## INSTITUTO NACIONAL DE PESQUISAS DA AMAZÔNIA – INPA PROGRAMA DE PÓS-GRADUACIÓN EM ECOLOGIA

# COMO AS CONDIÇÕES HIDRO-TOPOGRÁFICAS LOCAIS INFLUENCIAM NOS PADRÕES DE DIVERSIDADE E COMPOSIÇÃO ARBÓREA NAS FLORESTAS DA BACIA AMAZÔNICA?

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Manaus, Amazonas

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#### PROGRAMA DE PÓS-GRADUAÇÃO EM ECOLOGIA

ATA DA DEFESA PÚBLICA DA DISSERTAÇÃO DE MESTRADO DO PROGRAMA DE PÓS-GRADUAÇÃO EM ECOLOGIA DO INSTITUTO NACIONAL DE PESQUISAS DA AMAZÔNIA.

Aos 30 dias do mês de Setembro do ano de 2021, às 14h00min, por videoconferência. Reuniu-se a Comissão Examinadora de Defesa Pública, composta pelos seguintes membros: a Dra. Gabriela de Paula Souza Zuquim, da University of Turku, o Dr. Ethan Householder, da Institut für Geographie und Geoökologie – KIT, e o Dr. Ben Hur Marimon Junior, da Universidade do Estado de Mato Grosso - UNEMAT, tendo como suplentes o Dr. Fabricio Beggiato Baccaro, da Universidade Federal do Amazônas - UFAM e a Dra. Flavia Delgado Santana, do Instituto Nacional de Pesquisas da Amazônia - INPA, sob a presidência da orientadora, a fim de proceder a arguição pública do trabalho de DISSERTAÇÃO DE MESTRADO do MANUEL JESÚS MARCA ZEVALLOS, intitulado: "COMO AS CONDIÇÕES HIDRO-TOPOGRÁFICAS LOCAIS INFLUENCIAM NOS PADRÕES DE DIVERSIDADE E COMPOSIÇÃO ARBÓREA NAS FLORESTAS DA BACIA AMAZÔNICA?", orientado pela Dra. Flávia Regina Capellotto Costa, do Instituto Nacional de Pesquisas da Amazônia – INPA e Co-orientado pelo Dr. Gabriel Massaine Moulatlet.

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

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

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#### Sinopse:

Avaliou-se a influência das condições hidro-topográficas locais nos padrões de diversidade e composição de espécies de árvores nas florestas da bacia Amazônica.

Palavras-chave: hidrologia local, ecologia de comunidades, florestas tropicais.

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#### Resumo

Foi demonstrado que a diversidade e a composição arbórea na Amazônia estão fortemente determinadas pela disponibilidade de água fornecida pela precipitação. Porém, dentro do mesmo regime climático, a disponibilidade de água está modulada pela topografia e as características edáficas (referidas como condições hidro-topográficas), variando desde áreas saturadas de água e mal drenadas para áreas secas e bem drenadas que se espera influenciem na distribuição das espécies. No entanto, o efeito das condições hidrotopográficas nos padrões de diversidade e composição arbórea é pouco conhecida, sobre tudo na escala da bacia Amazônica. Usando uma base de dados de 443 parcelas de 1ha de terra firma, distribuídas ao longo da bacia, investigamos como as condições hidro-topográficas influenciam nos padrões de i) diversidade alpha de árvores, ii) densidade da madeira e iii) composição de espécies arbóreas. Nós encontramos que o efeito das condições hidrotopográficas sobre a diversidade arbórea depende do contexto climático, sendo mais evidente nas florestas mais úmidas, onde a diversidade aumenta em direção às áreas com solos bem drenados e livres de encharcamento. A densidade da madeira foi influenciada pelas condições hidro-topográficas, também aumentando em direção dos ambientes com solos bem drenados. A composição de espécies converge para comunidades com espécies similares com características conservativas no uso de recursos nas condições hidro-topográficas bem drenadas, mas diverge em condições pobremente drenadas entre as regiões geomorfológicas. Nossos resultados sugerem que a hidro-topografia local modula a filtragem de espécies influenciando a diversidade e composição das florestas amazônicas. Em geral, o presente estudo mostra que o efeito das condições hidro-topográficas é generalizada e se estende por amplas regiões da Amazônia e, reforça a importância em considerar a topografia e a hidrologia local para entender a resposta e a resiliência das florestas em cenários de aumento de eventos climáticos extremos e da temperatura global.

Palavras-chave: condições hidro-topográficas, diversidade arbórea, densidade da madeira, composição de espécies, bacia Amazônica.

#### Abstract

Tree diversity and composition in Amazonia is known to be strongly determined by the water supplied by precipitation. Nevertheless, within the same climatic regime, water availability is modulated by local topography and soil characteristics (hereafter referred to as hydro-topographic conditions), varying from saturated and poorly drained to dry and welldrained areas. While these may be expected to influence species distribution. However, the impacts of hydro-topographic conditions on tree diversity and composition remain poorly understood, especially at the whole Amazon basin scale. Using a data set of 443 1-ha nonflooded forests plots distributed across the basin, we investigate how hydro-topographic conditions influence i) tree alpha diversity, ii) wood density, and iii) tree species composition. We find that the effect of hydro-topographic conditions on tree diversity depends on climate, being more evident in wetter forests, where diversity increases towards locations with welldrained soils. Wood density is influenced by hydro-topographic conditions, also increasing toward better drained soils. Tree species compositional response are more complicated, with consistent community convergence associated with conservative resource use traits in welldrained locations, but diverging among different geomorphological regions for poorly drained conditions. Our results suggest that local hydro-topographic gradients filter species, influencing the diversity and composition of Amazonian forests. Overall, this study shows that the effect of hydro-topographic conditions is pervasive, extending over wide Amazon regions, and reinforces the importance of accounting local topography and hydrology to better understand the likely response and resilience of forests to increased frequency of extreme climate events and rising temperatures.

Keywords: hydro-topographic conditions, tree diversity, wood density, species composition, Amazon basin

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## Sumário

## Introdução

Os padrões de diversidade e composição florística em grande escala têm sido bem explicados pela sazonalidade climática e a precipitação anual (Clinebell et al., 1995; ter Steege et al., 2003; Stropp et al., 2009; Esquivel-Muelbert et al., 2017). Porém, a disponibilidade de água experimentada pelas plantas dentro de qualquer regime climático está modulada pelas condições topográficas e edáficas locais (Daws et al., 2002; Gibbons & Newbery, 2003; Moeslund et al., 2013), os quais afetam a hidrologia local e assim a distribuição das plantas ao longo desses gradientes (e. g., ter Steege et al., 1993; Svenning, 2001; Jirka et al., 2007; Schietti et al., 2013; Moulatlet et al., 2017; Zuleta et al., 2020). Na Amazônia, a maior floresta tropical do mundo, as condições hidrológicas locais podem modular o efeito das secas (Sousa et al., 2020; Esteban et al., 2021), com as áreas localmente mais úmidas constituindo potenciais refúgios para a diversidade (McLaughlin et al., 2017). Portanto, considerando que o aquecimento global está levando a uma redução na disponibilidade de água nos ambientes tropicais (Pascolini-Campbell et al., 2021) e a um aumento na frequência de secas (Marengo et al., 2018) que causa uma alta mortalidade de árvores e perda de biomassa (Phillips et al., 2009; Brienen et al., 2015; Berenguer et al., 2021), é importante considerar apropriadamente a influência das condições hidrológicas locais na diversidade, estrutura e composição das florestas.

Além da disponibilidade de água, processos neutros podem afetar a diversidade e composição arbórea na Amazônia (e. g., Condit *et al.*, 2002; Coronado *et al.*, 2009; Stropp *et al.*, 2009; Emilio *et al.*, 2010), mas têm evidência considerável que fatores determinísticos como as interações bióticas (e.g. Fine et al., 2004) e condições edáficas (Phillips *et al.*, 2003; ter Steege *et al.*, 2006; Cámara-Leret *et al.*, 2017; Figueiredo *et al.*, 2018) têm um papel importante. Outros importantes determinantes da composição florística na Amazônia são a fertilidade e o desenvolvimento e estrutura do solo, que variam desde solos ricos em nutrientes e menos desenvolvidos no Oeste até solos pobres em nutrientes e mais estruturados e desenvolvidos no Leste da bacia (ter Steege *et al.*, 2006; Quesada *et al.*, 2009). Condições edáficas como a disponibilidade de nutrientes e textura do solo podem estar associadas às condições topográficas locais (Chauvel, Lucas and Boulet, 1987; Vormisto *et al.*, 2000; Ferry

*et al.*, 2010). Estas associações dependem da geomorfologia e a história evolutiva da paisagem, diferindo entre as regiões amazônicas (Sombroek, 2000). Formações geológicas, devido a suas diferenças nas características edáficas e do relevo, também afetam a composição florística (Rossetti *et al.*, 2010, 2019; Higgins *et al.*, 2011, 2015; Figueiredo *et al.*, 2014) e a dinâmica das florestas amazônicas (Johnson *et al.*, 2016; Esquivel-Muelbert *et al.*, 2020). Estas condições precisam então, ser tomadas em consideração para entender os efeitos da topografia e hidrologia local nas florestas.

As condições hidro-topográficas nas florestas não inundáveis (terra firme) estão determinadas principalmente pela elevação (relevo), o aspecto e a declividade do terreno (Moeslund et al., 2013). Estas características controlam a capacidade de drenagem do terreno, a redistribuição local do escoamento da precipitação e a profundidade do lençol freático (Rennó et al., 2008; Nobre et al., 2011; Moeslund et al., 2013). Ao longo do perfil topográfico, áreas mais baixas são úmidas, frequentemente saturadas de água e apresentam solos com baixa capacidade de drenagem devido à proximidade do lençol freático (Rennó et al., 2008; Nobre et al., 2011; Moeslund et al., 2013). Estas condições podem restringir o estabelecimento e enraizamento das árvores (Fan et al., 2017). Por outro lado, as áreas mais altas, como as encostas e colinas, são mais secos e apresentam solos bem drenados devido à distância do lençol freático (Rennó et al., 2008; Nobre et al., 2011; Moeslund et al., 2013; Fan et al., 2017). Árvores com raízes superficiais podem ser mais desfavorecidas nesses ambientes, especialmente em períodos de seca (Giardina et al., 2018) quando o esgotamento da água do solo pode causar mortalidade de árvores (Nepstad et al., 2007). Além disso, ao longo do gradiente hidro-topográfico, as condições do solo como a textura podem regular a infiltração e a ascensão capilar da água do lençol freático para os estratos superiores do solo, e assim pode afetar na retenção da umidade e a disponibilidade de água para as plantas (Hacke et al., 2000; Fan et al., 2017).

Uma abordagem da ecologia funcional permite entender a filtragem das espécies e a estruturação das comunidades ao longo dos gradientes ambientais a través do uso de traços morfológicos, fisiológicos e fenológicos, os quais afetam no crescimento, reprodução e a sobrevivência dos indivíduos (Violle *et al.*, 2007). Por exemplo, a densidade da madeira está associada com a hidráulica das plantas (Hacke *et al.*, 2001) e pode ajudar a entender a

filtragem dos traços funcionais ao longo do gradiente de disponibilidade de água. Estudos locais em florestas de terra firme indicam que as condições hidro-topográficas locais além de influenciar na diversidade e composição florística (Valencia et al., 2004; Schietti et al., 2013; Féret and Asner, 2014; Moulatlet et al., 2014; Zuleta et al., 2020), influenciam na composição funcional, como na densidade da madeira (Ferry et al., 2010; Cosme et al., 2017), características da folha (Kraft, Valencia and Ackerly, 2008; Cosme et al., 2017; Schmitt et al., 2020), resistência hidráulica (Oliveira et al., 2019; Fontes et al., 2020), massa da semente (Kraft, Valencia and Ackerly, 2008) e características químicas do dossel (Asner et al., 2015). No entanto, nenhum estudo até agora determinou se esses padrões se repetem em toda a bacia Amazônica e como eles dependem de outros fatores ambientais. Estudos em outras florestas tropicais indicam que o efeito das condições hidro-topográficas na estrutura e composição funcional das florestas dependem do clima (Blanchard et al., 2019; Muscarella et al., 2019). Na bacia Amazônica, onde o clima varia desde não sazonal até sete meses secos por ano e as condições edáficas, geológicas e do relevo variam entre as regiões da Amazônia, espera-se diferentes combinações da hidro-topografia com o clima e as condições das regiões que podem afetar os padrões de diversidade e composição de espécies e suas características funcionais nas florestas.

### Perguntas e hipóteses

# Como as condições hidro-topográficas influenciam nos padrões de diversidade arbórea nas florestas da bacia Amazônica?

O efeito das condições hidro-topográficas na diversidade vai depender do contexto climático.

Nós prevemos que nas florestas mais úmidas a diversidade será maior nas partes mais altas com solos bem drenados; enquanto que nas florestas mais secas, a diversidade será maior nas partes topográficas baixas com maior disponibilidade de água.

# Como as condições hidro-topográficas afetam a mudança da composição de espécies arbóreas ao longo dos gradientes ambientais?

A magnitude do efeito das condições hidro-topográficas na mudança da composição florística vai depender do contexto climático e das condições edáficas e do relevo das regiões geológicas da Amazônia.

Nós prevemos que as condições hidro-topográficas vão gerar padrões opostos de mudança da composição de espécies entre florestas secas e úmidas, onde a mudança da composição arbórea vai divergir em direção às partes mais altas e solos bem drenados devido ao efeito da disponibilidade de água fornecida pela precipitação será maior nessas áreas. Ademais, o efeito das condições hidro-topográficas na composição de espécies será maior em regiões com estrutura edáfica antiga e relevo bem dissecado, e menor nas regiões com estrutura edáfica recente e pouca variabilidade topográficas.

#### Como as condições hidro-topográficas influenciam na densidade da madeira?

As condições hidro-topográficas vão afetar na densidade da madeira independentemente das outras variáveis.

Nós prevemos que as florestas em solos com maior capacidade de drenagem e menor disponibilidade terão uma maior densidade da madeira.

Capítulo único

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#### 1 Abstract

Tree diversity and composition in Amazonia has been demonstrated to be strongly 2 determined by the water availability provided by precipitation. Nevertheless, within the same 3 4 climatic regime, water availability is modulated by local topography and soil characteristics (hereafter referred to as hydro-topographic conditions), running from water-saturated and 5 poorly drained areas to dry and well-drained areas which is expected to influence on species 6 7 distribution patterns. However, the effect of hydro-topographic conditions on tree diversity and composition patterns is still poorly understood, especially at the whole Amazon basin 8 9 scale. Using a data set of 443 1-ha terra-firme plots distributed across the basin, we investigate how hydro-topographic conditions influence the i) tree alpha diversity, ii) wood 10 11 density, and iii) tree species composition patterns. We found that the effect of hydro-12 topographic conditions on tree diversity depends on climate, being more evident in wetter 13 forests, where diversity increases towards areas with well-drained soils free of waterlogging. 14 Wood density is higher towards well-drained soils regardless of climate and soil fertility. Finally, we find that tree species composition converges to similar species communities 15 associated with conservative traits in resource use in well-drained topographic conditions, 16 17 but diverges in poorly drained conditions among geomorphological regions. Our results suggest that local hydro-topographic modulates the filtering of species giving rise to the 18 structure and composition of Amazonian forests. Overall, this study shows that the effect of 19 hydro-topographic conditions is pervasive, extending over wide Amazon regions, and 20 reinforces the importance in considering the local topography and hydrology to understand 21 22 the response and resilience of forests in scenarios of increased frequency of extreme climate 23 events and global temperature.

Keywords: hydro-topographic conditions, tree diversity, wood density, species composition, Amazon basin

#### 24 Introduction

Large-scale patterns of floristic diversity and composition across tropical forests have been well explained by annual precipitation and seasonality (Clinebell *et al.*, 1995; ter Steege *et al.*, 2003; Stropp *et al.*, 2009; Esquivel-Muelbert *et al.*, 2017). Nevertheless, the water availability actually experience by plants within any given climatic regime is modulated by

local topographical and edaphic conditions (Daws et al., 2002; Gibbons & Newbery, 2003; 29 30 Moeslund et al., 2013), which affect the local hydrology and thus the distribution of plants along these gradients (e. g., ter Steege et al., 1993; Svenning, 2001; Jirka et al., 2007; Schietti 31 et al., 2013; Moulatlet et al., 2017; Zuleta et al., 2020). Within Amazonia, world's largest 32 tropical forests, we now understand how local hydrological conditions can modulated the 33 effects of Amazon droughts (Sousa et al., 2020; Esteban et al., 2021), with locally wetter 34 areas constituting potential refuges for diversity (McLaughlin et al., 2017). Therefore, and 35 especially since global heating is leading to a reduction in water availability in many tropical 36 environment (Pascolini-Campbell et al., 2021) and an increase in the frequency of drought 37 38 (Marengo et al., 2018) which cause higher tree mortality and biomass loss (Phillips et al., 39 2009; Brienen et al., 2015; Berenguer et al., 2021), it is important to properly consider the influence of local hydrological conditions on forest diversity, structure and composition. 40

In addition to water availability, neutral processes can affect tree composition and 41 diversity in Amazonia (e. g., Condit et al., 2002; Coronado et al., 2009; Stropp et al., 2009; 42 43 Emilio *et al.*, 2010), but there is considerable evidence that deterministic factors, such as biotic interactions (e.g. Fine et al., 2004) and edaphic conditions (Phillips et al., 2003; ter 44 Steege et al., 2006; Cámara-Leret et al., 2017; Figueiredo et al., 2018) play important roles. 45 Other important determinants of floristic composition changes in the Amazon are soil fertility 46 and edaphic development and structure, which range from nutrient-rich and less developed 47 soils in the west to nutrient-poor, more structured and developed soils in the east of the basin 48 (ter Steege et al., 2006; Quesada et al., 2009). Nevertheless, edaphic conditions such nutrient 49 50 availability and soil texture are associated to local topographic conditions (Chauvel, Lucas and Boulet, 1987; Vormisto et al., 2000; Ferry et al., 2010). These associations depend on 51 the geomorphology and evolutionary history of landscape, differing between Amazonian 52 53 regions (Sombroek, 2000). Geomorphological formations, due to their differences in edaphic 54 and relief characteristics, also affect floristic composition (Rossetti et al., 2010, 2019; Higgins et al., 2011, 2015; Figueiredo et al., 2014) and dynamics of Amazonian forests 55 (Johnson et al., 2016; Esquivel-Muelbert et al., 2020). These conditions then need to be taken 56 into account to understand the local hydrology and topographic (hydro-topography) effects 57 58 on forests.

59 The hydro-topographic conditions in non-flooded forests are mainly determined by 60 elevation (relief), terrain aspect and slope (Moeslund et al., 2013). These characteristics control the land's drainage capacity, the local redistribution of precipitation runoff, and the 61 vertical distance to groundwater (Rennó et al., 2008; Nobre et al., 2011; Moeslund et al., 62 2013). Along a topographic profile, lower areas are moist, often water-saturated and have 63 soils with low drainage capacity due to the proximity to the water table (Rennó et al., 2008; 64 65 Nobre et al., 2011; Moeslund et al., 2013). These conditions restrict the establishment and rooting of trees (Fan et al., 2017). On the other hand, the upper areas, such as hilltops, are 66 typically drier and have well-drained soils due to the distance to the water table (Rennó et 67 68 al., 2008; Nobre et al., 2011; Moeslund et al., 2013; Fan et al., 2017). Trees with shallow roots are at a disadvantage in these environmental conditions, especially during drought 69 70 periods (Giardina et al., 2018) when the soil water depletion may cause tree mortality 71 (Nepstad et al., 2007). Furthermore, along hydro-topographic gradient, soil conditions such soil texture can regulate the infiltration an the capillary raise of water from groundwater 72 73 towards upper soil profiles, and this can affect moisture retention and water availability for plants (Hacke et al., 2000; Fan et al., 2017). Therefore, an effect of the interaction between 74 75 local hydro-topographic conditions with the precipitation and edaphic gradients on Amazon 76 forests is expected. These effects can allow a better understanding of the maintenance and 77 organization of tree diversity and composition at Amazon basin scale.

A functional ecology approach allows to understand the species filtering and 78 79 communities structuring along environmental gradients through the morpho-physio-80 phenological traits use which affect the individual's growth, reproduction and survival (Violle *et al.*, 2007). For example, wood density is associated with plant hydraulics (Hacke 81 et al., 2001) and can allow to understand the functional traits filtering along the water 82 83 availability gradient. Local studies of non-flooded Amazonian forests indicate that hydro-84 topographic conditions in addition to influencing tree diversity and composition (Valencia et al., 2004; Schietti et al., 2013; Féret and Asner, 2014; Moulatlet et al., 2014; Zuleta et al., 85 86 2020), influence the functional composition, such as wood density (Ferry *et al.*, 2010; Cosme et al., 2017), leaf functional traits (Kraft, Valencia and Ackerly, 2008; Cosme et al., 2017; 87 88 Schmitt et al., 2020), hydraulic resistance (Oliveira et al., 2019; Fontes et al., 2020), seed mass (Kraft, Valencia and Ackerly, 2008) and canopy chemical traits (Asner et al., 2015). 89

90 However, no study has so far determined if these patterns hold true over the whole Amazon 91 basin and how they depend on other environmental factors. Studies in other tropical forests indicate that the effect of hydro-topographic conditions on the structure and functional 92 93 composition of trees depends on the climate (Blanchard *et al.*, 2019; Muscarella *et al.*, 2019). In the Amazon basin, where the climate varies from non-seasonal to seven dry months per 94 year and edaphic, geological and relief conditions vary between Amazon regions, different 95 combinations of hydro-topography with climate and conditions of the regions are expected, 96 97 which can affect patterns of diversity, species composition and their functional characteristics of forests. 98

99 Considering the limited understanding of the influence and importance of 100 topographically-driven local hydrological conditions on tropical forests, the aim of this study is to understand the effects of hydro-topographic conditions on patterns of tree diversity, 101 102 species composition and wood density at the scale of the whole Amazon basin. We address the following specific questions: (a) How do hydro-topographic conditions influence tree 103 104 diversity? (b) How do hydro-topographic conditions affect tree species composition change along environmental gradients? (c) How do hydro-topographic conditions influence wood 105 106 density? We raise the following hypotheses:

107 (a) The effects of hydro-topographic conditions will result in greater diversity in the upland parts of the humid forests with well-draining (not waterlogged) soils; while in 108 109 drier forests, diversity will be greater in lowland areas with greater water availability. (b) Hydro-topographic conditions will promote opposing patterns of species composition 110 change between wet and dry forests, where the tree composition change will 111 112 divergence towards upland parts because the water availability effect provided by climate will be greater in these areas. Furthermore, greater changes in species 113 composition along hydro-topographic gradient is expected in terrains with an ancient 114 115 edaphic structure and well-dissected relief, such as in the Guiana Shield and Southern 116 Amazon, compared to other regions of Amazonia with young edaphic structure and flatter topographies. 117

(c) Forests on soil with greater drainage capacity and less water availability will have ahigher wood density.

121 Methods

#### 122 Vegetation data

123 We used the ATDN data set (Amazon Tree Diversity Network), with plots distributed throughout the Amazon basin (Fig. 1). Our analyses were restricted to 1-ha lowland terra-124 125 firme forest plots below 500 a.s.l. (excluding plots on white sand and inundated forests) and 126 to individuals with a diameter  $\geq 10$  cm, excluding all lianas. In addition, we considered only 127 plots with at least 80% of individuals identified to species level. As species identification was done by different taxonomists, we excluded individuals that were not identified to the 128 129 species level to avoid confusion with morphospecies synonymy. By including only those 130 individuals identified at the species level, more robust patterns of diversity and composition 131 are expected (Pos et al., 2014). We also excluded plots with georeferencing problems, such as plots whose coordinates were displaced from terra-firme towards rivers or lakes. Finally, 132 133 we excluded 6 plots with less than 30 species, as they have a high abundance of a few species that may decrease the confidence in diversity and composition patterns and 18 plots from 134 135 areas without hydro-topographic data (Supporting information, Table S1). Thus, we carried 136 out the analyses using 443 plots, which total 210,801 individuals of 3,527 species, distributed 137 in 619 genera and 104 families.



Figure 1. Location of 443 1-ha plots used in this study. The map shows the distribution of plots (coloured dots) across the Amazon basin. The limits of the Amazon basin (black outline) were defined according to Mayorga et al., (2012). Background information shows the annual precipitation layer obtained from CHELSA v1.2 (1979-2013, 30 arcsec of resolution) (http://chelsa-climate.org/). The different colours of the dots indicate which of the four geological regions they belong to: Central – East (blue, CA-EA = 122 plots), Guiana Shield (green, GS = 52 plots), South (red, SA = 102 plots) and West (yellow, WA = 167 plots).

#### 147 Environmental variables

148 To represent the hydro-topographic condition of each plot, we used the height above 149 the nearest drainage (HAND). HAND is calculated by normalizing the topography as a

function of the relative height over the nearest drainage, using information from digital 150 151 elevation models (DEM). This variable is directly related to the gravitational potential of soil 152 water and, therefore, its values are correlated with the water table depth, providing a representation of the local water conditions (Rennó et al., 2008; Nobre et al., 2011). High 153 HAND values mean high drainage potential and low HAND values indicates proximity to 154 the water table, where drained water accumulates and may create waterlogged conditions 155 (Nobre et al., 2011). We extracted HAND data from layers elaborated by Banon & Novo 156 (2018) (available at: http://www.dsr.inpe.br/amazondrainage/home.php?content=hand) with 157 ~30m x 30m spatial resolution. We reprojected the layers to ~100m x 100m resolution to 158 correspond to the 1-ha plots using bilinear extraction. The HAND layer that we used in the 159 160 analyses was based on Strahler's sixth order drainages, as it provides more stable information about the drainage capacity and the water condition of the environment across varying 161 geomorphologies. Finally, HAND data was log-transformed (base 2) to meet normality 162 assumptions. 163

164 The climatic information for each plot was represented by the historical average of 165 its maximum accumulated water deficit (MCWD). MCWD is the measure of the annual water 166 deficit that considers both the duration and the intensity of the dry season (Aragão et al., 2007). MCWD represents the most negative value of water deficit (WD), given by the 167 difference between precipitation (P) and evapotranspiration (E) within each year, where for 168 each month (n), WD is quantified as: if  $WD_{n-1} - E_n + P_n < 0$ ; then  $WD_n = WD_{n-1} - P_n = WD_{n-1} - P_n$ 169  $E_n + P_n$ ; else  $WD_n = 0$ . For this calculation, we considered the hydrological year, so the 170 171 starting point is not necessarily the first month of the calendar year, but the wettest month (n-1) of the first year of the time series, according to calculations made by Esquivel-Muelbert 172 173 et al., (2019). The precipitation data was obtained from the TerraClimate platform (Abatzoglou *et al.*, 2018) with ~4 x 4 km spatial resolution from 1959 to 2018. We assumed 174 175 the evapotranspiration to be fixed at 100 mm per month, being an approximation (mean) from soil evapotranspiration obtained in different locations in Amazonia (Aragão et al., 2007). 176

We defined the soil fertility as the sum of the concentration of exchangeable cations (SCC, Na<sup>+</sup>, Mg<sup>+2</sup>, Ca<sup>+2</sup> and K<sup>+1</sup>), which is an indicator of soil fertility correlated with phosphorus availability (Figueiredo et al., 2017; Moulatlet et al., 2017; Quesada et al., 2009). 180 We obtained SCC values from the layer produced by Zuquim et al., (2019), with ~11 x 11 181 km spatial resolution, which was reprojected to ~5 x 5 km resolution using the bilinear 182 method.

The soil texture, which determines the water retention capacity of the soil (Hacke *et al.*, 2000), was represented by the percentages of sand and clay. We extracted soil texture data for a depth of 15 cm for each plot from the SoilGrids platform (Hengl *et al.*, 2017) with ~250 x 250 m spatial resolution.

Based on the characteristics and geological age of the soil substrate, the Amazon basin 187 was classified into four regions: Central and Eastern Amazonia, Guiana Shield, Southern 188 Amazonia and Western Amazonia (Feldpausch et al., 2011; Johnson et al., 2016). Central 189 and Eastern Amazonia are characterized by having soils derived from reworked rocks and 190 sediments belonging to the late Cretaceous that experienced more or less continuous 191 weathering for more than 20 million years, and are thus nutrient-poor (Irion, 1978; Quesada 192 193 et al., 2010). These regions present an alternation of flat and undulating land, especially in the east (Sombroek, 2000). The Guiana Shield and Southern Amazonia have soils formed on 194 ancient Cretaceous crystalline substrates (Irion, 1978; Quesada et al., 2010), characterized 195 by hilly dissected lands and rounded hills (Sombroek, 2000). Western Amazonia is formed 196 on more recent pre-Andean sediments from the Cretaceous-Tertiary and Pliocene periods, 197 characterized by undulating to rolling land (Sombroek, 2000). Furthermore, there are large 198 199 areas dominated by shallow soils that can contribute to the fertility of the underlying soils through the weathering of the source material (Irion, 1978; Quesada et al., 2010). 200

#### 201 Vegetation metrics

#### 202 Species diversity

We quantified diversity for each plot using Fisher's Alpha, which is based on the number of individuals and species in each plot and is relatively insensitive to the difference

in the number of individuals among plots (Fisher, Corbet and Williams, 1943). We calculated
Fisher's Alpha at the species, genus and family levels.

#### 207 Species composition

To summarize the species composition, we used Non-Metric Multidimensional 208 Scaling (NMDS) ordinations. We excluded species with less than two occurrences, to reduce 209 the potential noise generated by the inclusion of rare species in the analysis (Cao and Larsen, 210 2001; McCune and Grace, 2002). The final number of species and individuals included was 211 212 2,417 and 206,459, respectively. We used three dimensions for the ordination to maintain stress < 2 (McCune and Grace, 2002), and was based on the quantitative data using the Bray-213 214 Curtis distances, calculated on the data matrix standardized by plot. Standardization involves 215 dividing the abundance of each species by the total abundance in each plot, in order to obtain 216 the relative abundance of species in each plot (McCune and Grace, 2002). The ordination 217 based on quantitative data allows capturing the patterns generated mainly by the most 218 abundant species, which tend to have larger contributions to the difference or similarity 219 between plots (Costa, Magnusson and Luizao, 2005; Costa et al., 2009). The variation of the 220 original data captured by the NMDS axes was obtained by regression of the matrix of original floristic distances among samples calculated with the same dissimilarity index used in the 221 222 ordination method, and the matrix of distances among samples obtained from the final 223 NMDS solution (McCune and Grace, 2002).

We quantified the differences in floristic composition among regions using 224 PERMANOVA (Anderson, 2001), using 999 permutations on the original distance matrix 225 226 given by the Bray-Curtis dissimilarity distance. This method tests whether plots from the 227 same region are floristically more similar to each other than it would be expected by chance. We applied the PERMANOVA method using the *adonis* function from the *vegan* R package 228 229 (Oksanen et al., 2020). In addition, we quantified the floristic variability within each region using the multivariate dispersion method (Anderson, 2006). This method tests how 230 231 floristically similar plots are to one another within each region. The multivariate dispersion method was applied using the *betadisper* function from the R package vegan (Oksanen et al., 232 233 2020) on the original distance matrix using the Bray-Curtis dissimilarity distances.

#### 234 Wood Density

235 We obtained wood density data from the global wood density database (Chave *et al.*, 236 2009, Zanne et al., 2009) for the species considered in the species composition analyses. 237 When the wood density of a species was not available, we used the mean wood density at the 238 genus, family or plot level (Baker et al., 2004; Rozendaal et al., 2020). We used genus level wood density data for 1,381 species out of the 2,417 species, and family and plot level data 239 240 for 170 and 10 species, respectively. Then, we calculated the community weighted mean 241 (CWM) of each plot, which is the estimated mean wood density of the individuals in the plot 242 (Garnier et al., 2004).

243

#### 244 Data analyses

#### 245 Species diversity

246 To determine the influence of hydro-topographic conditions (HAND) on the tree 247 species diversity, we used generalized least squares regressions (GLS). We applied a 248 logarithmic transformation to species diversity values to ensure normal distribution of residuals. This transformation was not necessary for genus and family diversity. We built 249 250 models where diversity was modelled as a function of climate variation (MCWD), soil fertility, soil texture (clay, sand) and HAND. To avoid multicollinearity between texture 251 252 variables, we included sand and clay percentages in different models. We included a term to 253 account for the spatial autocorrelation, specifying an exponential autocorrelation structure. 254 Furthermore, after inspection of residuals, we included an exponential variance structure for 255 MCWD to reduce the effect of heteroscedasticity on models. The selection of both the spatial correlation and the variance structure was based on the lowest values of the Akaike 256 257 Information Criterion (AIC) (Zuur *et al.*, 2009) (Supporting information, Table S2). We built one general model for each response variable (based on species, genus, or family). This 258 model, included the additive effect of MCWD (water availability given by precipitation, 259 which has been considered the main determinant of diversity patterns in Amazonian forests 260 [ter Steege et al., 2003; Stropp et al., 2009; Esquivel-Muelbert et al., 2017]), soil texture, 261 HAND and soil fertility. This model included the interaction effect between HAND and 262 263 MCWD.

#### 264 Species and functional composition

To investigate the influence of HAND, controlling the other relevant environment 265 266 variables on the floristic composition and wood density, we used each NMDS ordination axis and the community weighted mean of wood density (WD-cwm) as response variables. Since 267 there was no correlation among NMDS axes (Supporting information, Table S3), the axes 268 containing most of the variation were used as separate response variables. We modelled 269 species composition and WD-cwm as a function of HAND, soil texture, MCWD, soil fertility 270 and geological regions, using GLS models. We included an exponential spatial 271 272 autocorrelation structure (Supporting information, Table S2). For each ordination axis and 273 the WD-cwm, we constructed one general model including the additive effect of soil fertility, 274 MCWD, geological regions (variables that are already known to determine changes in floristic composition [ter Steege et al., 2006; Figueiredo et al., 2018; Tuomisto et al., 2019], 275 276 and in wood density [Chave et al., 2006; ter Steege et al., 2006; Quesada et al., 2012] at the Amazon basin scale), soil texture, HAND and the interaction effect of HAND with MCWD 277 and geological regions. 278

To visualize the individual or interaction effects of the explanatory variables on the response variables (diversity, floristic composition and WD-cwm), we used partial plots of the significant effects (P > 0.05) identified by the GLS models. To compare the effect size of the explanatory variables on the response variables, all variables were standardized to have mean of zero and standard deviation of one. We also examined the bivariate relationships between diversity, ordination axes and WD-cwm, using Spearman's correlation tests.

The analyses were carried out in R (R version 4.0.2), using the *nlme* (Pinheiro *et al.*, 2021) packages.

#### 287 **Results**

#### 288 Tree diversity

The species and genus diversity were significantly associated with the interaction 289 between HAND and MCWD (P = 0.012 and P = 0.004, respectively) and by the individual 290 291 effect of MCWD (P = <.0001, species; P = <.0001, genus). Family diversity was influenced by the individual effect of MCWD (P = <.0001) and soil fertility (P = 0.002) (Table 1). The 292 293 interaction between MCWD and HAND indicated that in wetter forests (MCWD between -294 136.7 mm and -1.60 mm, corresponding approximately to 1-2 dry months in the year, 222 plots) the diversity of species and genera were higher in well-drained areas with deep water 295 296 tables, such as the plateaus and hilltops (Fig. 2A, B, blue). However, in drier forests (MCWD between -429.6 mm and -138.0 mm, >2 dry months, 221 plots), there was a subtle tendency 297 298 towards greater diversity in the zones with higher water availability and water table close to the surface, corresponding to bottomlands and riparian forests (Fig.2A, B, red). Although the 299 interaction effect between MCWD and HAND was not significant at the family level (P =300 0.173), the diversity patterns in relation to this interaction were similar to those observed for 301 species and genus levels (Fig. 2C). 302

The diversity at all taxonomic levels evaluated was affected by MCWD, which always had the largest relative contribution in the models (Fig. 4 A - C). Diversity increased towards wetter forests, this relationship being more pronounced at the species and genus levels (Supporting information, Fig. S1). Soil fertility had a positive effect on species (P =0.335) and genus diversity (P = 0.093), but was more evident on family diversity (Fig. 4A – C, Table 1, Supporting information, Fig. S1). Soil texture did not contribute significantly at any taxonomic level (Table 1).

#### 310 Floristic composition

The three-dimensional NMDS solution produced high congruence between species 311 312 composition distances observed in the original space and those obtained in the reduced space (non-metric fit  $r^2 = 0.96$ , linear fit  $r^2 = 0.73$ ). The stress value was 0.19, and the variance 313 captured by the three dimensions altogether was 56%. Floristic composition differed 314 significantly among geological regions (PERMANOVA: P = 0.01,  $R^2 = 0.10$ ). Furthermore, 315 the multivariate dispersion method showed a greater variability in the floristic composition 316 317 within Southern Amazonia, the Guiana Shield and Western Amazonia, which had a greater mean distances to the medians of the sets of plots (0.64, 0.62, 0.61, respectively). This 318 variability was lower in Central and Eastern Amazonia (0.57) (Supporting information, Fig. 319 320 S2).

321 The first NMDS axis was influenced by HAND (Table 1), interacting with geological regions (P = 0.001). This interaction indicated that species composition converged among 322 regions in the upper topographic zones, with greater drainage capacity (higher HAND 323 324 values), and diverged in areas with less drainage capacity and greater water availability 325 (lower HAND values) (Fig. 2D). The effect of this interaction was more evident in Western, and in Central and Eastern Amazonian forests. This means that species composition tends to 326 327 be more similar in well-drained areas of Central, Eastern and Western Amazonia, but tends 328 to differ between low and poorly-drained areas of these regions. However, the mean effect of HAND (i.e. apart from interactions) was not significant (P = 0.53). The first NMDS axis 329 was mainly associated with soil fertility (P = <.0001, Fig. 4D) indicating that the floristic 330 composition changes from forests with poor soils mostly in the Eastern-Central Amazonia 331 332 and Guiana Shield to forests with fertile soils mostly in the West Amazonia (Supporting information, Fig. S3). Furthermore, the individual effect of geological regions and clay 333 334 content had a significant effect on the first NMDS axis (P = 0.05 and P = 0.027, respectively) 335 (Fig. 4D, Table 1, Supporting information, Fig. S3). On the other hand, the change in species composition in the second NMDS axis was mainly associated with MCWD (Fig. 4E, Table 336

1), which ranges from forests with higher water deficit in South Amazonia to humid forests with lesser water deficit in Northwestern Amazonia (Supporting information, Fig. S4). Furthermore, although the effect of the interaction between HAND and MCWD was not significant on this axis (P = 0.67), there was a weak HAND effect causing a divergence on species composition between wetter and drier forests towards areas with well-drained soils (Fig. 2E). The effect of sand content was not significant for neither of the two ordination axes (P = 0.43 and P = 0.3, respectively).

#### 344 Wood Density

Wood density was influenced by interactions between HAND and geological regions 345 (P = 0.03, Table 1). This interaction effect was more evident in Southern and Western 346 Amazonian forests, indicating a higher wood density towards uplands and well-drained areas 347 348 (Fig. 2F). Furthermore, the individual effect of HAND indicated an increase in wood density 349 towards forests with greater soil drainage capacity (Fig. 4F, Supporting information, Fig. S5), but this effect was not statistically significant (P = 0.14). Wood density was mainly 350 influenced by the simple effects of soil fertility and geological regions (Fig. 4F), decreasing 351 352 with soil fertility (Supporting information, Fig. S5). In addition, wood density was higher in 353 Central, Eastern Amazonia and Guiana Shield forests, and lower in Southern and Western Amazonian forests, respectively (Supporting information, Fig S5). The effects of MCWD (P 354 = 0.81), soil texture (% sand, P = 0.63; % clay, P = 0.2) and the interactions of HAND with 355 MCWD (P = 0.71), were not significant. 356



358

Figure 2. Partial effect of the interaction between HAND and MCWD on the species (A), genus (B), 359 360 and family diversity(C). Panels A-C show the HAND effect on wetter forests (blue) and drier forests (red). MCWD = -256.2 (red), is the median MCWD value of the plots with the higher water deficit 361 362 (between -429.6 and -138.0, 221 plots); MCWD = -20.8 (blue), is the median MCWD value of the 363 plots with less water deficit (between -136.7 and -1.60, 222 plots). (D) shows the partial effect of the interaction between HAND and geological regions on the first NMDS ordination axis. E, shows the 364 365 partial effect of the interaction between HAND and MCWD on the second NMDS ordination axis. F, shows the partial effect of the interaction between HAND and geological regions on wood density. 366 In panel D and F, the different colours represent the four geological regions: Central and Eastern 367 368 Amazonia (blue, CA-EA = 122 plots), Guiana Shield (green, GS = 52 plots), Southern Amazonia (red, AS = 102 plots) and West Amazonia (yellow, WA = 167 plots). "\*" indicates a significant 369 effect, and "NS" indicates a non-significant effect. 370

#### 372 Correlations between diversity, floristic composition and wood density

373 The first NMDS ordination axis was strongly associated with wood density (rho = 374 0.80, P > 0.001). This relationship indicates that along this axis, the species composition varies from forests with lower wood density in more fertile soils (more negative scores) to 375 376 forests with higher wood density in poor soils (more positive scores) (Fig. 3A). The wood density also had a positive relationship with tree diversity (rho = 0.26, P > 0.001), where 377 forests with higher wood density tend to have greater tree diversity (Fig. 3B). Furthermore, 378 the tree diversity was related with the second NMDS ordination axis (rho = -0.68, P > 0.001) 379 (Supporting information, Table S3). 380







Figure 3. (A) Relationship between the first NMDS ordination axis and mean wood density,
including the soil fertility gradient (log(SCC)), which varies from plots with low fertility soils (green)
to plots with more fertile soils (brown). (B) Relationship between tree diversity and wood density.

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- 388



393 Figure 4. Standardized effect of variables for the GLS models for diversity, floristic composition and 394 wood density in the Amazon basin. Species (A), genus (B) and family (C) diversity were mainly 395 influenced by MCWD. The higher floristic diversity is found in the wetter forests, with less water deficit. The interaction effect between HAND and MCWD were weak, but significance on species 396 397 and genus diversity (Table 1). In addition, soil fertility had a positive and more evident effect on 398 family diversity. The first NMDS ordination axis (**D**) was mainly influenced by soil fertility and 399 geological regions. The effects of the interaction between HAND and geological regions and the clay 400 content were weak, but significance on the first ordination axis (Table 1). The floristic composition 401 in the second NMDS ordination axis (E) was mainly influenced by the climate. Wood density is 402 mainly influenced by soil fertility and geological regions (F). For each term in the model, the points 403 represent the standardized effect and the lines represent standard deviation 1. See in the supporting 404 information the bivariate relationships between the response variables and the explanatory variables (MCWD, region, fertility and soil texture). ":" = interaction. 405

- 407 Table 1. Standardized coefficients and their respective significance probabilities, as resulted from the
- 408 GLS models for Alpha diversity (species, genus and family), floristic composition (NMDS 1 and
- 409 NMDS 2) and wood density for 443 1-ha plots in the Amazon basin. In the construction of the models,
- 410 the spatial autocorrelation was considered using an exponential correlation structure (Supporting
- 411 information Table S2). ":" = interaction.

	MCWD	HAND	Soil Fertility	% Clay	HAND:MCWD	Region	HAND:Region	$\mathbb{R}^2$
Species	0.495***	0.035	0.097	0.012	0.086*	_	_	0.64
Genus	0.507***	0.06	0.133	0.078	0.107**	_	_	0.63
Family	0.457***	-0.006	0.247**	0.037	0.063	_	_	0.57
NMDS-1	-0.035	0.026	-0.565***	0.074*	0.013	-0.186*	0.074**	0.87
NMDS-2	-0.70***	-0.032	0.15	0.036	0.011	-0.068	-0.023	0.86
Wood Density	-0.055	0.06	-0.4***	0.034	0.14	-0.369**	4.58*	0.76

412 \*P < 0.05; \*\*P < 0.01; \*\*\*P < 0.001

## 413

#### 414 Discussion

415 In this study, we investigated whether local hydro-topographic conditions influence tree diversity, floristic composition and wood density across the Amazon basin. Our results 416 417 indicated that: 1) Amazonian tree diversity was affected by hydro-topographic conditions as 418 a function of the climatic context, increasing towards well-drained topographic conditions in 419 humid forests, 2) wood density was affected by hydro-topographic conditions depending on geological regions and increased towards well-drained topographic conditions, 3) the floristic 420 composition converged among Amazonian geological regions, to more similar species 421 assemblages on well-drained topographic conditions, but diverged on poorly-drained 422 conditions. We conclude, therefore, that local hydro-topographic conditions interact with 423 424 large-scale gradients in the Amazon, and this changes the perception of the important role that fine-scale environmental heterogeneity plays on biodiversity organization on the 425 426 landscape.

427 Our results show the interaction between hydro-topographic conditions (HAND) and 428 climatic water deficit (MCWD) on species and genus diversity, which modifies the diversity 429 patterns previously described based only on climate. We showed that within wetter climatic 430 conditions, tree diversity can be either higher or lower depending on the hydro-topographic 431 conditions, and thus that fine-scale diversity patterns are also determined by soil water 432 availability, which has important implications to biodiversity conservation under climate 433 change. In humid forests, the excess water generated by high precipitation and water 434 convergence to the bottomlands, which have a lower drainage capacity given the shallow 435 water table, generate poorly structured and water-saturated soils (Ferry et al., 2010; Fan et al., 2017; Roebroek et al., 2020). These conditions can cause stress due to excess water, 436 which leads to a reduction in oxygen (hypoxia or anoxia) (Araya, Gowing and Dise, 2013; 437 438 Silvertown, Araya and Gowing, 2015; Roebroek et al., 2020) and nitrogen in the soil (Ferry et al., 2010; Araya, Gowing and Dise, 2013). These effects can decrease survival and inhibit 439 440 the growth and development, especially of species that do not have specific adaptations in 441 the root system, such as adventitious root structure or aerenchyma tissue (Parolin, 2001; 442 Parolin et al., 2004). Superficial and waterlogged soils also limit root depth (Fan et al., 2017) 443 and can limit the establishment and survival of trees without efficient attachment structures 444 such as buttress or tabular roots that compensate for the absence of deep roots. Species that 445 attain larger sizes would be especially unstable under these conditions (Wittmann and 446 Parolin, 2005). Thus, the physical and physiological limitations for the establishment and performance of many species in waterlogged sites may filter out a small set of species, 447 448 reducing tree diversity. On the other hand, waterlogged areas with superficial water table represent only ~36% of whole Amazonian basin (Fan and Miguez-Macho, 2010), so the 449 450 lower diversity in these areas could also be a result of the reduced extent of these environments over a larger timescale (ter Steege et al., 2000). 451

The effects of hydro-topographic conditions on tree diversity agree with an earlier 452 453 study at small scale in Southwestern Amazonia, although the reported effect of the hydrotopographic conditions was not very pronounced (Féret and Asner, 2014). In Central 454 Amazonia, Laurance et al., (2010) found lower tree diversity in forests with sandy soils, 455 456 which correspond to environments with a shallow water table in this region (Chauvel, Lucas 457 and Boulet, 1987). Valencia et al., (2004) reported a larger number of species in the lower lying areas, although the difference in diversity to the upper and well-drained areas was not 458 459 significant. On the other hand, flooded forests show a pattern similar to that reported here, along the flooding gradient, with alpha diversity increasing towards lower levels of flooding 460 461 (Wittmann et al., 2006; Wittmann, Schöngart and Junk, 2010; Assis et al., 2015). Due to the connection with terra-firme forests, environments with low levels of flooding in floodplains 462

and igapós can be colonized by terra-firme species adapted to some waterlogging, increasing
their alpha diversity (Wittmann et al., 2006, 2010). We conclude that the patterns of lower
tree diversity associated with water excess, either due to flooding or shallow water table
under wet climates, can now be generalized to the whole Amazon basin.

467 In forests with higher water deficit, lower topographic areas harbour a more equal complement of biological diversity to higher topographic areas than they do in wet forests. 468 469 The higher soil water availability in topographic bottomlands (Oliveira-Filho *et al.*, 1998; 470 Segura et al., 2003; Balvanera et al., 2011; Fan et al., 2017), allows better establishment and 471 greater plant diversity in forests in more seasonal climates, than on hilltops with deep water 472 tables (Segura et al., 2003). However, the higher dynamics in the higher and well-drained 473 areas in drier climates (Segura et al., 2003; Brando et al., 2014; Marimon et al., 2014; 474 Johnson et al., 2016) may also favour an increase in diversity (Connell, 1978; Bongers et al., 475 2009). Although our data does not allow us to determine whether these are in fact the mechanisms in action, the hypothesis that disturbances could be regulating the effect of 476 477 hydro-topographic conditions on diversity in Amazonian forests with greater climatic water deficit could be tested in future studies. 478

Our results also showed a weak trend for an interaction effect between hydrotopographic conditions and climate on species composition change, generating opposite patterns between drier and wetter forests towards upland areas with well-drained soils (Fig. 2E). Therefore, our results suggest that local hydro-topographic conditions can generate different responses of forests according to the climate context in the face of global warming and climate change in the largest tropical forests on the Earth.

485 Wood density tends to increase towards higher topographic positions, with better 486 drained soils and deep water table, indicating that the effect of local hydro-topographic 487 conditions is widespread over large extensions of the Amazon basin, especially in the 488 Southern and Western Amazonian forests. The effect of hydro-topographic conditions on 489 wood density at the Amazon basin scale is supported by earlier local scale studies done on different parts of Amazonia (Kraft, Valencia and Ackerly, 2008; Ferry et al., 2010; Araujo-490 491 Murakami et al., 2014; Cosme et al., 2017) and on other biomes (Cornwell and Ackerly, 492 2009; Liu, Yunhong and Slik, 2014; Jucker et al., 2018; Blanchard et al., 2019). At the same

time, in contrast to the studies of Chave et al., (2006) and Ibanez et al., (2017), we found that 493 494 climate did not have a significant effect on wood density when other environmental factors are taken into account, which agrees with other studies of tropical and Amazonian forests 495 (ter Steege and Hammond, 2001; Muller-Landau, 2004; Umaña et al., 2021). Blanchard et 496 al., (2019) showed a larger effect of hydro-topographic conditions on wood density in drier 497 than in wetter forests, but in the present study this dependence on the climatic context was 498 not observed. High wood density tends to be associated with hydraulic safety and resistance 499 500 to drought-induced embolism (Hacke et al., 2001), but Southern Amazonian forests have relatively low wood density (Supporting information, Table S4) and suffer larger water 501 502 deficits (Supporting information, Fig. S6), so it is likely that tree species of these drier forests, 503 rather than investing in a higher wood density, have developed alternative strategies to deal with low water availability. These strategies may be related to root systems that can reach 504 505 and absorb water from deeper soil layers (Fan et al., 2017), smaller leaves (Wright et al., 2017), leaf deciduousness (Araujo-Murakami et al., 2014; Blanchard et al., 2019) or higher 506 507 concentration of soluble sugars in the leaves (Signori-Müller et al., 2021) that may favour osmoregulation. 508

The filtering of higher wood density in well-drained soils with a deep water table, and 509 the opposite in wet conditions, is part of a broader selection of functional strategies along 510 hydro-topographic gradients. Several local studies indicate the selection of functional 511 512 characteristics by hydro-topographic conditions (Kraft, Valencia and Ackerly, 2008; Ferry et 513 al., 2010; Cosme et al., 2017; Oliveira et al., 2019; Fontes et al., 2020; Schmitt et al., 2020). 514 In better drained areas, with lower water availability and deep water table, species converge towards more conservative traits related to resource use and conservation, with a reduced 515 specific leaf area (SLA) and higher dry matter content (Kraft, Valencia and Ackerly, 2008; 516 517 Liu, Yunhong and Slik, 2014; Cosme et al., 2017; Schmitt et al., 2020) and higher seed mass 518 (Kraft et al., 2008; Liu et al., 2014), in addition to higher wood density. Furthermore, species from these zones have hydraulic systems with greater resistance to water stress and thus to 519 520 drought events (Oliveira et al., 2019; Fontes et al., 2020). Root depth also increases with water table depth (Fan et al., 2017). These trait strategies make communities less dynamics 521 522 in the well-drained and deep water table environments (Ferry et al., 2010; Toledo et al., 2012), which may lead to a lower variability in floristic composition than in low lying 523

environments, with lower drainage capacity and greater soil water availability (Schietti *et al.*,
2013; Féret and Asner, 2014; Zuleta *et al.*, 2020).

526 Given the filtering of functional traits along the hydro-topography gradient, we 527 expected to see a concomitant shift in species composition, as traits selection can be attributed to species filtering. Species composition was associated with wood density. Thus, species 528 compositional changes due to hydro-topographic conditions in the Western Amazon region 529 clearly reflects a filtering of species with lower wood density in lower lying areas with greater 530 531 water availability, and higher wood density in well-drained areas, where species composition 532 converges to sets more similar to those found in the Central and Eastern regions, which on average have high wood density (Supporting information, Table S4). The pattern of 533 534 compositional changes in Western Amazon is corroborated by the effect of hydro-topography on wood density in this region. We suggest that he absence of hydro-topography effect on 535 536 wood density in Central and Eastern Amazon indicates that change in species composition along hydro-topography gradients in these regions may be associated with other 537 538 characteristics different to wood density. Furthermore, species composition changes along the hydro-topographic gradient in the Central - Eastern and Western Amazonian forests, 539 540 indicates that species composition tends to converge towards more similar species sets in the upper and well-drained areas of these regions, but diverge among their low and poorly 541 drained areas between these regions. This can indicate that regional diversity in the Amazon 542 forests may be maintained by high species variability in low topographical areas and low 543 544 variability in high topographical areas. Therefore, we can conclude that the influence of 545 hydro-topographic conditions on species composition extends over the Amazon, but in different ways in each geological region, suggesting that an effect of geological and 546 geomorphological conditions over hydro-topographic patterns, which then affect regional 547 548 species diversity and composition.

549 On the other hand, the absence of an effect of the hydro-topographic conditions on 550 floristic composition in the Southern Amazonia and in the Guiana Shield forests may be due 551 to the fact that these regions present a greater variability in tree composition compared to 552 other regions. This variability may be a result of short-distance variation in edaphic 553 conditions (Sombroek, 2000; Quesada *et al.*, 2011) and, although soils in these regions are 554 formed from older substrates, they often have a low pedogenic development compared to the 555 other regions (Quesada et al., 2010). In Southern Amazonia, soil physical characteristics are similar along the hydro-topographic gradient, but some soils in the upper areas are shallow 556 compared to soils in the lower areas (Araujo-Murakami et al., 2014), which may limit root 557 development (Fan et al., 2017). Furthermore, although there is a marked difference in soil 558 water availability between the lower and upper areas (Araujo-Murakami et al., 2014), the 559 high rate of dynamism experienced by forests in this region (Johnson et al., 2016; Esquivel-560 Muelbert et al., 2020) can lead to greater species composition variability, limiting the effect 561 of local hydro-topographic conditions. The effect of hydro-topography on wood density in 562 563 the Southern Amazonian forests may indicate that the change in functional composition along 564 hydro-topographic gradients is not necessarily accompanied by a change in species composition in this region. In the case of the Guiana Shield, there are studies outside the 565 566 limits of the Amazon basin that have demonstrated the effect of soil drainage conditions on local species distribution (ter Steege et al., 1993; Sabatier et al., 1997) and of hydro-567 568 topographic conditions on the dynamics of communities (Ferry et al., 2010) and their functional traits (Schmitt et al., 2020). However, in our case, the absence of a pattern in 569 570 species composition change as a function of the hydro-topography observed may also have been influenced by the low representation of this region (52 plots) compared to the others 571 (CA-EA = 122, SA = 102, WA = 167 plots). 572

Soil fertility had a strong influence in species composition and wood density, which 573 574 agrees with previous studies carried out in tropical and Amazonian forests (Muller-Landau, 2004; ter Steege et al., 2006; Quesada et al., 2012; Umaña et al., 2021). Furthermore, soil 575 576 fertility had a positive influence on tree diversity, but it was only significant at the family level. Local scale studies indicate that soil fertility can have both a positive (Tuomisto et al., 577 578 2002; Laurance et al., 2010; Tuomisto, Zuquim and Cárdenas, 2014) and negative effect on 579 plant diversity (Clinebell et al., 1995). However, the effect of soil fertility may not necessarily be associated with resource availability (Clinebell et al., 1995), but rather with 580 581 the dynamics and intensity of disturbance in Amazonian forests, where greater soil fertility leads to selection of plants with short life cycle (e.g., species with lower wood density), 582 583 generating a higher mortality and recruitment rates (Quesada et al., 2012). However, other local scale studies indicate that disturbances negatively affect tree diversity (Marra et al., 584

2014), or simply have no measurable effect (Carreño-Rocabado *et al.*, 2012). Our results are
in agreement with previous large-scale studies of tropical (Phillips et al., 1994) and Amazon
forests (Baker *et al.*, 2016), where disturbances are associated with a higher tree diversity,
although in our results that was more evident at the family level.

#### 589 Limitations of this study

590 Given the varied nature of the plots included in the ATDN, some issues regarding 591 plot design and geographic coordinates may have affected the results presented here. 592 Although all the plots used in this study are 1-ha, the plot design was not standardized. Some plots were installed following an elevation isoline, which reduces the topographic variation 593 594 within the plot (Magnusson et al., 2005) and thus improve the representation of hydrological 595 conditions. However, most plots are quadrangular or rectangular, and may incorporate 596 within-plot hydrological variation, which could make it difficult to adequately represent their 597 hydro-topographic condition. Furthermore, only one geographic coordinate per plot was 598 available, without additional information about the exact place where the coordinates were 599 taken. Our hydro-topographic data (HAND) was obtained from a 30 m<sup>2</sup> resolution layer, but given the described issues, we had to reproject the HAND layer to a resolution of 100 m<sup>2</sup> to 600 601 account for the variety of plot designs and possible inaccuracies in geographic location. Thus, the explanatory power of HAND may have been reduced. 602

#### 603 Conclusions

At the Amazon basin scale, we have shown that the effect of hydro-topographic 604 605 conditions on tree diversity depends on the climate context. Furthermore, the influence of hydro-topographic conditions on the functional and floristic composition is generalized and 606 is given according to the edaphic and geomorphological conditions of the Amazon regions. 607 These findings reinforce the importance of hydro-topographic factors as determinants of 608 plant communities at large scales. Considering that most Neotropical forests species are 609 restricted to wetter conditions (Esquivel-Muelbert et al., 2017), climatic events such as 610 611 extreme droughts that have been more frequent in recent decades (Marengo et al., 2018), can 612 be a serious threat to the diversity and functioning of the most diverse forests on the planet. 613 In future scenarios of increase of global temperature and reduction of water availability (IPCC 2021), topographic and hydrological conditions can play an important role in the 614

ecology and distribution of plants. Low topographic environments with a shallow water table
can reduce the impact of extreme climatic events (Esteban et al., 2020; Schwartz et al., 2020;
Sousa et al., 2020), being potential refuges for diversity (McLaughlin et al., 2017). Therefore,
it is important to consider the hydro-topographic conditions in modelling studies of species
distribution and forecasting the fate of forests under climate change, to allow the promotion
of socio-political strategies of conservation and sustainable use of forests.

621

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#### 986 Supporting Information

#### 987 Supplementary tables

Supplementary table 1. 1-ha Plots that were excluded for having less than 30 species. *Tabebuia aurea* (Bignoniaceae), which is a typical species of transitional forests, has a high abundance in BENI\_04 (318 individuals) and BENI\_06 (115). Furthermore, *Machaerium hirtum* (Fabaceae), which is a pioneer species, has 458 individuals in BENI\_11.

PlotCode	Country	Region	Ν	Species Richness
BENI_04	Bolivia	WA	438	11
BENI_06	Bolivia	WA	209	13
BENI_11	Bolivia	WA	592	15

Supplementary table 2. GLS models to select the structure of variance and spatial correlation for tree diversity, ordination axes and wood density. The variance structure with the highest performance for tree diversity was an Exponential structure. The structure of the spatial correlation with the highest performance for all response variables (tree diversity, ordination axes and wood density) was an Exponential. The selection of the structure of variance and spatial autocorrelation was given by the lowest values of AIC and  $\Delta$  AIC.

DIVERSITY			
Variance Models	Variance Structure	AIC	$\Delta$ AIC
Fisher sp ~ MCWD + HAND + Fertility	_	4363.91	119.60
Fisher sp ~ MCWD + HAND + Fertility	varPower (MCWD)	4302.37	58.06
Fisher sp ~ MCWD + HAND + Fertility	varExp(MCWD)	4244.00	0.00
Fisher sp ~ MCWD + HAND + Fertility	varContPower(MCWD)	4304.37	60.06
Fisher sp ~ MCWD + HAND + Fertility	varFixed (MCWD)	4907.21	662.90
Autocorrelation Models	AutoCorStruct	AIC	$\Delta$ AIC
Fisher sp ~ MCWD + HAND + Fertility	Exp	460.59	0.00
Fisher sp ~ MCWD + HAND + Fertility	Gaus	476.84	16.24
Fisher sp ~ MCWD + HAND + Fertility	Spher	472.55	11.96
Fisher sp ~ MCWD + HAND + Fertility	Ratio	468.59	7.50
SPECIES COMPOSITION			
Autocorrelation Models	AutoCorStruct	AIC	$\Delta$ AIC
NMDS ~ MCWD + Fertility + Region	Exp	400.68	0
NMDS ~ MCWD + Fertility + Region	Gaus	453.93	43.64
NMDS ~ MCWD + Fertility + Region	Ratio	429.68	25.03
NMDS ~ MCWD + Fertility + Region	Spher	779.24	304.34
WOOD DENSITY			
Autocorrelation Models	AutoCorStruct	AIC	$\Delta$ AIC
WD-cwm~MCWD + Fertility + Region	Exp	-1639.85	0
WD-cwm~MCWD + Fertility + Region	Gaus	-1560.39	79.46
WD-cwm~MCWD + Fertility + Region	Ratio	-1638.99	0.86
WD-cwm~MCWD + Fertility + Region	Spher	-1560.41	79.45

993

**Table S2.** Bivariate relationship between alpha species diversity, ordination axes (NMDS1, NMDS2, NMDS3) and wood density (WD-cwm). The magnitude of the simple bivariate relationship was given by Spearman's correlation coefficient (rho). p - value < 0.05 means a significant relationship.

	Fishe	r Alpha	Wood	l Density	NMD	S-1	NMD	S-2	NMD	<b>S-3</b>
		р -								
	rho	value	rho	p - value	rho	p - value	rho	p - value	rho	p - value
							-		-	
Fisher Alpha	1.00	_	0.26	0.00	0.20	0.00	0.68	0.00	0.30	0.00
									-	
Wood Density	0.26	0.00	1.00	_	0.80	0.00	0.04	0.38	0.13	0.00
									-	
NMDS-1	0.20	0.00	0.80	0.00	1.00	_	0.02	0.68	0.04	0.42
	-								-	
NMDS-2	0.68	0.00	0.04	0.38	0.02	0.68	1.00	_	0.05	0.34
	-		-		-		-			
NMDS-3	0.30	0.00	0.13	0.00	0.04	0.42	0.05	0.34	1.00	_

995

996 Table S3. Species composition and wood density in the regions of the Amazonia basin. N represents

997 the number of plots in the regions. The multivariate mean of dispersion was obtained using the Bray-

998 Curtis distance in a multivariate PCoA space, given by the betadisper function of the Vegan package.

999 Finally, the mean and standard error (SE) of wood density in the regions.

Geological Regions	N	SpeciesCompositionMeanmultivariate	Wood D	ensity
		dispersal	Mean	SE
East-Central Amazon	122	0.57	0.675	$\pm 0.003$
Guiana Shield	52	0.62	0.655	$\pm 0.006$
South Amazon	102	0.64	0.618	$\pm 0.005$
Western Amazon	167	0.61	0.569	$\pm 0.004$

1000

1001

1002 Supplementary figures



Figure S1. Partial effect of climatic water deficit (MCWD) on species (A), genus (B) and family (C)
diversity. Partial effect of soil fertility on species (D), genus (E) and family (F) diversity for the GLS
models, considering an exponential spatial autocorrelation structure. \* = significant effect and NS =
non-significant effect.



Figure S2. 3D plot of the three ordination axes (left) used in the GLS models. (right) Dispersion plot
based on the first two PCoA axes used in the dispersion analyses. The first axis of the PCoA represents
16% of the data variation, and the second axis represents 9%. The PCoA method was used only for

1014 the multivariate dispersion analysis which was incorporated into the *betadisper* function of the *Vegan* 

1015 package. The Bray-Curtis dissimilarity distance was used.

- 1016
- 1017
- 1018



Figure S3. Significant partial effect of soil fertility (A), geological regions (B) and clay content (C)
on the first ordination axis of the species composition for the GLS model, considering an Exponential
spatial autocorrelation structure. Central-Eastern Amazonia (CA-EA), Guiana Shield (GS), Southern
Amazonia (SA) and Western Amazonia (WA).

- 1025
- 1026
- 1027





**Figure S4.** Significant partial effect of MCWD on the second ordination axis for the GLS model,

1030 considering an exponential spatial autocorrelation structure. Central-Eastern Amazonia (CA-EA),

1031 Guiana Shield (GS), Southern Amazonia (SA) and Western Amazonia (WA).



Figure S5. Positive partial, but not significant effect of HAND on wood density (A). Significant
partial effect of geological regions (B) and soil fertility (C) on the wood density for the GLS model,
considering an exponential spatial autocorrelation structure. Central-Eastern Amazonia (CA-EA),
Guiana Shield (GS), Southern Amazonia (SA) and Western Amazonia (WA).





1044 2 = Guiana Shield (GS), 3 = Southern Amazonia (SA) and 4 = Western Amazonia (WA).

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### Conclusão

Na escala da bacia Amazônica, nós mostramos que o efeito das condições hidro-1048 topográficas na diversidade arbórea depende do contexto climático. Ademais, a influência 1049 1050 das condições hidro-topográficas na composição florística e funcional é generalizada e está dada de acordo às condições edáficas e geomorfológicas das regiões amazônicas. Estes 1051 achados reforçam a importância dos fatores hidro-topográficos nas comunidades de plantas 1052 em grande escala. Considerando que a maioria das espécies das florestas Neotropicais estão 1053 restritas a condições muito úmidas (Esquivel-Muelbert et al., 2017), eventos climáticos como 1054 1055 as secas extremas estão sendo mais frequentes nas últimas décadas (Marengo et al., 2018), podem ser uma séria ameaça para a diversidade e o funcionamento das florestas mais diversas 1056 1057 do planeta. Em cenários de aumento da temperatura global e redução da disponibilidade de água (IPCC 2021), condições topográficas e hidrológicas podem cumprir um papel 1058 importante na ecologia e na distribuição das plantas. Ambientes topográficos baixos, com 1059 lençol freático superficial podem reduzir o impacto de eventos climáticos extremos 1060 1061 relacionados com as secas (Esteban et al., 2020; Schwartz et al., 2020; Sousa et al., 2020), sendo potenciais refúgios para a diversidade (McLaughlin et al., 2017). Portanto, é 1062 1063 importante considerar as condições hidro-topográficas nos estudos de modelagem de distribuição de espécies e na previsão do destino das florestas sob cenários de mudanças 1064 1065 climáticas para permitir a promoção de estratégias sociopolíticas de conservação e uso sustentável das florestas. 1066