

1 Plant community recovery from intense deer grazing depends on reduction of  
2 graminoids and the time after exclosure installation in a semi-natural grassland

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15

16 **Abstract**

17 **Exclosures that exclude** large herbivores are effective tools for the protection and restoration of  
18 grazed plant communities. **However, previous studies have showed that the installation of an**  
19 **exclosure does not ensure plant community recovery.** Our study aimed to determine the effects  
20 of the domination of unpalatable plants and the timing of exclosure installation on the plant  
21 community recovery process in montane grassland overgrazed by sika deer (*Cervus nippon*) in  
22 Japan. In this study we compared plant species composition and their cover with inside and  
23 outside exclosures installed at different times. Furthermore, we also compared them with those in  
24 1981, when density of sika deer was very low. We **used** quadrats inside and outside fenced areas  
25 established in 2010 and 2011 (hereafter, fence 2010, fence 2011, and outside, respectively) **to**  
26 **record** both the cover and the height of species in each quadrat **between 2011 and 2015.** **Plant**  
27 **cover, with the exception of graminoid species, increased in later years in all treatments.** Non-  
28 metric multidimensional scaling (NMDS) plots showed significantly differentiated treatment  
29 trends. The species composition within **the 2010 fenced area** gradually shifted to greater  
30 similarity with the species composition reported in 1981. The plant community in **the 2011**  
31 **fenced area** was slower to recover. **Composition of plant communities outside the fenced areas**  
32 hardly changed from 2011 to 2015. Chao's dissimilarity index decreased over time **between the**  
33 **plant community surveyed between 2011 and 2015 and the past plant community in 1981** within  
34 **the exclosures,** and was higher in **the 2011 fenced area** than in **the 2010 fenced area.** In  
35 conclusion, we show that the reduction of graminoids and the time after exclosure installation  
36 **were** important for plant community recovery from deer grazing damage. A delay in exclosure  
37 installation of one year could result in a delay in plant community recovery of more than one  
38 year.

40 **Introduction**

41 Overgrazing by large herbivore populations exceeding the land-carrying capacity can  
42 reduce plant species diversity and the regeneration of tree species (Rooney & Waller, 2003; Côté  
43 et al., 2004). Fences that exclude large herbivores (exclosures) can increase the diversity of plant  
44 species within the exclosure (Rooney 2009; Yayneshtet, Eik & Moe, 2009), their chances of  
45 reproduction (Shelton & Inouye, 1995; Cooper, 2006), their biomass (Bråthen & Oksanen, 2001;  
46 Yayneshtet et al., 2009), and their heights (Iijima & Otsu, 2018) in some systems in several  
47 geographical regions. These previous studies may suggest that plant communities damaged by  
48 deer will recover to past compositions following exclosure installation and, as such, exclosures  
49 may be essential for the protection and restoration of plant communities.

50 However, in some cases it has been noted that exclosure installation has only a limited  
51 desirable effect on forest understory vegetation restoration (Tanentzap, Kirby & Goldberg,  
52 2012). Severe disturbances (i.e., high intensity, and prolonged grazing and trampling by deer)  
53 caused by the delay in the decrease or exclusion of deer may cause irreversible changes in  
54 ecosystems and shift them to "alternate (stable) states" (Beisner, Haydon & Cuddington, 2003;  
55 Suding, Gross & Houseman, 2004; Tanentzap, Kirby & Goldberg, 2012). More specifically,

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Methods

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76 consumption of plant biomass, reduction of propagules, and formation of recalcitrant  
77 understories are suggested as the factors in the delay of plant community recovery after deer  
78 density reduction (Tanentzap, Kirby & Goldberg, 2012). For example, Tamura (2016) surveyed  
79 the plant community and soil seed bank of a forest understory within and outside exclosures after  
80 the reduction of deer density, showing that the plant community did not recover outside  
81 exclosures even though deer density had decreased. It is believed that the reason for this recovery  
82 failure was a lack of soil seed banks of deer palatable plants outside the exclosure. Therefore,  
83 early installation of exclosures may be important to avoid depletion of seed banks or propagules.  
84 In addition, the study by Nuttle, Ristau & Royo (2014) showed that the dominance of  
85 unpalatable plant species interfered with recovery of plant communities in a forest understory at  
86 least 20 years after deer exclusion. The dominance of unpalatable species under intense grazing  
87 is broadly observed in grasslands and forests in temperate (Beguin, Pothier & Côté, 2011), boreal  
88 (Takatsuki 2009; Nuttle, Ristau & Royo, 2014), and arid zones (Valone et al., 2002). Therefore,  
89 the dominance of unpalatable plant species is also expected to be important for the success or  
90 failure of plant community recovery after exclosure installation.

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91 Previous studies on the effects of exclosure installation on plant community recovery  
92 have compared species composition (Valone et al., 2002) and the densities of forb taxa (Tamura,  
93 2010) among fenced-off areas established at different times. However, these studies examined  
94 restoration at sites that had already been disturbed by herbivores, and may therefore have  
95 overlooked the legacy of grazing effects on the plant communities. Restoration success should be  
96 measured in relation to the vegetation in reference sites at which the reconstruction effort is  
97 aimed (SER, 2004). The reference sites should contain primary vegetation that has not been  
98 subjected to overgrazing by large herbivores.

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99 Many deer palatable species like forbs inhabit semi-natural grasslands (Cousins &  
100 Lindborg, 2008; Otsu et al., 2017), which have been maintained by mowing and burning. The  
101 sika deer (*Cervus nippon*) population, which has increased since the 1980s in Japan, has caused a  
102 decrease due to grazing in grassland specialist species in grassland communities (Otsu, Hoshino  
103 & Matsuzaki, 2011). Furthermore, the total grassland area, which had covered 50% to 70% of  
104 Japan's total land area in the 1650s, decreased to less than 1% by the early 2000s (Ogura, 2006)  
105 because of abandonment and conversion in land use, which are common with European regions  
106 (Steiner et al., 2016). Such grassland decrease in Japan had never been occurred during past  
107 100000 years (Yamaura et al., 2019). Therefore, the protection of grassland specialist species in  
108 semi-natural grasslands from deer herbivory has become an increasingly urgent issue (Okubo,  
109 2002).

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110 The aim of this study was to determine what factors relate to the plant community  
111 recovery process after the installation of deer exclosures in a semi-natural grassland damaged by  
112 deer. We focused on the effects of timing of exclosure installation and the dominance of  
113 unpalatable species by surveying the cover of plants in a semi-natural grassland in Japan where  
114 deer exclosures were installed, and comparing the observed species composition with the known

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past plant community, i.e., that hardly affected by sika deer, sampled in 1981. Using our findings, we put forward **recommendations** for restoration projects in semi-natural grasslands.

## Materials & Methods

### Study site

The study site was at 2,003 m elevation on Mt. Kushigata (summit elevation: 2,053 m above sea level [a.s.l.]; Yamanashi Prefecture, Central Japan) in a cool-temperate zone where the mean annual precipitation and temperature (at the nearest meteorological station [Oizumi, 867 m a.s.l.]) were *ca.* 1,140 mm and 10.7 °C, respectively. The mean annual temperature at the summit of Mt. Kushigata was *ca.* 3.5 °C.

Patches (5.5 ha) of semi-natural grassland at the site were previously dominated by *Iris sanguinea* (Table S1). The patches were surrounded by *Larix kaempferi* and plantations and fragmented natural forests dominated by subalpine coniferous stands containing *Abies veitchii* and *Tsuga diversifolia*. In the past, these semi-natural grasslands were mown by the local populace (J. Imakiire, personal communication), but had been abandoned for more than 35 years at the time of this study (M. Ishihara, personal communication). This grassland is famous as a place to view various wild flowers and owned by Yamanashi prefecture (our institution). In this area, sika deer density in 2010 had been linearly increasing from 7.6/km<sup>2</sup> in 2005 to 21.5/km<sup>2</sup> (Iijima & Ueno, 2016). Thereafter, the mean density  $\pm$  standard deviation of sika deer in the period 2011–2014 was  $22.8 \pm 0.5$ /km<sup>2</sup> (Iijima & Ueno, 2016).

### Field survey

In the summer of 1981, the Science Club at Koma High School examined the vegetation in the grassland patch we studied (Koma High School, 1986). The club deployed 24 precisely measured 1  $\times$  1 m quadrats in a grassland typically dominated by *I. sanguinea* and sampled the vegetation inside the frames using Braun-Blanquet phytosociological procedures (Braun-Blanquet, 1964). The identification of species was checked by a professional researcher (E. Ohkubo). **Deer distribution had not been confirmed in 1979, but was confirmed in 2003 in this area (Biodiversity Center of Japan, 2004), although these quadrats were not fenced at the time. Thus, we considered the species composition in 1981 to be representative of the vegetation before the beginning of heavy sika deer grazing.**

In October 2010, the Minami-Alps City Government installed a 60  $\times$  60 m fence, which reached a height of 2 m, to protect vegetation from deer grazing. The following year, the Yamanashi Forest Research Institute installed a 20  $\times$  25 m fence adjacent to the first fence because of heavy grazing at the site. Both fences were located on open and homogenous land with a 20 degree slope and were about 10 m from the edge of the forest, so that topographical conditions were similar for both fenced areas. We studied the vegetation in three treatments: (i) inside the fence installed in 2010 (hereafter, fence 2010); (ii) inside the fence installed in 2011 (hereafter, fence 2011); and (iii) outside both fences (hereafter, outside). **We deployed 22, 1  $\times$  1-m quadrats inside the exclosures (fence 2010, 10 quadrats; fence 2011, 12 quadrats), and 10**

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161 quadrats were established outside. All of the treatments were located within 20–30 m of the  
162 quadrats deployed in the Koma High School study.

163 We recorded the cover, and the maximum height of species occurring in each of the  
164 quadrats in August of each year from 2011 to 2015 (five years total). Cover was evaluated using  
165 the Braun-Blanquet scale (Braun-Blanquet, 1964).

### 167 Statistical analysis

168 The Koma High School study recorded only species with a cover score of  $\geq 1$  on the  
169 Braun-Blanquet scale (Braun-Blanquet, 1964). We adopted the same procedure for this analysis  
170 to enable good comparison between past and present conditions. Responses to grazing differ  
171 among life form groups (Sternberg et al., 2000; Dupré & Diekmann, 2001). In particular,  
172 graminoids were suggested to be tolerant to grazing in many studies (Pellerin, Huot & Côté,  
173 2006; Mysterud, 2006; Rooney, 2009). Accordingly, we categorized species identified in the  
174 quadrats into five life form groups: graminoids; monocots other than graminoids (hereafter,  
175 monocots); dicot herbs (hereafter, dicots); ferns; and woody plants.

176 Firstly, we used a cumulative link mixed model (CLMM) with a logit link function to  
177 examine the effects of treatments (i.e., fence 2010, fence 2011, and outside) the year after  
178 exclosure installation (hereafter, the protected year), the life form of each species, and the  
179 interaction between the life form of each species and the protected year on species cover. The  
180 CLMM included each site and each year as random effects. The coefficients of the treatment and  
181 the life form were estimated when the coefficients of fence 2010 and graminoid were set as 0.  
182 The CLMM was performed by the “ordinal” package (Christensen, 2018) of software R (R Core  
183 Team, 2018).

184 Next, we examined the differences in plant community composition among treatments.  
185 We calculated the Chao dissimilarity index (Chao et al., 2005) to compare species composition  
186 in 1981 with data for the years from 2011 to 2015 across the combination of quadrats in each of  
187 the three areas. The index was used as a measure of the degree of species composition  
188 restoration. The Chao dissimilarity index was designed to consider unseen shared species using  
189 (replicated) abundance-based sampling data (Chao et al., 2005) and was therefore considered  
190 appropriate for our datasets, which excluded species with a cover score of  $< 1$  on the Braun-  
191 Blanquet scale, assumed as unseen rare species. We examined the ordination diagrams to  
192 evaluate species composition in 1981 and from 2011 to 2015 by non-metric multidimensional  
193 scaling (NMDS) using the Chao dissimilarity index to compare changes in species composition  
194 between treatments. NMDS was performed using the “vegan” package (Oksanen et al., 2018) of  
195 software R (R Core Team, 2018).

196 We examined the effects of the treatments, the protected year, and the mean cover of  
197 graminoids on the Chao dissimilarity index by a generalized linear mixed model (GLMM) with  
198 beta error distribution and a logit link function. The GLMM included each site and each year as  
199 random effects. The coefficient of treatment was estimated when the coefficient of fence 2010

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210 was set as 0. The GLMM was performed by the “glmmTMB” package (Brooks et al., 2017) of  
211 software R (R Core Team, 2018).

212 For the CLMM and GLMM, we calculated the Akaike information criterion (AIC) with  
213 all possible combinations of explanatory variables. We considered the model with the lowest  
214 AIC as the most predictive model and with the explanatory variable(s) with significant effect(s)  
215 on the response variable.

216

217 **Results**

218 **The past and recent plant community**

219 We found 56 plant species (37 dicots, 11 graminoids, 3 monocots, 2 ferns, and 3 woody  
220 plants) in all quadrats (Table S1). The total number of species identified in 1981 was 24 (Table  
221 S1), and the plant community was characterized by the dominance of a monocot (*Iris sanguinea*)  
222 and of dicots (*Serratula coronata* var *insularis*, *Geranium eriostemon* var *reinii*, *Veronicastrum*  
223 *sibiricum*, and *Senecio cannabifolius*). In particular, the monocot *Iris sanguinea* was highly  
224 dominant (Table S1).

225 The mean cover of each life form group differed among treatments and years (Fig. 1).  
226 Generally, in 2011 graminoids dominated regardless of treatments, and the plant community in  
227 2011 differed greatly from the plant community observed in 1981. Beginning in 2012, monocots,  
228 ferns, and woody plants emerged in fence 2010. Monocots and woody plants also emerged in  
229 fence 2011 from 2014 onward. In contrast, quadrats of the outside treatment were dominated by  
230 graminoids and dicots, and no other life form species was noted during the study period. CLMM  
231 analysis on the cover of plants with the lowest AIC was calculated for the protected year, the life  
232 form, and the interaction between the protected year and the life form (Table 1, Table S2). The  
233 results suggest that the effect of treatment on cover was not significant. Graminoid cover was the  
234 highest among the life form groups (Table 1). Plant cover of all life form types, except  
235 graminoids, increased within the enclosures over time. The coefficients of the interaction term  
236 between the protected year and the life form were positive with the exception of graminoids  
237 (Table 1).

238

239 **Changes in species composition and community structure**

240 NMDS showed remarkably different trends in plant community composition among  
241 treatments (Fig. 2). Species composition in fence 2010 gradually became more similar to  
242 composition recorded in 1981 (Fig. 2). The species composition in fence 2011 also became  
243 similar to the composition of 1981, but recovery was slower in fence 2011 than in fence 2010  
244 (Fig. 2). The species composition in the outside treatment remained mostly unchanged from  
245 2011 to 2015 (Fig. 2).

246 The trend of plant community change was reflected in the dissimilarity indices.  
247 Dissimilarity indices of all treatments were high in 2011 (Fig. 3). However, the dissimilarity  
248 index of fence 2010 tended to decrease each year, while the dissimilarity index of fence 2011  
249 remained unchanged at a high level until 2013 and then decreased after 2014. In 2014, monocots

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261 and woody plants recovered in fence 2011 (Table 1, Fig. 1). The indices **computed from samples**  
262 outside **the exclosures** rarely changed during the study period (Fig. 3). The GLMM **of the**  
263 dissimilarity index with the lowest AIC **contained** all explanatory variables (**Table S3**). The  
264 dissimilarity index was lower in fence 2010 than in both fence 2011 and outside (Table 2).  
265 Furthermore, the dissimilarity index decreased over time with protected year and a decrease in  
266 mean cover of graminoids (Table 2).

267 Forb species (i.e., dicots and monocots) were not as tall as the graminoids in many  
268 quadrats regardless of the treatments in 2011 (Fig. 4), and forb species in outside remained  
269 shorter than the graminoids in 2015 (Fig. 4). However, in most of the quadrats of fences 2010  
270 and 2011, the heights of the forb species exceeded those of the graminoids in 2015 (Fig. 4).

## 272 Discussion

### 273 Different response of cover to exclosure installation among life form groups

274 Exclusion of large herbivores from areas can alter plant cover (e.g., decrease the  
275 abundance of graminoids and increase the abundance of forbs [Austrheim et al., 2008; Rooney,  
276 2009]). In this study, we also found that plant cover of all life form groups except graminoids  
277 increased with time after exclosure (Table 1). The domination of graminoids outside the  
278 exclosure (Fig. 1) reflects the **tolerance** of graminoids to deer grazing. **The short stature,**  
279 **intercalary meristems, high shoot densities, and capacity for compensatory growth enable**  
280 **graminoids to tolerate herbivory, giving them a competitive advantage over forb species in**  
281 **heavily grazed environments (Rooney, 2009; Iijima & Otsu 2018).** Then, when grazing pressure  
282 is removed, forb species can regenerate from underground organs or seeds that are scattered from  
283 the surrounding habitat.

284 It should be noted that some forb species also existed and increased in cover in outside  
285 (Table S1) where plants are exposed to deer grazing. Protection by abundant graminoids may be  
286 one of the factors that the some forb species could survive in outside. It is known that  
287 unpalatable or grazer tolerant species cover and protect neighbouring palatable species from  
288 herbivores (Milchunas & Noy-Meir, 2002; Callaway et al., 2005). Graminoids are very tolerant  
289 to grazing (Pellerin et al., 2006; Myrsetrud, 2006; Rooney, 2009), which could explain their high  
290 abundance in outside (Table 1). In turn, the high abundance of graminoids in outside may have  
291 facilitated survival of forb species and their colonization outside the fences.

292 Furthermore, some forbs may be protected from deer grazing by their diminutive size  
293 (Bullock et al., 2001; Diaz, Noy-Meir & Cabido, 2001; Lavorel, McIntyre & Grigulis, 2009) or  
294 rosette form (Kahmen, Poschlod & Schreiber, 2002; Lavorel, McIntyre & Grigulis, 2009; de  
295 Villalobos & Zalba, 2010). We found that species either not occurring or occurring at low  
296 abundance in the original vegetation (diminutive species, such as *Potentilla freyniana*, and  
297 rosette species such as *Senecio flammeus* var *glabrifolius*) were frequent in outside (Table S1).

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## Determining factors for the plant community recovery process

Plant community recovery was inhibited by high cover of graminoids (Table 2). Although unpalatable plants cover palatable plants, as stated above, the facilitative effect would have been partly counterbalanced by a negative competitive interaction, whereby the graminoids would have shaded the forbs and prevented them from achieving high abundances. In fact, the heights of forbs were lower than those of graminoids in outside, while in 2015 the heights of forbs were higher than those of graminoids in enclosed areas (Fig. 4). Forb species in outside did not appear to contribute significantly to whole plant community recovery, suggesting that the domination of unpalatable plants can delay plant community recovery.

Although the dominance of browsing-tolerant species could slow or halt plant community recovery (Royo, Stout, deCalesta & Pierson, 2010; Nuttle, Ristau & Royo, 2014), in this study we observed that plant community recovery progressed over time after exclosure installation (Table 2). At the beginning of this survey there were still other plant species, such as monocots and dicots, in our research site (i.e., 2011, Fig. 1). The remaining palatable species at fence installation are suggested to be important for the successful recovery of the plant community after exclosure installation. Furthermore, although dicots did not exist in fence 2011 until 2013, dicots recovered in fence 2011 in 2014 (Fig. 1), resulting in a decreased dissimilarity index (Fig. 3).

Because we considered the effect of protected year and the random effect of each quadrat location simultaneously, early installation of exclosures may also be important to plant community recovery. The restoration of monocots including *I. sanguinea*, but excluding graminoids, seemed to be largely precluded by a one year delay in exclosure installation (Fig. 1; Table S1). Forbs (including monocots) are relatively palatable to sika deer (Takatsuki 1986), and geophytes – such as members of Liliaceae, Orchidaceae, and Iridaceae – are vulnerable to grazing (Dupré & Diekmann, 2001; Dorrough & Scroggie, 2008; Fernández-Lugo et al., 2013). In fact, when we set fence 2011, we observed heavy grazing at the site where the fence was going to be set (C. Otsu, unpublished data). Thus, both sika deer preferences for monocots other than graminoids and the poor anti-grazer defences of these plants may make their recovery difficult. At our study site, delays in the restoration of *I. sanguinea* (the most abundant species before the increase of the sika deer population) may also have caused delays in the restoration of overall community species composition (Nagaike, Ohkubo & Hirose, 2014).

## Conclusions

Our study showed that plant community recovery from deer grazing damage depends on the reduction of graminoids and the time after exclosure installation in a semi-natural grassland. Specifically, a delay in exclosure installation of one year could result in a delay in plant community recovery of more than one year. Therefore, early fence installation is recommended for plant community recovery.

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