

1 Article

# 2 Influence of invasive species on ecological succession 3 routes in disturbed seasonal dry tropical forests in 4 southeastern Mexico.

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16

17 **Abstract:** Understanding the role of invasive species in ecosystem functioning represents one of the  
18 main challenges in ecology. *Pteridium aquilinum* is a successful cosmopolitan invasive species with  
19 negative effects on the ecological mechanisms that allow secondary succession. In this study we  
20 evaluated whether *P. aquilinum* favours the establishment of alternative states, as well as the effect of  
21 recovery strategies on the secondary succession. A random stratified sampling was established with  
22 three treatments, each one with at least 50 year of fern invasion and with variations on the periodicity  
23 of fires and cuttings (chapeos) vs one control without fern bracken We determined the species  
24 richness and composition, as well as the relative importance value (IVI) in each treatment. We found  
25 that *P. aquilinum* decreases the action of the mechanisms that allow secondary succession, particularly  
26 facilitation. The recovery strategies consist in monthly cuttings and control fires allow to recover the  
27 secondary succession and eventually, the regeneration of areas invaded by *P. aquilinum*. Our study  
28 has relevant implications on the ecology of alternative state, and in practical strategies to maintain  
29 tropical forests, as well as for the maintenance of environmental services and sustainability.

30 .

31 **Keywords:** Alternative states; secondary succession; tropical dry forest; *Pteridium aquilinum*.

32

## 33 1. Introduction

34 One of the great challenges for the conservation of biodiversity is the control of invasive species. It  
35 has been widely documented that the introduction of exotic or invasive species has negative  
36 implications on the dynamics of ecosystems through the modification of the composition and  
37 decrease in species richness with effects on ecological interactions (intra and interspecific), and effects  
38 on competition and facilitation, among others [1–5]. It has been observed that invasive species  
39 indirectly modify the physical-chemical properties of the soil, affecting the accumulation of organic  
40 matter, nutrients cycling, and they can influence the frequency and intensity of fires [6,7]. It is  
41 estimated that the introduction of invasive species and the change of land use are the main threats to

42 ecosystem services and species diversity in the world [8,9] and are considered one of the main  
43 promoters of the greatest extinction of species in the last century [10].

44 Disturbance is associated with the dynamics of tropical forests, being the result of the recent and  
45 historical disturbance regimes [11]. Through the process of secondary succession, attributes of  
46 structure and composition can be recovered after disturbances at different spatio-temporal scales,  
47 such as hurricanes, fires, felling, agricultural agriculture or livestock [11–13]. However, it has been  
48 observed that secondary succession is one of the processes that is mainly affected by the introduction  
49 of invasive species. It has been observed that the introduction of invasive species can modify the  
50 patterns of dominance and establishment of species from the initial phase of succession [14].  
51 Moreover, the introduction of non-native species can alter the composition of soil microorganisms  
52 [6,7], as well as (alterations of the biological factors, and the physical-chemical environment [14]; and  
53 generate a new *status quo* inside of the plant community that lead to the establishment of an  
54 alternative state which affects the feedback processes returning to the original state [15–17]. .

55 The theory of alternative stable states (SSA) predicts that ecosystems can exist in multiple states under  
56 the same external environmental conditions, transiting from a stable state from disturbance events  
57 where state variables (e.g. composition of species) change [18]. A stable ecosystem has enough  
58 resistance to remain unchanged. From the perspective of restoration ecology, degraded communities  
59 can be seen as stable (quarries, mine sites, communities invaded for exotic species) and will not  
60 change unless a force is applied that reactivates, accelerates and directs the succession path.

61 *Pteridium aquilinum* (L.) Kuhn is considered one of the most successful global invasive species. Its  
62 distribution is related to processes of land use change derived from human activities, e.g. agricultural  
63 and livestock activities [19]. This species is particularly successful when light is not a limiting resource  
64 [20,21]. Due to its mechanism of dispersal by spores, its allelopathic characteristics, and its ability to  
65 tolerate a wide range of environmental and soil conditions have helped to colonize almost all  
66 terrestrial ecosystems, except for deserts [22,23]. Additionally, through the creation of a physical  
67 barrier generated by the density of its canopy it hinders the establishment of native species [24].  
68 Similarly, it has been observed that the accumulation of biomass from the dry fronds of individuals  
69 modifies the frequency and intensity of fires [25,26]. This exhausts the seed bank and limits the  
70 growth of seedlings [27]. Finally, the lack of competitors for limiting resources [28], and the absence  
71 of pests and herbivory, their resistance to fire due to their ability to regrow from their rhizomes, give  
72 them strategic advantages over native species [29]. Studies from Brazil, Ecuador, the Dominican  
73 Republic and Rwanda found that former agricultural active regions are currently disabled due to the  
74 interruption of secondary succession processes [30–33]. In Mexico, most of the studies have been  
75 carried out in the south, mainly in the states of Quintana Roo, Campeche and Oaxaca [21,34].  
76 Likewise, it has been observed that, the lack of strategies for their control, can generate a substantial  
77 growth in a relatively short time, for e.g. Schneider and Fernando, [35] found that their coverage  
78 increased between 1982 and 2010, from 40 km<sup>2</sup> to 80km<sup>2</sup>. It was also observed that landscapes with  
79 invaded areas are less productive, have a reduced biological diversity and show severe impacts in  
80 the socio-economic dynamics of the affected regions, because the areas cannot be used by the owners  
81 [21,34,36]. Currently there are insufficient studies that have been developed in seasonally dry tropical  
82 forests that provide information on the historical effect and management of areas invaded by *P.*  
83 *aquilinum*, and its impact on richness and floristic composition, and their influence on succession. We

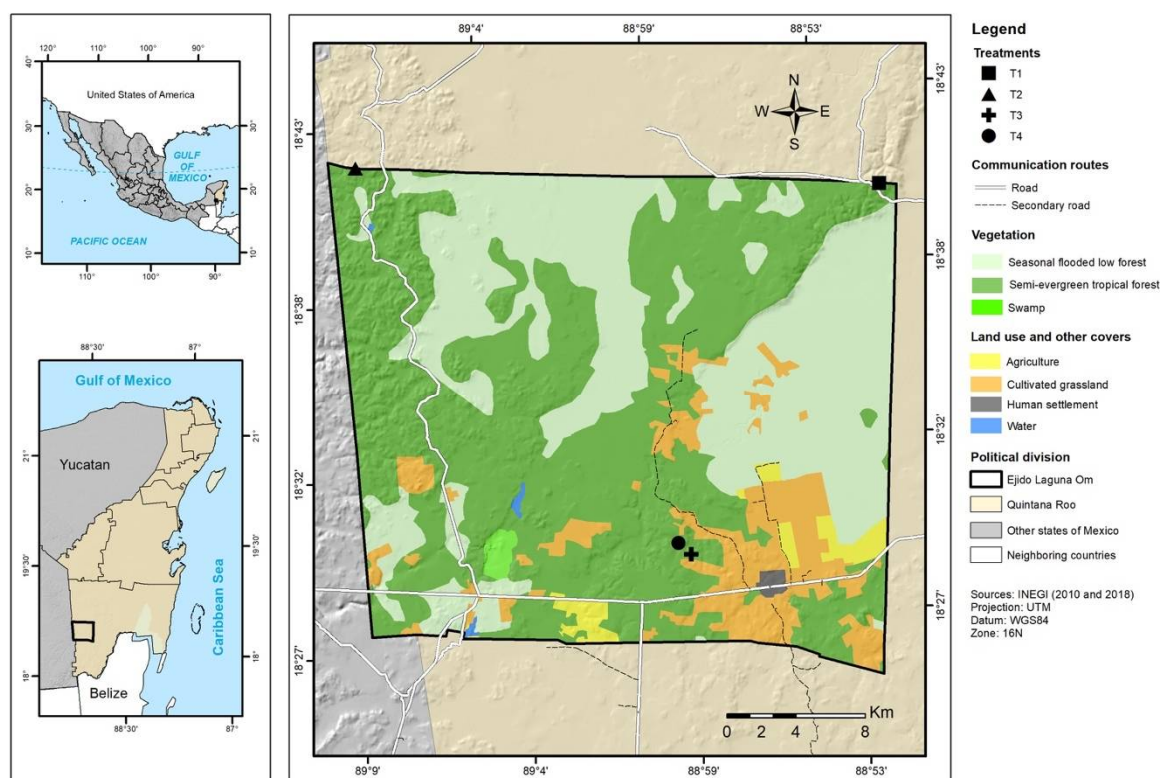
84 believe that this may be a priority for strategies to restore areas affected by one of the most important  
 85 invasive species in the world. Finally, it is important to mention that the establishment of invasive  
 86 species affects the possibility of maintaining the net primary production of the ecosystems [37,38] .  
 87 Consequently, the aim of this work was to determine the effect of the invasion of *P. aquilinum* on the  
 88 generation of alternative states that modify the routes of secondary succession in a seasonally dry  
 89 forest; and to determine if the different treatments contribute to restore the original secondary  
 90 succession of the system.

91

## 92 2. Materials and Methods

### 93 Study area

94 The study was carried out in the ejido (communally managed land) Laguna Om (-89.15 W 18.70 N, -  
 95 88.87 W 18.40 N WGS 84) in south of the state of Quintana Roo, Mexico with an area of 84,998 ha  
 96 (RAN-INEGI, 1997).



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98

99

Figure 1. Study site, Ejido Laguna Om

100 The ejido is located in the geological formation called "Petén", which belongs to the Paleocene-Eocene  
 101 and is characterized by compact macro and microcrystalline massive limestones, with yellow to white  
 102 coloring, with stained parts of brown color by iron oxides [39,40]. The terrain is flat with an ondulated  
 103 microrelief, and with wide depressions that present small plains. Its altitude above sea level varies  
 104 between 100 and 150 m [40–42]. The climate is Aw (x') i, warm subhumid, with precipitation in  
 105 summer and some part during winter [43]. The climatological station located in the center-south part

106 of the ejido reports 1290 mm of precipitation and an average annual temperature of 26°C. Soils are  
107 Leptosols, Vertisols and Gleysols [44,45]. The dominant vegetation in the study area is semi-  
108 evergreen tropical forest, and by a low seasonal flooded forest and savanna [46].

### 109 *Sampling design*

110 A stratified random design was used [47,48]. This sampling design was used considering the  
111 characteristics of the experiment, which consisted of three different treatments. Additionally, the  
112 species richness and composition of the treatments were compared with a control which is a achual  
113 (secondary forest plot, and a consequence of slash and burn for the establishment of a traditional  
114 milpa) that has never presented an invasion of *Pteridium* and similar to the treatments was abandoned  
115 some 50 years. Each of the treatments plus the control were considered as the stratum, and within  
116 each of them, eight sampling units (UM) of 10 x 10 m (100m<sup>2</sup>) were randomly selected.

### 117 *Experiment (Treatments)*

118 Three treatments were established in areas invaded by *P. aquilinum* for approximately 50 years (from  
119 1960 till present) (Figure 1). Treatment one (T1) consisted of areas without mechanical removal of the  
120 ferns with regular periods of burning, every two or three years during the last fifty years; the last  
121 recorded fire occurred in 2015. Vegetation sampling was done one year after the last burn (2016).  
122 Treatment two (T2) was established in areas invaded by ferns during the last 50 years, but the last  
123 burning occurred 7 years ago (2009), this treatment was not mechanically removed. Treatment three  
124 (T3) was established in areas with a similar land use history, but since 2010 burning was controlled  
125 and the removal method applied by Macario [49] was applied, which consists of weekly cuttings (  
126 locally known as chapeos) during for two months, followed by monthly chapeos until the year, and  
127 later quarterly and semi-annual chapeos depending on the density of the fern. Additionally, a control  
128 treatment (T4) was established in areas that were burned for the last time in 2007 for the establishment  
129 of the milpa system, which was abandoned after two years of use. These areas never presented  
130 invasion by ferns. All the plots presented similar conditions in relation to climate, stoniness, slope,  
131 altitude.

132

### 133 *Sampling*

134 The sampling was carried out between May and June 2016 in the areas mentioned in the experimental  
135 design section. In each of the sampling units the following variables were recorded: the diameter at  
136 breast height (DBH) of all woody species > 0.5 cm and the taxonomic identity of each of them [Wyatt-  
137 Smith, 1962]. All registered individuals were identified from dichotomous botanical keys [50] and  
138 existing floristic listings [51,52]. The community of plant species was characterized in each of the four  
139 established treatments through the determination of the floristic composition, the richness and  
140 abundance, as well as the forms of growth. The Importance Value Index (IVI) was determined in each  
141 of the treatments.  $IVI = \text{relative density} + \text{relative basal area} + \text{relative frequency}$ . Where: relative  
142 density = (number of individuals of species/total number of individuals)\*100; relative basal area =  
143 (basal area of a species/basal area of all species)\*100; relative frequency = (frequency of a species/  
144 frequency of all species)\*100 [53].

145

## 146 Data analysis

147 To compare the taxonomic diversity of the treatments, a rarefaction analysis (interpolation) and  
148 extrapolation (prediction) of the Hill numbers were performed, based on sample size and coverage,  
149 which represents a unified criterion to contrast the diversity of multiple assemblages [54], 2016]. The  
150 analysis was carried out based on the order  $q$  (richness of species) and richness estimators were  
151 determined with the iNEXT software package R [54,55].

152 The variation in the composition of species was analyzed through an analysis of correspondence: The  
153 abundance was established with a transformation of Hellinger, which minimizes the weight of rare  
154 species. In addition, a canonical correspondence analysis was carried out to determine the relative  
155 influence of soil nutrients on the composition of species. The analysis was carried out with the  
156 CANOCO 4.56 package [56]. Additionally, statistically significant differences in the composition of  
157 woody species between the different treatments with a dissimilarity analysis (ANOSIM) in PRIMER-  
158 E 6.1.12 [57] were calculated. Finally, regression analyzes were carried out between the diversity of  
159 species found in each treatment and the soil variables. The diversity of species usually presents a  
160 Poisson distribution, a generalized linear model (GLM) was used .  
161

## 162 3. Results

### 163 Composition and floristic richness

164 There were 2162 individuals belonging to 33 families, 56 genera and 63 species, recorded in the 32  
165 sampled plots (T1 to T4). Of the total recorded individuals, 1884 (87.14%) were trees and 278 (12.86%)  
166 shrubs. The treatment with most diversity was T4 with 32 families, 49 genera, 54 species and 1091  
167 individuals, of which 882 were trees and 209 shrubs. On the other hand, T1 showed the lowest species  
168 richness with 11 species, belonging to nine families, and a total of 193 individuals (trees) without  
169 presence of shrubby species (Table 1). The families with higher richness of recorded species were  
170 Fabaceae with 11 species, followed by Asteraceae, Meliaceae, Rubiaceae, Sapindaceae and  
171 Verbenaceae with three species each, contributing 41.26% of the total of the species registered in the  
172 treatments. The genera that presented the highest number of species were *Lonchocarpus* with five,  
173 *Thevetia*, *Eugenia* and *Coccoloba* with two species respectively. The largest number of individuals was  
174 distributed among the following families Rubiaceae with 572, Araliaceae (237), Fabaceae (233),  
175 Polygonaceae (159), Cecropiaceae (134), Asteraceae (115), Ulmaceae (110) and Sapindaceae with 104.  
176 Species with higher densities were *Guettarda combsii* Urb. (522), *Dendropanax arboreus* (L.) Decne. &  
177 Planch. (237), *Coccoloba spicata* Lundel (158), *Cecropia peltata* L. (134) and *Trema micrantha* (L.) Blume  
178 (108), and together formed 53.60% of the inventoried species.

179 The variation gradient observed between the treatments is wide (4.622 SD), which suggests a wide  
180 variation in the composition of species between treatments. The first two axes captured 56 and 44%  
181 of the variation, respectively (Figure 2). The dissimilarity of species is a good measure to identify the  
182 distribution of the ecological niche between the species. The dissimilarity analysis (ANOSIM)  
183 determined that there are significant differences in the dissimilarity between the different treatments,  
184 meaning that beta diversity varied between treatments. In this case, the variation percentage ranged  
185 between 60% and 91% between the treatments. Our results showed that the treatments T1 and T3 are



186 the treatments with greater degree of differentiation in the composition of species, and T1 and T2  
 187 those that presented the lower percentage of differentiation (Table 2).

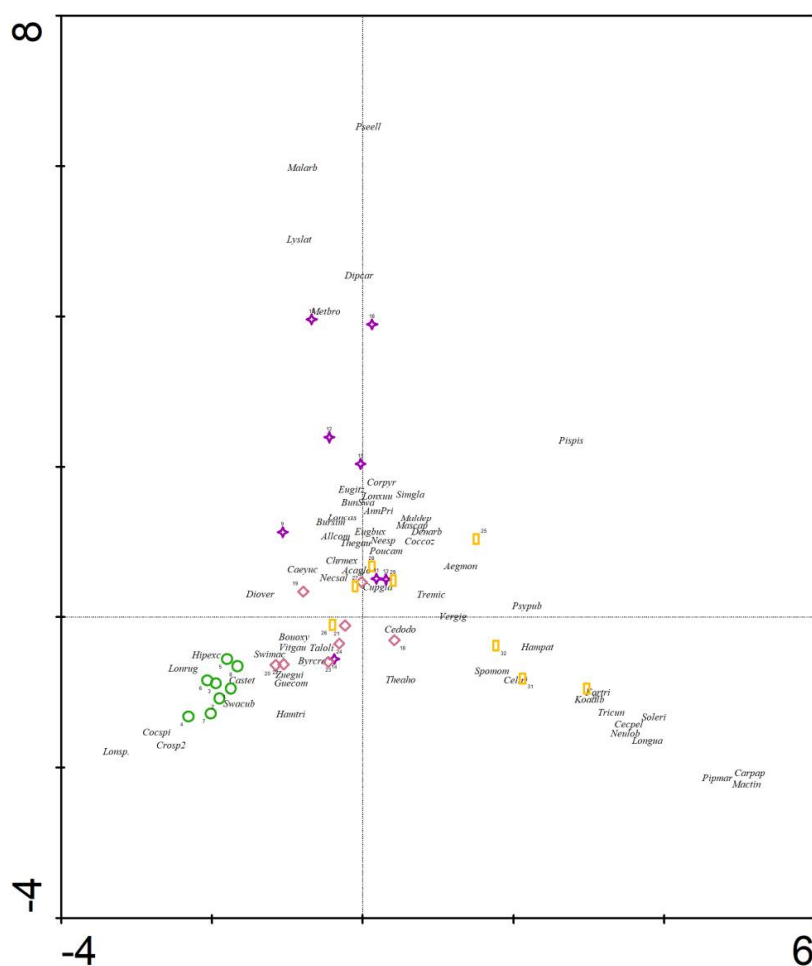
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**Table 1.** Taxa and life form composition per treatment

Treatments	Family	Genus	Species	Shrubs	Trees	Ind. Num.
T1	9	10	11	0	193	193
T2	13	18	20	13	57	70
T3	20	31	34	56	752	808
T4	32	49	54	209	882	1091
Total	33	56	63	278	1884	2162

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**Figure 2.** Correspondence analysis biplot for the first and second axes.

196 **Table 2.** Results of ANOSIM comparisons of community composition among treatments, showing  
197 test statistics for global and pair-wise comparisons.

	<i>r</i>	<i>P</i>
All treatments	0.0714	0.01
1,2	0.68	0.02
1,3	0.917	0.02
1,4	0.845	0.02
2,3	0.635	0.05
2,4	0.607	0.02
3,4	0.652	0.03

198  
199 Statistically significant differences were observed for species richness among the evaluated  
200 treatments. It was observed that the species richness decreased from T4 to T1, respectively. Likewise,  
201 abundance showed the same pattern, except for T2 which presented the lowest abundance. It was  
202 also observed that the sampling effort performed is representative for the richness and composition  
203 of the biota of the region (between 98 and 99% for T1, T3 and T4 and 88% for T2) under different  
204 management approaches (Table 3).

205 **Table 3.** Observed and estimated species richness for all woody plants > 0.5 cm dbh. Different letters indicate  
206 significant differences. Raref., rarefaction (for 70 individuals); S.obs. observed; dD., estimated (with 70  
207 individuals), qD.LCL, qD.UCL the bootstrap lower and upper confidence limits for the diversity of order q at  
208 the specified level in the setting (with a default value of 0.95); SC.LCL, SC.UCL = the bootstrap lower and  
209 upper confidence limits for the expected sample coverage at the specified level in the setting (with a default  
210 value of 0.95).

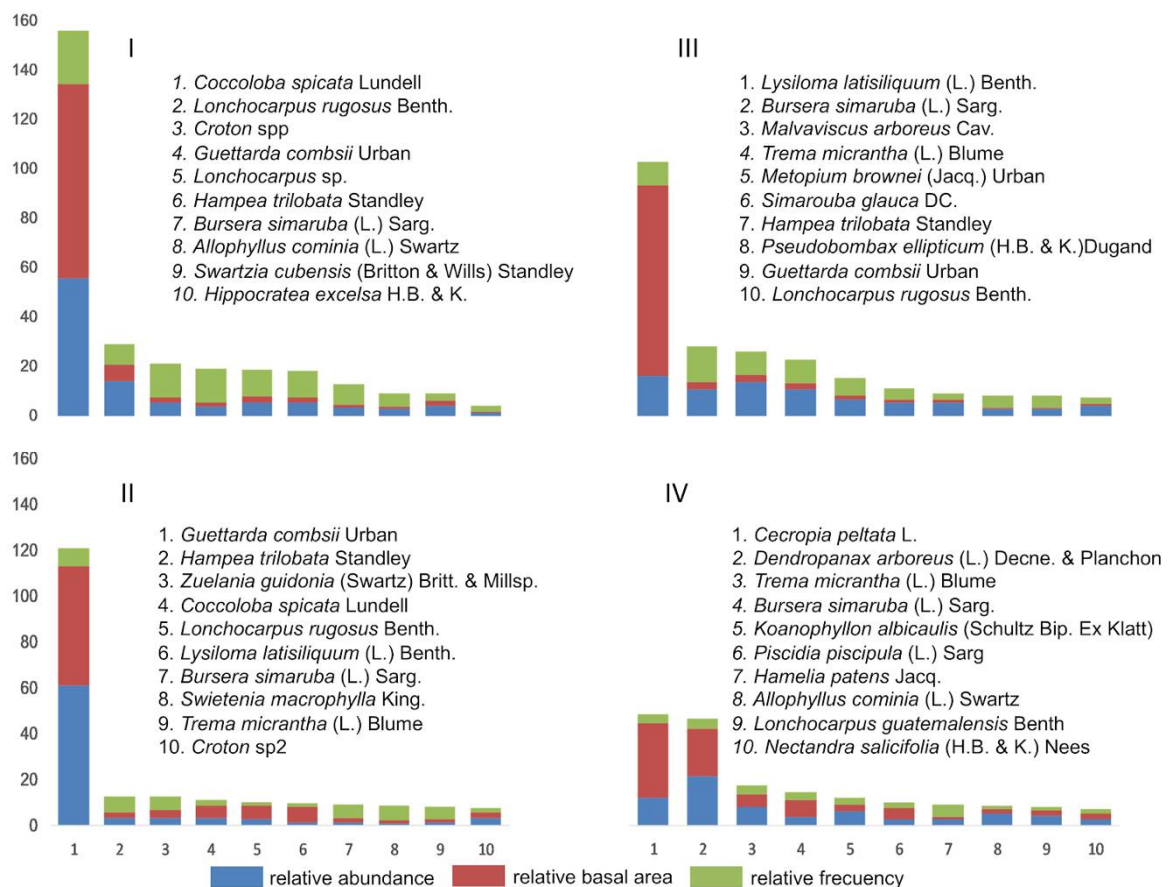
Treat.	M	N	S.obs	qD.LCL, qD.UCL	qD	SC.LCL, SC.UCL	SC
T1	8	193	11	9.40-12.62	9.4	8.40-10.32	0.99
T2	8	70	20	16.4-25.86	18.78	15.53-22.03	0.88
T3	8	808	34	29.63-38.37	15.21	14.28-16.19	0.99
T4	8	1091	54	47.47-60.53	22.41	21.45-23.38	0.98
Total	32	2162	63				

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213 *Relative Importance value index (IVI) of the species.*

214 The IVI was obtained in each of the four treatments and (Figure 3) IVI data of each of the species is  
215 presented. In T1, the species with the highest IVI are *Coccoloba spicata* Lundell, *Lonchocarpus rugosus*  
216 Benth., *Croton* Spp, *Hippocratea excelsa* Kunth. and *Diospyros verae-crucis* Standley. Regarding T2, the  
217 species that characterize this community due to its higher IVI are: *Lysiloma latisiliquum* (L.) Benth.,  
218 *Bursera simaruba* (L) Sarg., *Malvaviscus arboreus* Cav., *Trema micrantha* (L.) Blume., *Metopium brownei* (

219 Jacq.) Urb., *Simarouba glauca* DC and *Guettarda combsii* Urb. The characteristic species of T3 based on  
 220 IVI were *Guettarda combsii* Urb., *Hampea trilobata* Stand., *Zuelania guidonia* (Sw.) Britton & Millsp.,  
 221 *Coccoloba spicata* Lundell, *Lonchocarpus rugosus* Benth., *Lysiloma latisiliquum* (L.) Benth., *Bursera*  
 222 *simaruba* (L.) Sarg., *Swietenia macrophylla* King, *Trema micrantha* (L.) Blume and *Croton* spp. Finally,  
 223 the species with greater relative importance in T4 were *Cecropia peltata* L., *Dendropanax arboreus* (L.)  
 224 Decne. & Planch., *Trema micrantha* (L.) Blume, *Bursera simaruba* (L.) Sarg., *Kaonophyllon albicaulis* (Sch.  
 225 Bip. Ex Klatt) RM King & H. Rob., *Piscidia piscipula* (L.) Sarg., *Hamelia patens* Jacq., *Allophylus cominia*  
 226 (L.) Sw., *Lonchocarpus guatemalensis* Benth., *Nectandra salicifolia* Kunth., *Coccoloba spicata* Lundell,  
 227 *Aegiphyla montrosa* Moldenke, *Bourreria oxyphylla* Stand., *Verbesina gigante* (L.) Kuntze and *Guettarda*  
 228 *combsii* Urb.  
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233 **Figure 3.** List of the woody species with the 90% of the Relative Importance Value Index (IVI) in each  
 234 treatment.

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241 *Effect of treatment on diversity and abundance.*

242 The generalized linear model showed an important relationship between the diversity of woody  
 243 species and abundance with explanatory variables ( $r^2 = .57.86$ ,  $P < 0.001$  and  $R^2 = 67.46$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ,  
 244 respectively). In particular, it was observed that there is a clear relationship between the management  
 245 of the areas and the species richness, particularly that the estimator of T3 is almost twice than in T1  
 246 and T2. When analyzing the effect of soil nutrients on species richness, it is observed that there are  
 247 no significant differences between them (Table 4). The abundance of individuals, and the richness of  
 248 species, showed significant differences between abundance and treatments; and to a much lesser  
 249 extent differences were observed in abundance with respect to soil nutrients, except for phosphorus  
 250 and potassium (Table 4). It was observed that abundance increases related to the intensity of the  
 251 treatment, with the exception for the T2 that showed the lowest abundance of individuals (Table 2).

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255 **Table 4.** Variation partitioning of woody species richness and abundance through General Lineal Model  
 256 (GLM) and influence of each variable in the model.

257

	Richness	Abundance			
	% Explained				
Total explain variation model	57.86	67.46			
Total unexplained variation model	42.14	32.54			
Variables	% contribution of total explained variation				
Treatment	16.25	-			
K	12.48	-			
Na	-	31.69			
Ca	-	34.87			
Among variables interaction	29.13	0.9			
	Variable	df	Deviance	df	P
Richness	Treatment	3	80.1	28	0.00100
	SOM	1	<b>0.032</b>	27	<b>0.85765</b>
	N	1	0.164	26	0.68508
	pH	1	0.16	25	0.68961
	P	1	0.062	24	0.80361
	K	1	<b>3.259</b>	23	<b>0.07103</b>
	Na	1	0.744	22	0.38849
	Ca	1	0.029	21	0.86495
Abundance	Treatment	3	52491	28	< <b>0.001</b>

SOM	1	4588	27	< 0.001
N	1	2912	26	< 0.001
pH	1	1248	25	< 0.001
P	1	4	24	0.04
K	1	2	23	0.16
Na	1	2209	22	< 0.001
Ca	1	9198	21	< 0.001

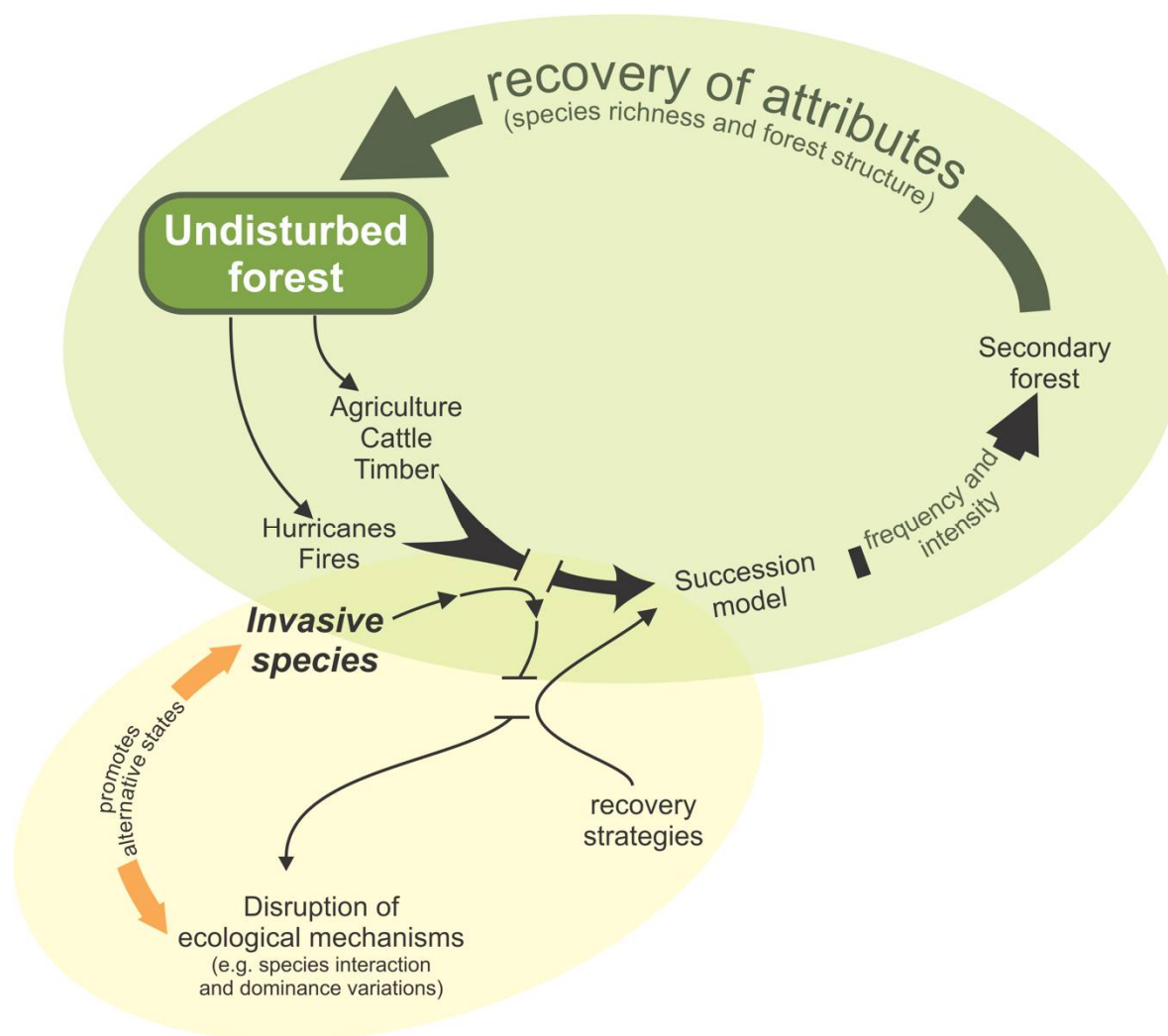
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#### 259 4. Discussion

260 Identifying and understanding the influence of the invasive species on the secondary succession, as  
 261 well as to understand its influence on the establishment of alternative states is of major importance  
 262 from a theoretical perspective, and of immense practical significance for the restoration of the  
 263 ecosystems and sustainable management of biodiversity.

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**Figure 4.** Conceptual model of influence of the invasive species on the secondary succession model.

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269 **Effects of *P. aquilinum* on the vegetation structure**

270 The floristic composition in the three evaluated treatments (T1 to T3), and in the control treatment  
271 (T4) was represented mainly by species of the Fabaceae family. This agrees with results of secondary  
272 vegetation studies carried out in the Yucatan Peninsula [58–63]. Other authors like and Sánchez &  
273 Islebe [64] and De Stefano et al [65] found that the Fabaceae family is particularly diverse in the  
274 southern region of the Yucatan Peninsula due to the precipitation gradient and its biogeographical  
275 affinity to the biota of Central America. Furthermore, it has been widely reported that it is the  
276 dominant family in secondary vegetation at different successional stages [66–69].  
277 The species with the highest densities recorded in the four treatments is a group of species with  
278 resprouting capacities (*G. combsii* Urb., *D. arboreus* (L.) Decne. & Planch. and *C. spicata* Lundell) and  
279 sufficient seed reserve like *C. peltata* L. and *T. micrantha* (L.) Blume) which facilitate the establishment  
280 in the treatment areas. The densities of those species are distributed unequally considering the  
281 influence of the different types of treatments evaluated in the area. This agrees with species data by  
282 Macario-Mendoza (2003) in the control area.  
283 The species that yielded the highest IVI values and are dominant of the different treatments are: *C.*  
284 *spicata* Lundell, *L. latisiliquum* (L.) Benth, *G. combsii* Urb., *C. peltata* L. Those trees are common  
285 species in secondary forest patches in seasonal dry forests. The low values of the IVI in most of the  
286 recorded species indicate specific traits like fast growth and differential adaptation to soil and site  
287 characteristics. Similar conditions were observed in a seasonal dry tropical forest of northern  
288 Quintana Roo where in hurricane damaged areas few species dominated [70].  
289 The variation of species richness and abundance recorded by the rarefaction results is attributed to  
290 the invasion of *P. aquilinum* (L.) Kuhn and the history of land use in the area.  
291 The results show that the species richness in T1 and its low diversity are best explained given that T1  
292 was frequently burnt and the absence of seed bank. The low richness of species can be explained by  
293 the different edaphic conditions present in each type of treatment (depth, stoniness among others).  
294 Fires, occasional or frequent, favor the spread of bracken fern, but is also dependent on the seasonality  
295 of burning. The establishment of species in T1 and T2 is limited by shallow soils with little organic  
296 matter and characterized by species of secondary forest patches [71,72].  
297 The dissimilarity between treatments T1 and T2 was the highest and was the consequence of the  
298 invasion of *P. aquilinum* (L.) Kuhn. The species composition was not similar between treatments, not  
299 even in the areas that were invaded by *P. aquilinum* (L.) Kuhn. Although, at three of the treatments  
300 were *Pteridium* dominated their history of use contributes to the non-similarity of species richness.  
301 The level of dissimilarity in the area explains why the age of the vegetation could influence the results  
302 and restricts the regeneration in T1 due to the absence of seed banks and to the frequency of burning  
303 and eventually interrupts the succession. The T2 treatment and its management allows the  
304 development of a seed bank and self-thinning of the species after of fire. The surviving species  
305 manage to facilitate secondary succession, with increased shaded areas affecting bracken fern cover.  
306 It can be observed that there was a high floristic dissimilarity among all studied treatments (Table 3).  
307 The high dissimilarities explain that most species of one treatment do not repeat in the other  
308 treatments.  
309 The T2, T3 and T4 treatment were almost of the same age but T4 was not invaded by *P. aquilinum*  
310 (L.) Kuhn. T1, T2 and T3 were invaded, since the different types of management circumscribe this  
311 dissimilarity. The T1 is the treatment with the highest dissimilarity compared to the previous  
312 treatments, which evidences the successional age in the area. López-Martínez [68] reported that

313 significant differences in the dissimilarity between successional age classes indicate that the  
314 composition of the species changes during the succession. From other studies analyzing succession  
315 in seasonal dry tropical forests in the Yucatán Peninsula we observe a similar trend [70,73].

316 The treatments differ in richness outlined previously, however, the evaluation of the nutrients on the  
317 treatments did not present significant differences (Table 4).

318 The results of this work do not show that soil nutrients (N, P and K) have a relationship with species  
319 richness, it differs with richness of the evaluated species. Table 5 indicates that N and P were slightly  
320 significant. The content of K on the density of species is significant and negative. This would indicate  
321 that the presence of K the probability of increasing species richness is lower. Finally, the level of N is  
322 significant but positive which means that it increases the abundance of species in the treatments. The  
323 results of the present investigation coincide with John et al [74] where soil resource availability is  
324 relevant to tree species composition.

325 Figure 4 represents a schematic view on the different of succession caused by bracken fern. The main  
326 danger for conservation and land use is the disruption of ecological mechanisms controlling  
327 succession invaded by *Pteridium*. Without active to strategies of control bracken fern causes a  
328 disruption in natural recovery, making it nearly impossible to recover the affected areas for future  
329 planning.

330 Changes in bracken cover and abundance in secondary forests are also influenced by competitive  
331 interactions with trees and thus directly with dynamics of the forest canopy. Additionally, in  
332 managed or human impacted forest ecosystems like southern Mexico, the dominance of bracken is  
333 closely connected to stand development (e.g. management) by the local communities. Figure 4 also  
334 highlights one of the main problems caused by bracken, which is the lack of tree recruitment for  
335 longer time periods. If the dominance of bracken is not hindered, there are few possibilities for  
336 individual tree species to grow on bracken stands and eventually establish with a closed canopy.

337 Our data have shown that the presence of a tree canopy reduces the area covered by bracken.  
338 However, effective growth of tree seedling like *Lysiloma latisiliqua* requires sufficient light on soils.  
339 Some disturbance is therefore positive to an improved establishment of seeds at given times during  
340 the succession. The resprouting tree species reach sufficient heights compared to the bracken canopy,  
341 under specific recovery strategies.

342 Large scale bracken dominance in areas formerly covered by seasonal dry tropical forest is the  
343 consequence of prior deforestation or bad forestry practices. To achieve sustainable forest  
344 management we recommend considering past land use practices to avoid future increase in bracken  
345 dominated former forest areas.

346

347

### 348 **Alternative states and recovery strategies**

349

350 From a traditional perspective of the succession model, mechanisms such as competition and  
351 facilitation have modulated the plant communities

352 [75–78]. Particularly, it has been postulated that facilitation acts on the direction of succession and is  
353 the main mechanism in conditions of high abiotic stress [79]. It has been observed that pioneer or  
354 light-demanding species are the first to colonize disturbed areas, and eventually generate conditions  
355 for the establishment of shade-tolerant or long-lived species. [77,79–83]. *P. aquilinum* is a highly

356 competitive species with its invasive and toxic conditions, and does not present interactions (eg  
357 herbivory) that regulate the development of its populations. Bracken presents a high productivity of  
358 biomass that accumulates in the soil, limiting light for native pioneer species, and its spores are fire  
359 tolerant to regular burning.

360 [84]. This set of characteristics change the ecological mechanisms that drive the process of secondary  
361 succession in plant communities, and generates the establishment of an alternative state that favors  
362 the establishment of bracken (Figure 4). This study clearly shows that the introduction of *P.*  
363 *aquilinum* leads to the establishment of an alternative state (T1), because, even though the site has  
364 been abandoned for more than 50 years, the dominant species is *P. aquilinum*. The composition of  
365 woody species that managed to survive the last burning are species with resprouting capacities. This  
366 study showed that the application of community recovery strategies break the alternative state  
367 (Figure 4) and re-establish the processes of secondary succession, increasing the species richness and  
368 the establishment of resprouting species, and those coming from seed rain of the surrounding  
369 vegetation matrix.

370

## 371 5. Conclusions

372 Our study has important theoretical and practical implications for the recovery of sites invaded by *P.*  
373 *aquilinum* in southeastern Mexico. The results of this study demonstrated that invasive species  
374 disrupt the ecological mechanisms that drive secondary succession, but through recovery strategies  
375 it is possible to foster secondary succession (Figure 4). Our conceptual model can serve as a tool that  
376 allows the recovery of areas invaded by non-native species. Finally, the increase in species richness  
377 and composition made it possible to evaluate the effectiveness of the recovery strategy used in this  
378 study, so the use of controlled burning and regular cutting are efficient strategies for the eradication  
379 and recovery of areas invaded by *P. aquilinum*. Recovery strategies for bracken invaded areas  
380 provide improved land use strategies and finally improve sustainability of rural areas.

381

382 **Author Contributions:** A. J-B executed the field work, J.O.L-M conceived the research design, analysis, and  
383 wrote the manuscript. G.I. revised and wrote the manuscript. P.M. conducted the field data collection. B.V-L, L.P.  
384 and M.V-H assisted in analysis of the results and revised the manuscript.

385 **Funding:** This research was funded by COMISION NACIONAL FORESTAL, Programa de Compensación  
386 Ambiental, grant number XXX" Check carefully that the details given are accurate and use the standard spelling  
387 of funding agency names at <https://search.crossref.org/funding>, any errors may affect your future funding.

## 388 Acknowledgments:

389 **Conflicts of Interest:** The authors declare no conflict of interest.

390

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