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3 in forest and grassland habitats in studies of animal foraging

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25 Running head: Rapid assessment of graminoid abundance by visual estimation

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27 **The utility of visual estimation of cover for rapid assessment of graminoid abundance in**
28 **forest and grassland habitats in studies of animal foraging**

29

30 **Abstract:**

31 **Questions:** To assess the feasibility of using visually-estimated cover in rapid assessment of
32 herbivore food species abundance in the grass layer, we asked the following questions: 1)
33 What is the relationship between total graminoid cover and biomass in forests, and does
34 height improve the prediction of biomass from cover? 2) How does total cover relate to
35 biomass in a grassland habitat? 3) How does elephant food species graminoid cover relate to
36 individual species biomass? 4) How well does species diversity of forest understorey grass
37 layer, calculated from cover data, mirror that calculated from biomass data? **Location:**
38 Nagarahole National Park, India. **Methods:** We estimated the abundance of graminoids
39 through visual estimation of cover and weighted harvested biomass in forest and grassland
40 plots. In forests, two estimates of total graminoid abundance, total graminoid cover and sum
41 of species covers, were used. In the grassland, only total graminoid abundance was measured.
42 We examined the relationship between cover estimates and biomass, and the additional utility
43 of height in predicting biomass, using multiple regressions and AIC-based model selection.
44 We also assessed similarity in cover- and biomass-based Simpson's and Shannon-Wiener
45 diversity indices using regressions. **Results:** Graminoid cover explained a large portion of
46 variation in total graminoid biomass in forest and grassland habitats. The sum of species
47 covers was better than total cover in estimating total graminoid biomass in the forest. The
48 benefit of including height to estimate total biomass was moderate in forests but substantial in
49 grassland. Cover estimates were good proxies of food species biomass, and the addition of
50 height did not yield better models for most species. Species diversity indices calculated from
51 cover largely matched those based on biomass. **Conclusions:** Visual estimation of species
52 cover is a good alternative to biomass harvesting for rapid assessment of abundance of
53 graminoids consumed by generalist herbivores, like elephants.

54 **Key words:**

55 Elephant food species, graminoids, forage distribution, vegetation abundance, rapid
56 assessment methods, visual estimation of cover, species diversity, tropical forests, grasslands.

57

58 **Author contribution:** HG and TNCV planned the work, performed statistical analyses and
59 wrote the manuscript, HG did field sampling, GP did species identification and all the authors
60 critically revised the manuscript.

61

62 **Introduction**

63 Ecologists estimate vegetation abundance in order to study various structural and functional
64 attributes of plant communities (e.g. Hermy 1988, Guo and Rundel 1997, Chiarucci et al.
65 1999, Henschel et al. 2005, Lavorel et al. 2008), the productivity of animals' habitats (e.g.
66 Hutto 1990, Säid et al. 2005, Pettorelli et al. 2011, Iversion et al. 2014) and its effect on
67 foraging behaviour (e.g. Wilmshurst et al. 1999), and the impact of animal activities on
68 vegetation (e.g. Pekin et al. 2015). While studies of plant community structure and function
69 may require intensive measurements of species abundance or traits (e.g. Chiarucci et al. 1999,
70 Lavorel et al. 2008), assessment of resource availability for animals often necessitates
71 sampling over large spatial scales (see Pettorelli et al. 2011), which would, therefore, benefit
72 from rapid methods of estimating species abundance. The estimation of forage abundance is a
73 pre-requisite in studies of ecological and behavioural aspects of foraging ecology (Hutto
74 1990, Säid et al. 2005), but the collection of detailed forage abundance data may be very
75 demanding in terms of effort, time, and resources, which are limitations for most field
76 biologists. Different methods of estimating vegetation abundance vary in their sensitivity to
77 vegetation structure, accuracy, precision, practicality, time and manpower required, and
78 destructive nature (Harmony et al. 1997, reviewed in Wilson 2011), and no single method is
79 clearly superior in all these respects. Given the apparent trade-off in methods between
80 accuracy and speed, it has been suggested that the choice of method should be based on the
81 objective of the study and after consideration of the advantages and limitations of each
82 method (Elzinga et al. 1998, Lavorel et al. 2008, Wilson 2011, Redjadj et al. 2012).

83 The diet of the animal and the vegetation structure in its habitat will together determine
84 whether the measurement of forage abundance should be carried out on all components of the
85 vegetation or only on a portion of the vegetation (such as specific plants or plant parts). For
86 example, all the vegetation of a largely monocultural grassland may be considered for
87 quantifying the food abundance of a grazing herbivore, whereas many components of
88 vegetation (herbs, shrubs, and tree species) in a forest or woodland may not be part of the
89 same animal's diet, and only the food component of the vegetation should be measured.

90 Second, in studies of foraging, ecologists are also often interested in studying whether an
91 animal shows selectivity at the species level during feeding (e.g. Owen-Smith and Chafota
92 2012) and whether it maintains species diversity in its diet (e.g. Marsh et al. 2006). It is,
93 therefore, also important for the method of estimation of forage abundance to provide
94 species-level detail. Given the considerations above, several methods of abundance
95 estimation become impractical or too time-consuming to implement in diverse habitats,
96 primarily because the vegetation layers that are not relevant to foraging may dominate the
97 biomass in forests with rich biodiversity. Unlike other estimation methods, the biomass
98 harvest method (e.g. Drew 1944, Hermy 1988), and the visual estimation of cover (Kennedy
99 and Addison 1987) can be applied even when a selected portion of vegetation is to be
100 quantified. However, biomass-harvesting can be time-consuming if species have to be
101 weighed separately, as this requires sorting of individuals into different species by hand
102 (Harmony et al. 1997, Lavorel et al. 2008). In this regard, the use of visual estimation of
103 cover may be advantageous, as it allows for rapid assessment of portions of vegetation and is
104 also non-destructive.

105

106 #Fig. 1 approximately here#

107

108 We, therefore, tested the utility of the visual estimation method in predicting biomass in
109 the context of forage availability for herbivores in general and for Asian elephants in a
110 tropical forest in southern India in particular. Elephants are considered generalist herbivores,
111 but primarily feed on grasses in the lower vegetation strata, in addition to stems and bark of
112 woody species in the upper strata (Owen-Smith 1988, Sukumar 1990, Baskaran et al. 2010).
113 Although their diet consists of numerous species, in species-rich tropical forests, this number
114 may be a small proportion (Blake 2002, HG and TNCV unpubl. data) of all the species
115 present. The estimation of abundance of woody species is simple as it involves the counting
116 of trees and measurements of tree-girth which can be done rapidly since the number per plot
117 is usually low. However, elephant foods in understory vegetation are represented by
118 numerous individuals that are difficult to count within limited time. Moreover, most of the
119 vegetation represented by herbs and shrubs is not consumed by elephants (in our study area,
120 the abundance of food species as a percentage of all species in the respective vegetation strata
121 during the wet and dry seasons, respectively, was about 23% and 10% for herbs, 18% and

122 16% for shrubs and 80% and 85% for graminoids, HG and TNCV unpubl. data). Therefore,
123 in such habitats, the focus should be on estimating the abundance of only food plant species
124 in the lower strata of the forest. The dominance of grasses in Asian elephant diet (Baskaran
125 et al. 2010) makes its quantification crucial, and we explored the utility of the visual
126 estimation method in assessing graminoid biomass. Since other herbivores in similar
127 deciduous forests are also primarily grazers (Ahrestani et al. 2012), if the visual method could
128 be used to reliably estimate biomass, our results would also have implications for the
129 quantification of resource abundance for such herbivores. Therefore, we assessed the utility
130 of visually estimated cover in explaining elephant food graminoid biomass, as well as total
131 graminoid biomass, which would establish the generality of the method, for use in other
132 species. We investigated the utility of this rapid method at the community level, as well as at
133 the more detailed species level. We also examined the additional utility of height, another
134 variable which can be rapidly measured, in modelling graminoid biomass in two types of
135 habitats, forest and grassland. Such questions regarding biomass of graminoids have been
136 rarely addressed in forest habitats (eg. Andariese and Covington 1986), especially in the
137 context of forage availability for wildlife.

138 Previously, studies have found strong correlations between visual estimates and biomass
139 (Hermy 1988, Guo and Rundel 1997, Chiarucci et al. 1999, Henschel et al. 2005, Axmanová
140 et al. 2012) but were not carried out in the context of sampling food availability for wildlife.
141 On the other hand, studies on foraging ecology have sometimes used visual estimation for
142 assessment of forage distribution (e.g. Noyce and Coy 1990, Blake 2002, Rebollo et al. 2013,
143 Iversion et al. 2014), but the relationship between visual estimates and biomass of relevant
144 foods has seldom been tested rigorously in a complex habitat (but see Noyce and Coy 1990
145 for bear foods), which is important before making inferences about the relationship between
146 resource distribution and forage selection.

147 The questions we addressed in this paper were the following:

148 1. What is the relationship between visually-estimated total graminoid cover and total
149 graminoid biomass (measured through the standard biomass-harvest method) in forest
150 habitats, and does the inclusion of height or using the visually-estimated sum of species
151 covers improve the prediction of total graminoid biomass? This question would help find out
152 if the visual estimation method can be used in general in a forest with multiple strata, in
153 studies of foraging by grazing herbivores.

154 2. Does the relationship between visually-estimated total graminoid cover and total
155 graminoid biomass (as seen from the results of question 1) also hold in a grassland habitat,
156 and does the inclusion of height improve the prediction of total graminoid abundance?

157 3. How do visually-estimated species covers of individual graminoid food species of
158 elephants relate to their respective species biomass measurements in forest habitats? Since the
159 proportion of food graminoid species represents only a small fraction of all species in the
160 herbaceous stratum of the vegetation in the forest sampled (HG and TNCV unpubl. data), if
161 there was a high correlation between visually-estimated species cover and species biomass,
162 visually estimated cover could be used to assess food species abundance and also estimate
163 proportional abundance of different species.

164 4. How accurately do species diversity indices of the grass layer in forest habitat,
165 measured by visual estimates, reflect the diversity indices obtained from biomass data? It
166 would be desirable to obtain good diversity estimates in order to study selectivity of species
167 and selection of different kinds of vegetation patches by herbivores.

168

169 **Study area**

170 The study was carried out in Nagarahole National Park (644 km², 11.85°–12.26° N, 76.00°–
171 76.28° E), which is a part of the larger contiguous Nilgiris-Eastern Ghats landscape in
172 southern India (Figure 2). The forest is tropical deciduous, comprising several strata, and is
173 home to several herbivores, including Asian elephants, on which a long-term study based on
174 individually identified elephants is currently ongoing (see Vidya et al. 2014). Along the
175 southern boundary of the park flows the river Kabini, on which a dam was constructed during
176 the 1970s to create a reservoir that extends along the southern boundary of the park. During
177 the dry season, when the waters of the reservoir recede, the exposed area forms a grassland
178 consisting mostly of just two short grass species (*Cynodon dactylon* and *Sporobolus* sp.,
179 which are also found in the forest, see Supporting Information 1) and attracts a large number
180 of elephants, deer, and gaur. The graminoids in the grassland are shorter (mean height 5.7
181 cm) and more continuously distributed compared to those in the forests (mean weighted
182 average of species heights 24.6 cm), where they are more sparsely distributed. Both the
183 grassland and the forest habitat are used by elephants, and data on graminoid abundance were
184 collected from both types of habitats, as described below.

185 **Data sampling and analysis**

186 Forest data

187 Data collection in forests was done from November to December 2013. Based on a forest
188 type classification map of the region developed by Pascal (1982), Nagarahole National Park
189 was divided into the three major forest types: dry deciduous forest, moist deciduous forest,
190 and teak plantations. We had previously divided the area into a 2 km × 2 km grid and placed
191 60 1-km line transects in randomly selected cells in order to map the distribution of elephant
192 food resources. During the present study, 23 of these transects in the southern and central
193 parts of the park and 17 additional transects, at least half a km away from each other and at
194 least 100 m away from forest roads, were chosen for sampling. Care was taken to adequately
195 represent all three forest types (based on their availability) in the sampling sites. Sampled
196 locations are mapped in Figure 2.

197

198 #Fig. 2 approximately here#

199

200 Sampling was carried out in 20 m × 5 m plots at the start or end of each of the 40 1-km
201 transects. In each of these 20 m × 5 m plots, three 1 m × 1 m quadrats were sampled,
202 equidistant along a straight diagonal line (except one plot, in which only two quadrats could
203 be sampled due to the presence of dense *Lantana* thickets). This resulted in 119 quadrats
204 sampled. We sampled all graminoid plants, including *Poaceae* (grasses), *Juncaceae* and
205 *Cyperaceae*. Graminoid abundance was measured at two levels: total graminoid abundance
206 (all the graminoid species present) and species-level abundance. First, total graminoid cover
207 was visually estimated by a single observer (HG) as the percentage of quadrat area covered
208 by all graminoids (Figure 1). Second, species cover for each graminoid species was visually
209 estimated, independent of the cover of other species. Cover was estimated to the closest 5%
210 or in interval bin of 5% (for low values such as 0 to 5% cover), in which case, the middle
211 value of the interval was chosen as the cover value. Values of less than 5% were applied in
212 the case of rare species that were represented by only one or two individuals in the quadrat.
213 Four individuals (except in the case of rare species, in which fewer than four individuals were
214 available) of each species were arbitrarily selected, their natural standing heights (i.e. without
215 straightening the plant) were measured, and the average of these was used as the height for

216 that species. The total graminoid (fresh) biomass was measured in the field using a digital
217 weighing balance (with 1 gram precision) after harvesting all the graminoids from the ground
218 level. Individuals were then hand-sorted into the respective species, and the biomass of each
219 species was measured.

220 At the level of the graminoid community, two measures of visually-estimated overall
221 graminoid abundance were used: total graminoid cover as described above, and the sum of
222 species cover (the sum of individual graminoid species covers; the value might exceed 100%
223 since each species was assessed independently; see Figure 1). Total graminoid biomass was
224 normally distributed whereas individual species biomass data were non-normal and were,
225 therefore, log-transformed for the analyses. However, the analyses were also performed on
226 untransformed data to evaluate the robustness of the results. We first used homogeneity of
227 regression slopes test (Zar 1974) to inspect the effect of forest type (dry deciduous, moist
228 deciduous and teak forests) on the relationship between total graminoid biomass and overall
229 graminoid cover. Similar relationships between total biomass and overall cover in different
230 forest types would result in a homogeneity of slopes. We then performed multiple regressions
231 of biomass on both estimates of overall graminoid cover to assess the utility of both measures
232 in predicting total graminoid biomass. We also used the weighted average of graminoid
233 species heights (weighted according to species cover) as an additional explanatory variable
234 and performed multiple regressions to test the utility of height in improving total biomass
235 estimates. Akaike information criterion with small sample correction (*AICc*; Hurvich and
236 Tsai 1989) was used for selection from the regression models including and excluding height.
237 Although there was a homogeneity of slopes (see Results) and plots from all forest types
238 could be combined for further analyses, we used forest type as a factor to account for the off-
239 chance that pooling the data would affect the results. In order to include the information on
240 forest type in multiple regressions, two dummy categorical variables were generated:
241 deciduous (category 1) or not (category 0 representing teak plantation), and moist deciduous
242 (1) or not (0 representing dry deciduous forest when the previous categorical variable had
243 value 1). These two variables were included in all regression analyses of data from the forest
244 habitats. At the level of individual species, multiple regressions (including the variables for
245 forest type) of species cover on species biomass were carried out for 10 common species (the
246 other species were present in fewer than 10 plots) all of which happened to be elephant food
247 species. We also checked whether multiple regressions that included the individual species'
248 height explained variation in individual species' biomass better compared to regressions

249 lacking this information. Model selection from the two types of regression models was done
250 on the basis of *AICc*. All the regressions described above were carried out on data from two
251 spatial scales: a) 1 m × 1 m quadrat level on which the measurements were originally made,
252 and b) 20 m × 5 m plot level, such that the plots were spatially independent. Values of
253 different variables in 1 m × 1 m quadrats were averaged to obtain values for the 20 m × 5 m
254 plots.

255 We also carried out multiple regressions to find out how closely species diversity
256 calculated using visually assessed cover data matched that calculated using biomass data. We
257 calculated two commonly used measures of species diversity, Simpson's diversity index and
258 Shannon-Wiener index of diversity (see Southwood and Henderson 2009)). We calculated
259 diversity of a) all the graminoid species and b) only elephant food species. Diversity index
260 values from the three quadrats of every plot were averaged, and analyses were carried out
261 using the average index value for each plot. Forest type variables were used as described
262 above in all multiple regressions.

263

264 Grassland data

265 Seven large stretches (called zones) across the length of the grassland were sampled. A zone
266 would, therefore, be somewhat analogous to the 20 × 5 m plots in the forest, within which
267 quadrats were sampled, although zones were much larger and quadrats within zones were
268 randomly placed. Within each zone, 20 independent quadrats (1 m × 1 m) were marked, each
269 chosen by walking from the centre of the zone up to a randomly chosen distance and along a
270 randomly chosen direction (distance and angle obtained from a random number generator).
271 Visual estimation of total graminoid cover was carried out in these quadrats and graminoid
272 heights were measured before harvesting the above-ground biomass. Species-level data were
273 not sampled since the only two grass species present could not be differentiated in their non-
274 flowering states. Both these grasses are fed upon by elephants. The data were collected
275 during four 30-day periods between mid-February and mid-June 2015 with equal numbers of
276 random quadrats sampled in each period. Biomass measurements for 10 quadrats could not be
277 performed because of heavy rain, which might have affected the weight significantly.

278 General regression models were used to analyse data from grassland quadrats. Total
279 graminoid biomass was used as a dependent variable, total graminoid cover as an

280 independent variable, and month and zone as categorical predictors to control for the effect of
281 variation due to time and location, respectively. The analysis was done both with and without
282 graminoid height as a continuous predictor.

283 Analyses were performed using Statistica 8 (StatSoft 2007).

284 **Results**

285 *Relationship between visually-estimated total graminoid cover and total graminoid biomass* 286 *in forest habitat*

287 Based on the analysis of data from the 40 plots sampled in the three forest types, the mean
288 graminoid biomass was 0.204 kg (95% CI: 0.165 to 0.241 kg). We found no effect of forest
289 type on the relationship between total biomass and total cover, between total biomass and the
290 sum of species covers, or between total biomass and weighted average of species heights (see
291 Table 1). The statistics for regressions tests of how well the graminoid biomass is explained
292 by cover and height are shown in Table 2. We found that both total graminoid cover and the
293 sum of graminoid species cover were able to explain a large amount of variation in total
294 biomass, with the sum of species cover showing a slightly higher coefficient of determination
295 than the total cover (scatter-plots shown in Figure 3). Inclusion of weighted average of
296 species heights to the multiple regression increased the coefficient of determination slightly
297 in the case of sum of species cover and total cover compared to the respective models without
298 the inclusion of height (Table 2). The small difference in *AICc* in both cases suggested that
299 the models including height were not significantly better.

300

301 #Table 1 approximately here.

302

303 #Table 2 approximately here.

304

305 #Fig. 3 approximately here#

306

307 *Relationship between visually-estimated species covers of graminoid food species of*
308 *elephants and their respective species biomass in forest habitat*

309 Analyses of species-wise abundance at the plot level showed strong relationships between
310 biomass and visually-estimated species cover for all the common (which were present in 10
311 or more plots) graminoid species ($R^2=0.63$ to 0.98 ; Table 3). Multiple regressions using
312 species average height as an additional predictor variable also yielded high R^2 values
313 ($R^2=0.69$ to 0.98 ; Table 3), although average height had a significant effect in the regression
314 only in the case of *Oplismenus compositus* and *Digitaria* sp.2 at the plot level (Table 3). With
315 the exception of *Oplismenus compositus*, the $AICc$ values for all other species tested were
316 smaller when height was not included in the model to estimate biomass compared to the
317 model when height was included along with cover. However, the differences in $AICc$ values
318 between the respective models were small, indicating that the models with and without
319 heights largely performed equally well. At the quadrat level also (Table 4), high regression
320 coefficients were obtained from the regression models that used species cover ($R^2=0.68$ to
321 0.90) and the regressions that used both species cover and height ($R^2=0.68$ to 0.90), with
322 height having a significant effect in the case of *Cyrtococcum accrescens*, *Cyrtococcum*
323 *oxyphyllum*, *Cyrtococcum patens*, *Oplismenus compositus*, and *Oryza sativa*. The $AICc$
324 values were smaller in the models that included height in these species but none of the
325 species showed large differences (>10) in $AICc$ that would suggest an overwhelming
326 advantage to adding height in regression models (Table 4).

327

328 #Table 3 approximately here.

329

330 #Table 4 approximately here.

331

332 *Relationship between diversity indices calculated from visually-estimated species covers and*
333 *the respective species biomass in forest habitat*

334 The average number of graminoid species per $1\text{ m} \times 1\text{ m}$ quadrat was 4.7 (95% CI: 4.02–
335 5.38) out of which the average number of food species per quadrat was 3.74 (95% CI: 3.24–
336 4.24). Species diversity calculated using visually-estimated cover explained a large

337 proportion of variance in the diversity calculated using biomass data, at both the plot level
338 (20 m × 5 m) and quadrat level, and when diversity was measured by either the Simpson's
339 diversity index or the Shannon-Wiener diversity index (H') (Figure 4, Table 5). Similar
340 regressions of biomass-based diversity on visual cover-based diversity using only elephant
341 food graminoid species, rather than all graminoid species, also showed strong relationships
342 (Table 5).

343

344 #Table 5 approximately here

345

346 #Fig. 4 approximately here#

347

348 *Relationship between visually-estimated total graminoid cover and total graminoid biomass*
349 *in grassland habitat*

350 Based on data from 550 quadrats, the mean graminoid biomass was calculated to be 0.684 kg
351 (95% CI: 0.655–0.712 kg). Visual estimation of total graminoid cover, along with month and
352 zone ID as categorical predictors, explained total graminoid biomass to a large extent
353 (General regression model, test of SS Whole Model vs. SS Residual: $R = 0.78$, $R^2 = 0.61$, $F[3,$
354 $54] = 281.64$, $P < 0.001$, $AICc = -1687.49$). The effects of total graminoid cover and month
355 were significant ($\beta_{\text{total graminoid cover}} = 0.51$, $\beta_{\text{month}} = 0.41$), whereas zone did not have a
356 significant effect. The addition of average height improved the R^2 value (Test of SS Whole
357 Model vs. SS Residual: $R = 0.83$, $R^2 = 0.69$, $F[4, 544] = 306.84$, $P < 0.001$, $AICc = -1819.85$),
358 with significant effects of total graminoid cover, height, and month, but not zone, on biomass
359 ($\beta_{\text{total graminoid cover}} = 0.44$, $\beta_{\text{height}} = 0.30$, $\beta_{\text{month}} = 0.41$).

360

361 **Discussion**

362 We found that visual assessment of cover, which allows for rapid sampling, performed very
363 well in assessing forage availability in forest and grassland habitat. Using this method, we
364 were able to obtain fairly accurate estimates of biomass of graminoids in general and food
365 graminoids of Asian elephants in particular. The biomass harvest method has been suggested

366 to be an ideal measure of abundance (Wilson 1991, Chiarucci et al. 1999) of herbaceous
367 vegetation, but can be time-consuming if species have to be hand-sorted and weighed
368 separately (Harmony et al. 1997, Lavorel et al. 2008). Biomass harvesting also has limitations
369 with respect to permits in critical wildlife areas because of its destructive nature, unlike visual
370 estimation of cover. We found that visually estimated cover, which does not suffer from these
371 drawbacks, was a good proxy for biomass of individual food species, as well as total
372 graminoid biomass, in complex forest habitats. Such estimation of individual species or
373 portions of the vegetation (in our study area, herbs are more abundant than graminoids) is not
374 feasible with other non-destructive methods (discussed in Radloff and Mucina 2007, Redjadj
375 et al. 2012, Walter et al. 2015). An objection to the visual estimation of species covers had
376 been that the “sum of species covers” as a measure of total cover would give “non-sense
377 number”s that exceeded 100% (Wilson 2011). Wilson (2011) had argued that there was no
378 particular reason why between-species leaf overlaps would be helpful while within-species
379 overlaps would not be important. However, empirically, the sum of species covers performed
380 better at explaining total graminoid biomass in our study, and, perhaps, this is because it
381 incorporates at least some (between-species) overlap component (see Figure 1), unlike the
382 total graminoid cover that does not include any overlap. The sum of graminoid species covers
383 may perform better than total graminoid cover when the within-species leaf overlap is smaller
384 than the between-species leaf overlap. We speculate that this might be true of forests with
385 multiple strata, in which individuals in the lower strata avoid self-shading and individuals of
386 the same species are not very close to one another in order to reduce competition. Since the
387 sum of graminoid species cover better represents total biomass compared to total cover (as
388 discussed above) and since species-level cover estimates are highly related to species
389 biomass, one can obtain good estimates of the proportional abundance of foods by dividing
390 the sum of food species covers by the sum of all species covers. This would be useful for
391 studies on foraging ecology in tropical forests with high diversity where food species are a
392 small fraction of the total number of species present.

393 The inclusion of height in regression models yielded mixed results. In the forests, total
394 graminoid biomass and sum of species biomass were explained adequately by cover and most
395 models that included height were not substantially better than those that did not include
396 height (small differences in *AICc*). The effect of height was not significant at the individual
397 species-level also for most food species. On the other hand, the relationship between cover
398 and total graminoid biomass was improved by the inclusion of average height in the grassland

399 habitat. This pattern may result from higher variability in total cover (average total graminoid
400 cover=54.85%, CV total graminoid cover=42.33%) than in height (average weighted
401 height=24.63cm, CV weighted height=32%) in forest habitat. As cover by graminoids
402 saturates (total cover estimate has an upper limit of 100% whereas biomass and height are not
403 limited) and relative variability in cover decreases vis-à-vis height, for example, in grasslands
404 or swamps, the explanatory power of height with respect to that of cover is expected to
405 increase. Thus, in the grassland habitat, where cover is closer to saturation and less variable
406 (average total graminoid cover: 87.27%, CV for total graminoid cover: 19.17%; average
407 height=5.71cm, CV for height: 46.84%) the effect of height relative to that of graminoid
408 cover ($\beta_{\text{total graminoid cover}}=0.44$, $\beta_{\text{height}}=0.30$, $P<0.05$ for both) was greater than that in the
409 forest habitat ($\beta_{\text{total graminoid cover}}=0.78$, $\beta_{\text{weighted average of species heights}}=0.21$, $P<0.05$ for both).
410 We thus found that there was no overwhelming benefit to including height in forest habitat,
411 while it might be worthwhile measuring height in grassland habitat. The improvement in
412 biomass estimation models after inclusion of height has also been reported in other grassland
413 habitats like tussock-grasslands in alpine Andes (Oliveras et al. 2013) and rangelands in
414 Argentina (Guevara et al. 2002). In forest habitats, such relationships have been rarely
415 studied for graminoids, although in one study in pine forests of Arizona, height did not result
416 in substantial improvement to predictive power of models that used only cover (Andariese
417 and Covington 1986). In habitats where cover is near saturation value (100%), we suggest
418 that measurement of height can substantially improve biomass estimates, as seen in grassland
419 habitat in our study. The limited predictive power of cover in plots with high cover values
420 (above 80%) has also been discussed in Axmanová et al. (2012) for wet meadows of
421 temperate Central Europe. One caveat is that we do not know if graminoid height itself
422 affects selection of foraging sites by animals.

423 We also found that the species diversity of graminoids as calculated from cover data
424 explained large variations in the diversity indices measured from biomass data when used
425 along with forest type as a categorical variable. This similarity in community characteristics
426 from the two methods further support the utility of visual estimation as a rapid assessment
427 method in foraging ecology since ecologists may also be interested in assessing the diversity
428 of foraging sites in order to test whether an animal selects a few food items or feeds on a
429 wide range of species from the available plant species (e.g. Owen-Smith and Chafota 2012).
430 Apart from selectivity, since prolonged feeding on a few plant species may result in
431 accumulation of specific secondary metabolites which can be difficult to detoxify by the

432 mechanism for those metabolites, it is hypothesised that feeding on a wide range of species
433 allows multiple counter pathways to share the load of detoxification of multiple types of
434 secondary metabolites (reviewed in Marsh et al. 2006). Some generalist feeders may thus
435 adopt a strategy of feeding on a variety of plants, thereby increasing their feeding rates.
436 Quantification of species diversity may thus be useful in addressing such proximal aspects of
437 foraging which affect patch selection. Such proximate mechanisms have been invoked to
438 explain the relation between the diet of African elephants and tree diversity in the habitat
439 (Cordon et al. 2011).

440

441 One possible limitation of this study is that we measured fresh rather than dry biomass.
442 Fresh biomass has a component of leaf water content, which can change temporally based on
443 environmental conditions. Therefore, the cover-biomass relationship that we recovered based
444 on fresh biomass measurement may not be the same as that based on dry biomass
445 measurement. However, it is often of interest to measure fresh biomass in studies of foraging
446 because that is the weight of food that an animal would consume. We addressed the issue of
447 observer bias associated with the visual method (Tonteri 1990) to some extent by having a
448 single observer (HG) carry out the cover estimation from all sites. As observer-related errors
449 can cumulatively become large if many observers are involved in data collection (Tonteri
450 1990, Klimeš 2003), it would be necessary to consider the error across observers before the
451 final estimation.

452 In summary, we find that the visual estimation method performs very well in assessing
453 forage availability in a tropical forest and a grassland habitat, and can, therefore, be used in
454 studies of elephant habitat and forage selection. This will save time and allow for sampling a
455 larger number of sites. Our study was carried out in tropical deciduous forests, which
456 constitute more than 65% of the total forest area in India (Reddy et al. 2015) and about one-
457 sixth of the forest cover in South-east Asia (Wohlfart et al. 2014). It is likely that the positive
458 relationship between cover and biomass will hold in similar forests, although the strength of
459 the relationship may vary geographically. We do not imply that the relationships we find are
460 completely transferable to other locations and suggest independent assessments in order to
461 develop site-specific cover-to-biomass models. However, since we show that visual estimates
462 of cover can be very useful in studies of foraging, this opens up the method for use by various
463 researchers, who may have otherwise been deterred from using this based on a few previous

464 studies. Moreover, since other sympatric ungulates like *Axis axis* and *Bos gaurus* are also
465 primarily grazers (Ahrestani et al. 2012), the visual estimation method should also work well
466 for quantifying the resource distribution for these generalist ungulates in our study site and
467 similar deciduous forests.

468

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477

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586 **Tables**

587 **Table 1:** Results from homogeneity of slopes test to examine the effect of forest type on the
588 regression slopes of graminoid biomass on three continuous predictors: 1) sum of species
589 covers, 2) total cover, and 3) weighted average of species heights.

	Sum of species cover	Total cover	Weighted heights
Effect of forest type on slope	$F[2, 33] = 0.35,$ $P = 0.704$	$F[2, 33] = 0.43,$ $P = 0.652$	$F[2, 33] = 1.13,$ $P = 0.336$
Effect of continuous predictor	$F[1, 33] = 57.21,$ $P < 0.001$	$F[1, 33] = 35.34,$ $P < 0.001$	$F[1, 33] = 1.07,$ $P = 0.308$

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605 **Table 2:** Results of regressions to examine how visual estimates of cover explain total
 606 graminoid biomass in forest habitat, and the additional utility of weighted average of species
 607 heights in improving the total biomass estimates. $P < 0.05$ for all beta coefficient values.
 608 $AICc$ can be used to compare the regressions with and without average species height. The
 609 difference between a model with the lowest $AICc$ and other models are not considered
 610 significant if the difference in $AICc$ is less than two. The model with the lowest $AICc$ is
 611 moderately better than the other models if the difference in $AICc$ is between 4 and 7, and
 612 model with the lowest $AICc$ is considerably better than the other models if the difference in
 613 $AICc$ is >10 .

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Level of analysis	Continuous predictors	R , R^2	F test results	beta	$AICc$
Plot level (20 x 5m)	Total cover	0.80, 0.63	$F[3,35]=20.11$, $P<0.001$	$\text{beta}_{\text{total graminoid cover}}=0.76$	-198.24
	Total cover + Weighted height	0.82, 0.68	$F[4,34]=17.78$, $P<0.001$	$\text{beta}_{\text{total graminoid cover}}=0.78$, $\text{beta}_{\text{weighted ave. of species heights}}=0.21$	-200.70
	Sum of species cover	0.84, 0.70	$F[3,35]=27.36$, $P<0.001$	$\text{beta}_{\text{sum of graminoid species covers}}=0.82$	-206.25
	Sum of species cover + Weighted height	0.86, 0.74	$F[4,34]=24.00$, $P<0.001$	$\text{beta}_{\text{sum of graminoid species covers}}=0.83$, $\text{beta}_{\text{weighted ave. of species heights}}=0.20$	-208.97
Quadrat level (1 x 1m)	Total cover	0.78, 0.61	$F[3,111]=58.6$ $6, P<0.001$	$\text{beta}_{\text{total graminoid cover}}=0.76$	-535.55
	Total cover + Weighted height	0.80, 0.64	$F[4,110]=48.5$ $5, P<0.001$	$\text{beta}_{\text{total graminoid cover}}=0.73$, $\text{beta}_{\text{weighted ave. of species heights}}=0.16$	-541.15
	Sum of species	0.85, $F[3,111]=92.7$		$\text{beta}_{\text{sum of graminoid species}}$	-570.64

cover	0.71	9, $P < 0.001$	$\text{covers} = 0.84$
Sum of species	0.86,	$F[4,110] = 79.0$	$\text{beta}_{\text{sum of graminoid species}} = -579.89$
cover +	0.74	1, $P < 0.001$	$\text{covers} = 0.81$, $\text{beta}_{\text{weighted ave. of species heights}} = -0.17$
Weighted height			

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623 **Table 3.** Results for plot-level regressions of graminoid species biomass on 1) visually-
 624 estimated species cover, and 2) visually-estimated species cover and measured average
 625 species height, in forest habitat. Details of the regressions are shown based on analysis of log-
 626 transformed data along with R^2 untransformed data (shown as R^2 (untr.)). P values for the
 627 regressions are not shown separately, except for *Digitaria* sp.2, because all the other P values
 628 (for transformed and untransformed data) were smaller than 0.001. #Effect of habitat in
 629 multiple regression was significant. **Effect of height was significant. See Table 2 for
 630 interpretation of $AICc$ differences.

631

Species	Species cover						Species cover and avg. species height					
	F	$df_1,$ df_2	R	R^2	$AICc$	R^2 (untr.)	F	$df_1,$ df_2	R	R^2	$AICc$	R^2 (untr.)
<i>Axonopus compressus</i>	22.36	3,15	0.90	0.82 #	-57.69	0.71	15.77	4,14	0.90	0.82 #	-54.56	0.71
<i>Chloris dolichostachya</i>	73.62	3,14	0.97	0.94 #	-58.16	0.93 #	56.32	4,13	0.97	0.95 #	-56.40	0.94 #
<i>Cynodon dactylon</i>	58.58	3,10	0.97	0.95	-42.22	0.83	39.93	4,9	0.97	0.95	-38.30	0.85
<i>Cyrtococcum accrescens</i>	38.47	3,22	0.92	0.84	-65.74	0.67 #	29.80	4,21	0.92	0.85	-64.67	0.69
<i>Cyrtococcum oxyphyllum</i>	56.99	3,16	0.96	0.91	-58.39	0.87	41.34	4,15	0.96	0.92	-55.79	0.88
<i>Cyrtococcum patens</i>	113.81	3,8	0.99	0.98	-40.45	0.89	82.59	4,7	0.99	0.98	-36.97	0.89
<i>Digitaria</i> sp.2	4.03	3,7; $P=$ 0.059	0.80	0.63	-23.69	0.74	3.33	4,6; $P=$ 0.092	0.83	0.69	-20.29	0.90**
<i>Kyllinga monocephala</i>	82.01	3,15	0.97	0.94	-48.02	0.89	57.55	4,14	0.97	0.94	-44.81	0.89
<i>Oplismenus compositus</i>	74.09	3,33	0.93	0.87	-100.10	0.79	64.40	4,32	0.94	0.89**	-103.38	0.84**
<i>Oryza sativa</i>	21.02	3,10	0.93	0.86	-36.39	0.86	16.17	4,9	0.94	0.88	-33.94	0.87

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635 **Table 4.** Results for quadrat-level regressions of graminoid species biomass on visually-
 636 estimated species cover, and of species biomass on visually-estimated species cover and
 637 measured average species height for forest habitat. Details of the regressions are shown based
 638 on analysis of log-transformed data along with R^2 untransformed data (shown as R^2 (untr.)).
 639 $P < 0.001$ for multiple regressions. #Effect of habitat in multiple regression was significant.
 640 **Effect of height was significant. See Table 2 for interpretation of $AICc$ differences.

641

Species	Species cover						Species cover and avg. species height					
	F	df_1, df_2	R	R^2	$AICc$	R^2 (untr.)	F	df_1, df_2	R	R^2	$AICc$	R^2 (untr.)
<i>Axonopus compressus</i>	25.84	3,26	0.87	0.75	-61.57	0.76	19.79	4,25	0.87	0.76	-60.24	0.76
<i>Chloris dolichostachya</i>	36.68	3,32	0.88	0.77	-83.80	0.88	27.18	4,31	0.88	0.78	-81.81	0.88
<i>Cynodon dactylon</i>	55.33	3,21	0.94	0.89	-67.24	0.83	45.49	4,20	0.95	0.90	-67.53	0.83
<i>Cyrtococcum accrescens</i>	50.27	3,41	0.89	0.79 #	-98.43	0.53	39.72	4,40	0.89	0.80	-98.76	0.61**
<i>Cyrtococcum oxyphyllum</i>	59.39	3,38	0.91	0.82	-100.92	0.70	52.63	4,37	0.92	0.85**	-105.28	0.72
<i>Cyrtococcum patens</i>	42.47	3,16	0.94	0.89	-55.75	0.74	31.50	4,15	0.95	0.89	-53.53	0.81**
<i>Digitaria</i> sp.2	10.69	3,15	0.83	0.68	-26.19	0.81	7.48	4,14	0.83	0.68	-22.94	0.81
<i>Kyllinga monocephala</i>	81.55	3,28	0.95	0.90	-78.76	0.81	63.29	4,27	0.95	0.90	-78.17	0.82
<i>Oplismenus compositus</i>	91.64	3,82	0.88	0.77	-170.46	0.73	73.76	4,81	0.89	0.78**	-173.8	0.74**
<i>Oryza sativa</i>	24.31	3,14	0.92	0.84	-43.74	0.85	27.39	4,13	0.94	0.89**	-47.90	0.89**

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647 **Table 5:** Results from multiple regressions to examine the relationship between diversity
648 indices calculated using biomass data and cover data. $P < 0.001$ in all cases.

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Scale	All graminoid species		Food graminoid species	
	Simpson's index (1-D)	Shannon-Wiener index (H')	Simpson's index (1-D)	Shannon-Wiener index (H')
<i>Plot Level</i>	$R=0.93, R^2=0.87,$ $F[3,36]=79.92$	$R=0.85, R^2=0.72,$ $F[3,36]=30.12$	$R=0.92, R^2=0.85,$ $F[3,36]=67.42$	$R=0.95, R^2=0.89,$ $F[3,36]=101.44$
<i>Quadrat Level</i>	$R=0.89, R^2=0.80,$ $F[3,115]=150.47$	$R=0.93, R^2=0.86,$ $F[3,115]=232.56$	$R=0.88, R^2=0.78,$ $F[3,115]=132.86$	$R=0.92, R^2=0.84,$ $F(3,115)=205.55$

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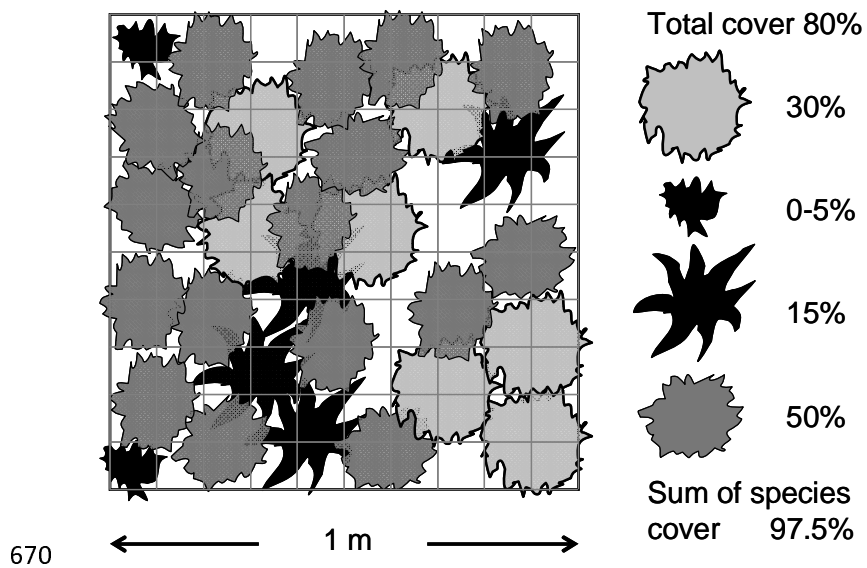
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665 **Figures**

666 **Figure 1:** Illustration of a 1 m × 1 m sampling quadrat, showing estimates of total cover,
667 individual species covers of four species (shown as different combinations of shape and
668 colour), and sum of species cover. The sum of species cover is higher than total cover
669 primarily because of between-species overlaps.

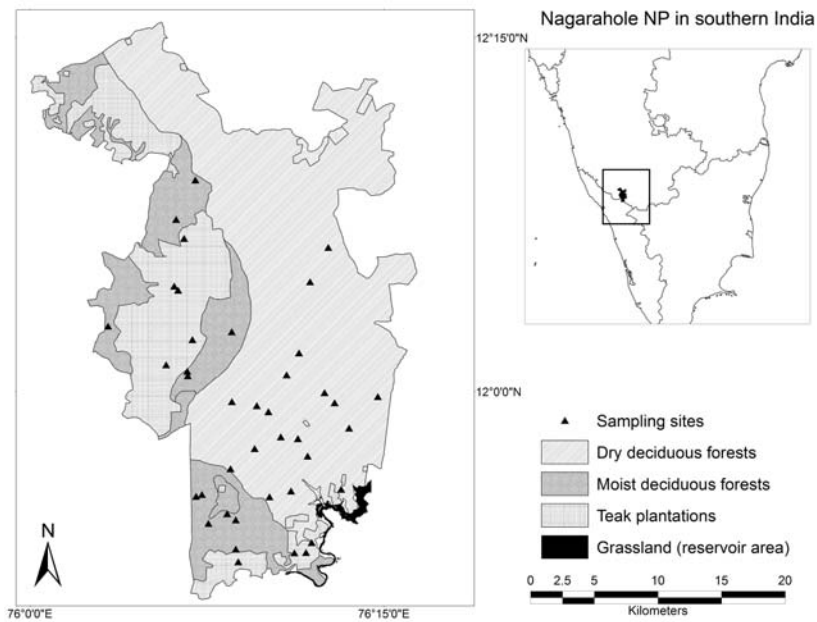


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672 **Figure 2:** Locations of sampling sites in the study area. The forest type classification is based
673 on Pascal (1982). Inset: map of southern India showing the location of Nagarahole National
674 Park.

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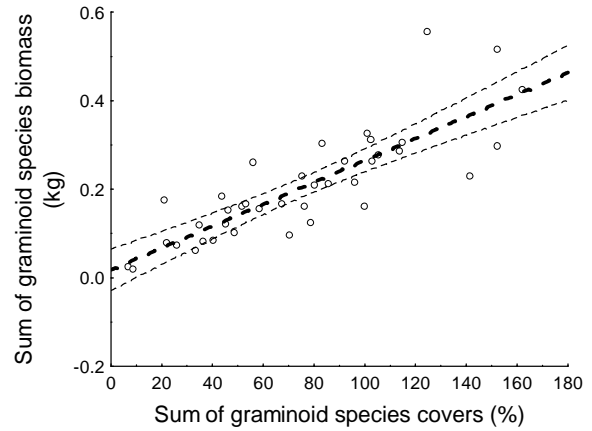
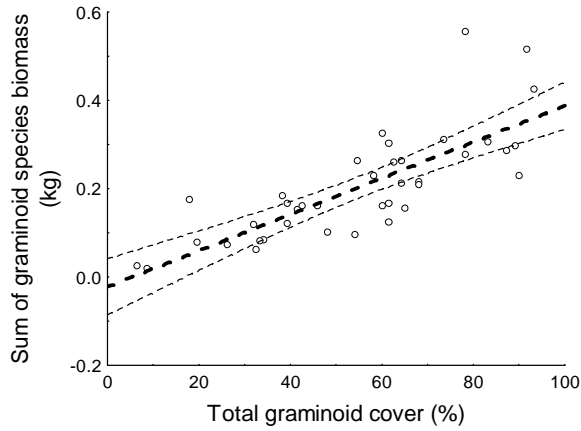


678 **Figure 3:** Scatter plots for the plot-level graminoid abundance data from the forest plots,
679 showing the relation between a) visually-assessed total graminoid cover and total graminoid
680 biomass and b) the sum of visually-assessed individual graminoid species cover and total
681 graminoid biomass.

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a) $y = -0.0216 + 0.00410x$

b) $y = 0.01824 + 0.00247x$



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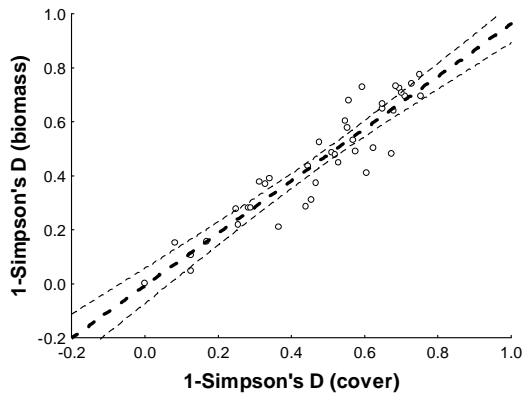
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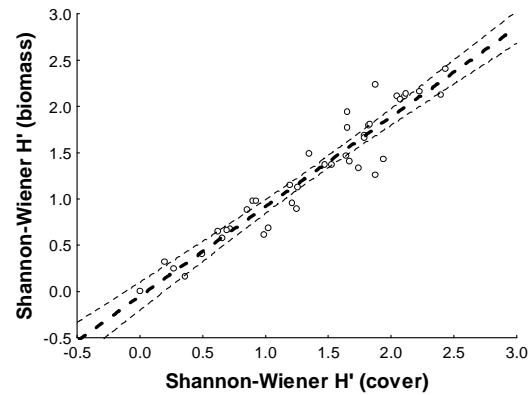
686 **Figure 4:** Scatter plots for the plot-level graminoid abundance data from the forest plots,
687 showing the relationships between Simpson's diversity indices ($1-D$) calculated from cover
688 and biomass data (a, c) and Shannon-Wiener diversity indices (H') calculated from cover and
689 biomass data (b, d). All graminoid species are included in a) and b), while only elephant food
690 species are included in c) and d).

691

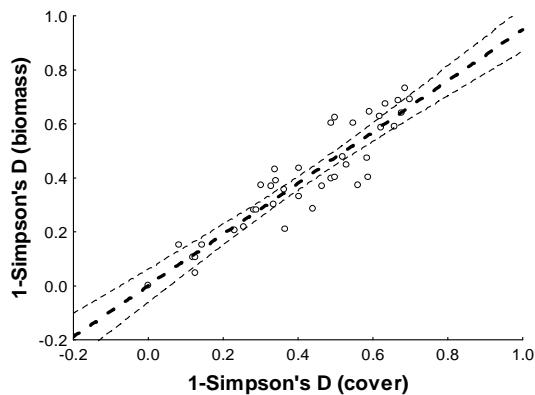
a) $y = -0.0068 + 0.97050x$



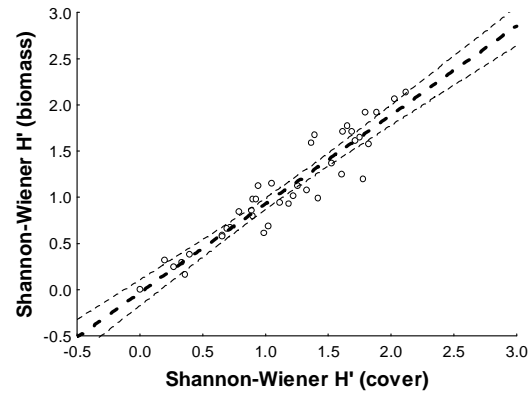
b) $y = -0.0484 + 0.96844x$



c) $y = 0.00123 + 0.94883x$



d) $y = -0.0295 + 0.96124x$



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