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Controles ambientais e bióticos da dinâmica de plântulas em uma floresta de
terra-firme da Amazônia central

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Manaus, Amazonas

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terra-firme da Amazônia central

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Sinopse: Foram investigados a relação de eventos de seca com a mortalidade de plântulas e sua interação com diferentes tipos de solo. A distribuição de plântulas e adultos de algumas espécies de árvores e palmeiras foi avaliada, buscando-se encontrar se as espécies estavam espacialmente restritas a algum trecho do gradiente de argila no solo, e em qual estágio ontogenético essa restrição ocorria. Finalmente foram investigados mecanismos envolvidos na formação de padrões de distribuição de genótipos na população de uma espécie comum na Amazônia em diferentes estágios de desenvolvimento, com o uso de ferramentas moleculares. A similaridade genética entre indivíduos vizinhos foi calculada para diferentes classes de tamanho de plantas e em diferentes ambientes, buscando entender o papel de filtros bióticos e abióticos na formação de padrões de parentesco na população.

Palavras-chave: plântulas, Teoria de Janzen-Connell, mortalidade, gradiente edáfico, pluviosidade, sazonalidade, Amazônia central, Reserva Ducke.

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Resumo

A transição de plântulas para estágios mais avançados de desenvolvimento é um momento crucial na definição da distribuição de plantas nos trópicos. Dessa forma faz-se necessário compreender os mecanismos envolvidos neste estágio de vida. Assim como na distribuição de plantas adultas, características do solo têm grande influência no estabelecimento de plântulas, mas com diferente intensidade. Este estudo aborda de três formas distintas o papel da granulometria do solo no estabelecimento de plântulas de espécies amazônicas. (1) Para avaliar como a sazonalidade interage com a textura do solo influenciando o estabelecimento de plântulas, a mortalidade e recrutamento de plântulas foram monitorados em 30 parcelas ao longo do gradiente ambiental durante duas estações chuvosas e três estações secas. O atraso nos efeitos da chuva na mortalidade de plântulas foi acessado a partir da comparação da série temporal de chuva com as séries temporais de mortalidade e recrutamento por meio de correlação cruzada e regressões múltiplas com *lags* de valores de chuva. Encontramos que seca extrema tem grande efeito na mortalidade de plântulas e que seus efeitos continuam durante a estação chuvosa subsequente. Os efeitos negativos da seca na sobrevivência das plântulas em solos argilosos foram observados um mês após o final das chuvas. No entanto a influência da falta de chuva na sobrevivência de plântulas em solos arenosos foi mais imediata, indicando que os baixios são mais vulneráveis ao stress hídrico. Esta pode ser uma das razões para a composição de plantas nos baixios ter um alto *turnover* com relação aos platôs e vertentes. (2) Ao observar a distribuição de árvores adultas e plântulas ao longo do gradiente de argila no solo foi possível descrever padrões de restrição de espécies a diferentes porções do gradiente edáfico. A maioria das espécies restritas só apresentou essa condição no estágio adulto, sugerindo uma contração do habitat com o avanço dos estágios de vida. Duas espécies foram restritas apenas quando plântulas, o que pode indicar assincronia temporal e/ou espacial na frutificação ao longo do gradiente. (3) Buscando evidências de efeitos de denso-dependência no estabelecimento de plântulas, foi descrita a estrutura genética de uma população de *Protium subserratum*, uma espécie de árvore comum na Amazônia. Plântulas espacialmente próximas umas das outras tenderam a ser mais similares geneticamente, e essa similaridade diminuiu conforme a distância entre as plântulas aumentava e o estágio ontogenético avançava. No entanto arvoretas e adultos não seguiram essa tendência, e a similaridade entre indivíduos vizinhos nessa classe de tamanho foi alta. Isso sugere um balanço compensatório entre os efeitos negativos de estar próximo de um adulto conspecífico

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Title: Environmental and biotic drivers of seedling dynamics in a terra firme forest in Central Amazon

Abstract

The transition of seedlings to advanced development stages is probably the most important bottleneck defining plant distribution in the tropics. Thus there is a need to better understand the mechanisms acting at this life stage. As with adult distribution, edaphic features greatly influence seedling establishment, but with different strength. This study comprises three different approaches on seedling establishment along a clay soil gradient. (1) In order to evaluate how seasonality interacts with soil texture in influencing seedling establishment, seedling mortality and recruitment were monitored at 30 plots along the environmental gradient, during two rainy seasons and three dry seasons. The time needed for rainfall decrease to affect seedling mortality was assessed by comparing the time series of rainfall with the time series of seedling mortality and recruitment with cross-correlation analysis and multiple lagged-regressions. We found that the effects of the extreme dry season on seedling mortality continued into the rainy season. Drought effects had a delay of approximately 1 month in seedlings of clay soils and an immediate effect on seedlings in sandy soil, indicating that this environment is more vulnerable to drought stress. That may be one of the reasons the plant composition in the valleys (always with sandy soils at Ducke) has a higher turnover than on the plateaus and slope. (2) Observing adult trees and seedlings distribution across a topographic gradient it was possible to describe patterns of restriction of species to different portions of the environmental gradient. Most of the species were restricted at the adult stage, suggesting a contraction of the suitable habitat as ontogenetic development proceeds. Two species were restricted only during seedling stage, which might indicate temporal and/or spatially fruiting asynchrony across the soil gradient. (3) Searching for evidence of density-dependent effects on seedling establishment, the genetic structure of a tree species population was estimated, and the changes of the structure across different stages of development was assessed. Seedlings spatially close to each other tend to be more genetically similar, but the similarity decreased as distance was augmented and as the plant grew older, but juveniles and adults did not follow that trend, as relatedness values were higher among neighboring individuals in this size class. That suggests a trade-off between the negative effects of being

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Introdução geral

Um dos grandes objetivos da ecologia vegetal continua sendo a compreensão dos fatores determinantes da distribuição de plantas nos trópicos, assim como a determinação da parcela de influência de fatores estocásticos, interações bióticas e propriedades do ambiente na composição final das comunidades (Diamond 1975). No entanto, a vasta maioria de estudos sobre o tema foca nos estágios finais de desenvolvimento das plantas, avaliando a composição da comunidade com base na distribuição de indivíduos adultos. Considerando que os processos envolvidos na mortalidade de plantas em estágios iniciais de desenvolvimento podem influenciar desproporcionalmente a estrutura das comunidades (Clark et al. 2007), entender os determinantes da distribuição de plântulas no sub-bosque de florestas influencia diretamente o modo de interpretar a distribuição de espécies e composição das comunidades.

Assim como os indivíduos adultos, plântulas respondem à fatores bióticos e abióticos, mas são de maneira geral muito mais sensíveis a eles. A emergência e estabelecimento de plântulas são influenciados, entre outros fatores, pela camada de serrapilheira (Molofsky & Augspurger 1992, Donath & Eckstein 2012), pela quantidade de luz que atinge o sub-bosque (Augspurger 1984), por patógenos e/ou herbivoria (Bell et al. 2006, Alvarez-Loayza & Terborgh 2011, Packer & Clay 2000), pela disponibilidade de água no ambiente (Slot & Poorter 2007, Engelbrecht et al. 2005, Brenes-Arguedas et al. 2009, Tyree et al. 2003) e fatores associados com a variação topo-edáfica (Comita & Engelbrecht 2009). As variáveis que representam o solo e a topografia relacionam-se, direta ou indiretamente, a outras variáveis ambientais e por isso têm sido usadas como características ambientais preditivas da

distribuição de plantas em várias florestas tropicais (Tuomisto & Ruokolainen 1993, Tuomisto et al. 2003, Bohlman et al. 2008).

O presente estudo foi realizado na Reserva Ducke, próximo à cidade de Manaus, na Amazônia central. A Reserva Ducke compreende uma área de 100 km² com grande variação topo-edáfica o que, como consequência, confere à esta área uma grande heterogeneidade ambiental. Um dos traços mais marcantes nesta floresta é a grande variação na relação argila/areia nos solos, compreendendo um gradiente de textura do solo completo, que muda gradativamente com a altitude de solos extremamente arenosos (2% de argila) para solos com alto teor de argila (90%). Essa configuração permitiu o desenvolvimento de uma série de estudos quanto à distribuição de plantas (i.e., Costa et al. 2005, 2009, Kinupp & Magnusson 2005, Freitas 2012). Um grande facilitador para o desenvolvimento de estudos ecológicos na Reserva foi a publicação do Guia de Campo para a identificação da Flora da Reserva Ducke (Ribeiro et al. 1999). No entanto a falta de conhecimento taxonômico das espécies amazônicas em estágios iniciais de desenvolvimento é provavelmente uma das razões para o pouco conhecimento sobre a ecologia de plântulas na Amazônia brasileira.

Este estudo se propõe a avaliar o processo de estabelecimento de plântulas abordando alguns mecanismos responsáveis pela filtragem ambiental e suas interações com propriedades edáficas. Um dos fatores mais importantes para a sobrevivência das plântulas é a disponibilidade de água (Engelbrecht et al. 2005), que em determinadas situações pode ter mais peso para as plântulas do que fatores como a herbivoria (Brenes-Arguedas et al. 2009). Uma vez que a textura do solo influencia diretamente a capacidade de reter umidade e disponibilizar água para as plantas, é plausível esperar que ao longo de um gradiente de conteúdo de argila no solo a comunidade de plântulas responda à seca de forma diferente. Trabalhos como o de Comita & Engelbrecht (2009), que abordaram explicitamente o

gradiente edáfico associado à disponibilidade de água na análise de mortalidade de plântulas, encontraram que plântulas respondem de forma diferente a eventos de seca de acordo com o solo onde estão estabelecidas. No entanto a variação nos solos da Ilha de Barro Colorado, local onde o estudo foi realizado, não é tão grande quanto à variação nos solos da Amazônia Central, o que dificulta a comparação de dados entre as áreas.

Além dos efeitos de fatores abióticos (como a água), o estabelecimento de plântulas pode ser afetado por inimigos naturais (Alvarez-Loayza & Terborgh 2011). Neste caso, a tendência é que o sucesso no estabelecimento das plântulas seja positivamente relacionado à distância que a plântula foi dispersa do adulto materno. Esta é uma das previsões da teoria de Janzen-Connell (Janzen 1970, Connell 1971), proposta há décadas atrás e corroborada por uma série de estudos (e.g., Augspurger & Kelly 1984, Harms et al. 2000, Wills et al. 2006, Alvarez-Loayza & Terborgh 2011), mas que ainda é objeto de debate na comunidade científica (Hyatt et al. 2003). Um ponto de discussão é o *tradeoff* entre a desvantagem de uma plântula de estar próxima à planta-mãe, e conseqüentemente sofrer com a transferência de patógenos e/ou herbívoros (Alvarez-Loayza & Terborgh 2011), mas ao mesmo tempo desfrutar de um microhabitat com as características ideais para o desenvolvimento até o estágio adulto (Poorter 2007).

Neste estudo abordamos os efeitos de denso-dependência com o uso de ferramentas moleculares para avaliar mudanças na similaridade genética entre indivíduos em diferentes estágios de vida de uma espécie de árvore que é comum em praticamente toda a Amazônia. A mudança nos padrões de similaridade genética entre indivíduos de uma população de plantas ao longo do desenvolvimento ontogenético pode ser interpretada como um reflexo de efeitos de denso-dependência (competição, herbivoria, etc.) Atuando na distribuição e densidade de plântulas de idades similares. Abordagens similares foram realizadas, buscando entender

como a denso-dependência atua na distribuição das plantas e de suas proles por meio de análise da estrutura genética em pequena escala (Steinitz et al. 2011, Zhou & Chen 2010). No entanto estudos similares são raros em ambientes tropicais, e não há trabalhos que relacionam de forma explícita o efeito de denso-dependência em padrões de similaridade genética a gradientes ambientais, como foi realizado neste estudo.

Dessa forma o presente estudo visa contribuir para um entendimento mais completo dos fatores envolvidos na distribuição de plantas em florestas tropicais, em especial na Amazônia central, região na qual estudos sobre a distribuição de plantas e composição de comunidades raramente consideram os processos ligados aos estágios iniciais de desenvolvimento. Compreender como as plântulas respondem a variáveis climáticas estando em diferentes pontos de um gradiente hidro-edáfico permitirá a criação de modelos mais precisos que visem prever os padrões de distribuição de espécies na paisagem.

Objetivo geral

Avaliar o sucesso do estabelecimento de plântulas durante a fase inicial de desenvolvimento frente às variáveis ambientais de chuva e textura de solo e compreender o papel dos efeitos de denso-dependência na distribuição espacial de plântulas no sub-bosque de uma floresta na Amazônia central.

Objetivos específicos

1. Avaliar a mortalidade e recrutamento de plântulas em função do tipo de solo e da variação inter-anual da chuva, e a interação entre ambas variáveis ambientais.
2. Quantificar se existem efeitos retardados das estações chuvosas e secas na mortalidade de plântulas ao longo de um gradiente topo-edáfico e, caso existam, qual o tamanho do período de atuação destes efeitos.
3. Avaliar se há distribuição preferencial de espécies de árvores e palmeiras em sítios ao longo de um gradiente topo-edáfico e se essa restrição é diferente de acordo com o estágio ontogenético.
4. Quantificar o grau de similaridade genética em uma espécie de árvore comum na Amazônia e que está representada em todos os estágios ontogenéticos ao longo de um gradiente topo-edáfico, de forma a permitir avaliar a importância relativa dos estágios de vida e do hábitat na geração de padrões de denso-dependência.

Capítulo 1

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1

2 LRH: Barbosa, Costa, and Freitas

3 RRH: Drought on Seedling Mortality

4

5

6

7 Seedling drought related mortality in an Amazon terra firme forest: the effects of
8 seasonal rainfall variation and delayed response according to soil type

9

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18

1 **ABSTRACT (246 words)**

2 The transition of seedlings to advanced developmental stages is probably the most
3 important bottleneck defining plant distribution in the tropics. As seedlings are more
4 vulnerable to hydric stress given their limited root system, their survival is highly
5 affected by dry season length. There are plenty of studies describing seedling mortality
6 as a function of drought, but the effects of soil features, responsible for controlling
7 water availability to plants, have not been evaluated across a soil texture gradient long
8 enough to encompass a large variety of soil types. We aimed to understand how
9 seedling establishment limitation differs across sites with different soil texture at a
10 Central Amazon forest and how this variability relates to the seasonal variation of
11 rainfall. We monitored seedling mortality and recruitment at 30 plots with soil clay
12 content ranging from 2 to 87%, and compared seedling mortality among two rainy
13 seasons and three dry seasons. To assess seedling delayed response to rainfall we
14 compared the time series of rainfall with the time series of seedling mortality and
15 recruitment with cross-correlation analysis and multiple lagged-regressions. We found
16 that the effects of an extreme dry season on seedling mortality continued in the rainy
17 season. Drought effects had a delay of approximately 1 month in clayey soil seedlings
18 and an immediate effect on sandy soil seedlings, indicating that this environment is
19 more vulnerable to drought stress. That may be one of the reasons plant composition
20 studies performed in the same site points to higher species turnover in the valleys when
21 comparing to the plateaus and slope.

22

23 Key words: cross-correlation function (CCF), clay content, rainfall, season, seedling
24 survival, soil texture, tropical forest.

1
2 THE FACT THAT HIGHER RAINFALL IN TROPICAL FORESTS OFTEN CORRELATES WITH
3 HIGHER PLANT diversity (Gentry 1988, Pitman et al. 2002) is a good indicator of the
4 ecological relevance of water availability for processes involving plant distribution.
5 That is because the intensity and length of dry seasons (or drought events) can select
6 species that will succeed at a given site according to their drought resistance (Tyree et
7 al. 2003, Engelbrecht et al. 2005, Lloret et al. 2009). The water available to plants
8 comes from rainfall (and consequently from groundwater), but edaphic characteristics
9 play a major role in microsite moisture availability (Comita & Engelbrecht 2009).

10 Soil properties have long been known to influence many ecological processes,
11 and are related to above ground tree biomass (Castilho et al. 2006, Laurance et al. 1999)
12 and plant species composition and distribution (Costa et al. 2009, Kinupp & Magnusson
13 2005, Bohlman et al. 2008, Laurance et al. 2010). To a smaller extent soil properties
14 also are related to adult tree mortality (Toledo et al. 2012). Adult trees have fully
15 developed root systems, and therefore are expected to be able to access deep water,
16 while seedlings root system covers less area and usually do not provide access to deeper
17 water (Gerhardt 1996). Thus the capacity to resist droughts changes according to the
18 ontogenetic stage of the plant, and given the higher susceptibility of seedlings to water
19 shortage, is at the initial development stages that droughts can most influence a species
20 distributional pattern (Engelbrecht et al. 2005, 2007).

21 There is a vast literature on seedling response to droughts, focusing on few
22 species (Engelbrecht et al. 2005, 2006, Slot & Poorter 2007, Tyree et al. 2003) or at the
23 community level (Bunker & Carson 2005, Comita & Engelbrecht 2009), with most
24 studies being performed in greenhouses, or in field manipulations along gradients of

1 rainfall or light. Despite the success of these studies in describing seedling mortality as
2 a function of water availability, it is difficult to understand the effects of water deficit
3 across different topo-edaphic environments given that comparing studies performed at
4 different locations might result in biogeographic issues (Phillips et al. 2010). To our
5 knowledge no study on seedling mortality has been performed on a scale large enough
6 to encompass environmental variation that allows evaluation of seedling community
7 mortality caused by the interaction of rainfall shortages with a gradient in soil texture.

8 In the present study we included a substantial gradient in soil texture, which
9 allowed us to draw comparisons of seedling mortality between extremes of this
10 gradient. Considering the influence of water availability on seedling establishment
11 success, we aimed to understand (1) how drought effects on seedling establishment
12 differ across sites with different soil texture at a Central Amazon tropical forest, and (2)
13 how this variability responds to the seasonal variation of rainfall. Hodnett, Vendrame,
14 Filho, et al. (1997) found that sites at lower altitudes in central Amazonia had the water
15 table near the surface even during the dry season, and predicted that vegetation on those
16 sites would suffer less water stress. However low altitude sites at our study site have
17 sandy soils, and therefore a low potential to retain water. In this context, we
18 hypothesized that, (1) tree seedling mortality and recruitment varies according to
19 rainfall and is different along different soil textures, (2) tree mortality is higher in
20 sandier sites located in lower altitudes.

21

22 **METHODS**

23

1 STUDY SITE – This study was conducted at Reserva Florestal Adolpho Ducke
2 (hereafter referred to as Ducke), a terra firme tropical forest that covers an area of 100
3 km² at the northern limit of the city of Manaus (02°55's, 59°59'w, Figure 1) in the
4 Brazilian state of Amazonas. The vegetation in the area is mainly dense terra firme
5 forest, with some patches of white sand forest. Canopy trees reach 35-40 m height
6 (Ribeiro et al. 1999), the understory receives low light levels and is characterized by a
7 high abundance of acaulescent palms (Guillaumet & Kahn 1982). The soil texture
8 gradient goes from clayey latosols in the plateaus (with up to 90% clay content) to
9 sandier soils downhill from the ridges, until they are almost pure sand soil in the
10 valleys. Soil texture related information was accessed from previously collected data
11 available at <http://ppbio.inpa.gov.br/Eng/inventarios/ducke/pterrestre/>.

12 The mean annual temperature is 26°C, the humidity ranges from 84–91% and
13 there are two distinct seasons: a dry season from June to November, with minimum
14 rainfall at July (mean of 93 mm) and a rainy season from December to May, with
15 maximum rainfall at February (mean of 299 mm) (Marques Filho et al. 2009). At
16 Ducke, the period of 2009 to 2011 had very erratic weather; the rainy seasons of 2009-
17 10 and 2010-11 had rainfall of 1730 and 2300 mm, respectively, while the dry seasons
18 of 2009, 2010 and 2011 had rainfall of 263, 526 and 528 mm, respectively.

19 We conducted our study in 30 permanent plots that were set up as part of the
20 Brazilian Long-Term Ecological Research Program (PELD) and the Brazilian Program
21 for Biodiversity Research (PPBIO). The plots are systematically distributed within a
22 trail grid system covering 25 km², 1 km distant from each other, and are 250 m long
23 with the width of each plot varying according to the taxa or the life stage to be studied
24 (Magnusson et al. 2005). Since the plots follow the altitudinal contours, the altitude is

1 maintained constant throughout the plot length, which is important at Ducke where
2 topography variation (39 -109 meter a.s.l) is highly correlated with soil texture (Costa et
3 al. 2005). Knowing that at Ducke soil texture strongly influences plant community
4 composition (Costa et al. 2009, 2005, Kinupp & Magnusson 2005, Drucker et al. 2008),
5 and following Schiatti et al. (in press), who indicated the environmental limits causing
6 plant composition changes along this gradient, we divided the soils into two classes:
7 “sandy” plots where the soil contained less than 15% clay and “clayey” plots where clay
8 content was greater than 15%.

9 SEEDLING RECRUITMENT MONITORING AND RAINFALL DATA – Seedling recruitment and
10 mortality was monitored at 15 1 m² sub-plots placed along each of the 30 250 m plots (a
11 total of 450 sub-plots), in which all seedlings up to 50 cm height were tagged and
12 mapped. Every month seedling mortality and recruitment were monitored, with new
13 seedlings being tagged and mapped as well. Seedling recruitment and mortality
14 monitoring started in August 2009 and ended in December 2010 and June 2011,
15 respectively. Data on rainfall was collected at the meteorology station at Ducke
16 (CDAM/INPA), with maximum distance to a plot of approximately 8 km.

17 DATA ANALYSIS – All the analysis was undertaken in the community scale, for the
18 identification status of most of the seedlings did not allowed us to evaluate species
19 responses in an individual fashion. Differences in seedling mortality and recruitment
20 across seasons and environments were determined with Student’s t-test. Because the
21 point was to observe the temporal changes in seedling mortality, we used the raw data,
22 which included the temporal trends that were removed from subsequent analyses. For
23 the seasonal analysis, we considered the rainy season as going from December to May,
24 and the dry season from June to September.

1 To assess the periodic component of seedling mortality and recruitment in each
2 environment, the initial step was to identify if there were significant trends in the time
3 series using two mixed models with the Restricted Maximum Likelihood (REML)
4 method to compare and choose the best fit. Since the subsequent analyses demanded
5 stationary time series, trend was removed when present, and the detrended time series
6 were used as response variables. To determine the correlation between each response
7 time series (seedling recruitment and mortality) and the explanatory time series
8 (rainfall) we ran cross-correlation functions (CCF), in order to identify the past values
9 of rainfall (hereafter “rainfall lags”) that were more correlated to the present values of
10 the response variables. After identifying the rainfall lags with higher correlation with
11 mortality and recruitment, we used these lags as explanatory variables in multiple
12 lagged-regression models to evaluate how far back in the rainfall record was it possible
13 to observe influences on seedling mortality and recruitment.

14 Given that seedling mortality is expected to vary not only as a function of the
15 previous rainfall, but also with the previous seedling recruitment, we built a path
16 analysis to determine the direct and indirect (through seedling recruitment) effects of
17 rainfall on seedling mortality. The path model included only the rainfall lags with
18 stronger correlation with either seedling recruitment or mortality in the CCFs.

19 All analyses were performed in R version 2.15.1 (R Development Core Team
20 2010). Mixed models were implemented with the lmer function of the lme4 package
21 (Bates & Maechler 2011), detrending was performed using the function detrend of the
22 RSEIS package (Lees 2011) and cross-correlation functions were performed in nlme
23 package (Pinheiro et al. 2011).

24

1 RESULTS

2
3 Seedling mortality varied greatly among 2009/2010/2011 following the weather
4 differences across those years. More seedlings died in the rainy season of December
5 2009 to May 2010 (mean=135.42 dead seedlings) than in the same period of 2010/11
6 (mean=80.14, $t=1.83$, $p=0.01$) when all seedlings were analyzed together. That pattern
7 was the same when analyzing seedlings according to soil texture (Fig. 2). Mortality for
8 all seedlings in the dry season of 2010 was unexpectedly higher (mean=333.00) than in
9 the dry season of 2009 (mean=214.00, $t=4.27$, $p=0.01$), but that pattern did not appear
10 when analyzed separately by soil type. When searching for trends in mortality in 2009,
11 2010 and 2011, the mixed model identified a significant trend of decreasing mortality
12 for seedlings on sandy soils across the period ($p=0.003$). The trend for clayey plots was
13 not significant ($p=0.11$).

14 The cross-correlation analysis indicated that the mortality of seedlings was
15 negatively correlated with the rainfall of the immediately previous month from which
16 seedling death was observed (t_{-1}), being significant for seedlings from clayey and sandy
17 soils, and also for all seedlings pooled together (Fig.3). There was a weaker negative
18 correlation of mortality with the rainfall lag -2 (t_{-2}), and even though it was not
19 significant, it still indicates a tendency of rainfall lags further back in time influencing
20 mortality. The rainfall in the same month in which seedling death was observed (t_0) was
21 significantly negatively correlated with mortality only in sandy plots. The greater
22 rainfall lags (t_{-4} , t_{-5} and t_{-6}) had high positive correlation with seedling mortality. Despite
23 the negative effects that rainfall excess might have on seedling establishment success,
24 such strong positive influence is contrary to what was expected, given that the events

1 are too far apart. Therefore, we tested only the mortality of seedlings less than four
2 months old, which could not be the result of high rainfall 4 to 6 months before. The
3 same result arose, indicating that the positive correlation has no biological basis, and is
4 a simply product of the way the analysis proceeds, finding any match between cycles.

5 Recruitment of seedlings was significantly and positively correlated with rainfall
6 for all seedlings together and at clayey/sandy soils for rainfall lags -1 and -2 (t_{-1} and t_{-2})
7 (Fig.4). Rainfall lag zero (t_0) was not significantly correlated with clay seedling's
8 recruitment, and rainfall at t_{-3} was not significant for recruitment for all seedlings and
9 those in clay plots but not for those in sandy soils.

10 The lagged regression models (Table 1) indicated that rainfall had a greater
11 influence in sandy soils, for which the same rainfall lags explained 55 and 85% of the
12 variance in sandy soil mortality and recruitment, respectively, compared to 35 and 45%
13 for seedlings in clayey soils. In addition, seedlings in sandy soils were affected by the
14 lack of rain more promptly than those in clayey soils. The rainfall registered for the
15 same month as the death event (lag t_0) was significantly correlated with the death of
16 seedlings only in sandy soil (Fig.3). Also, only the rainfall at t_0 significantly affected
17 seedling mortality in the sand, according to the multiple lagged-regression (Table 1).

18 Multiple lagged-regression of recruitment as a function of rainfall lags also
19 indicated that rainfall has a greater effect on the regeneration process in the sandy plots
20 than clayey plots. In the sandy plots lags t_0 , t_{-1} and t_{-2} explained approximately 85% of
21 the recruitment variation, while the same lags explained 45% of recruitment variation in
22 clay plots. The main effect of rainfall on mortality is direct for either seedlings pooled
23 together or separated according to soil texture (Fig.5). None of the regressions involving
24 seedling recruitment were significant (Table 1).

1 **DISCUSSION**

2

3 **MORTALITY ACROSS SEASONS** – Intense annual variation in precipitation is the natural
4 seasonal pattern in the Central Amazon, but the recent years have seen a tendency
5 towards climatic extremes (Antonio, Satyamurty, & Mendes, 2012). The period during
6 which we monitored seedling establishment and mortality comprised two climatic
7 extremes, with a drought period in 2009, with a total of 263 mm in the dry period
8 (against 526 mm in the same period of 2010), that ended with a late and weak rainy
9 season with low rainfall of 1731 mm (compared to 2301 mm in the rainy season of
10 2010).

11 Seedling community mortality did not decline when the rainy season started, as
12 we would expect. That may be due to the fact that drought events may not only directly
13 induce seedling mortality, but also indirectly predispose seedlings to die by increasing
14 the magnitude of attacks of predators, pathogens or competitors (Engelbrecht et al.
15 2005, Gerhardt 1996). Not only the extreme drought of 2009 caused the death of many
16 seedlings, but also stressed the surviving seedlings. This situation was aggravated by the
17 weak subsequent rainy season. In addition, the weakened seedlings may have suffered
18 with the increase of pathogens and the physical damage caused by overland flow of
19 water that comes with wet season (Daws et al. 2005).

20 Plants respond to drought in different ways, and the optimal strategy is closely
21 linked to the extension and intensity of the drought period. There are seedlings that do
22 not close their stomata to avoid water loss (anisohydric plants), which allows
23 photosynthesis to continue, but may lead it to hydraulic failure if the drought persists for
24 longer periods (mcdowell et al. 2008). Some seedlings avoid losing water by closing the

1 stomata (isohydric plants), but with that strategy photosynthesis is drastically reduced,
2 and the persistence of the plant would depend upon its carbon reserves. Leaf shedding
3 may also reduce photosynthesis and therefore contribute to carbon starvation (Tyree et
4 al. 1993). Any of these strategies may work well during water shortage periods, but as
5 the dry season of 2009 was very strong and long, seedlings that survived into the next
6 rainy season may have depleted their reserves and become more susceptible to other
7 stresses.

8 MORTALITY ACROSS ENVIRONMENTS – Unlike adult trees, that respond to drought events
9 for extended periods after drought occurrence (Phillips et al. 2010), we found as a
10 general pattern that the time elapsed between a below average rainfall and an increase in
11 seedling death was relatively short, within a month at most. That means that even short
12 drought events have the potential to change recruitment outcomes by increasing
13 seedling mortality.

14 Our data indicate a clear interaction between rainfall and soil type on seedling
15 mortality. Not only are seedlings in sandier soils more affected by drought, but also the
16 response to that stress is faster in this environment, since only in sandier plots was
17 mortality negatively related to the rainfall in the same month in which the seedlings
18 died. Engelbrecht et al. (2002) were not able to observe immediate effect of drought on
19 seedling mortality at Barro Colorado, a result that is probably due to the clayey soils of
20 the study site, in which there is no environment comparable with the sandy valleys at
21 Ducke.

22 The higher and faster mortality in the valleys might be a response to the water
23 content in the soil, which is much more variable in sandy soils. The water table in the
24 sandy valleys of our study site can be very superficial (up to 0.6 m deep) during high

1 rainfall periods, but quickly dries down in the absence of rain, attaining more than 1.8 m
2 depth as a lower extreme (Hodnett et al. 1997). There is a delay of months between the
3 beginning of the dry season and the retreat of the water table. Hence, the increase in
4 mortality in the same month that rainy season ceases suggests that the water table level
5 plays a secondary role in the water supply of seedlings, which tend to rely mainly on
6 superficial water provided by rainfall. This community pattern agrees with the
7 observation that *Quercus* seedlings might rely on different water sources than
8 conspecific adult (Cavender-Bares & Bazzaz 2000). Thus, the limited root system of
9 seedlings, combined with the poor capacity of sandy soils in retaining water from
10 rainfall and/or to uptake water from lower soil layers through capillarity may be
11 responsible for the higher mortality in this environment. Clayey soils have a higher
12 water retention capacity, so not only does the water from the rainy season remain
13 available at the surface for a longer period into the dry season, but also the water from
14 the scarcer and shorter rainfalls does not percolate as fast as in sandy areas.

15 The higher mortality related to soil texture might be more relevant in the initial
16 stages of development of a tree, when the root system is not fully developed, reaching
17 neither great area nor depths. Williamson et al. (2000) found no differences in adult tree
18 mortality across sites with different clay content when studying the effects of an El
19 Niño drought in Amazonia, which indicates that adult individuals have access to deeper
20 water sources. At Ducke, adult mortality has a weak but significant relationship to
21 edaphic features, which mainly explain death by snapping or uprooting, and is usually
22 consequence of storms rather than drought (Toledo et al., 2012), which also points to
23 lower stress due lack of water in adult individuals.

1 With higher drought-related mortality, the thinning process tends to be much
2 stronger in sandy sites, which may lead to different species composition among
3 different environments. Schietti et al. (2012) found that tree species composition at
4 Ducke varies more among sandy valley sites than does among clayey plateau sites, a
5 sign of heavier environmental filtering strength at those sites. Laurance et al. (2010)
6 found more tree diversity (species richness and Fisher's α) at clayey soil sites,
7 indicating that sandier soil sites may accommodate a narrower range of species due to
8 its higher environmental stress.

9 The main impact of premature drought-related seedling mortality may be that
10 valleys suffer impacts even in weak dry seasons or during "dry spells" in rainy seasons,
11 as was found by Engelbrecht et al. (2006) for pioneer species. There is an ongoing
12 tendency of intensification of rainy extremes in the Manaus area (Santos et al. 2012),
13 which might increase the frequency of temporary flooding events in the valleys, and
14 consequently seedling mortality due to higher pathogen activity and/or water flow
15 damage (Daws et al. 2005). The changes in the rainfall system of Amazonian forests are
16 undeniable (Marengo et al. 2012), and the current reduction in the interval between
17 extreme drought events (Tomasella et al. 2011) may have a profound influence on
18 seedling establishment, plant distribution and ultimately in community composition.

19

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21

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21

1 List of figures

2 FIGURE 1: Ducke Reserve, located in the north region of Manaus, Amazonas State,
3 Brazil. At the right is the trail grid (lines) that gives access to the 30 plots used on this
4 study (white dots) placed on a map of the altitudinal variation, and darker color
5 indicates higher places.

6 FIGURE 2: Absolute seedling mortality in different seasons (rainy season from
7 December to May, and dry season from July to October); black bars represent all
8 seedlings pooled together, gray bars are seedlings in clay plots, white bars are seedlings
9 in sand plots and the shading is rainfall (mm/month).

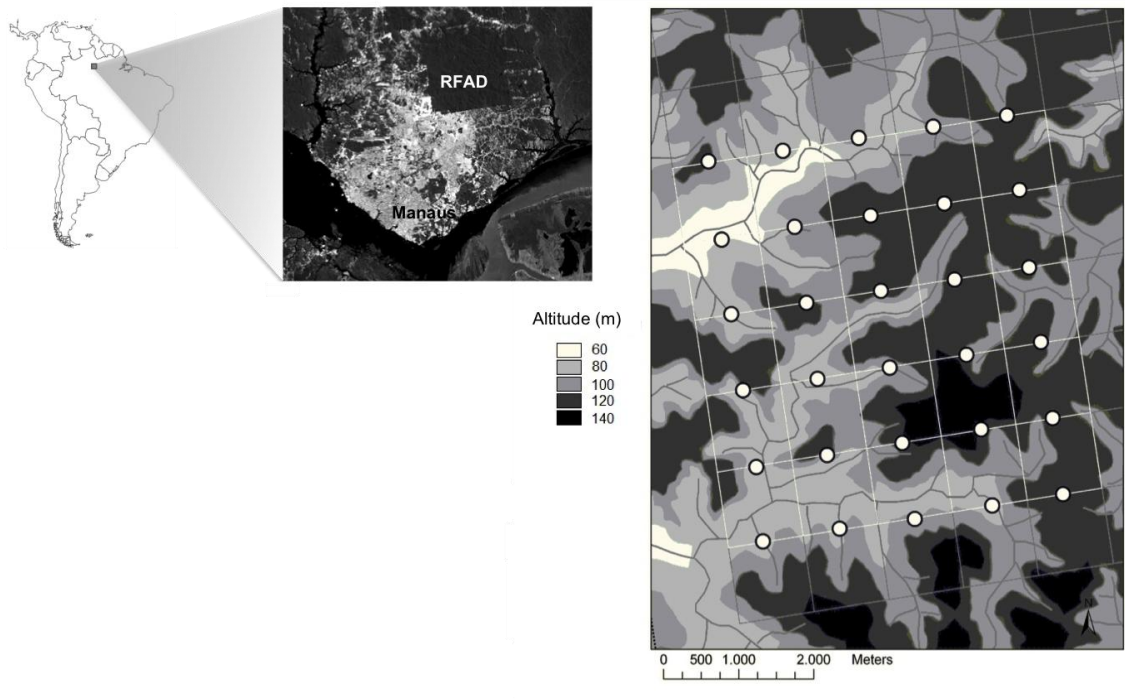
10 FIGURE 3. Cross-correlation values at different lags of seedling mortality and rain (mm);
11 all dead seedlings pooled together (black bars), seedling mortality at clay soil plots
12 (gray bar) and seedling mortality at sand soil plots (white bar). The dashed lines indicate
13 the CI interval based on sample covariances, and values equal or greater than that are
14 considered significant.

15 FIGURE 4. Cross-correlation values at different past lags of seedling recruitment and rain
16 (mm). Showed all recruited seedlings pooled together (black bars), seedling recruitment
17 at clay soil plots (gray bar) and seedling recruitment at sand soil plots (white bar). The
18 dashed lines indicate the CI interval based on sample covariances, and values equal or
19 greater than that are considered significant.

20 FIGURE 5. Path analysis of rainfall effect on seedling mortality both direct and as an
21 indirect factor passing through seedling recruitment, with all seedlings pooled together
22 (a), seedlings in clay soils (b) and seedlings in sandy soils (c). Strength of relationship is

- 1 represented by the thickness of the arrows. Asteriks near relationship values indicate
- 2 significance (*= $p < 0.05$ and **= $p < 0.01$).

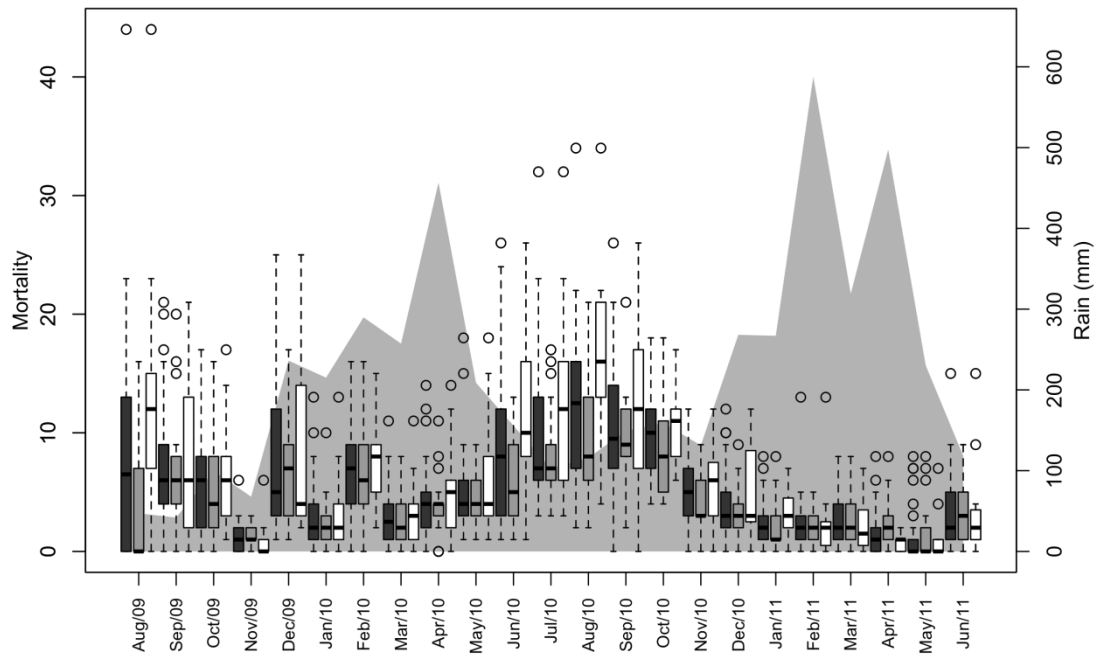
1 **Fig. 1**



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1 **Fig. 2**



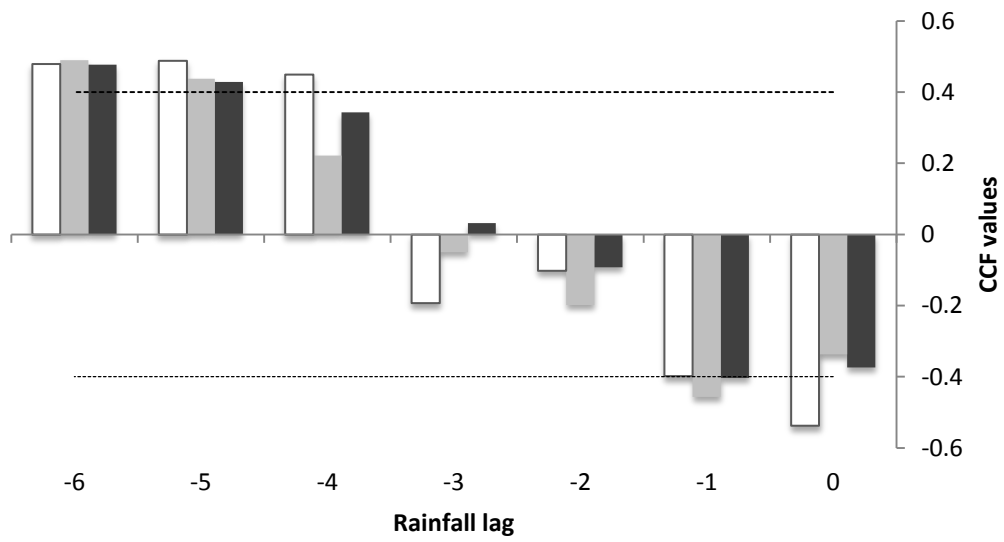
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1 **Fig. 3**

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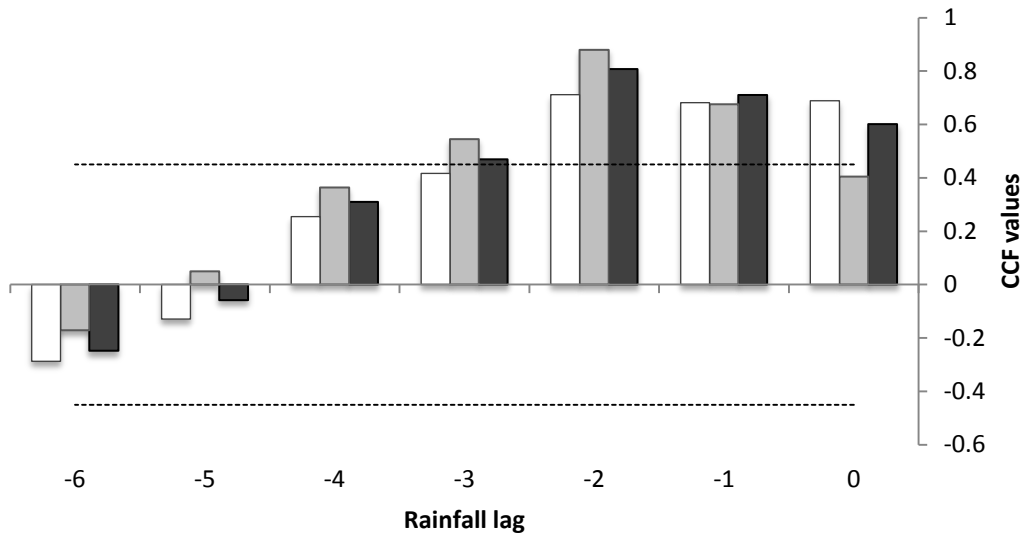


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1 **Fig. 4**

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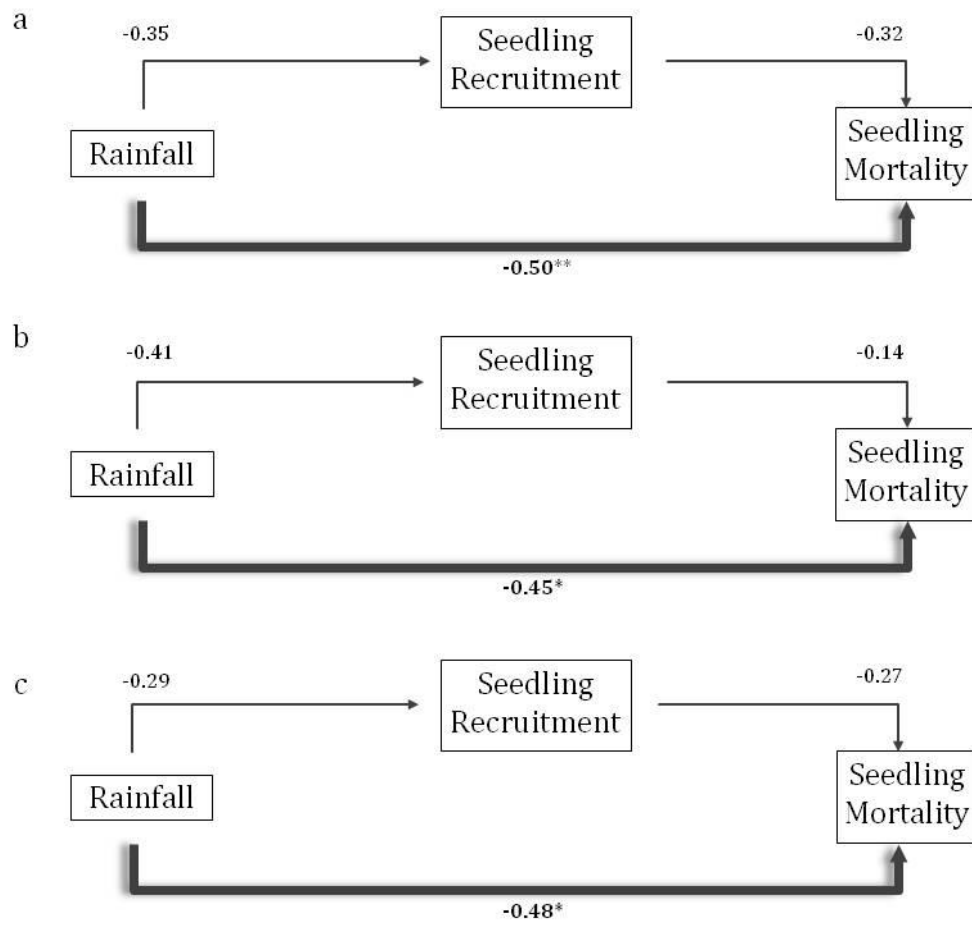


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1 **Fig. 5**

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TABLE 1. Multiple regressions of seedling mortality and recruitment on past lags of rainfall values (mm). The regression coefficient for each lag and coefficient of determination (r^2) and F of each model are shown. Significance levels: *5 %, ** 1 % and *** 0.1 %.

	Class	Model	Lag t_0	Lag t_1	Lag t_2	Lag t_3	R^2	F
	Total	Alldeath~Rlag0 + Rlag-1 + Rlag-2	-6.58	-11.14*	-0.84		0.31*	4.10
Mortality	Clay soil	Claydeath~Rlag0 + Rlag-1 + Rlag-2 + Rlag-3	-4.31	-4.61*	0.84	-1.69	0.34*	3.57
	Sand soil	Sanddeath~Rlag0 + Rlag-1 + Rlag-2 + Rlag-3	-7.53*	-5.58	1.53	-3.94	0.50**	6.04
	Total	Clayrecruit~Rlag0 + Rlag-1 + Rlag-2 + Rlag-3	73.83**	2.72	-52.97*	-22.85	0.74**	10.42
Recruitment	Clay soil	Clayrecruit~Rlag0 + Rlag-1 + Rlag-2	27.66*	-2.55	-26.33	-	0.45*	4.85
	Sand soil	Clayrecruit~Rlag0 + Rlag-1 + Rlag-2	56.59***	-4.45	-37.12***	-	0.85***	27.97

Capítulo 2

Barbosa, C.E.A., Costa, F.R.C., Castilho, C.V., Freitas, C.G. Distribution of trees and palms across a soil clay gradient vary through ontogeny. Manuscript in preparation for Biotropica.

1 LRH: Barbosa, Costa, Castilho and Freitas

2 RRH: Habitat limitation and ontogenetic stages

3

4

5 Distribution of trees and palms across a soil clay gradient vary through ontogeny

6

7

8

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Revision accepted: _____

20

1 **ABSTRACT (269 words)**

2 Plant distributions may be limited to portions of environmental gradients, which might
3 indicate physiological constraints, competitive exclusion, or both, and topo-edaphic gradient
4 is acknowledged as important forces structuring tropical communities. However, as plant
5 requirements change across ontogenetic stages, the structuring effects might differ according
6 to plant life stage. Our objective was to determine if the distribution of trees and palms across
7 a soil texture gradient differed according to the ontogenetic stages. To accomplish that we
8 compared the distribution of adults and seedlings across the soil texture gradient for 22 tree
9 and palm species in a central Amazon forest. The environment limitation point for each
10 ontogenetic stage of each species were calculated by comparing the standard deviation of the
11 environmental gradient values of the plots in which we found individuals of a species with a
12 null distribution of standard deviation values, calculated by randomly sampling the
13 environmental gradient within the whole sample. We found significant differences in
14 environmental limitation across ontogenetic stages. For eight species adults had distribution
15 more limited than seedlings, indicating a tendency for habitat contraction as plants grew older.
16 Two species had distribution limited only during seedling stage, which might indicate
17 temporal and/or spatial fruiting asynchrony across the soil gradient. Only one species had its
18 distribution limited by the environment in both life stages, but seedlings were limited to a
19 broader portion of the clay soil gradient. As plants respond differently to environmental
20 conditions throughout development stages, not accounting for the environment filters on
21 earlier stages of development might compromise the ability to predict plant distribution and
22 ultimately community composition in the present context of environmental changes.

23

24 Key words: central Amazon, habitat association, seedlings, soil texture.

1 PLANT DISTRIBUTIONS ARE KNOWN TO BE ASSOCIATED WITH EDAPHIC AND TOPOGRAPHIC
2 features, such as soil texture and fertility (Costa et al. 2005, Bohlman et al. 2008, Laurance et
3 al. 2010, Givnish 1999, Kinupp & Magnusson 2005). However most of the distribution
4 patterns are described considering only the end of community development process, being
5 based on the relation of adult individuals with different environment variables, therefore
6 habitat associations that were established before, at earlier life stages, have historically
7 received less attention (Webb & Peart 2000).

8 Species requirements change as plants grow older (Schupp 1994), so evaluating only
9 the association with habitat of adult individuals can mask niches that are suitable for seedling
10 emergence outside the adult range. Therefore seedlings and adults of the same species might
11 be distinctly limited to different portions of the same environmental gradient, even though
12 some degree of distribution overlapping would be expected. Edaphic features are among the
13 most studied environmental variables related to plant habitat associations, being directly
14 linked with many of the environmental features that are known to affect the success of site
15 occupancy by seedlings, such as predation (Fine et al. 2004) and water availability (Comita &
16 Engelbrecht 2009).

17 Even though topo-edaphic gradients are known to influence plant distribution, much of
18 the effort to describe plant association to soil characteristics were made in sites where those
19 gradients are not long enough (e.g., few soil types) to well represent the environmental
20 heterogeneity of the Amazon forest (Phillips et al. 2003). The present study was undertaken at
21 a central Amazon forest that encompasses great topographic and edaphic variability, ranging
22 from low valleys with essentially sandy soils to plateaus with soils with more than 90% clay
23 in its composition. By studying the distribution of seedlings and adults of 22 tree and palm
24 species along this gradient, and considering the changes in plant needs along life stages, we

1 expect that the distribution of the species across an environmental gradient will be different
2 according to the ontogenetic phase. Therefore the aim of this study was to answer the
3 following question: Do the distribution of the analyzed species vary according to their
4 ontogenetic stage across a gradient of soil characteristics?

5

6 **METHODS**

7

8 **STUDY SITE** – The study was conducted at Reserva Florestal Adolpho Ducke (hereafter
9 referred as Ducke), a terra firme tropical forest that covers an area of 100 km² at the northern
10 limit of the city of Manaus (02°55's, 59°59'w, Figure 1) in the Brazilian state of Amazonas.
11 The vegetation in the area is mainly dense terra firme forest, with some patches of white sand
12 forest. Canopy trees reach 35-40 m height (Ribeiro et al. 1999), the understory receives low
13 light levels and is characterized by a high abundance of acaulescent palms (Guillaumet &
14 Kahn 1982). The mean annual temperature is 26 °C, the humidity ranges from 84–91% and
15 there are two distinct seasons: a dry season from June to November, with minimum rainfall at
16 July (mean of 93 mm) and a rainy season from December to May, with maximum rainfall at
17 February (mean of 299 mm) (Marques Filho et al. 2009). There is a wide variation in soil
18 composition across the plots, with clay content ranging from 1.62% at the sandiest plot, and
19 increasing clay content moving uphill to the ridges, reaching a maximum of 87% clay in the
20 plateaus. Soil texture data were assessed from previously collected data available at
21 <http://ppbio.inpa.gov.br/Eng/inventarios/ducke/pterrestre/>. At Ducke the soil texture is
22 determined simply by the proportion of clay and sand, with little influence of silt on the
23 composition (Bravard & Righi 1989). Thus we decided to use the clay content as soil texture
24 indicator.

1 We conducted our study in 30 permanent plots that were set up as part of the Brazilian
2 Long-Term Ecological Research Program and the Brazilian Program for Biodiversity
3 Research. The plots are systematically distributed within a trail grid system, 1 km distant from
4 each other, and are 250 m long with the width of each plot varying according to the taxa or
5 the life stage to be studied (Magnusson et al. 2005). Since the plots follow the altitudinal
6 contours, the altitude is maintained constant throughout the plot length, which is important at
7 Ducke where topography variation (39 -109 meter a.s.l) is highly correlated with clay content
8 (Costa et al. 2005).

9 TREE AND SEEDLINGS' DATA – To compare the distribution of adult individuals and
10 conspecific seedlings across the soil texture gradient, we selected 22 species (16 tree and 6
11 palm species – Table 1) from a census database of all trees within the 30 plots. The species
12 chosen are relatively common within Duckes' flora as adults, with the exception of the rare
13 species *Buchenavia grandis* (Ribeiro et al. 1999), and are well represented within the seedling
14 community as well. The species choice was also influenced by the identificability of the
15 individuals in the seedling stage. The adult trees database was collected by Carolina Volkmer
16 Castilho (unpublished data), who used a sub-sampling of the plots according to the tree size.
17 Trees with DBH \geq 1cm were mapped, tagged and identified in 0.1 ha (250 x 4 m), while trees
18 with DBH \geq 10 cm were sampled in 0.5 ha (250 x 20 m) and trees with DBH \geq 30 cm were
19 sampled in the whole plot area (250 x 40 m, 1 ha). *Geonoma aspidifolia* has a relatively
20 small trunk diameter as an adult, which would exclude most individuals from the sampling
21 according to this protocol. Therefore all *G. aspidifolia* higher than 1 m (considered adults,
22 accordingly to Henderson (1995) and Lorenzi, Noblick, Kahn, & Pereira (2010)) were
23 sampled across the whole plot (250 x 4 m). The recruitment of seedlings was monitored
24 monthly from August 2009 to December 2010 over 450 m² (15 1m² sub-plots placed along

1 each of the 30 250 m plots). All seedlings up to 50 cm tall were tagged, mapped and identified
2 to species level, and new seedlings were tagged and mapped in each monitoring.

3 DATA ANALYSIS – To test the limitation of species to portions of the soil texture gradient we
4 used the habitat specificity index developed by Kinupp & Magnusson (2005). The statistic of
5 environment limitation is the range of distribution of a species across the soil texture gradient,
6 estimated by calculating the standard deviation of clay content in the soil of the sites in which
7 the species occurred. We then randomly sampled clay content values of the same number of
8 sites occupied by a given species across all the 30 sites in the study area, allowing us to
9 calculate a null distribution of standard deviation values. That procedure was repeated 999
10 times and the proportion of standard deviation values expected by chance that were lower
11 than or equal to the observed standard deviation were used to test if a species is no more
12 specialized than expected by chance. This analysis uses solely values of presence/absence of
13 species, though the figures display the abundances of species in each plot. This analysis may
14 be inefficient in some cases, as for species with bimodal distribution of specificity (e.g.,
15 environment preference for both the extremes of the gradient). In this situation, the standard
16 deviation range could indicate no environment specificity, despite the non-random
17 distribution along the gradient. Nevertheless, none of the species analyzed had this pattern of
18 limited distribution at both ends of the soil texture gradient.

19 For the species that were limited to any portion of the soil texture gradient, we
20 calculated the gradient value from which the species is no longer found. That was done using
21 a regression tree, which divided the gradient values into two groups: the soil clay
22 concentration values in which a species is absent, and the values in which a species occur.
23 The regression trees were performed using the rpart R-package, version 3.1-54 (Therneau &
24 Atkinson 2012).

1

2 **RESULTS**

3

4 Within the 22 species we counted a total of 2449 adult individuals and 748 seedlings. As a
5 general pattern, environmental filtering has different effects according to life stage, and we
6 found adults to be more environmentally limited than seedlings in eight species (36.4 %).
7 Twelve species (54.5 %) did not show any environmental limitation, whether in adult or
8 seedling stage, being distributed throughout the whole soil texture gradient. Two species
9 (9.1%) had an opposite limitation pattern, with seedlings, rather than adults, being limited to a
10 portion of the soil texture gradient.

11 *Clarisia racemosa* adults were more associated to the clayey half of the gradient,
12 being well distributed in sites with more than 67 % ($p=0.048$) of clay content, while seedlings
13 did not have any tendency of be associated to any portion of the gradient (Fig. 2a). Adults of
14 *Protium hebetatum* were distributed along a broader range of the soil texture gradient (Fig.
15 2b), but also mostly on clayey plots and did not occur only at the sandier extreme (sites with
16 less than 4 % of clay, $p=0.034$), as were *Protium apiculatum* ($p=0.001$; Fig. 2c), *Geonoma*
17 *aspidifolia* ($p=0.002$; Fig. 3a), and *Oenocarpus bacaba* ($p=0.001$; Fig. 3b) adults. Seedlings
18 of *P. hebetatum*, *P. apiculatum*, *G. aspidifolia* and *O. Bacaba* did not tend to be limited to
19 any portion of the gradient.

20 *Oenocarpus bataua* was the only species for which both ontogenetic stages evaluated
21 were limited to portions of the soil gradient (Fig. 4), with adults occurring in soils with no
22 more than 13% ($p<0.001$) of clay content. Its seedlings occurred along a broader range of soil
23 textures, being limited to soils with up to 60% of clay content ($p=0.012$).

1 Some species did not occur only in the clayey extreme of the gradient, as *Conceveiba*
2 *guianensis* adults (Fig. 5a), found in sites with clay contents of no more than 86% ($p=0.021$).
3 *Protium subserratum* adults were found at all but the clayey extreme of the gradient (upper
4 limit of 82% of clay content, $p=0.019$; Fig. 5b). Both *C. Guianensis* and *P. Subseratum*
5 seedlings were not environmentally limited.

6 *Simarouba amara* adults had a broad distribution along all types of soils, but its
7 seedlings occurred mostly at soils with less than 38% of clay content ($p<0.001$; Fig. 6a). The
8 same pattern was found for *Oenocarpus minor*, with adults well distributed, and seedlings
9 limited by soils with less than 4% of clay content ($p=0.012$; Fig. 6b).

11 **DISCUSSION**

12
13 Given the fact that seeds are usually dispersed to sites near the parent trees, the position of
14 seedlings is expected to be associated with the position of conspecific adults. Nevertheless,
15 the individual seed dispersal capacity of the species may tilt this expectation, and seedling
16 distributions might occupy a broader range of habitats than later ontogenetic stages (Webb &
17 Peart 2000). In the present study we found species in which adults were more associated to
18 portions of the soil clay gradient, and conspecific seedlings that occupied both a broader or
19 narrower portion of the same gradient. That reflects the importance of soil texture on
20 determining suitability of a site and driving plant distribution (Laurance et al. 2010, Bohlman
21 et al. 2008, Comita et al. 2007).

22 Of the nine species in which any environmental association was observed in adult
23 individuals, five showed preference for clayey soils. Based on its distributional patterns,
24 adults of *Geonoma aspidifolia*, *Oenocarpus bacaba*, *Protium hebetatum*, and *Protium*
25 *apiculatum* can be considered “clay generalists”, as they occur in plots with 4 % of clay

1 composition or more, avoiding only the sandier extreme of the soil texture gradient. Clay in
2 soil composition guarantees the presence of cations needed for plant development, since these
3 cations are easily washed away with the rainwater in sandy soils (Fearnside & Leal Filho
4 2001), which may indicate sandy soils sites are more restrictive environments. In addition, the
5 variability of the water table depth in sandy soils, which reaches very superficial levels during
6 the rainy season, might preclude the occupation of those sites by the clay generalists. That's
7 because the ability of seedlings and trees to survive through long periods in a situation of root
8 anoxia (caused by the superficial water table in sandy soils) might be determinant for the
9 success of a site occupancy (Lopez & Kursar, 1999).

10 On the other extreme are the adults of *Conceveiba guianensis* and *Protium*
11 *subseratum*, which were only absent at the clayey end of the gradient. These species might
12 be sensitive to greater difficulties in obtaining water held in clayey soil, which tightly holds
13 the water into the soil pores in the soil matrix (Fearnside & Leal Filho 2001).

14 Most of the species that were associated with a portion of the clay soil gradient were
15 so in the adult stage (the exception was *Oenocarpus bataua*, discussed below), with seedlings
16 having a broader distribution along that gradient. Webb & Peart (2000) theorized that this
17 situation arises from seedlings having greater success in the sites in which adults are
18 associated, but being able to recruit at different sites in which they arrive through dispersal.
19 That way the degree of seedling association to a habitat would be partially explained by the
20 dispersal ability of the species.

21 *Oenocarpus bataua* was the only species with habitat association in both life stages,
22 going from sites with up to 60 % of clay content as seedlings to sites with a maximum of 13
23 % of clay soil content when adults. Contraction of species distribution from seed to adulthood
24 is a result of increasing mortality as plants develop outside the “preferred” habitat (Comita et
25 al. 2007). A similar distribution pattern was described by Freitas (2012) for *O. Bataua*

1 juveniles, and adults in the reproductive stage as well. Brum (2011) found a similar habitat
2 association pattern for young seedlings and juveniles. In addition, *O. Bataua* was the only
3 species associated to the sandier extreme of the soil texture gradient. The mechanisms behind
4 *O. Bataua* preferences for sandy waterlogged sites are yet to be revealed, as the distribution
5 patterns are very different across the Amazon basin, going from a restriction to clayey, well
6 drained soils in Eastern Amazon, to restriction to sandy soils in Central Amazon (Montufar &
7 Pintaud 2006). In a controlled experiment, Brum (2011) found no clear relation of seed
8 germination and seedling survival of *O. Bataua* with soil texture or waterlogging, which
9 indicates that the adult distribution might not be defined in the very early life stages. Maybe
10 the relation of this palm distribution to soil texture and hydrology has been a misleading
11 conclusion, taking away the focus from other potential environment features that might be
12 involved. Light availability is known to be a structuring agent on plant distribution (reviewed
13 in Svenning 2001), and might be regulating *O. Bataua* distribution. As light in the understory
14 tends to decrease as we move down to sandier soils given the reduction of lateral light
15 incidence (Ediriweera et al. 2008, Fladeland et al. 2003), we might be observing a shift in the
16 light requirements and/or plant competitive capacity as seedlings develop to adulthood.

17 Seedlings with stronger habitat association than adults is not what one would expect,
18 as adults should only exist where a seedling can establish, but that was the pattern found for
19 *Simarouba amara* and *Oenocarpus minor*. Considering some reproductive biological aspects
20 of those species, our result might indicate difficulties in detecting seedlings of these species.
21 Fruit production of these species varies spatially across the soil texture gradient and
22 temporally through the fruiting seasons. Freitas (2012) found at Ducke that despite producing
23 fruits across the whole soil texture gradient, *O. Minor* produces fewer fruits in steeper areas,
24 and, as a consequence, the abundance of seedlings in those areas tends to be lower. In
25 addition, there is evidence that despite an even distribution along the whole soil texture

1 gradient, there are some palm species that have variation in the number of fructification scars
2 on individuals of equivalent sizes (Thaise Emilio, personal comm.). That is indicative of the
3 age at reproduction, and the number of reproductive cycles variation across different
4 environments within the same population. As a consequence, one would expect variation in
5 seedling densities. *Simarouba amara* has irregular fructification cycles, with great variation in
6 the number of individuals fruiting each year, and even skipping production occasionally
7 (Pinto, Ribeiro, Alencar, & Barbosa, 2005). We might also be observing a situation predicted
8 by Webb & Peart (2000), in which few seedlings are relatively successful in sub-optimal sites
9 while the majority of seedlings that were dispersed near the maternal adult suffer with greater
10 density-dependent mortality, leading to an apparent mismatch between seedling and adult
11 distributions. Finally, since we have no data on reproductive events for all adult trees
12 considered for this study, individuals that we are considering to be of reproductive age might
13 not yet be.

14 One of the main purposes of understanding the mechanisms underneath plant
15 distributions is to improve the ability to predict plant species composition, allowing more
16 efficient conservation planning in the current context or in future scenarios. However, we
17 showed that plant species might respond differently to environmental conditions throughout
18 developmental stages, and might have different requirements and/or tolerance capacity at
19 earlier stages, resulting in seedlings being present at different ranges from adults. As the
20 current predictions of environmental changes are confirmed, it is feasible to expect the
21 distribution range of plants to be altered, and regardless of the tendency for expansion or
22 contraction of the occupied area, not accounting for the impacts on earlier stages of
23 development might compromise the ability to predict plant distribution and ultimately
24 community composition.

25

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2

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12

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1 Figure legends

2

3 FIGURE 1: Ducke Reserve, located at the north region of Manaus, Amazonas State, Brazil. At
4 the right is the trail grid (lines) that gives access to the 30 plots used on this study (white dots)
5 placed on a map of the altitudinal variation, and darker color indicates higher places.

6 FIGURE 2: Density of seedlings and adults in 30 sites distributed along a soil clay content
7 gradient. Adults of the tree species (A) *Clarisia racemosa*, (B) *Protium hebetatum* and (C)
8 *Protium apiculatum* have a tendency of being associated to the clayey part of the soil texture
9 gradient.

10 FIGURE 3: Density of seedlings and adults in 30 sites distributed along a soil clay content
11 gradient. Species are (A) *Geonoma aspidifolia* and (B) *Oenocarpus bacaba*.

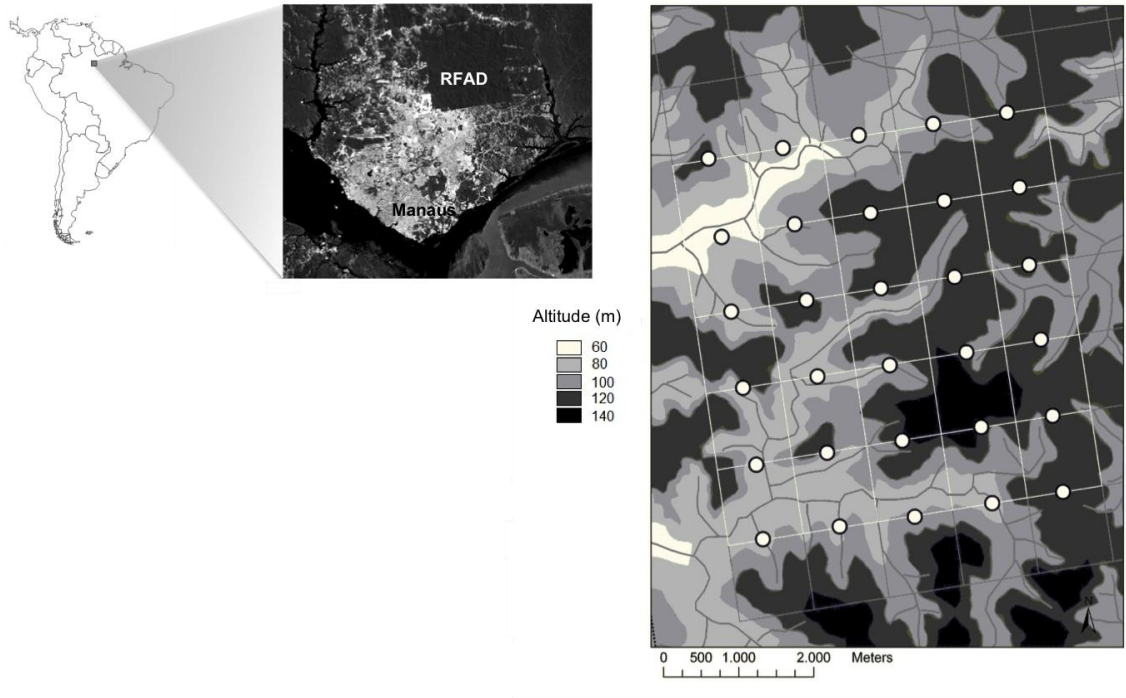
12 FIGURE 4: Density of *Oenocarpus bataua* in 30 sites distributed along a soil clay content
13 gradient, with adults being more associated to sandier sites than seedlings.

14 FIGURE 5: Density of seedlings and adults in 30 sites distributed along a soil clay content
15 gradient. Adults of the tree species (A) *Conceveiba guianensis* and (B) *Protium subserratum*
16 do not occur only in the clayey end of the gradient.

17 FIGURE 6: Density of seedlings and adults in 30 sites distributed along a soil clay content
18 gradient. Seedlings of the species (A) *Simarouba amara* and (B) *Oenocarpus minor* were
19 associated, while adults occur through the whole gradient.

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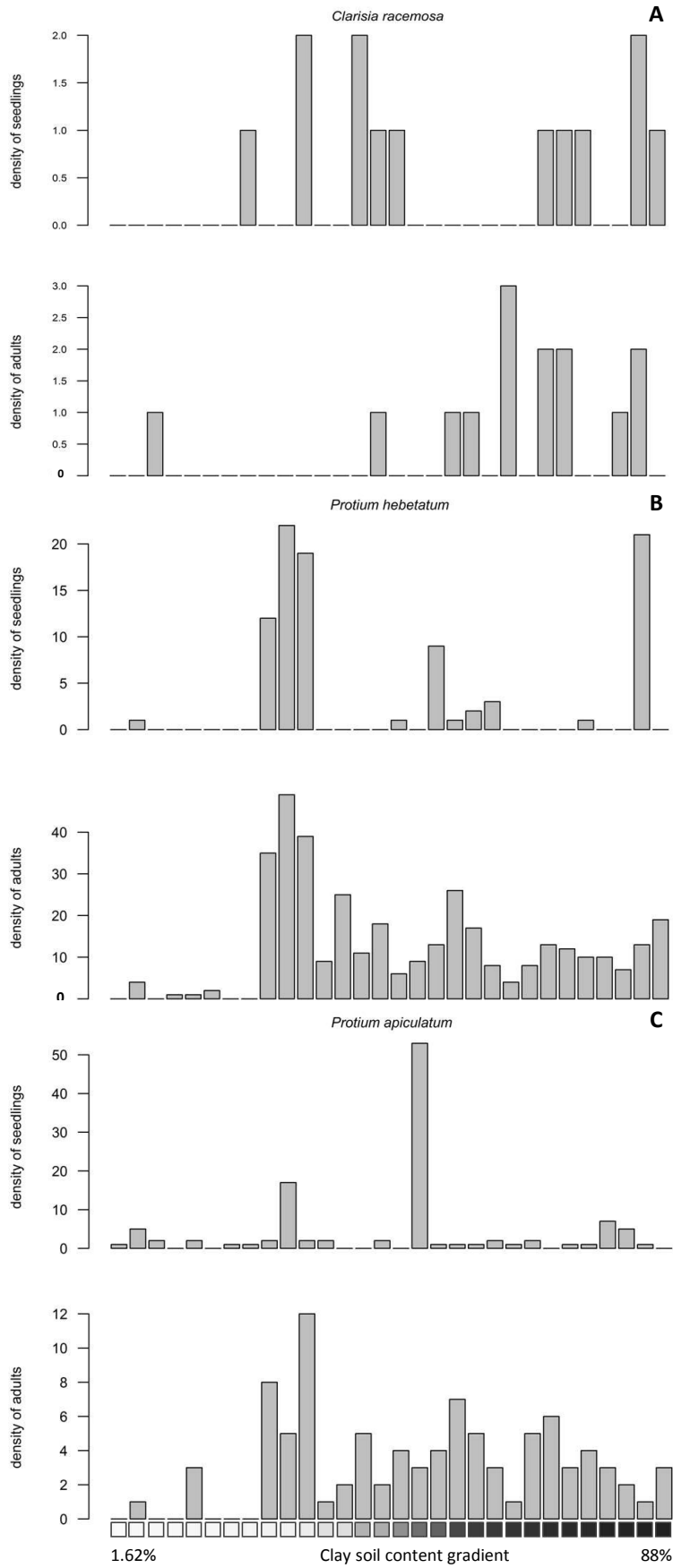
1 **Fig. 1**



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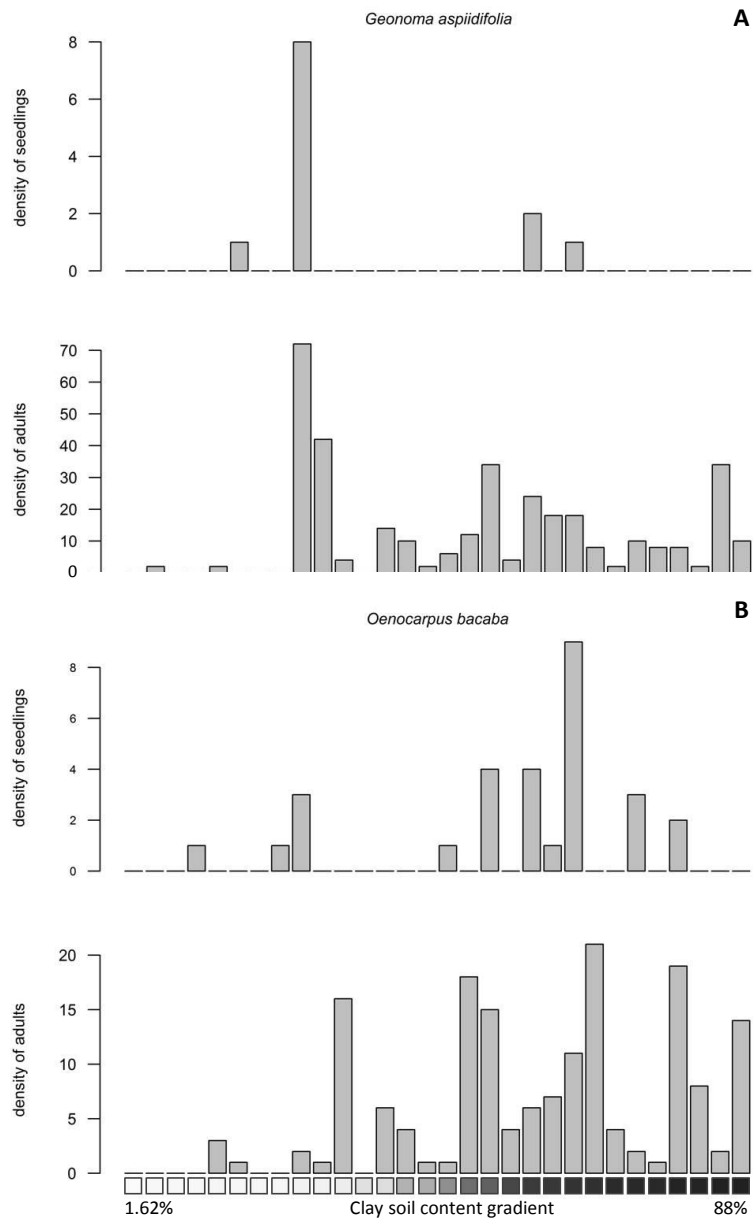
1 Fig. 2



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2 **Fig. 3**

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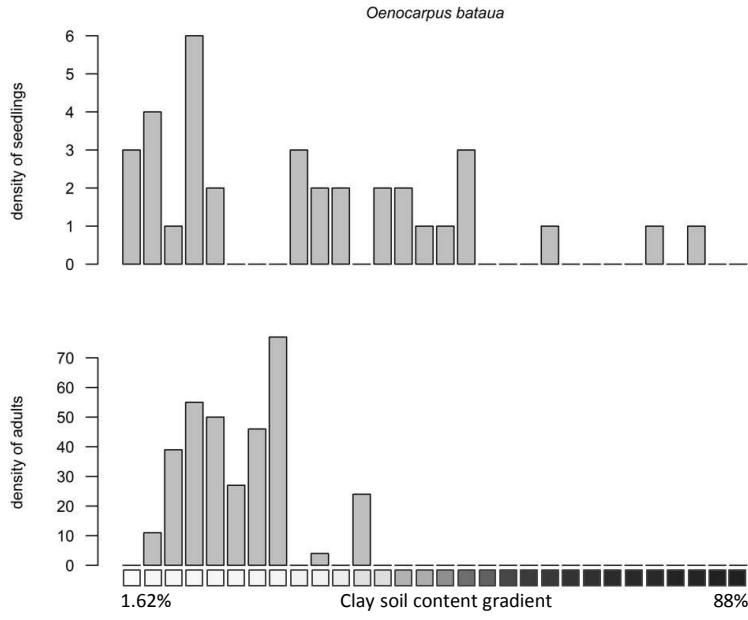
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1 **Fig. 4**

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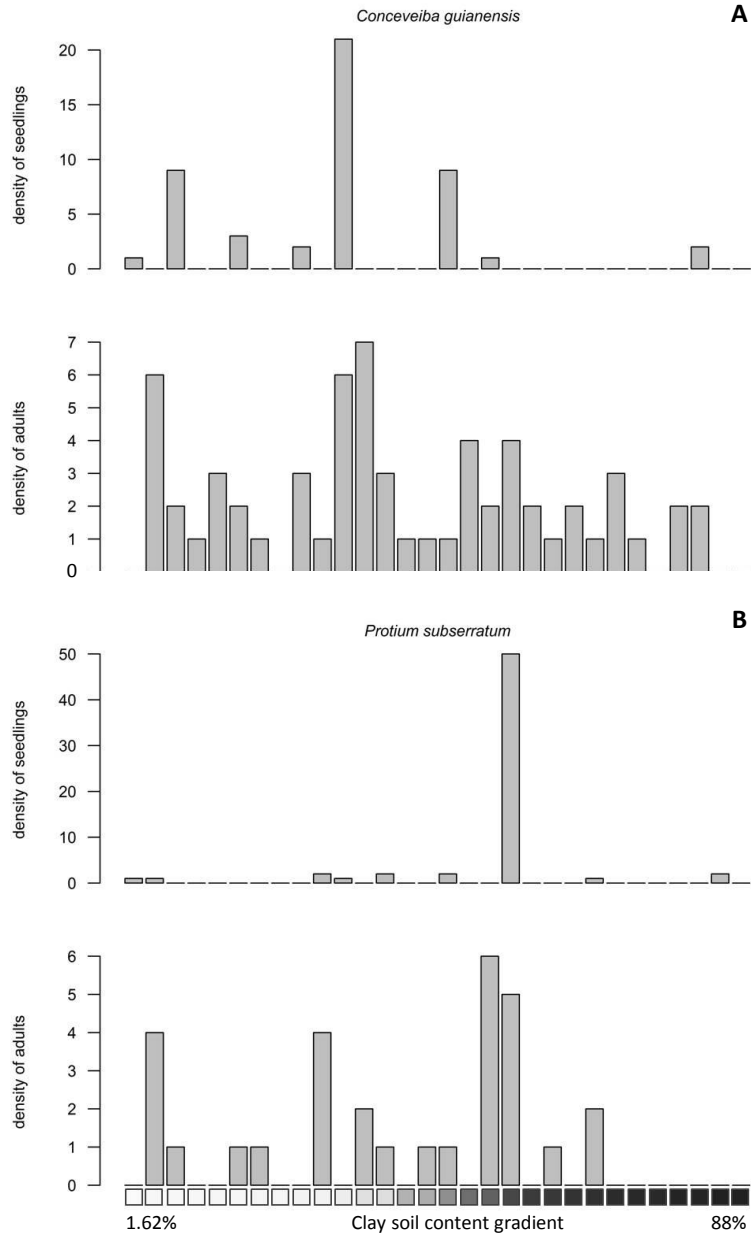


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1 **Fig. 5**

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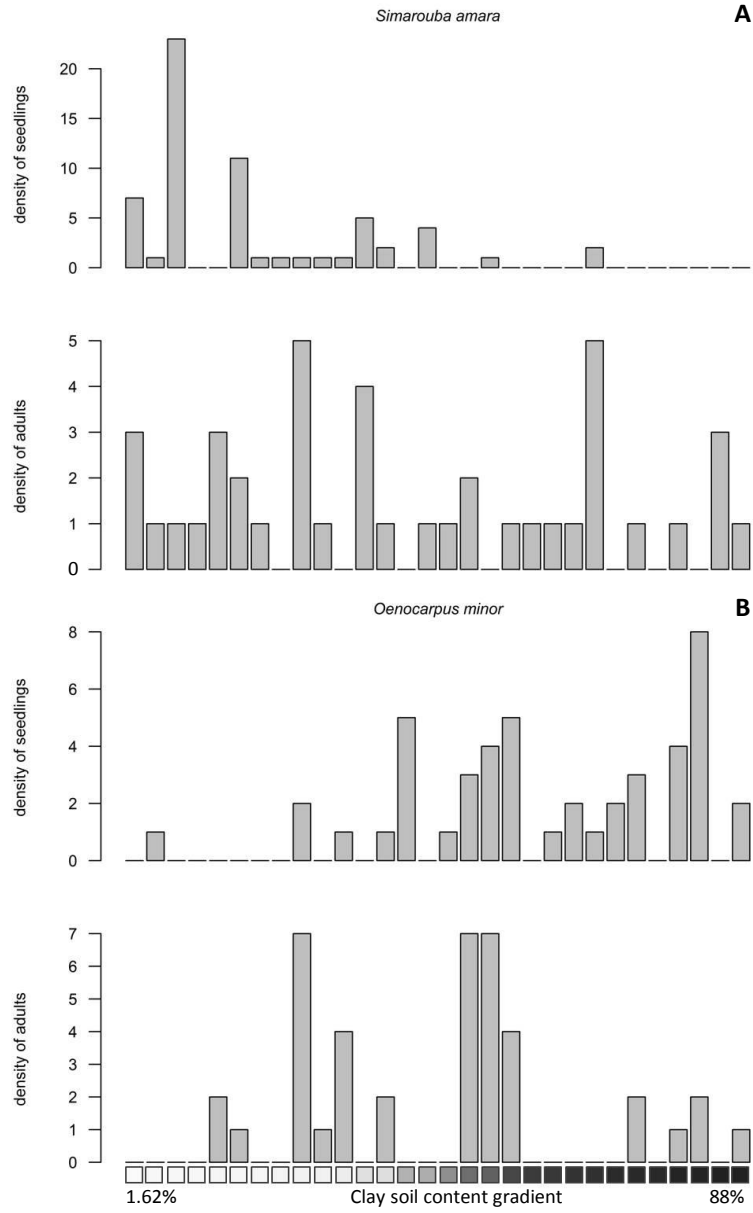
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1 **Fig. 6**

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TABLE 1. Species tested for habitat association at Ducke Reserve. The habitat specificity index applied is based on the standard deviation of clay content in the soil of the sites in which the species occurred, compared to a null distribution of the standard deviation values. It was calculated for adults (a) and seedlings (s). Significance levels: *5 %, ** 1 % and *** 0.1 %. The gradient limit (percentage of clay in soil composition) is presented for species that showed habitat association.

Species	Family	Original standard deviation	Gradient limit
<i>Brosimum rubescens</i> Taub.	Moraceae	A 36.34	-
		S 36.35	-
<i>Buchenavia grandis</i> Ducke	Combretaceae	34.30	-
		46.54	-
<i>Clarisia racemosa</i> Ruiz & Pav.	Moraceae	29.46*	67.43
		34.51	-
<i>Conceveiba guianensis</i> Aubl.	Euphorbiaceae	34.96*	86.54
		33.10	-
<i>Diplotropis triloba</i> Gleason	Fabaceae	41.44	-
		36.05	-
<i>Endopleura uchi</i> (Huber) Cuatrec.	Humiricaceae	29.86*	74.89
		33.79	-
<i>Eschweilera coriacea</i> (DC.) S.A. Mori	Lecythidaceae	36.26	-
		40.92	-
<i>Euterpe precatoria</i> Mart.	Arecaceae	36.71	-
		38.65	-
<i>Geonoma aspidifolia</i> Spruce	Arecaceae	33.65***	4.27
		42.92	-
<i>Hevea guianensis</i> Aubl.	Euphorbiaceae	36.68	-
		39.51	-
<i>Inga gracilifolia</i> Ducke	Fabaceae	34.61	-
		33.96	-
<i>Iriartella setigera</i> (Mart.) H. Wendl.	Arecaceae	34.89	-
		35.70	-
<i>Mabea subsessilis</i> Pax & K. Hoffm.	Euphorbiaceae	33.82	-
		2.38	-
<i>Micropholis guyanensis</i> (A. DC.) Pierre	Sapotaceae	36.08	-
		36.66	-
<i>Oenocarpus bacaba</i> Mart.	Arecaceae	33.57***	4.27
		35.63	-
<i>Oenocarpus bataua</i> Mart.	Arecaceae	2.84***	12.43
		31.72**	59.62
<i>Oenocarpus minor</i> Mart.	Arecaceae	37.54	-
		32.49**	4.27
<i>Protium apiculatum</i> Swart	Burseraceae	34.03***	4.27
		37.21	-
<i>Protium gallosum</i> D. C. Daly	Burseraceae	30.06 ⁺	-
		41.61	-

TABLE 1. Species tested for habitat association at Ducke Reserve. The habitat specificity index applied is based on the standard deviation of clay content in the soil of the sites in which the species occurred, compared to a null distribution of the standard deviation values. It was calculated for adults (a) and seedlings (s). Significance levels: *5 %, ** 1 % and *** 0.1 %. The gradient limit (percentage of clay in soil composition) is presented for species that showed habitat association.

Species	Family	Original standard deviation	Gradient limit
<i>Protium hebetatum</i> D. C. Daly	Burseraceae	35.26* 35.89	4.27 -
<i>Protium subserratum</i> (Engl.) Engl.	Burseraceae	31.68* 36.39	82.30 -
<i>Simarouba amara</i> Aubl.	Simaroubaceae	36.64 24.84***	- 37.41
<i>Sorocea guilleminiana</i> Gaudich.	Moraceae	34.57 28.27	- -

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Capítulo 3

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16

17 Barbosa, C.E.A., Misiewicz, T.M., Fine, P.V.A. Fine, Costa, F.R.C. Plant

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20

21 Plant Ontogeny, Spatial Distance, and Soil Type Influence Patterns of Relatedness on a
22 Common Amazonian Tree

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39 Key-words: plant recruitment, tropical forest, density dependence, seedling mortality,
40 environmental filter, soil texture, clay, sand, SGS.

41

42 Abstract

43 The formation of spatial genetic structure (SGS) may originate from different patterns of seed
44 deposition in the landscape, and is mostly determined by seed dispersal limitation. However
45 after dispersal mechanisms acting throughout plant development stages, such as environment
46 filtration and herbivores or pathogens attacks has the potential to either disrupt or intensify the
47 SGS pattern found. We investigated how the genotype of *Protium subserratum* (Burseraceae),
48 a common tree species in the Ducke Reserve, Brazil, is distributed across the landscape. We
49 used seven microsatellite markers to assess the spatial genetic structure among plants at
50 different life stages and at different environments. Based on patterns of relatedness among
51 plants of different sizes, we inferred in which ontogenetic stage occurred most of the changes
52 in SGS, and compared their effects across soil types. Relatedness among seedlings decreased
53 when distance between seedlings increased, especially for the youngest seedlings. However
54 juveniles and adults did not follow this trend, as relatedness values were higher among
55 neighboring individuals in this size class. Contrasting relatedness patterns between seedlings
56 and larger individuals suggests a trade-off between the negative effects of being near closely-
57 related adults (e.g. herbivore and pathogen attack) and the advantage of being in a site
58 favorable to establishment. We also found that soil texture strongly influenced density-
59 dependence patterns, as young seedlings in clay soils were more related to each other than
60 were seedlings in bottomland sandy soils, suggesting that the mechanisms that creates and
61 maintain SGS within a population may interact with environmental heterogeneity.

62

63 **Introduction**

64

65 Patterns of positive spatial genetic structure (SGS) derive from dispersal limitation
66 which results in closely-related seeds of a given plant species being deposited close to one
67 another [1,2], with genotypes spatially distributed in a non-random fashion [3]. However,
68 once a seed arrives at a site, both abiotic and biotic factors affect plant recruitment, which
69 ultimately determines the distribution of individuals in the landscape [4], and thus SGS
70 patterns become rearranged over time. Microhabitat characteristics can be particularly
71 important in the adjustment of SGS as seedling development proceeds, because factors that
72 promote seedling success or mortality such as pathogens, predation, competition and resource
73 availability can differ drastically at very small scales [5–7].

74

75 In addition to each species' dispersal capabilities, the temporal asynchrony of seed
76 production and fecundity variation among adults in a population also influence population-
77 level patterns of SGS. If for each reproductive event in a population a different set of
78 individuals produced seeds within a year, greater positive SGS would be found within
79 individuals of that year's offspring, and relatedness of seedlings among different plant size
80 classes would be reduced. Also, adults with higher fecundity, which disproportionately
81 contribute to the seed shadow composition [8], should produce larger numbers of seedlings,
82 leading to two possible outcomes. One is the increase in the chance that more individuals of
83 the descendents of these "superfecund" adults would reach adulthood. In this scenario adults
84 would be more related to each other than would be expected by chance. Furthermore, greater
85 production of seeds would enhance the probability of more distant seed dispersal, which could
86 disrupt SGS within less fecund offspring, by the input of seeds with different genotypes. On
87 the other hand, if most mother trees in a population produce seeds every year, this would
88 mean that most seeds in any given location should be closely-related. In this case, the pattern

88 of positive SGS might prevail despite the additional input of seeds with different genotypes
89 dispersed from adults with asynchronous reproduction.

90 Patterns of SGS that emerge in the seed shadow of the maternal tree may also be
91 influenced by density or distance-dependent mortality. The establishment success of
92 propagules is inversely related to the distance from their maternal parent, which is explained
93 by the higher probability of attack by specialist herbivores and pathogens that are associated
94 with maternal trees [9,10]. This mechanism is the core of the Janzen and Connell hypothesis,
95 which predicts that density and/or distance-responsive natural pathogens and herbivores cause
96 a disproportionate amount of mortality near adult trees [9–11]. This hypothesis could be
97 extended to the intraspecific level, especially in cases when variation in resistance to
98 specialist herbivores or pathogens is present in a plant population, and considering that
99 seedlings and mother trees are more likely to share phenotypes involved with resistance to
100 enemies [12,13]. In this way, the natural enemies associated with the mother tree that attack
101 neighboring seedlings could be targeting genotypes more similar to the adult, which would
102 result in disruption of the SGS patterns predicted by seed dispersal limitation. Thus the
103 positive patterns of SGS in individuals from the youngest seedling stages would be predicted
104 to disappear in older development stages. Furthermore, the degree of SGS disappearance
105 should thus be regulated by the strength of the density/distance-related mortality.

106 Although the proximity to conspecific adults might lead to increased density or
107 distance-related seedling mortality, for a shade-tolerant tree species the site where a
108 reproductive conspecific adult has successfully established is most likely to offer “optimal”
109 abiotic conditions for seedling establishment [14,15]. In this scenario, there would be a
110 tendency of seedlings to recruit to adulthood around their maternal tree, with positive spatial
111 genetic structure being detectable throughout all development stages of the species, especially
112 in stages older than the youngest seedlings.

113 Moreover, the periodicity of fruit production, the amount of fruit produced and/or
114 dispersed, density and distance-dependent mortality and even the suitability of a site for
115 seedling recruitment should interact with environmental heterogeneity. Resource availability
116 influences both the amount of fruit produced [16,17] and the periodicity of the reproduction
117 events of a tree population [8]. Additionally, seedling establishment may be affected by
118 highly variable abiotic (water, nutrients and light availability [18]) or biotic factors, including
119 litter depth [19], competition [5] and natural enemies [20,21]), that might result in “optimal”
120 sites being more common at particular habitats across an environmental gradient. Finally,
121 plant mortality due to herbivore attacks may differ according to soil characteristics [22].
122 Given the variation of seedling establishment with environmental factors, SGS patterns might
123 vary within the same population that occurs across an environmental gradient in different
124 habitat types.

125 The processes involved in the formation of SGS patterns described above are not all
126 mutually exclusive and might occur simultaneously and/or have stronger effects at different
127 age classes. Here, we attempt to observe how the relatedness patterns among individuals of a
128 common Amazonian tree species change with ontogenetic stage: from very young seedlings
129 to adults. Second, we investigate the effect of habitat characteristics (represented here by soil
130 texture) in driving SGS patterns.

131

132 **Methods**

133 Study species and study site

134 *Protium subserratum* (Engl.) Engl. (Burseraceae) is a widespread species in northern
135 Amazonia, extending into Guyana, French Guyana, the Brazilian Amazon, Ecuador, Peru,
136 Colombia and Venezuela. This dioecious tree species occurs across a range of soil types

137 including clay, sandy clay and white-sand [23] and its red fruits are thought to be dispersed by
138 birds and monkeys [24]. We studied a population of *P. Subseratum* along an
139 edaphic/topographic gradient within the Reserva Florestal Adolpho Ducke (hereafter referred
140 as Ducke), where the species is found on a soil gradient that transitions from sandy soil in low
141 elevation areas (39 m a.s.l.) To more nutrient rich clay soil at higher elevation areas (109 m
142 a.s.l.).

143 Ducke is a terra firme tropical forest that covers an area of 100 km² at the northern
144 limit of the city of Manaus (02°55's, 59°59'w, Fig. 1) in the Brazilian state of Amazonas. It is
145 a closed canopy forest, with trees reaching 35-40 m height [25] and includes a high
146 abundance of understorey palms [26]. Ducke is under the jurisdiction of the Brazilian
147 National Institute for Amazon Research (INPA), which issued permits for the sampling
148 involved in the present study. In addition the studied species is not an endangered or protected
149 species.

150

151 Study Design

152 We conducted our study in 30 of the 72 permanent plots that were set up as part of the
153 Brazilian Long-Term Ecological Research Program and the Research Program in Biodiversity
154 [27]. The plots are systematically distributed within a trail grid system, 1km distant from each
155 other, and are 250 meters long with the width of each transect varying according to the taxa or
156 the life stage to be studied [28]. Tree size classes define the plot width, which is 4 m for DBH
157 ≥ 1 cm, 20 m for DBH ≥ 10 cm and 40 m for DBH ≥ 30 cm. Within these limits all trees are
158 mapped and tagged. The plots follow the altitudinal contours, which results in a constant
159 altitude throughout the plot length, important at Ducke, where topography is highly correlated
160 with clay content [29].

161

162 Data collection

163 In each of the 30 plots the sampling took place along the 250 meters transect, in four
164 lines (2 m wide) that were parallel to the central line (Fig.1). We counted and marked the
165 geographic location of all *P. Subserratum* seedlings and saplings along these lines with a
166 handheld GPS unit and estimated the height of each individual. Leaflets were collected and
167 dried in silica-gel for genetic analysis. Juveniles and adults that were outside the collection
168 lines but were within the plots and mapped from previous studies were also sampled. To
169 expand the sample of each adult's seed shadow extra seedlings were sampled around adults in
170 a cross-shaped sampling design in concentric circles around the trunk (Fig.1).

171 Sampled individuals were categorized in four size classes: seedlings up to 20 cm in
172 height (first-year seedlings), seedlings 21 to 40 cm in height (young seedlings), seedlings
173 from 41 and 100 cm in height (saplings) and all juvenile and adult trees taller than 200cm
174 (juveniles and adults) (Table 1). Only four individuals in the 100-200 cm size class were
175 counted in all of the plots and as a result this size class was excluded from our study. Because
176 all subsequent analyses rely on the comparison of pairs of individuals, only plots that had at
177 least two individuals in any size class were included (14 of the 30 plots).

178 Information on soil texture for each plot was gathered from previously collected data
179 that is available at <http://ppbio.inpa.gov.br/knb/metacat/fecosta.4.5/ppbio>. At Ducke soil
180 texture strongly influences plant community composition [30]. Schiatti et al. [31] have shown
181 that despite the fact that soil texture changes in a continuous fashion, plant composition
182 changes abruptly when soils shift from very sandy (less than 15% of clay in its composition)
183 to higher in clay content. Accordingly, we divided the soils into two classes: "sandy" plots

184 when they contain less than 15% clay and “clay” plots when clay content was greater than
185 15%.

186

187 Genetic Data

188 Microsatellite genotyping and genetic diversity

189 Genomic DNA was extracted from 360 individuals (Table 1) using a dneasy Plant
190 Mini Kit (Qiagen, Santa Clarita, California, USA) and all samples were genotyped using
191 seven microsatellite markers specifically developed for *P. Subseratum* (Prot28, Prot29,
192 Prot67, Prot70, Prot71, Prot78, Prot83 - [32]). Polymerase chain reactions (PCR) were
193 performed in a total reaction volume of 12.30 μ l containing 1 μ l genomic DNA, 6.30 μ l 2X
194 gotaq Green Master Mix (Promega, Madison, Wisconsin, USA), 0.4 μ m of un-tagged primer,
195 0.2 μ m of tag-modified primer and 0.2 μ m of M13R primer fluorescently labeled with 6-FAM
196 or Hex [33] and dnase free water. Amplifications were initialized with a denaturation step of 2
197 min and 30 s at 95 $^{\circ}$ c, followed by four touch-down cycles, repeated five times each,
198 denaturation at 95 $^{\circ}$ c for 20 s, annealing temperatures of 55, 53, 50, 49 $^{\circ}$ c, respectively for each
199 touch-down step, for 20 s, followed by a ramp of 2 $^{\circ}$ c/s to 45 $^{\circ}$ c, extension temperature at 72 $^{\circ}$ c
200 for 30 s, and a final cycle of 95 $^{\circ}$ c for 20 s, 45 $^{\circ}$ c for 20 s, 72 $^{\circ}$ c for 30 s, repeated 15 times with
201 a final extension at 72 $^{\circ}$ c for 10 minutes. The allele sizes of the resulting fluorescent labeled
202 fragments were determined using the size standard LIZ-500 on an ABI 3730 DNA Analyzer
203 (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, California, USA). Peaks were scored using Peak Scanner
204 version 1.0 (Applied Biosystems).

205 Number of alleles (A), observed (H_o) and expected heterozygosity (H_e) were
206 calculated in genalex version 6.1 [34]. Departure from Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium and

207 linkage disequilibrium were calculated using Genepop 4.0.10 [35] and probability of null
208 alleles was calculated with Cervus 3.0 [36].

209

210 Spatial distribution of genetic variation across the landscape

211 The distribution pattern of genetic variation across the landscape was assessed using
212 Spatial Genetic Analysis (SGS) to examine genetic relatedness as a function of the spatial
213 separation among individuals. This multivariate approach was used to test the autocorrelation
214 (r) between geographic distance (expressed in meters between each pair) and genetic distance
215 (a Euclidean distance measure) matrices [37] at the plot scale (250m). The coefficient r ranges
216 from -1 to 1 and gives a measure of genetic similarity between individuals within each
217 distance class (positive values refer to degree of relatedness and negative values mean
218 individuals are less related than expected at random). It is similar to Moran's $I^{(h)}$ coefficient,
219 except that r accounts for the number of times an individual is paired with other individuals in
220 the same distance class, while Moran's I considers an individual pairing at any distance class
221 in a binary way (paired/not paired). In order to determine if null alleles could be influencing
222 the r -value calculations, additional estimates of relatedness were calculated using ML-Relate
223 [38], which accommodates the presence of null alleles, to determine the effect of null alleles
224 relative to our initial relatedness estimates.

225 The null hypothesis of random distribution of genotypes was created by randomly
226 permuting the genotypes among the sampling locations. After repeating the permutation 999
227 times it was possible to calculate r -values and then create an empirical null distribution for
228 each distance class, allowing the construction of a confidence interval (95% CI). Significant
229 autocorrelation was inferred each time an observed r -value occurred outside the confidence
230 interval. The error bars calculated for each r -value also give information on the significance of

231 the autocorrelation, in which significant autocorrelation at each distance class was inferred
232 only when the error bar did not cross the x-axis. In order to determine if the observed
233 autocorrelation values represent credible evidence of fine scale genetic structure and to test all
234 the distance classes, p-values were calculated using the methods of Smouse et al. [39]. The p-
235 values were then used to calculate a probability metric ω [40] following Smouse et al. [39],
236 which allowed us to evaluate the hypothesis of no autocorrelation at any distance.

237 To evaluate the extent of the seed shadow overlap on SGS in each life stage and its
238 effects on relatedness patterns among plants at different life stages, we performed a “between-
239 generation” analysis [41], in which the relatedness is calculated for pairs of individuals
240 formed by a seedling (first-year seedling, young seedling or sapling) and an adult, yielding the
241 degree of relatedness of the seedlings with their closest adults. A “within-generation” analysis
242 was also undertaken to measure the relatedness among seedlings of each size class and all
243 individuals pooled together. A similar within and between generation relatedness is expected
244 when the seed shadow overlap is low, because very young seedlings have greater probability
245 of being most closely related to their closest adult. Higher relatedness within seedlings would
246 indicate that they share parents outside the sampling area, and that those adults contribute
247 substantially to the plot seed rain composition. The relatedness index used was Nason’s
248 kinship coefficient F_{ij} [42], calculated on spagedi 1.3 [43]. The coefficient of relatedness (r)
249 used is the double of the value of F_{ij} assuming neither individual is inbred [44].

250 In order to explore the effect of developmental stage and environmental features on
251 the spatial organization of individuals, autocorrelation tests were performed independently
252 with all samples pooled and also according to plant size class and soil type. In the analyses
253 comparing spatial patterns between soil types, all seedlings up to 40 cm were pooled to
254 increase sample sizes, so at least one pair of individuals was compared in each distance class;
255 fewer than two individuals in some distance classes precluded analysis of soil-related patterns

256 for larger plants. To evaluate if the differences among the fine-scale genetic structure patterns
257 of the size and soil types were significant, we used a non-parametric heterogeneity test. This
258 encompasses the autocorrelation coefficient values calculated for each lag of each group and
259 the pooled correlogram as the null hypothesis reference frame. This test accounts for
260 differences in sample size by applying a weighted average bias correction [39]. All
261 correlograms and related tests were undertaken in genalex v.6.1 [34]. To minimize the effects
262 of incomplete genotypes the interpolation option was applied in the creation of the genetic
263 distance matrices.

264

265 **Results**

266 Genetic Diversity

267 The number of alleles per locus ranged from four (Prot71 and Prot78) to 12 (Prot29),
268 with a mean value of 7.71 alleles per locus. Mean expected heterozygosity (H_e) was 0.66 and
269 observed heterozygosity (H_o) was 0.60 (Table 2). Of the seven microsatellites, only one (Prot
270 71) departed from Hardy-Weinberg expectations. Null alleles were detected in loci Prot67 (P
271 = 0.071), Prot70 (P = 0.068) and Prot 78 (P = 0.068) however, correcting for the presence of
272 null alleles and recalculating the r -values using ML-Relate resulted in no significant change,
273 corroborating our initial r -values. Accordingly, our initial r -values were used in all further
274 analyses.

275

276 Spatial genetic structure and plant size

277 The relatedness of 40cm seedlings was greater than expected by chance throughout
278 most of the plot, for either 50 m (Fig. 2) or 10 m (Fig. 3) distance interval classes, showing
279 that the results are robust to the choice of distance interval. All four plant size classes had

280 individuals more related with each other than expected by chance in the first distance class (0-
281 50m – Table 3). The relatedness among individuals decreases either within each plant size
282 class as spatial distance increases (for all plant size classes) and among different plant size
283 classes, as plants grow taller (r-values of first-year seedlings > young seedlings > saplings –
284 Fig. 2). Juveniles and adults showed high relatedness among individuals in the first 100
285 meters (Fig. 2), although only results from the first distance class (0-50m) can be considered
286 robust, due the small number of pairs compared especially at the 51-100m and 201-250 m
287 distance classes. The multiclass test criteria (ω) performed separately for each plant size class
288 allows an evaluation of the credibility of autocorrelations, and all four size classes had
289 significant SGS pattern at least in one distance class (Table 3).

290 According to the heterogeneity test of relatedness patterns (r-values), the three first
291 size classes were statistically similar (Table 4). Only the first-year and young seedlings
292 differed in the second distance class, reflecting a significant drop in the r-values of the latter
293 (Fig. 2). First-year seedlings, young seedlings and saplings had relatedness patterns different
294 from the juveniles/adult tree class ($p=0.09$, $p=0.03$ and $p=0.03$, respectively).

295 There was a strong positive autocorrelation when all sample sizes were pooled across
296 all individuals and plots sampled at Ducke (Fig. 3). This pattern appears to be driven by the
297 high positive autocorrelation among first-year and young seedlings at the plot scale, as the
298 relatedness among juveniles and adults does not present a consistent pattern across the length
299 of the plot.

300 The between-generation SGS, which focused on pairs of individuals that included one
301 adult and one seedling, showed that adults exhibited weak genetic relatedness with nearby
302 seedlings, while within-generation relatedness was generally higher (Fig. 4). This pattern was
303 strongest for the first-year seedlings, which were more genetically similar to other seedlings
304 of the same size class than with nearby adults, especially in the first three distance classes

305 (Fig. 4A). Low relatedness between first-year seedlings and adults indicates that seedlings
306 were dispersed from adults outside the sampling area. Differences in relatedness within and
307 between generations for the young seedling size class decreases as age class increases (Fig.
308 4B), while the saplings show a shift at the fourth distance class, when individuals from this
309 size class became less related to each other than they were to adults in the plot (Fig. 4C).

310

311 Spatial genetic structure and soil type

312 The SGS among first-year and young seedlings was significantly different from
313 random when all samples from all plots were pooled, regardless of their position along the
314 environmental gradient. Since soil texture is a good proxy for topographic position and
315 correlates with plant species composition at our study site [29,30], we ran two separate SGS
316 analyses based on plot soil texture. The results have shown that soil type influences SGS
317 patterns, as we found positive autocorrelation in the clay plots throughout all distance
318 intervals. By contrast, seedlings from sandy soils were significantly positively autocorrelated
319 only in the first three distance classes (up to 150m) after which individuals were no more
320 related with each other than would be expected by chance, since r-values falls within the CI
321 area (Fig. 5).

322 We found significant differences between SGS for plants inhabiting different soil
323 types (Fisher's $\omega = 18.962$, $P = 0.034$ – Table 6). This result was due to the low relatedness
324 coefficient (r-values lower than expected under the null distribution) of seedlings sampled at
325 the fourth distance class (Fig. 5).

326

327 **Discussion**

328 Patterns across plant ontogeny

329 Spatial genetic structure is often consequence of limited seed dispersal [45], when
330 seeds and seedlings present higher relatedness with the nearby adults. *Protium subserratum*,
331 despite having dispersers with high mobility potential, has the majority of its fruits deposited
332 beneath the tree crown with extremely high seedling abundances (C.E. Barbosa, pers.
333 observ.). However, in examining the SGS patterns of this tree, we found that younger
334 seedlings presented higher genetic similarity with their neighboring seedlings than with the
335 closest adults. This pattern could result from pulses of seeds coming from distant, unsampled
336 adults further away from the study sites. In addition, the frequency of fruiting cycles might
337 vary among the adults of the same population [8,17], which could change the SGS observed
338 in a given cohort. Fecundity variation is another factor that may influence SGS, because
339 adults with greater seed production should be over-represented in the seed shadow
340 composition, yielding more seedlings related with each other.

341 We also found that relatedness decreased between first-year seedlings and saplings.
342 This reduction in relatedness could result from disproportionate mortality near conspecific
343 adults due to density and/or distance-responsive enemies. From a initially highly genetically
344 autocorrelated seed shadow, thinning of closely related individuals occurs as the seedlings
345 grow taller, as shown by the decreasing autocorrelation values from one size class to the next.
346 One mechanism that would cause this pattern is if anti-herbivore defenses were variable
347 within populations and closely related plants express identical anti-herbivore defenses
348 [12,13]. Specialist natural enemies may use these defenses as cues, and genetically distant
349 individual seedlings may escape notice when in a group of conspecifics. Strong evidence of
350 higher mortality within closely related seedlings was described recently in Choo et al. [46], in
351 which the proportion of seedlings dispersed near the maternal parent decreased by threefold
352 throughout the development stages evaluated, while the proportion of non-related seedlings
353 remained similar. Alternatively, fungal pathogens may have strong negative effects on young

354 seedlings near parent trees [6], but both herbivore and pathogen negative effects may subside
355 as seedlings mature.

356 The differences we found in relatedness between first-year and young seedlings agrees
357 with other studies that evaluated SGS throughout different life stages [47,48]. Zhou & Chen
358 [2] detected SGS dissipation as seeds and seedlings developed to the sapling and adult stages,
359 but they could not determine the stage at which density dependence began because they did
360 not measure young seedlings. Hamrick et al. [49] also found SGS at seedling and sapling
361 stages and Hardesty et al. [50] identified differences on SGS patterns when comparing size
362 classes of a tropical tree species, but unlike our study did not detect SGS among individuals at
363 the adult stage.

364 Seeds from distant parents dispersed from outside the studied area, might accumulate
365 over multiple fruiting years, causing the decrease of relatedness as seedlings age. In this
366 scenario we would expect the youngest seedlings to be closely-related to local adults, but that
367 genetic-relatedness would be reduced as seedlings grew older [41]. However the between-
368 generation analysis (Fig. 4) does not support this hypothesis as the observed youngest
369 seedlings were less related with the adults than within themselves. In fact relatedness was
370 more and more similar to adults as the cohorts aged, which might help to explain the high
371 relationship values among juvenile and adult tree individuals in the first distance classes. The
372 adults and juveniles were more related to each other than would be expected by chance, which
373 is contrary to the tendency for relatedness to decrease, which we found for earlier stages of
374 development. The adults of the first distance class had the highest relatedness value ($n=17$,
375 $r=0.34$, more than twice the first-year seedlings' r -value). However, the r -values among
376 juveniles and trees, as well as the ones for the greater distance classes of the saplings, should
377 be carefully interpreted as they derived from a small number of comparisons. Nevertheless,
378 the pattern of greater relatedness within adults and juveniles trees is strengthened by the fact

379 that the within-generation relatedness values that we observed were much higher than the
380 between-generation relatedness for the first size class, and these values showed a clear
381 tendency to decrease as seedlings aged, until the sapling stage where the plants' relatedness
382 values are more similar to the adults.

383 Our finding of the reduction in relatedness within seedlings as plants grow older, yet
384 exhibiting higher relatedness values with adults, could be explained by a life-stage conflict, as
385 predicted by Schupp [51], in which the trade-off between the positive and negative aspects of
386 being nearby a reproductive adult should vary according to the ontogenetic stage. Thus, being
387 close to an adult might be much more detrimental to young seedlings than for saplings and
388 adults, as the higher probability of herbivore and/or pathogens attack greatly surpasses the
389 advantage of being in the same site of a reproductive adult (i.e., an "optimal" site for
390 establishment) in an early life stage. Additionally, contrary to the prediction of Janzen's
391 graphical model of high seedling mortality at specific distances from adults [9,11] and
392 supporting studies such as Alvarez-Loayza & Terborgh [20] that observed extremely high
393 seedling mortality, some *P. subserratum* seedlings do escape mortality in close proximity to
394 adults. The clustering of genetically closely related juveniles and adults might result from
395 uneven seed distribution, with seeds from the same maternal tree being dispersed to the same
396 place [52,53], resulting in clumping of related individuals. Besides these possibilities, we
397 would also expect that most seedlings would derive from nearby individuals of *P.*
398 *subserratum*, considering the deposition of large numbers of seeds near the maternal adult
399 year after year compared to the minor contribution of seeds dispersing from adults at greater
400 distances. In that context, the probability that the seedlings that do escape from predation will
401 be related to the nearest adults is higher. Our results stand in contrast to studies that found
402 individuals related to each other, but away from the maternal individual [54–56]. Finally,
403 closely related adults may themselves relate to the reproductive success of a few previous

404 adults from past generations, and may thus be a consequence of episodic reproduction or
405 founder effects.

406 Steinitz et al. [57] found contrasting results in a temperate forest in a study of older
407 pine saplings and adult trees. They reported that density dependent mortality strengthened
408 with age, working as a spacing mechanism all the way to adulthood. The authors argue that a
409 possible explanation for this pattern would be the increase in competition with conspecific
410 adult trees. Our results are more in accordance with those found by Latouche-Hallé et al. [58]
411 for a tropical tree species at French Guiana, where genetic relatedness was higher in adults
412 that were close together, which they credited to overlapping generations in adult cohorts being
413 more dissimilar at greater distances.

414

415 Patterns across soil types

416 Even within the same population of *P. subserratum*, and along a relatively short
417 environmental gradient, relatedness patterns appear to be significantly different between soil
418 types. In slopes and ridges, where the clay plots were located, the relatedness values among
419 individuals 150 m distant from each other were higher than in the lower areas (the sandy plots
420 of the valleys), in which relatedness between individuals was no different than what would be
421 expected by chance. This pattern may be explained by two interconnected factors: soil type
422 and topography.

423 Soils in central Amazonia are notoriously poor and sandy soils are significantly less
424 fertile than clay soils. Differences in seed output caused by soil nutrient properties could
425 change the size of seed shadows, thus affecting SGS patterns. But since tree diameter is a
426 good predictor of fecundity potential [59,60], and at Ducke the size of *P. subserratum* trees is
427 similar across the soil texture gradient ($r^2=-0.03$, $p=0.72$, unpublished data), it is reasonable to

428 expect similar seed output throughout the soil texture gradient. Variation in the number of
429 reproductive adults may also influence SGS as a result of overlapping seed shadows [49], but
430 the abundance of *P. subserratum* adults is also similar along the soil texture gradient,
431 therefore the chances of overlapping seed shadows should be constant throughout the
432 gradient.

433 Subtle environmental gradients not only may affect an individual's growth [61], but
434 they can also influence the chemical defenses against predation [13] and ultimately act as a
435 selective agent on genotypes. Despite the evidence of stronger herbivore pressure in forest on
436 clay soil sites [22], the impact of leaf attack in poor soils is higher, because the replacement of
437 the leaf tissue lost to herbivores should be much more difficult in a low nutrient environment
438 [22]. Stronger herbivore impacts on mortality in sandy habitats could lead to higher
439 density/distance related mortality and ultimately result in the lower genetic autocorrelation
440 among seedlings in sandy soils.

441 Nevertheless, density/distance dependent mortality might be overwhelmed by abiotic
442 factors that regulate establishment success. We found higher mortality of *P. subserratum*
443 seedlings in clay plots (45%) than in sandy plots (16%) in a parallel study conducted during a
444 two year period (C. E. Barbosa, unpublished data), which is the opposite of what would be
445 expected because clay plots exhibited stronger patterns of spatial genetic structure than did
446 sandy plots. The increased mortality might be related to drought during the dry season, which
447 tends to have stronger effects in clay soil areas that are located away from streams. However
448 drought-related mortality probably happens regardless of the proximity to conspecific adults
449 and should not influence the spatial genetic structure patterns found here.

450 Additionally, valleys may receive a more genetically diverse seed influx from higher
451 places, due a topographic effect of seeds being carried down by gravity as well as by
452 rainwater from the steeper areas. Even in the absence of rain, seeds from trees in higher areas

453 have a higher probability of being dispersed to the valleys by birds, gravity or wind than seeds
454 from valley trees have of being moved to higher sites. This could lead to a greater genetic
455 diversity in valleys, and hence to a lower genetic relatedness among seedlings.

456 Edaphic gradients and topography have a large influence in driving plant species
457 composition in the Amazon [30,62] and density/distance-dependent mortality could be one of
458 the mechanisms involved. The evidence we found for contrasting JC effects between sandy
459 and clay soils at Ducke may be part of a more general mechanism influencing community-
460 level patterns in different soil types and could contribute to the high turnover of plant
461 community composition in the Central Amazonian lowlands [31].

462

463 **Conclusions**

464 We observed spatial genetic structure patterns in all evaluated stages of *P.*
465 *subserratum*, with a tendency for relatedness to decrease across the early stages of
466 development. However, this tendency was not found in the adults, which presented high SGS.
467 That may be an indication that particular genotypes are better adapted to a very local scale,
468 resulting in more genetically spatially-autocorrelated adults, as they would be more likely to
469 share traits for the same abiotic and biotic environments. The different SGS patterns that we
470 found between clayey and sandy soils may represent another layer of trait selection acting on
471 a higher spatial scale.

472 The presence of SGS across environments in seedlings of a species so broadly
473 distributed across the whole Amazon forest could be an indication that *P. subserratum* may be
474 more locally adapted to soil type than previously assumed, and shows the impact that habitat
475 heterogeneity can have on genotype distribution. Future studies should investigate if the SGS
476 differences among environments are sustained across subsequent plant development stages

477 including among adults in different soil types. Environmental heterogeneity across the
 478 landscape are known to be driver of speciation [63] with the action of ecological selection on
 479 genotypes. Fine et al. [64], when analyzing extremely poor soils (white sands) in contrast with
 480 more fertile clay soils, found that the soil type interacts with herbivore pressure leading to
 481 habitat specialization. We speculate that our findings here might represent an intermediate
 482 stage in that process, as the downslope sandy soils at Central Amazon are not as poor as white
 483 sand soils, therefore should be a less extreme gradient. Nevertheless the differences between
 484 habitats were sufficient to establish diverse patterns of genetic structure among environments.
 485

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492

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494

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685

686 **Data accessibility**

687 Sampling locations, soil type, tree sizes and microsatellite genotypes for all individuals are
688 available at the data repository of the Brazilian Biodiversity Research Program (PPBio) at
689 <http://peld.inpa.gov.br/knb/metacat/prisouza.29.13/peld>.

690

691 Figure Legends

692 **Figure 1. Site location and sampling design.** Study site location in the Central Amazon,
693 north of Manaus, Brazil. The trail grid is shown in the right figure and the plots that contained
694 sufficient individuals for SGS analyses are represented by black dots. Topographical variation
695 is shown in a grey-scale, from low (white) to high areas (black). In the lower left of the figure
696 the sampling scheme is depicted, including 5 sampling lines of 2 m width and 250 m length.
697 The extra sampling area conducted around each adult (black dot), is represented by points
698 around it (open circles), excluding areas previously sampled in the lines (gray circles).

699 **Figure 2. Spatial genetic structure at different life stages of *Protium subserratum*.**
700 Correlogram presenting SGS for *P. subserratum* seedlings of different height classes sampled
701 at 14 plots at Ducke: (A) are seedlings up to 20 cm tall; (B) are seedlings from 21 to 40 cm
702 tall, (C) are seedlings from 41 to 100 cm tall and (D) are juveniles and adults taller than 200
703 cm. The points indicate r-values with the error bars and the dashed lines are the upper and
704 lower 95% CI limits around the mean value ($r=0$) of the null distribution of a random
705 distribution of alleles in space. The number of pairs compared at each distance class is
706 reported in table 3.

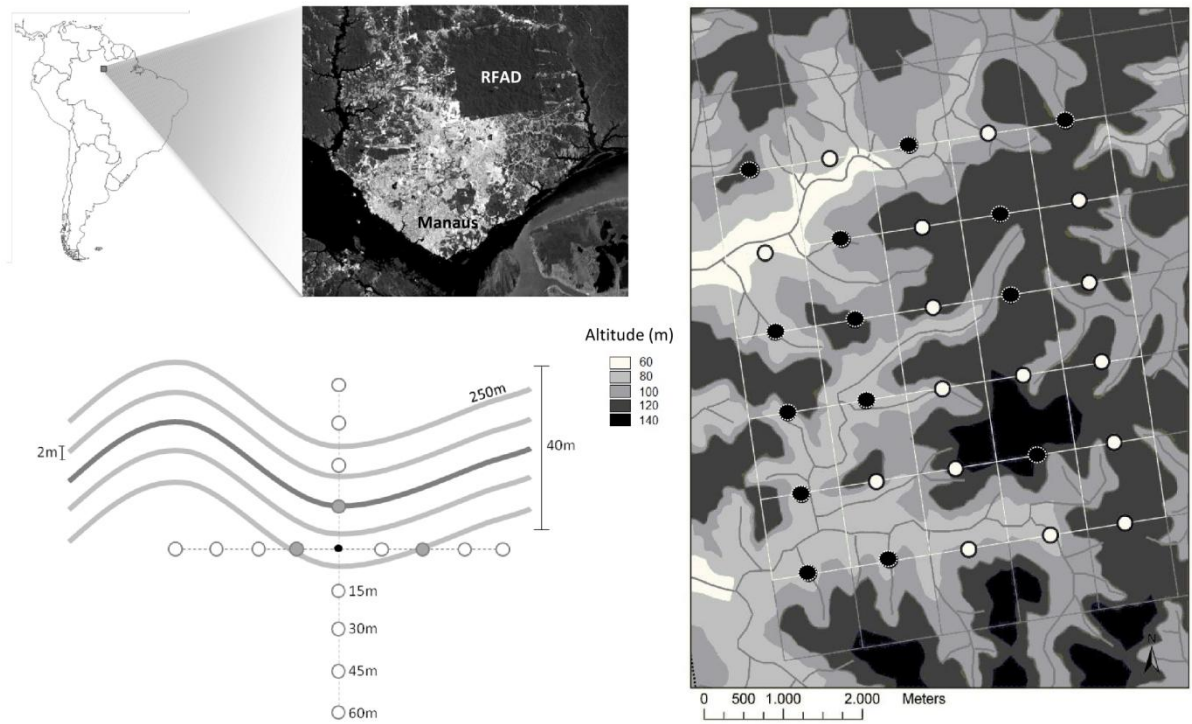
707 **Figure 3. Spatial genetic structure calculated for (A) plants smaller than 40 cm, (B)**
708 **plants taller than 40 cm and (C) all individuals pooled together.** Correlogram of SGS for
709 *P. subserratum* plants sampled at Ducke. The points indicate r-values with the error bars and
710 the dashed lines are the upper and lower 95% CI limits around the mean value ($r=0$) of the
711 null distribution of a random distribution of alleles in space. Distance classes represent 10 m
712 intervals, from 10 to 250m.

713

714 **Figure 4. Inter-generational genetic structure analysis: seedling/seedling similarity vs.**
715 **Seedling/adult similarity.** Kinship values (F_{ij}) of adult-seedling pairs (continuous lines) and
716 seedling-seedling pairs (dotted lines) for each plant size class along five distance classes. (A)
717 for first-year seedlings, (B) for young seedlings, (C) for saplings and (D) for all size classes
718 pooled together.

719 **Figure 5. Spatial genetic structure of *Protium subserratum* seedlings at different soil**
720 **types.** Correlograms of SGS for 40 cm height *P. subserratum* seedlings at plots with different
721 soil texture at Ducke: (A) are seedlings in clayey soils and (B) are seedlings in sandy soils.
722 The points indicate r-values with error bars and the dashed lines represent 95% CI limits
723 around the mean value ($r=0$) of the null distribution of a random distribution of alleles in
724 space. The number of comparisons for each distance class is reported in table 5.

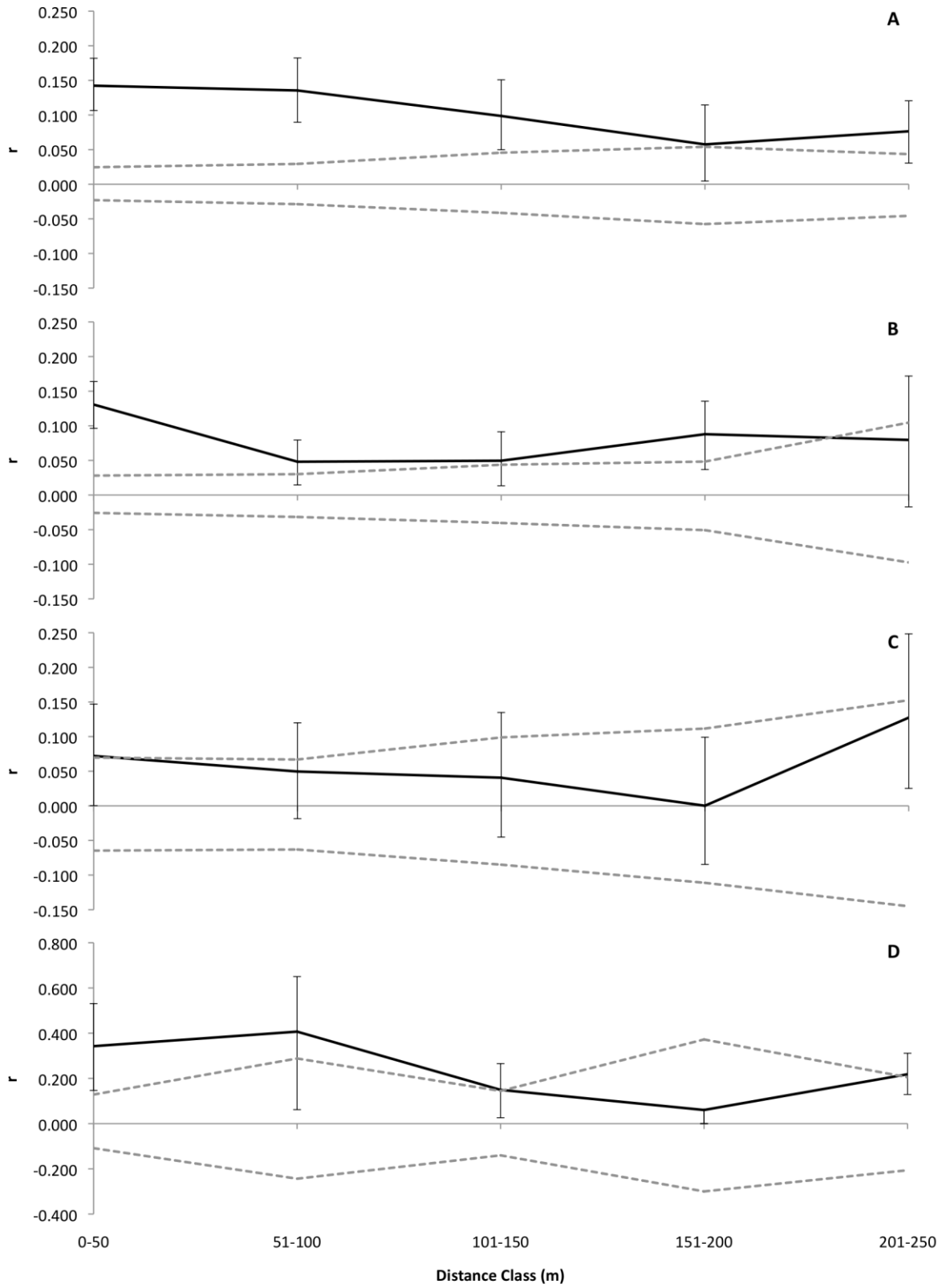
725 **Fig. 1**



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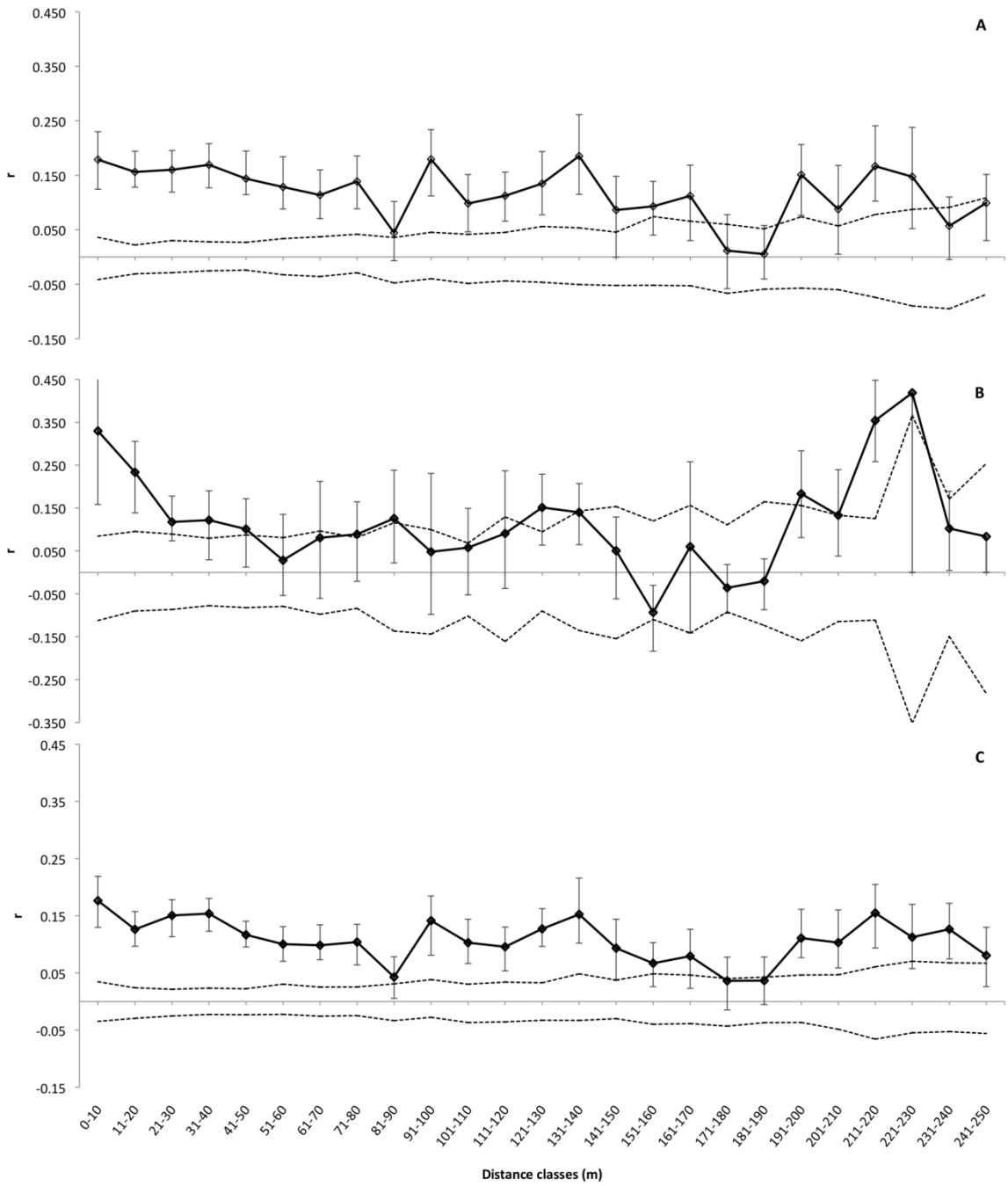
728 **Fig. 2**



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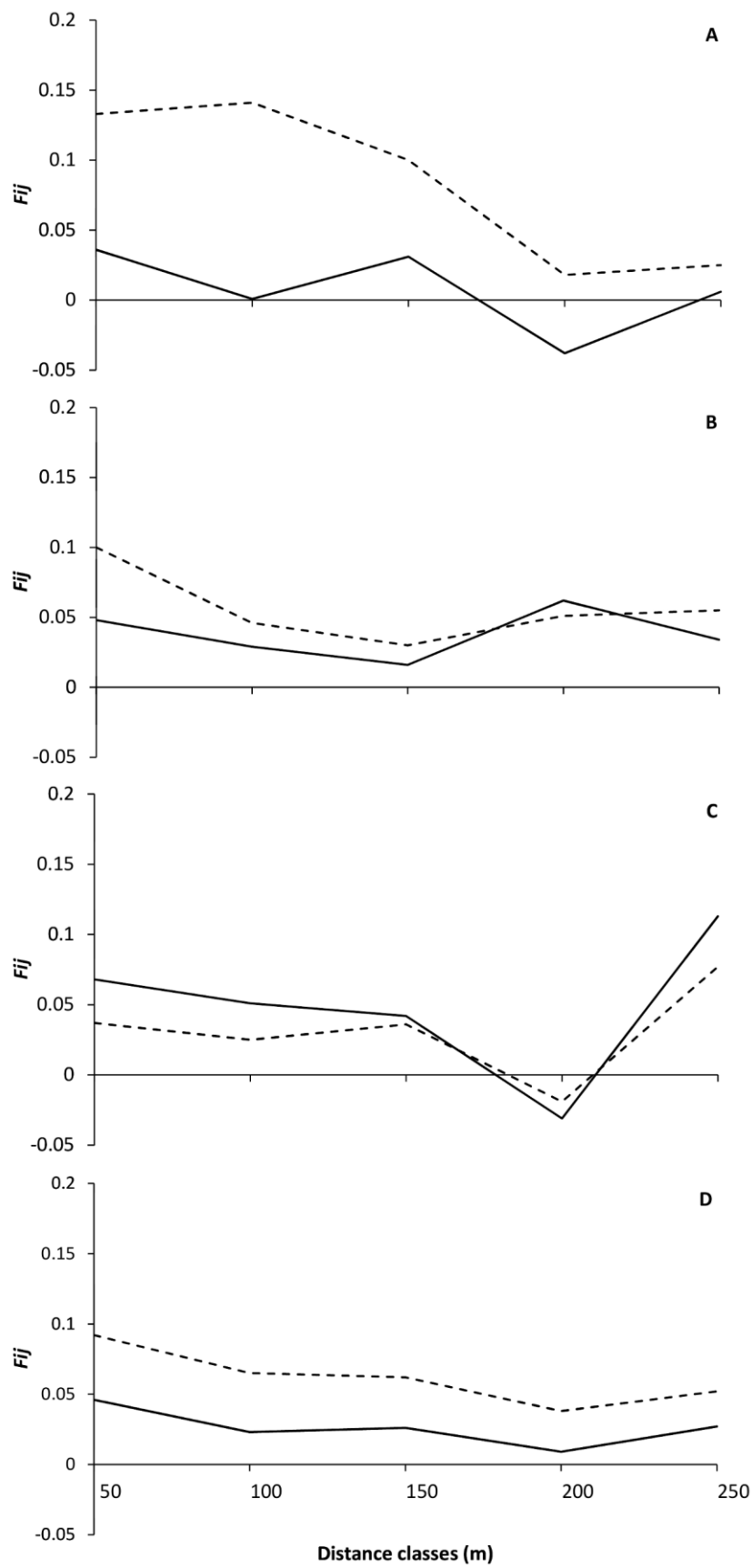
730

731 Fig. 3

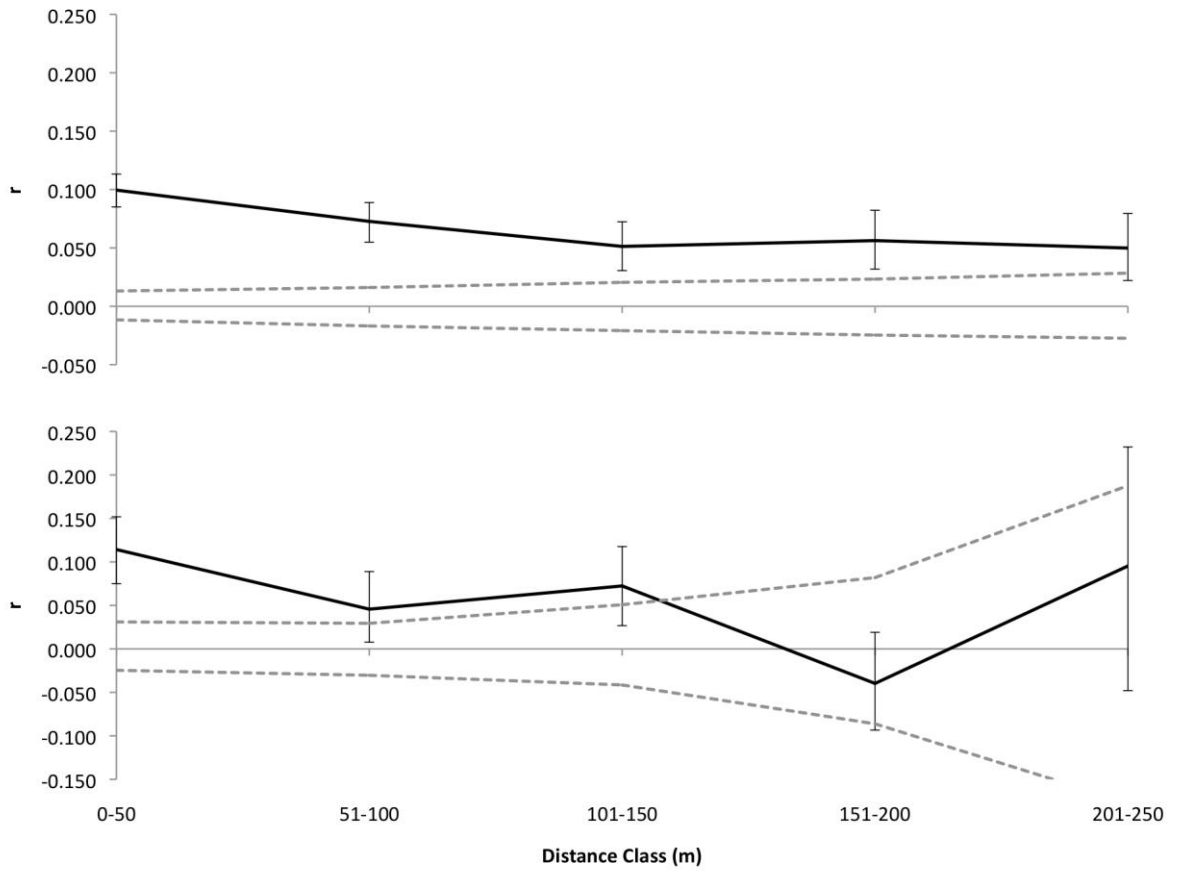


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733

734 **Fig. 4**

736 **Fig. 5**



737

738

739 **Table 1.** Number of individuals from the four different size classes at each plot, soil category
 740 (sandy for less than 15% of clay in soil composition, and clay for more than 15% of clay) and
 741 the total number of seedlings included in the genetic analysis for each size class.

Plot	Soil type	Clay %	First-year seedlings	Young seedlings	Saplings	Juveniles & Adults	Total
Lo8_1500	Sandy	2.68	11	14	3	3	31
Lo8_0500	Sandy	2.74	16	8	4	1	29
Lo4_1500	Sandy	3.79	6	5	1	1	13
Lo3_2500	Sandy	4.99	10	11	3	3	27
Lo6_1500	Sandy	11.81	1	1	3	1	6
Lo7_0500	Sandy	13.04	7	5	7	1	20
Lo6_0500	Clay	32.24	5	11	3	1	20
Lo5_2500	Clay	42.57	12	11	6	1	30
Lo3_0500	Clay	62.40	9	14	10	5	38
Lo7_3500	Clay	72.46	22	10	5	5	42
Lo4_3500	Clay	77.33	25	12	2	4	43
Lo3_4500	Clay	78.28	5	6	4	1	16
Lo5_1500	Clay	81.31	7	12	3	4	26
Lo5_3500	Clay	83.30	6	10	3	0	19
Total			142	130	57	31	360

742

743

744 **Table 2.** Summary of genetic diversity. Sample size (n), average allele number per locus
 745 (Na), effective allele number (Ne), number of private alleles and frequencies in parenthesis
 746 (Pa), observed heterozygosity (H_o), expected heterozygosity (H_e) and fixation index (F).
 747 Standard error values are within parenthesis.

Groupings	N	Na	Ne	Pa	H_o	H_e	F
First-year sdl.	142	6.4(0.99)	3.3(0.43)	3(0.004)	0.6(0.04)	0.7(0.04)	0.1(0.04)
Young sdl.	130	6.7(0.84)	3.3(0.42)	3(0.011)	0.6(0.04)	0.7(0.04)	0.1(0.02)
Sapling sdl.	57	6.4(0.90)	3.1(0.43)	1(0.01)	0.6(0.04)	0.6(0.04)	0.0(0.05)
Adult/juvenile	30	5.3(0.75)	2.8(0.26)	1(0.017)	0.6(0.07)	0.6(0.04)	0.0(0.07)
Clay	166	6.7(0.89)	3.2(0.47)	7(0.010)	0.6(0.04)	0.6(0.04)	0.0(0.01)
Sand	74	6.1(0.67)	3.2(0.36)	3(0.028)	0.5(0.04)	0.7(0.04)	0.2(0.06)

748

749 **Table 3.** Tests for the significance of autocorrelation at each distance class, presenting
 750 number of pairs tested (n), autocorrelation r-values (r) and the multiclass test criteria (ω)
 751 shown for: i) first-year seedlings (<20cm); ii) young seedlings (21-40cm); iii) saplings (41-
 752 100cm); and iv) juveniles and trees (>200cm). Significance represented by * <0.05, ** <0.01;
 753 *** <0.001.

Distance Class (m)	Size class				
	First-year seedlings	Young seedlings	Saplings	Juveniles and trees	
0-50	N	383	241	41	17
	R	0.14 ^{***}	0.13 ^{***}	0.07 [*]	0.34 ^{***}
51-100	N	257	194	39	3
	R	0.13 ^{***}	0.05 ^{***}	0.05	0.40 ^{**}
101-150	N	119	101	20	11
	R	0.10 ^{***}	0.05 [*]	0.04	0.15 [*]
151-200	N	69	77	14	2
	R	0.06 [*]	0.09 ^{***}	0.00	0.06
201-250	N	108	17	8	6
	R	0.08 ^{**}	0.08	0.13 [*]	0.29 [*]
Multiclass comparison	N	142	130	57	31
	Ω	61.10 ^{***}	53.11 ^{***}	23.70 ^{**}	41.42 ^{***}

754

755 **Table 4.** Comparisons of autocorrelation patterns of fine-scale genetic structure between size
 756 classes of *P. subserratum* at Ducke, Manaus, Brazil. Statistics and associated probabilities for
 757 the differences in SGS between plant size classes, for each distance class (t^2) and for the
 758 whole correlogram (ω). Significance represented by ⁺<0.1, * <0.05, ** <0.01; *** <0.001.

Size class pairs	T^2					Ω -test
	Distance classes (m)					
	0-50	51-100	101-150	151-200	201-250	
First-year vs. Young	0.17	7.83**	2.05	0.62	0.00	18.61*
First-year vs. Sapling	1.47	2.41	0.84	0.76	0.34	12.37
First-year vs. Adult/juvenile	4.80*	2.56	0.37	0.00	2.17	16.19 ⁺
Young vs. Sapling	1.01	0.00	0.02	1.83	0.23	6.79
Young vs. Adult/juvenile	5.44*	4.27*	1.42	0.03	1.71	19.87*
Sapling vs. Adult/juvenile	7.02**	4.15*	1.22	0.12	0.57	20.48*

759

760

761 **Table 5.** Tests for the significance of autocorrelation at each distance class for first-year and
 762 young seedlings at clay and sandy soils, presenting number of pairs tested (n), autocorrelation
 763 r-values (r). Multiclass test criteria (ω) for testing the hypothesis of “no autocorrelation” at
 764 any distance class. Significance represented by * <0.05, ** <0.01; *** <0.001.

Distance class (m)	Soil type		
		Clay	Sand
0-50	N	1080	369
	R	0.10***	0.11***
51-100		632	329
		0.07***	0.05**
101-150		400	149
		0.05***	0.07**
151-200		308	53
		0.06***	-0.04
201-250		206	10
		0.05***	0.09
Multiclass comparison	N	196	96
	Ω	69.08***	43.85***

765

766 **Table 6.** Comparisons of autocorrelation patterns of fine-scale genetic structure between soil
 767 types of *P. subserratum* at Ducke. Statistics and associated probabilities for the differences in
 768 SGS between seedlings up to 40cm height located at sandy and clayey soils, for each lag (t^2)
 769 and for the whole correlogram (ω). Significance represented by * <0.05, ** <0.01; ***
 770 <0.001.

Distance class (m)	Sand vs. Clay plots
0-50	$T^2=0.63$
51-100	$T^2=1.73$
101-150	$T^2=0.80$
151-200	$T^2=7.82^{**}$
201-250	$T^2=0.37$
Multiclass	$\Omega = 18.962^*$
Comparison	

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Síntese

Resultados indicam que os períodos de seca são bastante negativos para o sucesso no estabelecimento de plântulas, podendo alterar a distribuição das mesmas. Plântulas respondem à falta de chuva em velocidade e intensidade diferentes de acordo com o tipo de solo onde se encontram. Em solos argilosos os efeitos do início da estação seca resultam em mortalidade de plântulas com cerca de mês de atraso. Já em plântulas que estão em solos arenosos a mortalidade aumenta imediatamente após o início da seca. Anos com seca extrema podem resultar em alta mortalidade em todo o gradiente de textura do solo, além de predispor as plântulas que sobrevivem ao período de seca a mortalidade posterior, podendo causar uma alta mortalidade caso o período chuvoso subsequente não seja pleno.

Encontramos ainda que em plantas jovens de *Protium subserratum* que são espacialmente próximas umas às outras tendem a se tornar menos geneticamente similares entre si a medida que a distancia entre eles aumenta, e este efeito aumenta conforme as plântulas ficam mais velhas. No entanto arvoretas e adultos apresentaram padrão inverso, com indivíduos exibindo maiores valores de similaridade genética com seus vizinhos mais próximos. Isso pode ser resultado de um balanço compensatório entre a desvantagem de estar próximo a um adulto da mesma espécie, e assim poder sofrer com ataques de patógenos e herbívoros atraídos pela alta densidade de indivíduos (e essa desvantagem é maior para plântulas do que para arvoretas e adultos), e as vantagens de se estar em um sítio ótimo para o estabelecimento até a fase adulta. Além disso encontramos que o tipo de solo modula a força dos efeitos de denso-dependencia, sendo mais fortes em plântulas estabelecidas em solos arenosos.

Observamos que algumas espécies de árvores e palmeiras são associadas a porções do gradiente de textura do solo, e em geral essa associação se dá no estágio adulto. De maneira geral as plântulas, ao contrário dos adultos, possuem distribuição irrestrita por todo o gradiente ambiental, indicando que os requerimentos dessas espécies mudam conforme os estágios ontogenéticos evoluem, levando a uma contração em sua distribuição quando na fase adulta.

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Apêndice 1 – Ata da aula de qualificação



AULA DE QUALIFICAÇÃO

PARECER

Aluno(a): CARLOS EDUARDO DE ARAÚJO BARBOSA
 Curso: ECOLOGIA
 Nível: DOUTORADO
 Orientador(a): FLÁVIA REGINA C. COSTA

Título:

“O papel da limitação de recrutamento na estruturação de comunidade vegetal de uma floresta de terra firme na Amazônia brasileira”.

BANCA JULGADORA:

TITULARES:

- Isolde Ferraz (INPA)
- Bruce Nelson (INPA)
- Niwton Leal Filho (INPA)
- Maria Teresa Piedade (INPA)

SUPLENTE:

- Renato Cintra Soares (INPA)
- Gil Vieira (INPA)

EXAMINADORES	PARECER	ASSINATURA
Isolde Ferraz (INPA)	() Aprovado () Reprovado	
Bruce Nelson (INPA)	(X) Aprovado () Reprovado	<i>[Signature]</i>
Niwton Leal Filho (INPA)	(X) Aprovado () Reprovado	<i>[Signature]</i>
Maria Teresa Piedade (INPA)	(X) Aprovado () Reprovado	<i>[Signature]</i>
Renato Cintra Soares (INPA)	() Aprovado () Reprovado	
Gil Vieira (INPA)	(*) Aprovado () Reprovado	<i>[Signature]</i>

Manaus(AM), 31 de outubro de 2008

OBS: A Banca se reuniu para um aprofundamento nas teorias selecionadas para o trabalho, abordagem de vida, influência da escala de tempo no sucesso de espécies, diversidade de árvores.



AULA DE QUALIFICAÇÃO

Aluno(a): CARLOS EDUARDO DE ARAÚJO BARBOSA
 Curso: ECOLOGIA Nivel: () Mestrado (X) Doutorado
 Dia: 31/10/2008
 Hora: 14:30:00 hs
 Local: SALA DE AULA DO PROGRAMA DE PÓS-GRADUAÇÃO EM ENTOMOLOGIA
 Orientador(a): FLÁVIA REGINA C. COSTA

LISTA DE PRESENÇA

Nº	NOME DO ALUNO	CURSO	ASSINATURA
01	Apnelise R. Liquevedo	Entom	<i>Apnelise R. Liquevedo</i>
02	Virgínia Campos Diniz Bernardes	BADPI	<i>Virgínia Campos</i>
03	Edson Vargas Lopes	Doc. - UEM	<i>Edson Vargas Lopes</i>
04	Marcélia da Silva	WCS	<i>Marcélia da Silva</i>
05	Rafael	TCEN	<i>Rafael</i>
06	Josina D'Ávila de Paula	Ecologia	<i>Josina D'Ávila de Paula</i>
07	MELISSA TEIXEIRA ROSAS	ECOLOGIA	<i>Melissa Rosas</i>
08	PATRICIA MARIA SILVA DE ARAUJO	ECOLOGIA	<i>Patricia Maria Silva de Araujo</i>
09	BRUNO GARCIA LUIZE	ECOLOGIA	<i>Bruno Garcia Luiz</i>
10	FÁBIA GEÓRGIA AVILOS DE ANDRADE	ECOLOGIA	<i>Fábila Geórgia Avilos de Andrade</i>
11	Maurice S. Tomim	ecologia	<i>Maurice S. Tomim</i>
12	Carlos Eduardo Neder	Ecologia	<i>Carlos Neder</i>
13	FELIX MOURA COSTA MOURA	CPEC	<i>Felix Moura Costa Moura</i>
14	Guilherme Gabriel Mergochim	Ecologia	<i>Guilherme Gabriel Mergochim</i>
15	Bernardo Monteiro Flores	Ecologia	<i>Bernardo Monteiro Flores</i>
16	Harold Martin Wright	Ecologia	<i>Harold Martin Wright</i>
17	Anderson Saldanha Bueno	Ecologia	<i>Anderson Saldanha Bueno</i>
18	IGOR LUIS KAEFER	ECOLOGIA	<i>Igor Luis Kaefers</i>
19	Thelma Mendes Costa	Ecologia	<i>Thelma Mendes Costa</i>
20	Alexander Had Ribeiro	CFT	<i>Alexander Had Ribeiro</i>
21	Cristian de Jesus Dambrós	Entomologia	<i>Cristian de Jesus Dambrós</i>
22	Cintia Gomes de Freitas	CPEC	<i>Cintia G. Freitas</i>
23	RAFAEL GONCALVES DE OLIVEIRA	CFT	<i>Rafael Gonçalves Oliveira</i>
24	VICTOR LAURENÇO	ECOLOGIA	<i>Victor Laurenc</i>
25	Stela Valenti Raupp	CPEC	<i>Stela Raupp</i>

FAVOR DEVOLVER ESTA LISTA À SECRETARIA DE PÓS-GRADUAÇÃO

Apêndice 2 – Pareceres dos avaliadores do trabalho escrito



Instituto Nacional de Pesquisas da Amazônia - INPA
Programa de Pós-graduação em Ecologia



Avaliação de tese de doutorado

Título: Controles ambientais e bióticos da dinâmica de plântulas em uma floresta de terra-firme da Amazônia central

Aluno: Carlos Eduardo de Araújo Barbosa

Orientador: Flávia R C Costa Co-orientador:

Avaliador: Fernando Roberto Martins

Por favor, marque a alternativa que considerar mais apropriada para cada item abaixo, e marque seu parecer final no quadro abaixo

	Muito bom	Bom	Necessita revisão	Reprovado
Relevância do estudo	(X)	()	()	()
Revisão bibliográfica	(X)	()	()	()
Desenho amostral/experimental	()	(X)	()	()
Metodologia	()	()	(X)	()
Resultados	()	()	(X)	()
Discussão e conclusões	()	()	(X)	()
Formatação e estilo texto	()	(X)	()	()
Potencial para publicação em periódico(s) indexado(s)	(X)	()	()	()

PARECER FINAL

- () **Aprovada** (indica que o avaliador aprova o trabalho sem correções ou com correções mínimas)
- (X) **Aprovada com correções** (indica que o avaliador aprova o trabalho com correções extensas, mas que não precisa retornar ao avaliador para reavaliação)
- () **Necessita revisão** (indica que há necessidade de reformulação do trabalho e que o avaliador quer reavaliar a nova versão antes de emitir uma decisão final)
- () **Reprovada** (indica que o trabalho não é adequado, nem com modificações substanciais)

Campinas, UNICAMP/DBW 10/09/2012 Fernando R. Martins
Local Data Assinatura

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**Instituto Nacional de Pesquisas da Amazônia - INPA
Graduate Program in Ecology**



Referee evaluation sheet for PhD thesis

Title: Environmental and biotic drivers of seedling dynamics in a terra firme forest in a Central Amazon forest
 Candidate: **Carlos Eduardo de Araújo Barbosa**
 Supervisor: **Flávia R C Costa** Co-supervisor:

Examiner: Kyle Harms (Louisiana State University)

Please check one alternative for each of the following evaluation items, and check one alternative in the box below as your final evaluation decision.

	Excellent	Good	Satisfactory	Needs improvement	Not acceptable
Relevance of the study	()	(X)	()	()	()
Literature review	()	(X)	()	()	()
Sampling design	()	(X)	()	()	()
Methods/procedures	()	()	(X)	()	()
Results	()	(X)	()	()	()
Discussion/conclusions	()	(X)	()	()	()
Writing style and composition	()	()	(X)	()	()
Potential for publication in peer reviewed journal(s)	()	(X)	()	()	()

FINAL EVALUATION
 Approved without or minimal changes
 Approved with changes (no need for re-evaluation by this reviewer)
 Potentially acceptable, conditional upon review of a corrected version (The candidate must submit a new version of the thesis, taking into account the corrections asked for by the reviewer. This new version will be sent to the reviewer for a new evaluation only as acceptable or not acceptable)
 Not acceptable (This product is incompatible with the minimum requirements for this academic level)

Kyle E. Harms

_____, Sept. 17, 2012, _____
 Place Date Signature

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Instituto Nacional de Pesquisas da Amazônia - INPA
Graduate Program in Ecology



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Title: Environmental and biotic drivers of seedling dynamics in a terra firme forest in a Central Amazon forest

Candidate: **Carlos Eduardo de Araújo Barbosa**

Supervisor: **Flávia R C Costa** Co-supervisor:

Examiner: Margaret Metz

Please check one alternative for each of the following evaluation items, and check one alternative in the box below as your final evaluation decision.

	Excellent	Good	Satisfactory	Needs improvement	Not acceptable
Relevance of the study	(X)	()	()	()	()
Literature review	(X)	()	()	()	()
Sampling design	(X)	()	()	()	()
Methods/procedures	(X)	()	()	()	()
Results	(X)	()	()	()	()
Discussion/conclusions	(X)	()	()	()	()
Writing style and composition	(X)	()	()	()	()
Potential for publication in peer reviewed journal(s)	(X)	()	()	()	()

FINAL EVALUATION

(X) **Approved without or minimal changes**

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() **Potentially acceptable, conditional upon review of a corrected version** (The candidate must submit a new version of the thesis, taking into account the corrections asked for by the reviewer. This new version will be sent to the reviewer for a new evaluation only as acceptable or not acceptable)

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Davis, CA
Place

22 September 2012
Date

Margaret Metz

Signature

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Referee evaluation sheet for PhD thesis

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 Candidate: **Carlos Eduardo de Araújo Barbosa**
 Supervisor: **Flávia R C Costa** Co-supervisor:

Examiner: Robin Chazdon

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	Excellent	Good	Satisfactory	Needs improvement	Not acceptable
Relevance of the study	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> (x)	<input type="checkbox"/> ()	<input type="checkbox"/> ()	<input type="checkbox"/> ()	<input type="checkbox"/> ()
Literature review	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> (x)	<input type="checkbox"/> ()	<input type="checkbox"/> ()	<input type="checkbox"/> ()	<input type="checkbox"/> ()
Sampling design	<input type="checkbox"/> ()	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> (x)	<input type="checkbox"/> ()	<input type="checkbox"/> ()	<input type="checkbox"/> ()
Methods/procedures	<input type="checkbox"/> ()	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> (x)	<input type="checkbox"/> ()	<input type="checkbox"/> ()	<input type="checkbox"/> ()
Results	<input type="checkbox"/> ()	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> (x)	<input type="checkbox"/> ()	<input type="checkbox"/> ()	<input type="checkbox"/> ()
Discussion/conclusions	<input type="checkbox"/> ()	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> (x)	<input type="checkbox"/> ()	<input type="checkbox"/> ()	<input type="checkbox"/> ()
Writing style and composition	<input type="checkbox"/> ()	<input type="checkbox"/> ()	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> (x)	<input type="checkbox"/> ()	<input type="checkbox"/> ()
Potential for publication in peer reviewed journal(s)	<input type="checkbox"/> ()	<input type="checkbox"/> ()	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> (x)	<input type="checkbox"/> ()	<input type="checkbox"/> ()

FINAL EVALUATION

() **Approved without or minimal changes**

(x) **Approved with changes** (no need for re-evaluation by this reviewer)

() **Potentially acceptable, conditional upon review of a corrected version** (The candidate must submit a new version of the thesis, taking into account the corrections asked for by the reviewer. This new version will be sent to the reviewer for a new evaluation only as acceptable or not acceptable)

() **Not acceptable** (This product is incompatible with the minimum requirements for this academic level)

Robin L. Chazdon

University of Connecticut, Storrs, CT USA September 27, 2012

Place Date Signature

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Programa de Pós-graduação em Ecologia



Avaliação de tese de doutorado

Título: Environmental and biotic drivers of seedling dynamics in a terra firme forest in a Central Amazon forest

Aluno: **Carlos Eduardo de Araújo Barbosa**

Orientador: **Flávia R C Costa** Co-orientador:

Avaliador: **Thomas Kursar (University of Utah)**

Por favor, marque a alternativa que considerar mais apropriada para cada item abaixo, e marque seu parecer final no quadro abaixo

	Muito bom	Bom	Necessita revisão	Reprovado
Relevância do estudo	()	(x)	()	()
Revisão bibliográfica	()	(x)	()	()
Desenho amostral/experimental	()	(x)	()	()
Metodologia	()	(x)	()	()
Resultados	()	(x)	()	()
Discussão e conclusões	()	(x)	()	()
Formatação e estilo texto	()	()	()	()
Potencial para publicação em periódico(s) indexado(s)	(x)	()	(x)	()

PARECER FINAL

Aprovada (indica que o avaliador aprova o trabalho sem correções ou com correções mínimas)

Aprovada com correções (indica que o avaliador aprova o trabalho com correções extensas, mas que não precisa retornar ao avaliador para reavaliação)

Necessita revisão (indica que há necessidade de reformulação do trabalho e que o avaliador quer reavaliar a nova versão antes de emitir uma decisão final)

Reprovada (indica que o trabalho não é adequado, nem com modificações substanciais)

Salt Lake City, 18 Sept 2012, Thomas A. Kursar
 Local Data Assinatura

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Apêndice 3 – Parecer dos avaliadores da defesa pública



ATA DA DEFESA PÚBLICA DA TESE DE DOUTORADO DO PROGRAMA DE PÓS-GRADUAÇÃO EM ECOLOGIA DO INSTITUTO NACIONAL DE PESQUISAS DA AMAZÔNIA

Aos 30 dias do mês de novembro do ano de 2012, às 14:00 horas, no auditório do Programa de Pós Graduação em Clima e Ambiente - PPG CLIAMB/INPA, reuniu-se a Comissão Examinadora de Defesa Pública, composta pelos seguintes membros: o(a) Prof(a). Dr(a). **José Luis Campana Camargo**, do Instituto Nacional de Pesquisas da Amazônia – INPA/PDBFF, o(a) Prof(a). Dr(a). **Maria Teresa Fernández Piedade**, do Instituto Nacional de Pesquisas da Amazônia – INPA/Max Planck e o(a) Prof(a). Dr(a). **Niwtton Leal Filho**, do Instituto Nacional de Pesquisas da Amazônia – INPA, tendo como suplentes o(a) Prof(a). Dr(a). Gil Vieira, do Instituto Nacional de Pesquisas da Amazônia –INPA e o(a) Prof(a). Dr(a). Isolde Dorothea Kossmann Ferraz, do Instituto Nacional de Pesquisas da Amazônia - INPA, sob a presidência do(a) primeiro(a), a fim de proceder a arguição pública do trabalho de TESE DE DOUTORADO de **CARLOS EDUARDO DE ARAÚJO BARBOSA**, intitulado “Controles ambientais e bióticos da dinâmica de plântulas em uma floresta de terra-firme da Amazônia central”, orientado pelo(a) Prof(a). Dr(a). Flávia Regina Capellotto Costa, do Instituto Nacional de Pesquisas da Amazônia – INPA.

Após a exposição, o(a) discente foi argüido(a) oralmente pelos membros da Comissão Examinadora, tendo recebido o conceito final:

APROVADO(A) REPROVADO(A)
 POR UNANIMIDADE POR MAIORIA

Nada mais havendo, foi lavrada a presente ata, que, após lida e aprovada, foi assinada pelos membros da Comissão Examinadora.

Prof(a).Dr(a). José Luis Campana Camargo

Prof(a).Dr(a). Maria Teresa Fernández Piedade

Prof(a).Dr(a). Niwtton Leal Filho


 Coordenação PPG-ECO/INPA