipos de sementes e presença de palhada de muitas espécies herbáceas? E de tecnologias para coleta e armazenamento de maior riqueza de espécies arbóreas e de cobertura (subarborescentes e capins)?

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Apêndice 1

Tabela 1. Lista de espécies arbóreas plantadas como mudas em área degradada na Floresta Nacional de Brasília, em cumprimento à Compensação Florestal de 557.000 mudas nativas, conforme Decreto Distrital nº 14.783/1993. *Espécies de origem alóctone à região de plantio; ** de formações predominantemente florestais.

Nome Comum	Nome Científico
Açoita cavalo miúdo	<i>Luehea divaricata</i>
Algodão do cerrado	<i>Cochlospermum regium</i>
Angico	<i>Anadenanthera falcata</i>
Angico	<i>Anadenanthera</i> sp.
Aroeira	<i>Myracrodruon urundeuva</i> **
Babosa branca	<i>Cordia superba</i> *
Baru	<i>Dipteryx alata</i>
Capixingui	<i>Croton floribundus</i> *
Capororoca	<i>Rapanea guianensis</i>
Cedro rosa	<i>Cedrela fissilis</i> **
Chá de bugre	<i>Cordia sellowiana</i>
Chichá	<i>Sterculia chicha</i>
Cigarreira	<i>Senna multijuga</i> *
Canafístula	<i>Peltophorum dubium</i> *
Copaíba	<i>Copaifera langsdorffii</i> **
Dedaleiro / Pacari	<i>Lafoensia pacari</i>
Embaúba prateada	<i>Cecropia hololeuca</i>
Farinha seca	<i>Albizia hasslerii</i>
Farinha seca	<i>Albizia niopoides</i> **
Fedegoso	<i>Senna cana</i>
Figueira branca	<i>Ficus guaranitica</i> *
Gonçalo Alves / Aroeira	<i>Astronium fraxinifolium</i> **
Guanandi	<i>Calophyllum brasiliense</i>
Ingá	<i>Inga</i> sp.
Ingá	<i>Inga vera</i>
Ingá	<i>Inga sessilis</i> *
Ipê amarelo cascudo	<i>Tabebuia chrysotricha</i>
Ipê branco	<i>Tabebuia roseoalba</i>
Ipê felpudo	<i>Zeyheria tuberculosa</i> *
Ipê roxo	<i>Handroanthus heptaphyllus</i>
Jacarandá	<i>Dalbergia miscolobium</i>
Jacarandá bico de pato	<i>Machaerium acutifolium</i>
Jacarandá da Bahia	<i>Dalbergia nigra</i> *
Jacaratiá	<i>Jacaratia spinosa</i> *
Jatobá do cerrado	<i>Hymenaea stigonocarpa</i>
Jenipapo	<i>Tocoyena formosa</i>
Jequitibá	<i>Cariniana</i> sp.**
Jerivá	<i>Syagrus romanzoffiana</i>

Nome Comum	Nome Científico
Juçara	<i>Euterpe edulis</i> **
Lixeira	<i>Curatella americana</i>
Lobeira	<i>Solanum lycocarpum</i>
Mulungu	<i>Erythrina mulungu</i>
Mulungu	<i>Erythrina falcata</i> *
Mutamba	<i>Guazuma ulmifolia</i> **
Olho de cabra	<i>Ormosia arbórea</i> *
Paineira	<i>Eriotheca pubescens</i>
Paineira rosa	<i>Ceiba speciosa</i>
Pata de vaca	<i>Bauhinia variegata</i> *
Pata de vaca	<i>Bauhinia longifolia</i> **
Pau d'alho	<i>Gallesia integrifolia</i>
Pau ferro	<i>Caesalpinia leiostachya</i> *
Pau ferro	<i>Caesalpinia sp.</i> *
Pau formiga	<i>Triplaris americana</i>
Pau pólvora	<i>Trema micrantha</i>
Pitangueira	<i>Eugenia uniflora</i> *
Quaresmeira-roxa	<i>Tibouchina candolleana</i>
Quina	<i>Strychnos pseudoquina</i>
Saboneteira	<i>Sapindus saponaria</i>
Tamanqueiro	<i>Aegiphila verticillata</i>
Tamboril	<i>Enterolobium gummiferum</i>
Urucum	<i>Bixa orellana</i>

Apêndice 2

Tabela 2. Custo médio aproximado por hectare e incrementos para os diferentes tratamentos de manejo de solo por meio de gradagens e aplicações de herbicida. Inc: incremento percentual para o aumento em uma das variáveis enquanto a segunda é fixa. Extraído de Silva (2019) com modificações.

Atividade	#	Aplicação de herbicida			Inc 0-1	Inc 1-2
		0	1	2		
Gradagem	3	R\$ 1.200,00	R\$ 1.821,90	R\$ 2.443,79	34%	25%
	6	R\$ 2.400,00	R\$ 3.021,90	R\$ 3.643,79	21%	17%
	9	R\$ 3.600,00	R\$ 4.221,90	R\$ 4.843,79	15%	13%
Inc 3-6		50%	40%	33%		
Inc 6-9		33%	28%	25%		