

INSTITUTO NACIONAL DE PESQUISAS DA AMAZÔNIA – INPA

PROGRAMA DE PÓS-GRADUAÇÃO EM BIOLOGIA (ECOLOGIA) – PPG-ECO

EFEITO DE FATORES HISTÓRICOS E AMBIENTAIS SOBRE A COMPOSIÇÃO E DIVERSIDADE DE ASSEMBLEIAS DE LAGARTOS NO SUDOESTE DA AMAZÔNIA BRASILEIRA

GABRIELA MARQUES PEIXOTO

Manaus, Amazonas Julho, 2019

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ORIENTADOR: DR. IGOR L. KAEFER Co-orientadora: Dra. Albertina P. Lima

Tese apresentada ao Instituto Nacional de Pesquisas da Amazônia como parte dos Requisitos para obtenção do título de Doutor em Biologia (Ecologia).

Manaus, Amazonas Julho, 2019







PROGRAMA DE PÓS-GRADUAÇÃO EM ECOLOGIA

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

Aos 28 dias do mês de junho do ano de 2019, às 14:30 horas, no Auditório dos PPG's ATU/CFT/ECO, Campus III, INPA/V8. Reuniu-se a Comissão Examinadora de Defesa Pública, composta pelos seguintes membros: o(a) Prof(a). Dr(a). Juliana da Silva Menger, do Instituto Nacional de Pesquisas da Amazônia - INPA, o(a) Prof(a). Dr(a). Cristhiana Paula Röpke, do Instituto Nacional de Pesquisas da Amazônia - INPA, o(a) Prof(a). Dr(a). Marcelo Menin, da Universidade Federal do Amazonas - UFAM, o(a) Prof(a). Dr(a). Ana Lúcia da Costa Prudente, do Museu Paraense Emílio Goeldi, o(a) Prof(a). Dr(a). Mario Eric Cohn Haft, do Instituto Nacional de Pesquisas da Amazônia - INPA, tendo como suplentes o(a) Prof(a). Dr(a). Fábio de Lima Muniz, da Universidade Federal do Amazonas -UFAM, e o(a) Prof(a). Dr(a). Anthony Santana Ferreira, do Instituto Nacional de Pesquisas da Amazônia - INPA, sob a presidência do(a) primeiro(a), a fim de proceder a argüição pública do trabalho de TESE DE DOUTORADO de GABRIELA MARQUES PEIXOTO, intitulado "EFEITO DE FATORES HISTÓRICOS E AMBIENTAIS SOBRE A COMPOSIÇÃO E DIVERSIDADE DE ASSEMBLEIAS DE LAGARTOS NO SUDOESTE DA AMAZÔNIA BRASILEIRA", orientado pelo(a) Prof(a). Dr(a). Igor Luis Kaefer, da Universidade Federal do Amazonas - UFAM e coorientado pelo(a) Prof(a). Dr(a). Albertina Pimentel Lima, 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.

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SINOPSE

Foram investigados a composição e a influência de fatores históricos e ecológicos sobre a estruturação de assembleias de lagartos na Amazônia. Para isso, foram amostradas múltiplas unidades padronizadas distribuídas na região sudoeste da Amazônia brasileira. Os resultados mostraram que gradientes ambientais de ordem estrutural e climática atuaram sobre a composição e riqueza funcional das assembleias de lagartos da região entre os rios Purus e Madeira. Também foram demosntrado o efeito hierárquico de fatores históricos e ambientais sobre a ocorrência e distribuíção das espécies na região do alto Rio Madeira.

Palavras-chave: BR-319, heterogeneidade ambiental, Inambari, rio como barreira, Rondônia, Squamata.

Dedico ao meu filho Daniel, e aos meus pais Luiz e Tânia.

I

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Amazônia

"Nos teus rios quero navegar O teu ar respirar Tua beleza contemplar Embalando os sonhos meus De ver-te sempre verdejante Parte integrante Deste país gigante Que luta para manter-te inteira Intacta, linda, majestosa Amazônia, pulmão do mundo

Mazé Carvalho

Resumo

Estudos ecológicos com amostragem padronizada conduzida em ampla escala espacial podem propiciar a compreensão de padrões e processos até então desconhecidos na estruturação de assembleias megadiversas, como as Neotropicais. Nesta tese apresentamos uma análise baseada em múltiplos sítios de amostragem instalados ao longo de um transecto de aproximadamente 1000 km, no interflúvio Purus-Madeira e nas margens do Alto Rio Madeira, a fim de compreender a distribuição das assembleias de lagartos desta região. No primeiro capítulo caracterizamos a composição e abundância da assembleia de lagartos em 10 módulos de amostragem ao longo da rodovia BR-319. Contabilizamos 25 táxons pertencentes a oito famílias, distribuídas de forma heterogênea ao longo do interflúvio. Também destacamos a importância de levantamentos de fauna para futuras medidas de conservação das espécies de lagartos de regiões interfluviais frente ao crescente impacto antrópico que a Amazônia enfrenta. No segundo capítulo avaliamos como a heterogeneidade ambiental, principalmente associada às Florestas Ombrófilas Abertas e Densas da região do interflúvio Purus-Madeira, molda as assembleias de lagartos. Para isso, quantificamos as assembleias através de medidas taxonômicas e funcionais em quatorze módulos de amostragem. Observamos que fatores ambientais como o solo, vegetação e pluviosidade variam em escala biogeográfica ao longo do interflúvio e influenciam o padrão de ocorrência das espécies e riqueza funcional das assembleias. Desse modo, detectamos um padrão de substituição de espécies em larga escala moldado pela influência de filtros ambientais. No terceiro capítulo investigamos, em diferentes escalas, a influência de fatores históricos e ecológicos na estruturação das assembleias de lagartos da região do alto Rio Madeira. Para isso foram amostradas 83 parcelas ao longo das margens leste e oeste do rio. Em escala regional, o alto rio Madeira atua como uma barreira biogeográfica para 29,6% das espécies. Diferentemente, a atuação de filtros ambientais explica a estruturação das assembleias em escala local. Este estudo, pioneiro em abranger uma escala geográfica tão ampla na ecologia de lagartos amazônicos, sugere que fatores históricos e ecológicos apresentam efeitos hierárquicos na determinação da estruturação espacial das assembleias. Assim como a presente investigação, futuras pesquisas abordando diferentes escalas de acordo com métodos padronizados de amostragem prometem elucidar processos e padrões relacionados à heterogênea distribuição espacial da biodiversidade amazônica.

Historical and environmental factors on the composition and diversity of lizard assemblages in the southwest of the Brazilian Amazon

Abstract

Ecological studies with standardized sampling conducted on a large scale can provide an understanding of patterns and processes hitherto unknown in the structuring of megadiverse assemblages such as those from the Neotropics. In this thesis we present an analysis based on multiple sampling sites installed along a transect of approximately 1,000 km, in the Purus-Madeira interfluve and on the banks of the Upper Madeira River, in order to understand the distribution of the lizard assemblages of this region. In the first chapter we characterized the composition and abundance of the lizard assemblage in 10 sampling modules along the BR-319 highway. We counted 25 taxa belonging to eight families, distributed heterogeneously along the interfluve. We also we emphasize the importance of faunal surveys for future conservation measures of the species of lizards of interfluvial regions in face of the increasing anthropic impact in Amazonia. In the second chapter we evaluated how the environmental heterogeneity, mainly associated with the Open and Dense Ombrophilous Forests of the region of the Purus-Madeira interfluve forms the lizard assemblages. For this, we quantified the assemblies through taxonomic and functional measures in fourteen sampling modules. We observed that environmental factors such as soil, vegetation and rainfall vary in biogeographic scale along the interfluve and influence the pattern of occurrence of species and functional richness of the assemblages. Thus, we detected a large-scale species substitution pattern shaped by the influence of environmental filters. In the third chapter we investigated, at different scales, the influence of historical and ecological factors in the structure of lizard assemblages in the region of the upper Madeira River. For this, 83 plots were sampled along the east and west banks of the river. At the regional level, the upper Madeira River acts as a biogeographic barrier to 29.6% of the species. In contrast, the performance of environmental filters explains the structure of the assemblages at a local scale. This study, which pioneered such a wide geographic scale in the ecology of Amazonian lizards, suggests that historical and ecological factors have hierarchical effects in determining the spatial structuring of assemblages. Such as the present investigation, future research addressing different scales according to standardized sampling methods promises to elucidate processes and patterns related to the heterogeneous spatial distribution of Amazonian biodiversity.

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INTRODUÇÃO GERAL

O conhecimento da biodiversidade global e seus mecanismos de funcionamento tem fundamental relevância para atuações conservacionistas (Elith e Leathwick, 2009), especialmente diante da intensificação das intervenções humanas aos ecossistemas naturais e do iminente declínio na riqueza de espécies (Dixo, 2001; Cole *et al.* 2014; Esther *et al.*, 2014; Bernard *et al.*, 2014). No entanto, a biodiversidade global está distribuída de maneira irregular entre os continentes, com uma expressiva concentração de espécies na região Neotropical, a qual que se estende desde o México ao sul do continente americano (Fine *et al.*, 2014; Pavan *et al.*, 2016). Tal riqueza torna estas regiões primordiais para estudos ecológicos que propiciem a compreensão dos mecanismos e processos, ainda desconhecidos pela ciência, que atuam nos padrões de formação das assembleias biológicas (Fraterrigo *et al.*, 2004; Gardner *et al.*, 2008).

Com posição de destaque na região Neotropical, a floresta Amazônica é considerada a maior e mais diversa floresta tropical úmida amplamente conectada do mundo, ocupando uma área equivalente a seis milhões de km² ao longo de nove países da América do Sul (Haseyama e Carvalho, 2011). No Brasil, o Bioma chega a ocupar mais de 40% do território nacional, desempenhando papel importante na regulação do clima, regime hidrológico, e do estoque de carbono terrestre (Nobre, 2002; Fearnside, 2006; Balmford e Whitten, 2003). Por apresentar alta complexidade estrutural, principalmente em decorrência da dinâmica geológica e climática impostas ao bioma ao longo do tempo (Hoorn *et al.*, 2010), a região é atualmente considerada um amplo mosaico de formações distintas, com alta heterogeneidade ambiental, o que torna essa riqueza estrutural um dos principais responsáveis pela magnitude de sua biodiversidade (Sombroek, 2000; Schietti *et al.*, 2014).

Para compreender os padrões atuais de ocorrência das espécies amazônicas, distintas hipóteses, muitas delas não mutuamente exclusivas, têm sido propostas e submetidas a testes, tais como as mudanças geomorfológicas históricas, flutuações climáticas e a atuação de barreiras à dispersão (Wallace, 1852; Haffer, 1969; Cracraft, 1985; Bush, 1994; Racheli e Racheli, 2004; Ribas e Miyaki, 2004; Wüster *et al.*, 2005; Aleixo *et al.*, 2006; Antonelli *et al.*, 2009; Hoorn *et al.*, 2010; Roddaz *et al.*, 2010; Rossetti *et al.*, 2014; Caputo e Soares, 2016). A distribuição de muitos táxons amazônicos coincide com os limites geográficos dos grandes interflúvios da Bacia, as denominadas áreas de endemismo (Cracraft e Prum, 1988; Gascon *et al.*, 2000; Ron, 2000;

Silva *et al.*, 2005; Ribas *et al.*, 2012; Boubli *et al.*, 2014; Smitth *et al.*, 2014; Fouquet, *et al.*, 2015), mas tal padrão não é observado para todos os grupos (Godinho e Da Silva, 2018; Santorelli *et al.*, 2018). Desse modo, as complexas histórias evolutivas das espécies constituem um ponto primordial para a compreensão dos mecanismos pelos quais ocorrereu a diversificação e consequente acúmulo de espécies para vários grupos taxonômicos, bem como para a associação com as principais teorias biogeográficas reconhecidas acerca da evolução da paisagem amazônica (Leite e Rogers, 2013; Smith *et al.*, 2014; Antonelli *et al.*, 2010), já que diferentes organismos podem responder de formas distintas aos mesmos eventos (Ávila-Pires *et al.*, 2012, Godinho e Da Silva, 2018). De fato, estudos acerca dos processos causadores da diversificação nesta região têm sugerido o envolvimento sinergístico de forças históricas e ecológicas (Hoorn *et al.*, 2010; Losos *et al.*, 2013; Dias-Terceiro *et al.*, 2015; Quintero *et al.*, 2015; Moraes *et al.*, 2016).

Processos ecológicos decorrentes de interações entre elementos bióticos e abióticos, ao longo de paisagens contínuas ou *clines* geográficos, podem gerar especiação mesmo na ausência de alopatria (Tuomisto e Ruokolainen, 1997). Estes mecanismos se enquadram no que conhecemos como hipótese dos gradientes (Endler, 1977), pelo qual populações tendem a diferenciar-se por meio de isolamento por distância, facilitado pelas adaptações ecológicas à heterogeneidade ambiental, como o modo de dispersão e aspectos reprodutivos (Garda *et al.*, 2013). Mesmo dentro de cada área de endemismo as especiações ecológicas podem ocorrer (Ferrão *et al.*, 2017), já que estas regiões se configuram como subunidades ambientais por apresentarem componentes horizontais, verticais e qualitativos que permitem a presença de diferentes microhábitats (da-Silva *et al.*, 2005; Ximenes, 2008). Tal cenário torna regiões interfluviais sistemas promissores para a investigação da influência de filtros ecológicos na composição e estruturação espacial da biota amazônica, seja por meio de abordagens taxonômicas ou relacionadas à funcionalidade ecossistêmica dos organismos (Condit *et al.* 2002; Maldonado *et al.*, 2012; Ortiz *et al.*, 2018).

Os lagartos contituem bons bioindicadores para investigar o efeito de gradientes ecológicos/ambientais, e são comumente usados em modelos ecológicos por compreender um grupo abundante, com mobilidade restrita, e com alta partilha espacial de condições e recursos (Schoener, 1974; Werneck e Colli, 2006; Werneck *et al.*, 2009; Camargo *et al.*, 2010). Estima-se a ocorrência de aproximadamente 158 espécies de lagartos para a Amazônia brasileira (Censo da Biodiversidade/Museu Goeldi, 2019). Porém, ao longo dos anos novas espécies são descritas ou tem suas distribuições geográficas ampliadas, o que indica que a diversidade ainda deve ser

subestimada (Rodrigues e Ávila-Pires, 2005; D'angiolella *et al.*, 2011; Peloso *et al.*, 2011; Murphy e Jowers, 2013; Murphy *et al.*, 2016; Oliveira *et al.*, 2016). Este cenário configura um desafio para a identificação dos principais padrões biogeográficos para os lagartos, já que muitas espécies apresentam elevado grau de diversidade críptica, necessitando abordagens integrativas envolvendo morfologia, ecologia, comportamento e diversidade molecular (Murphy e Jowers, 2013; Sturaro *et al.*, 2018).

Um dos principais padrões regionais observados para os lagartos amazônicos é a substituição de espécies com distribuição restrita às partes Ocidental-Oriental ou Leste-Oeste da Amazônia (Ávila-Pires, 1995; Ávila-Pires et al., 2012). Entretanto, um padrão único de distribuição geográfica para lagartos amazônicos ainda permanece desconhecido (Souza et al., 2013), e muitas lacunas precisam ser preenchidas. Localmente, o padrão de distribuição das espécies amazônicas parece estar relacionado aos aspectos da heterogeneidade dos ambientes, e diversas associações já foram descritas como determinantes na estruturação destas assembleias, como o efeito da fragmentação (Bittencourt, 2008), abertura de dossel e incidência de luz (Lobão, 2008; Moraes, 2008), densidade de árvores (Pinto, 2006; Vitt et al., 2007; Bittencourt, 2008), profundidade da serrapilheira (Pinto, 2006; Vitt et al., 2007; Bittencourt, 2008), porcentagem de argila no solo (Pinto, 2006), associação a áreas ripárias (Faria et al., 2019), altitude e inclinação do terreno (Pinto, 2006; Lobão, 2008; Moraes, 2008), além da disponibilidade de alimentos (Lobão, 2008; Moraes, 2008). No entanto, devido às concentrações destes estudos em determinadas áreas da Amazônia Central, várias localidades ainda precisam ser inventariadas e estudadas quanto aos mecanismos de montagem das assembleias, principalmente em escalas mais amplas, já que grande parte destes estudos foi limitada a pequenas e médias escalas.

Considerando o incipiente conhecimento sobre os padrões de distribuição das espécies para muitas áreas da Amazônia e o avanço dos impactos antrópicos que o bioma vem enfrentando ao longo das décadas (Fearnside e Graça, 2006; Bernarde *et al.*, 2008; Fearnside *et al.*, 2014), esta tese, com seus três capítulos apresentados a seguir, vem ampliar o conhecimento sobre os lagartos de zonas interfluviais e compreender os mecanismos que atuam sobre as distribuições das assembleias do Interflúvio Purus-Madeira e do Alto rio Madeira. Com o emprego de um delineamento amostral de um transecto de aproximadamente 1000 km, o qual foi capaz de abranger grande parte da paisagem, e possível revelar padrões ainda inéditos relacionados à distribuição de espécies e montagem de assembleias de lagartos amazônicos.

OBJETIVOS

Objetivo geral

Investigar os potenciais efeitos de fatores ecológicos e históricos sobre as assembleias de lagartos em ambientes florestais de terra firme na Amazônia.

Objetivos específicos:

- Capítulo 1: Caracterizar a distribuição geográfica e a abundância das espécies de lagartos presentes ao longo da rodovia BR-319 na região do Interflúvio Purus-Madeira, gerando uma listagem de espécies inédita para a região.
- Capítulo 2: Compreender os efeitos de gradientes ambientais de ordem estrutural e climática sobre a composição e diversidade funcional das assembleias de lagartos da região entre os rios Purus e Madeira.
- Capítulo 3: Testar, através de escalas espaciais hierárquicas, o efeito de fatores históricos e ambientais sobre a ocorrência e distribuição das espécies de lagartos da região do alto Rio Madeira.

Capítulo 1

Gabriela Marques Peixoto; Pedro Henrique Leitão; Igor Luis Kaefer; Albertina Pimentel Lima. 2019. The lizards along the road BR-319 in the Purus-Madeira interfluve, Brazilian Amazonia (Squamata, Lacertilia). *Herpetology Notes* 12: 689-697.

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2	The lizards along the road BR-319 in the Purus-Madeira interfluve, Brazilian Amazonia
3	(Squamata, Lacertilia)
4	
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14	
15	Abstract. Here we present data on the identity and geographic distribution of lizard taxa in the
16	Purus-Madeira interfluve, along the road BR-319 in Brazilian Amazonia. We sampled 10
17	modules located at least 40 kilometres from each other. Data collection was performed through
18	active search on vegetation and leaf-litter along 250 m-long transects, and by occasional
19	encounters. Twenty-five taxa from 16 genera and eight families were recorded. The present
20	assessment reinforces the importance of this area to the conservation of Amazonian lizards and
21	should be considered as basis for studies of ecology and environmental impact regarding lizard
22	communities in this threatened region.
23	
24	Keywords. Amazonas, Brazil, Inambari, Reptiles, Species richness

25 26

27 Introduction

Despite the relevance of the Amazon Forest to the world biodiversity, studies regarding the biodiversity of Amazonia are scattered in the literature, reflecting on incomplete knowledge about the patterns of distribution and identity of species (Magnusson et al., 2016). Since the 1990s, a huge portion of the Amazon Forest has been irreversibly deforested mainly due to farming and logging activities (Fearnside et al., 2009). For the year 2016, in comparison with 2015, it is possible to identify an advance of 29% (6,207 km²) of deforestation for the entire Brazilian Amazonia (INPE, 2016).

35 Squamate reptiles are, in general, vulnerable to environmental disturbances and 36 degradation, making information about the distribution of these species essential to understand 37 and conserve the Amazonian herpetofauna (Böhm et al., 2013). The richness of lizard species in the Brazilian Amazonia is estimated in 138 described species (Ribeiro-Júnior, 2015; Ribeiro-38 39 Júnior and Amaral, 2016). However, this number may be underestimated because most of the studies were performed on the proximity of large urban centres (Rodrigues and Ávila-Pires, 40 2005; Vitt et al., 2008; Turci and Bernarde, 2008; Ávila-Pires et al., 2018). Recent taxonomic 41 42 assessments indicate high cryptic diversity in Amazonian species (e.g., Ávila-Pires and 43 Hoogmoed, 2000; Peloso et al., 2011; Murphy and Jowers, 2013; Murphy et al., 2016; Ferrão 44 et al., 2016; Oliveira et al., 2016; Melo-Sampaio et al., 2018), leading to the description of new 45 species or changes in taxonomic status (e.g. Bergmann and Russell, 2007; Geurgas and 46 Rodrigues, 2010; D'Angiolella et al., 2011).

The Purus-Madeira interfluve, where the road BR-319 was constructed during the decade of 1970, is a site of high biodiversity, both described and undescribed (Ferrão et al.,

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2017; Ortiz et al., 2018), located in an important endemism area called Inambari (Cracraft,
1985).

51 It is estimated that most of this biodiversity is threatened by the construction and recent paving of part of the road, which crosses the region linking the city of Manaus, in the state of 52 53 Amazonas, to the city of Porto Velho, in the state of Rondônia (Fearnside and Graça, 2006). Simulations to assess the impacts of the road construction associated with human settlements 54 predicted a resulting deforestation of up to 5.4 million hectares by 2050, reinforcing the need 55 of mitigating measures to avoid the loss of biological diversity (Maldonado et al., 2012). In the 56 face of such prospect of increase in the frequency of anthropic disturbances and imminent loss 57 58 of biodiversity, we sampled multiple standard units over a transect of 620 km in the Interfluve 59 Purus-Madeira aiming to: 1) inventory the lizards (Squamata, Lacertilia); and 2) characterize the geographic distribution of the taxa within this interfluvial zone. 60

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62 Materials and Methods

Study site. The research was conducted along the road BR-319, which crosses the Purus-63 64 Madeira interfluve, distributed almost linearly over 620 km, from central Amazonia (municipality of Careiro da Várzea, state of Amazonas) to southwest Amazonia (municipality 65 of Humaitá, state of Amazonas). The area has mainly a plane topography and the elevation 66 ranges from 30 to 50 m. Approximately 90% of the area is composed of lowland ombrophilous 67 68 dense forest, with occurrence of medium to large-sized trees and clean forest understory. Such formation is limited to high temperatures (25°C on average,) high rainfall (well distributed 69 70 throughout the year), and the dry period varies from 0 to 60 days per year. In the southern region 71 of our sample (near the municipality of Humaitá), the interfluve is formed by ombrophilous open forest and present more than 60 dry days per year (Maldonado et al., 2012). 72

We used 10 research modules installed along the BR-319 according to the RAPELD-73 74 Rapid Assessments and Long-term Ecological Research (in Portuguese, Pesquisas Ecológicas 75 de Longa Duração Associadas a Levantamentos Rápidos) (Magnusson et al., 2005). These modules are part of a network of permanent standardized transects installed in the Amazon by 76 77 Programa de Pesquisas em Biodiversidade (Biodiversity Research Program) of the Brazilian Science, Technology, Innovations and Communications Ministry (Magnusson et al., 2013). The 78 79 10 modules are located 40 to 100 kilometres from each other (Table 1) and are composed of 80 two 5 km-long tracks (Figure 1). Each track contains 5 terrestrial transects (250 meters long) with standardized distance of one km between neighbouring transects. Each transect follows the 81 contour line of the terrain, minimising the edaphic variation within the transects. The 82 83 coordinates were obtained through GPS Garmin GPSMAP 76CSx (Datum WGS 84).

84 **Data Collection.** The lizard assemblage surveys lasted from October 2010 to September 2011. 85 In order to maximize the taxa detection and to minimize false absences, we employed the visual transect census method using active search both in the vegetation and in the leaf-litter (Crump 86 87 and Scott, 1994). In addition, we recorded occasional encounters along the transect 88 displacement in the modules. The visual transect census consisted of inspecting the 89 environment by looking for terrestrial, arboreal and semi-arboreal lizards throughout the 250 m of each transect. The active search in the litter consisted of rummaging the substrate (leaf litter, 90 91 stems and organic matter remnants) along the transect. The sampling team consisted of one 92 researcher and one assistant properly trained for lizard sampling. Due to the logistical 93 restrictions faced in the region — difficulty of access to sections of the highway that are not 94 paved and financial costs — four modules installed closer to the municipality of Manaus (M1, M2, M3, and M4) were sampled in all three campaigns, while the remaining modules were 95 sampled just during the first campaign. Campaign I occurred between October 24 and 96

97 December 5, 2010, with a total of 100 hours/observer and 312 km covered throughout the sampling modules; Campaign II occurred from January 9 to 24, 2011 with 40 hours/observer 98 99 and 128 km of modules covered; Campaign III occurred from September 12 to 27, 2011, with 40 hours/observer and 135 km of modules covered. The active search in each transect had a 100 101 duration of one hour. Considering the displacement between transects, the daily effort varied, 102 but averaged eight hours of active search per day. The sampling was concluded after 75 days 103 of fieldwork, totalling 180 hours/observer (360 sampling hours) in the transects, with a total 104 displacement of 1,150 km within the modules, and a total of 1,234 km traveled when 105 considering the distance between the base camps and the sampling modules. The captured specimens were killed with peritoneal injection of 10% lidocaine chloralhydrate, and fixed in 106 107 10% formaldehyde for 24 hours, subsequently transferred to 70% ethanol and deposited at the herpetological collection of the Instituto Nacional de Pesquisas da Amazônia (INPA-H) in the 108 109 municipality of Manaus, state of Amazonas, Brazil. The identification of all taxa followed the taxonomic keys available in Peters and Donoso-Barros (1970), Ávila-Pires (1995), and Vitt et 110 111 al. (2008). The collection licenses were granted by ICMBio/IBAMA under permits 25685 and 112 29069.

113 **Results**

114Twenty- five taxa (including *Plica umbra* subspecies) of eight families and 16 genera115were sampled along the 10 modules (Figure 2; Appendix 1). The family Gymnophthalmidae116was represented by six taxa: Arthrosaura reticulata (O'Shaughnessy, 1881); Cercosaura argula117Peters, 1863; Cercosaura ocellata (Wagler, 1830); Loxopholis osvaldoi (Ávila-Pires, 1995);118Loxopholis percarinatum (Müller, 1923); and Tretioscincus agilis (Ruthven, 1916). The family119Dactyloidae was represented by five taxa: Anolis fuscoauratus D'Orbigny, 1837; Anolis ortonii120Cope, 1868; Anolis punctatus Daudin, 1802; Anolis tandai Ávila-Pires, 1995; and Anolis
10

121 transversalis Duméril, 1851. The family Teiidae was represented by four taxa: Ameiva ameiva 122 (Linnaeus, 1758); Kentropyx altamazonica (Cope, 1876); Kentropyx pelviceps (Cope, 1868); 123 and Tupinambis cuzcoensis Murphy, Jowers, Lehtinen, Charles, Colli, Peres, Hendry and Pyron, 2016. The family Sphaerodactylidae was represented by three taxa: Chatogekko amazonicus 124 125 (Andersson, 1918); Gonatodes hasemani (Griffin, 1917); and Gonatodes humeralis (Guichenot, 1855). Scincidae was represented by two taxa: Copeoglossum nigropunctatum (Spix, 1825); 126 and Varzea bistriata (Spix, 1825). Tropiduridae was represented by three taxa: Plica umbra 127 128 umbra (Linnaeus, 1758); Plica umbra ochrocollaris Spix, 1825; and Uranoscodon 129 superciliosus (Linnaeus, 1758). The family Alopoglossidae was represented by one taxon: Alopoglossus atriventris Duellman, 1973. The family Phyllodactylidae also presented one 130 131 taxon: Thecadactylus solimoensis Bergmann and Russell, 2007 (Table 2).

The locations showing the highest taxa richness were modules M1 with 15 taxa (60% 132 of the taxa) and M2 with 13 taxa (52%), followed by M3 with with 11 taxa (44%) and M10 133 134 with 10 taxa (40%). M4 with 9 taxa (36%), M5 with 7 taxa (28%), a and modules M8 and M9 135 with 6 taxa each (24%) (Figure 3). The modules with the lowest number of species were M06 and M07 with five sampled taxa (20%). The module M10 was sampled only once, but some 136 137 taxa were found only in this module: Cercosaura ocellata, Gonatodes hasemani, Tretioscincus agilis, and Tupinambis cuzcoensis. Two taxa (Chatogekko amazonicus and Kentropyx 138 139 altamazonica) were recorded in all modules, whereas Ameiva ameiva was recorded in 9 out of 140 10 modules (Table 2).

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142 **Discussion**

143 Variations in local species richness and composition in the Amazon Basin would rely
144 on its configuration, which is a mosaic of distinct phytophysiognomical regions (Schietti et al.,

145 2014). Such variations also result from the different geological ages and formations among 146 distinct fractions of the basin, which leads to historical evolutionary differences among areas 147 and, consequently, their biotas (Wesselingh et al., 2010; Ortiz et al., 2018). Structural 148 complexity of the vegetation in the Madeira-Purus interfluve is strongly affected by 149 groundwater and soil characteristics (Moulatlet et al., 2014; Schietti et al. 2014), which may 150 also explain differences in faunal composition along the gradient (Marciente et al., 2015).

151 The number of taxa found in this study is consistent with other studies performed in 152 Brazilian Amazonia which recorded a minimum local richness of 22 species and a maximum of 44 species of lizards per inventory area (Ávila-Pires et al., 2009; Magalhães-Silva et al., 153 2011; Prudente et al., 2013; Ribeiro-Júnior and Amaral, 2016). Studies in the Amazonian biome 154 155 that showed higher species richness were carried out using complementary techniques such as pitfall traps, were conducted in environments with greater habitat heterogeneity including 156 flooded and nonflooded forests, or considered seasonal variability (e.g. Waldez et al., 2013; 157 158 Almeida et al., 2015). In relation to the richness of lizards by modules, we can associate the 159 greater values of the modules M1–3 with the highest sampling efforts employed in these sites. 160 However, module M4 was also sampled three times and showed fewer taxa. This suggests that 161 the northernmost modules of the interfluve have richer lizard assemblages. Another relevant 162 exception is module M10, which presented a richness (10 taxa) that resembles the richness 163 found in M4 (nine taxa), although module M10 was sampled only once. This module is inserted 164 within the open ombrophylous forest phytophysiognomy, unlike the other modules that are 165 inserted within dense ombrophylous forest, and possibly has greater environmental 166 heterogeneity, which may explain the presence of exclusive taxa in this module.

167 A study carried out along Purus-Madeira interfluve in five conservation units between 168 November 2012 and November 2013 registered 26 species of lizards, distributed among 19

169 genera and eight families (Almeida et al., 2015). The broadest herpetological survey conducted 170 in the region was the Environmental Impact Assessment (EIA) of Jirau and Santo Antônio 171 Hydroelectric Power Plants in the state of Rondônia (upper Madeira river), with a larger number of species (n = 33) recorded (Lima et al., 2004). Among the sampled species, five were not 172 173 observed in our study, despite the proximity of the areas: Cnemidophorus aff. lemniscatus 174 Linnaeus, 1758; Envalioides laticeps (Guichenot, 1855); Envalius leechii (Boulenger, 1885); 175 Kentropyx calcarata (Spix, 1825); and Plica plica (Linnaeus, 1758). During the EIA of the road 176 BR-319 (UFAM/DNIT, 2009), 23 lizard species of 15 genera and six families were recorded, 177 and just four of them were not sampled in our study: *Alopoglossus angulatus* (Linnaeus, 1758); Iphisa elegans Gray, 1851; Kentropyx calcarata; and Ptychoglossus brevifrontalis Boulenger, 178 179 1912. Except for Kentropyx calcarata, the absence of the above-mentioned species in our survey is probably due to the active sampling method employed here (without use of pitfall and 180 181 funnel traps), which is not adequate to detect species with fossorial or secretive habits (Andrade 182 et al., 2013).

On the other hand, four species recorded in this study were not listed in the EIA conducted along the BR-319 (UFAM/DNIT, 2009): *Copeoglossum nigropunctatum, Leposoma osvaldoi, Thecadactylus solimoensis*, and *Varzea bistriata*. The sampling of the EIA was restricted to a section of the road (km 285 to km 615). In fact, the species *Thecadactylus solimoensis* and *Varzea bistriata* were previously recorded only for the lower Purus River, at Piagaçu-Purus Sustainable Development Reserve, which is located 84 km distant from the module 5 of our study (Waldez et al., 2013).

Regarding the record of *Plica umbra ochrocollaris*, it is known that *P. umbra* comprises
more than one independent lineage, with distinct evolutionary units along different areas of

endemism in the Amazon. This suggests that these lineages may represent distinct species,
including multiple taxa within the Purus-Madeira interfluve (Carvalho et al., 2006; Oliveira et
al., 2016).

195 Large body-sized species such as Dracaena guianensis (Daudin, 1802) and Crocodilurus amazonicus (Spix, 1825) were not observed in the present study, probably 196 197 because they are associated to the environments of flooded forest (Almeida et al., 2015). Hence, 198 the sampled environments along the road BR-319 are probably not suitable to these species, 199 since most of the modules are normally installed in areas of plane topography and not subjected 200 Landscape management and conservation strategies require an understanding of to flooding. 201 species distributions. This understanding also includes predictions of species' distributions 202 under anthropogenic impacts. These approaches are essential for the long-term maintenance of the forest and its biodiversity (Fearnside et al., 2009). Amazonian lizards are likely under threat 203 204 because of human disturbance, given the pace of modification in the Amazon Basin and the 205 lack of public policies for the effective conservation of biodiversity (Magnusson et al., 2018). 206 The construction of roads in natural environments, such as BR 319, is an alarming scenario for 207 biological conservation because it tends to favor the illegal colonization of the region, thus allowing the development of activities such as mining, illegal hunting, and land real estate 208 209 speculation (Laurance and Balmford, 2013). These activities may affect the local fauna, 210 especially species that respond rapidly to changes in forest cover (Ferrão et al., 2016), and 211 contribute to the high number roadkills of wild animals (Brum et al., 2018). In this context, this study complements the most recent list on the distribution of lizards in the Brazilian 212 213 Amazon (Ribeiro-Júnior and Amaral, 2016). In addition, it reinforces the importance of the Purus-Madeira interfluve for the conservation of Amazonian reptiles, a region whose 214

biodiversity is rich, with great potential for new discoveries (De-França et al., 2011; Ferrão et
al., 2016; De-Abreu et al., 2018). Finally, this list can be used as a basis for future ecological
and environmental impact studies in Amazonian lizard assemblages.

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- 376
Table 1. Location of survey modules (M1–10) in the Purus-Madeira interfluve, Brazilian
Amazonia.

Location in highway	Geographic coordinates	Elevation
M1: Purupuru, BR-319 km 34	-3.2112°S, -59.5120°W	35 m
M2: Manaquiri, BR-319 km 100	-3.4122°S, -60.2062°W	42 m
M3: Taboca, BR-319 km 168	-4.1739°S, -60.4343°W	43 m
M4: Taquara, BR-319 km 220	-4.2234°S, -60.5655°W	47 m
M5: Igapó-açu, BR-319 km 260	-4.3634°S, -61.1501°W	52 m
M6: Orquestra, BR-319 km 300	-4.5922°S, -61.3347°W	48 m
M7: Rio Novo, BR-319 km 350	-5.1558°S, -61.5558°W	59 m
M8: Jarí, BR-319 km 450	-5.5726°S, -62.2920°W	70 m
M9: Aracá, BR-319 km 540	-6.3347°S, -62.5611°W	77 m
M10: Puruzinho, BR-319 km 620	-7.1210°S, -63.1306°W	49 m

- 380 **Table 2.** Lizard taxa sampled throughout the modules (M1–M10) installed along the road BR-
- 381 319 and the distance sampled by module in each of the three campaigns. The symbol "+"
- indicates the presence of the species and "-" indicates its absence.

Family/ Taxa	Μ	Μ	Μ	Μ	Μ	Μ	Μ	Μ	Μ	Μ
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
ALOPOGLOSSIDAE										
Alopoglossus atriventris (Duellman, 1973)	-	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
									22	

DACTYLOIDAE										
Anolis fuscoauratus D'Orbigny, 1837	+	+	+	+	+	-	+	+	-	+
Anolis ortonii Cope, 1868	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Anolis punctatus Daudin, 1802	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Anolis tandai Ávila-Pires, 1995	+	+	+	+	+	-	+	+	-	-
Anolis transversalis Duméril, 1851	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
GYMNOPHTHALMIDAE										
Arthrosaura reticulata (O'Shaughnessy, 1881)	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Cercosaura argula (Peters, 1863)	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Cercosaura ocellata (Wagler, 1830)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+
Loxopholis osvaldoi Ávila-Pires, 1995	+	+	-	-	-	+	-	+	-	-
Loxopholis percarinatum Müller, 1923	-	+	-	+	+	-	-	-	-	-
Tretioscincus agilis (Ruthven, 1916)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+
PHYLLODACTYLIDAE										
Thecadactylus solimoensis Bergmann and Russell,	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+
2007										
SCINCIDAE										
Copeoglossum nigropunctatum (Spix, 1825)	+	-	+	+	-	+	-	-	-	-
Varzea bistriata (Spix, 1825)	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
SPHAERODACTYLIDAE										
Chatogekko amazonicus (Andersson, 1918)	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Gonatodes hasemani (Griffin, 1917)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+
Gonatodes humeralis (Guichenot, 1855)	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-

TEIIDAE										
Ameiva ameiva (Linnaeus, 1758)	+	+	+	+	+	-	+	+	+	+
Kentropyx altamazonica (Cope, 1876)	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	-	+
Kentropyx pelviceps (Cope, 1868)	+	+	+	+	+	-	-		+	-
Tupinambis cuzcoensis Murphy et al., 2016	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+
TROPIDURIDAE										
Plica umbra ochrocollaris (Linnaeus, 1758)	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	+
Plica umbra umbra (Linnaeus, 1758)	-	-	+	+	-	+	-	-	-	-
Uranoscodon superciliosum (Linnaeus,1758)	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-
First campaign (km)	27	31	33	27	27	39	36	30	32	30
Second campaign (km)	38	32	33	25	-	-	-	-	-	-
Third campaign (km)	36	31	39	29	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total distance sampled (km)	101	94	105	81	27	39	36	30	32	30

383

384 Figures

Figure 1. Location of the study area with the surveyed modules (M1–M10) along the road BR-

386 319, state of Amazonas, northern Brazil; and schematic illustration of the modules from the

387 RAPELD sampling system, composed by two 5 km-long tracks containing 5 terrestrial

388 transects (250 meters long each).

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407 Figure 2. Lizards observed along the road BR-319 in the state of Amazonas, northern Brazil. 408 (A) Anolis tandai (male, INPA-H 33522); (B) Anolis punctatus (male, INPA-H 33691); (C) 409 Anolis fuscoauratus (female, INPA-H 33549); (D) Plica umbra ochrocollaris (male, INPA-H 410 33736); (E) Tupinambis cuzcoensis (male, INPA-H 33739); (F) Kentropyx pelviceps (male, 411 INPA-H 33708); (G) Arthrosaura reticulata (INPA-H 33543); (H) Chatogekko amazonicus 412 (INPA-H 33584); (I) Plica umbra umbra (male, INPA-H 33021); (J) Gonatodes humeralis 413 (male, INPA-H 33421); (K) Ameiva ameiva (male, INPA-H 33473); (L) Anolis ortonii (INPA-414 33462); (M) Thecadactylus solimoensis (INPA-H 33373); (N) Copeoglossum Η 415 nigropunctatum (INPA-H 33592; (O) Loxopholis percarinatum (INPA-H 30374). Photos by 416 Pedro H. Leitão, Albertina P. Lima, and Gabriela M. Peixoto.



- 419 Figure 3. Richness of lizards in the surveyed modules (M1–10) along the road BR-319 in the
- 420 Purus-Madeira interfluve, state of Amazonas, northern Brazil.



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423 Appendix 1. Voucher numbers of the taxa recorded at the herpetological collection of the

424 National Institute of Amazonian Research (INPA-H).

Alopoglossidae: *Alopoglossus atriventris* (INPA-H 33600, 33601); Dactyloidae: *Anolis fuscoauratus* (INPA-H 33480, 33482, 33494, 33516, 33530, 33531, 33536); *Anolis ortonii* (INPA-H 33424, 33471, 33583, 33702); *Anolis punctatus* (INPA-H 33368, 33371, 33519, 33547); *Anolis tandai* (INPA-H 33496, 33683, 33684, 33695, 33696, 33722); *Anolis tanversalis* (INPA-H 33640, 33641, 33642, 33643); Gymnophthalmidae: *Arthrosaura reticulata* (INPA-H 33514, 33570, 33651, 33671, 33672); *Cercosaura argula* (INPA-H 33423, 33673, 33832); *Cercosaura ocellata* (INPA-H 33389, 33430, 33438, 33470, 33534, 33543);

432 Leposoma osvaldoi (INPA-H 25664, 30375, 30376); Leposoma percarinatum (INPA-H 28245, 28248, 30374); Tretioscincus agilis (INPA-H 28265, 33435, 33436, 33568); Phyllodactylidae: 433 434 Thecadactylus solimoensis (INPA-H 33373, 33381, 33386, 33413, 33414, 33418, 33433); Scincidae: Copeoglossum nigropunctatum (INPA-H 33592, 33594, 33595, 33635, 33638, 435 436 33639); Varzea bistriata (INPA-H 33511, 33683, 33684, 33695, 33722); Sphaerodactylidae: Chatogekko amazonicus (INPA-H 33445, 33447, 33448, 33449, 33451, 33452, 33456, 33457, 437 33458, 33459, 33495, 33537, 33538, 33539); Gonatodes hasemani (INPA-H 33834); 438 439 Gonatodes humeralis (INPA-H 33403, 33404, 33443, 33576, 33612, 33613); Teiidae: Ameiva 440 ameiva (INPA-H 33431, 33473, 33671); Kentropyx altamazonica (INPA-H 33730); Kentropyx pelviceps (INPA-H 33504, 33399, 33653); Tupinambis cuscoensis (INPA-H 33739); 441 442 Tropiduridae: Plica umbra umbra (INPA-H 33658); Plica umbra ochrocollaris (INPA-H 443 33474, 33656, 33736); Uranoscodon superciliosus (INPA-H 33604, 33677, 33678).

Capítulo 2

Gabriela Marques Peixoto; Rafael de Fraga; Pedro Henrique Leitão; Igor Luis Kaefer; Albertina Pimentel Lima. Biogeographical gradients affect lizard assemblage composition and functional α -diversity in Amazonia. Manuscrito em preparação para *Biotropica*.

LRH: Peixoto et al.

RRH: Wide-Scale Spatial Structure of Lizard Assemblages

1 Biogeographical gradients affect lizard assemblage composition and functional α-

2 diversity in Amazonia

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11 Abstract

12 Species distributions may be influenced by ecological processes and mechanisms quantified 13 through interactions with biotic and abiotic elements. Such interactions often explain species 14 co-occurrence via ecological filtering. Here we aimed to understand how different 15 environmental gradients influence species richness, composition and functional diversity in 16 heterogeneous rainforests of Amazonia, using lizard assemblage data as a model. We sampled 17 14 sites composed of 2 main 5 km-long trails, parallel and separated by 1 km, containing five 18 250 m-long plots, distributed along 880 km along the interfluvial region between the Purus 19 and Madeira rivers, in southwestern Amazonia. We tested the general hypothesis that 20 climatic, edaphic and vegetation-cover variables cause variation in lizard assemblages along 21 the two ombrophylous forest types covering the region. We found that the environmental 22 heterogeneity covered by the sampled tropical forests predicts spatial structuring of lizard 23 assemblages. This finding is supported by distribution of taxonomic and functional diversity 24 measures across categorical (dense and open Ombrophylous forest) and continuous habitats 25 (biogeographical-scale environmental gradient and individual environmental variables). Our 26 results also highlight the importance of investigating a same assemblage dataset under 27 different dimensions of biodiversity for ecology and conservation, as well as the relevance of 28 this region as a model for community ecology studies over wider scales.

29 Key words: Brazil; environmental heterogeneity; reptiles; Squamata; tropical forest.

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32 PATTERNS OF SPECIES DISTRIBUTION AT WIDE SPATIAL SCALES, SUCH AS THE AMAZON BASIN, 33 ARE OFTEN DETERMINED BY historical processes acting on habitat dynamics and structure 34 (Wiens *et al.* 2011, Smith *et al.* 2014). At narrow scales (local), species distribution is 35 primarily limited by ecological processes and mechanisms, which may be quantified through 36 interactions with biotic and abiotic elements (Smith *et al.* 2014). Such interactions often 37 explain species co-occurrence via ecological filtering (Mahecha & Schmidtlein 2008, Drucker 38 *et al.* 2008, Boaratti & Silva 2015, Menger *et al.* 2017) or competition (Vitt *et al.* 2000, 39 Vernes *et al.* 2005, Santos *et al.* 2009), and they ultimately may cause speciation even in the 40 absence of conspicuous allopatric forces (DeFaveri *et al.* 2013). However, few studies have 41 determined the specific contribution of different processes to the organization biological of 42 assemblages. This is mainly due to the lack of spatially explicit data quantifying species 43 occurrence and abundance. Although many taxa appear to be widely distributed along tropical 44 regions, recent studies have shown that their regional distribution may be regionally limited 45 by ecological and historical factors (Dias-Terceiro *et al.* 2015, Moraes *et al.* 2016, Alves-46 Martins *et al.* 2019).

Large Amazonian rivers may play important roles on species diversification, because they interrupt or reduce gene flow (Cracraft 1985, Haffer 1997, Ron 2000). The isolation of organisms on one of the riversides makes interfluvial zones promising areas for endemism, on and consequently, opposite riversides represent distinct biogeographic units (Borges & Da Silva 2012, Juen & DeMarco-Jr 2012, Ribas *et al.* 2012). In addition, evolutionary processes and ecological dynamics acting in isolation between riversides have produced distinct habitats within each side, which may affect organism distribution and density, even in species (or complexes) for which the river does not limit distribution at wide scales (Ortiz *et al.* 2018). 56 random species distribution, even in the absence of conspicuous geographical barriers to 57 dispersal and gene flow.

Adaptation to local environmental conditions may be driven by a trade-off between 9 availability of vital resources for species, and the ability of species to exploit resources, 60 especially those related to foraging, breeding and thermoregulation (Silva & Araújo 2008). 61 Specifically for Amazonian lizards, high environmental heterogeneity may strongly influence 62 species distribution, because it determines variation in habitat quality along continuous 63 landscapes (Vitt & Carvalho, 1992). Gradients of canopy openness and light incidence 64 (Moraes 2008, Lobão 2008), tree density (Pinto 2006, Bittencourt 2008), leaf-litter depth 65 (Pinto 2006, Bittencourt 2008), prey availability (Lobão 2008, Moraes 2008), clay content in 66 the soil (Pinto 2006), terrain altitude and slope (Pinto 2006, Moraes 2008, Lobão 2008), and 67 distance from waterbodies (Faria et al. 2019) determine the availability of foraging, resting, 68 refuging and thermoregulating sites for distinct species subsets, and therefore structure 69 assemblages through environmental filtering. The relationship between environmental 70 gradients and local lizard assemblage composition may be strong enough that habitat 71 fragmentation changes assemblage composition (Bittencourt 2008).

On the other hand, for ectotherms such as lizards, the thermal quality of habitats is r3 essential for the maintenance of metabolic functions that support physiological functions such r4 as growth and embryonic development (Vitt *et al.* 1997). Therefore, habitat occupancy levels r5 are largely determined by fluctuation in temperature throughout a day or year (Karr & r6 Freemak 1983). In addition, precipitation influences the life history of lizards (Bock *et al.* r7 2009), in determining food supply (Yom-Tov & Geffen 2006, James & Shine 1988, Brandt & r8 Navas 2011). In fact, the use of climatic variables tends to gain importance in predicting

79 species distribution or investigating ecosystem functionality, especially within the context of 80 global climate change (Guisan *et al.* 2003, Costa *et al.* 2008, Rutschmann *et al.* 2016).

81 Ecosystem functionality is directly associated with local assemblage compositions, 82 and environmental changes reducing functional diversity or increasing levels of functional 83 redundancy imply a reduction in overall ecosystem functions (Naeem 1998). Therefore, 84 functional diversity measures are widely informative regarding assemblage structure and 85 habitat functionality, and consequently useful for decision-making in conservation. The 86 practice of grouping species through functional similarities is not new to community ecology 87 (Polis & Strong 1996). However, the development of the theme has generated methods of 88 measuring functional diversity through mathematical indexes that generate continuous metrics 89 instead of categorical species groups (Petchey & Gaston 2002, 2006). A drawback in 90 quantifying functional diversity based on functional groups is that new categorical levels must 91 be created as traits are added to the model, and one species may belong to more than one 92 group simultaneously. In contrast, one can use numerous functional traits measured as 93 different types of variables (e.g. continuous, binary) to quantify continuous functional 94 diversity, despite choosing how many and which traits are relevant to the study system is 95 often an arbitrary exercise (Petchey & Gaston 2006). Measuring continuous functional 96 diversity may be based on species pairwise dissimilarities in morphological (Resetarits & 97 Chalcraft 2007), physiological, behavioral, and dietary data (Chalcraft & Resetarits 2003, 98 Straub et al. 2010). Although poorly exploited, this approach has revealed important insights 99 into the structure of reptile assemblages (Powney et al. 2010, Rodrigues 2014, Berriozabal-100 Islas et al. 2017, Fraga et al. 2018), and the role of environmental heterogeneity on limiting 101 functional diversity (Fraga et al. 2018).

In the present study we aimed to understand how different environmental gradients influence species richness, composition and functional diversity in heterogeneous rainforests full of Amazonia, using lizard assemblage data as a model. We sampled 5 km² plot systems its distributed along 880 km along the interfluvial region between the Purus and Madeira rivers, in southwestern Amazonia. We test the general hypothesis that climatic (temperature and precipitation), edaphic (clay, sand and silt content in the soil) and vegetation-cover (number in southwestern Amazonia) variables cause variation in lizard assemblages along two major phytophysiognomies (open and closed ombrophylous forests) covering the region. We expect that the area covered by the sampling sites contain enough environmental heterogeneity so that the area covered by the sampling sites contain enough environmental heterogeneity so that sets of species and functional traits co-occurring are not randomly distributed across the that sets of species and functional traits co-occurring are not randomly distributed across the that sets of species and functional traits co-occurring are not randomly distributed across the that sets of species and functional traits co-occurring are not randomly distributed across the that sets of species and functional traits co-occurring are not randomly distributed across the that sets of species and functional traits co-occurring are not randomly distributed across the the sumplice species and functional traits co-occurring are not randomly distributed across the the sumplice species and functional traits co-occurring are not randomly distributed across the that sets of species and functional traits co-occurring are not randomly distributed across the that sets of species and functional traits co-occurring are not randomly distributed across the species and species and species and species and species and species across the species and species across the species across the species and species across the species across the s

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114**METHODS**

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STUDY AREA AND SAMPLING DESIGN. — Sampling sites are located along 880 km in 117 the interfluve between the Purus and Madeira rivers, within the *Inambari* endemism zone 118 (Ribas *et al.* 2012). The study area covers rainforests crossed by the BR-319 federal highway, 119 which connects Careiro da Várzea to Humaitá, in the state of Amazonas, and rainforests on 120 the west bank of the upper Madeira River, southwestern Amazonian Brazil (Rondônia state). 121 The topography of the region is relatively flat and low (30–60 m above sea level). According 122 to a classification proposed by the Brazilian Institute of Geography and Statistics (IBGE 123 1997), approximately 64.28% (n = 10) of the sampling sites were installed in areas covered by 124 Dense Ombrophylous Forest (DOF), and 35.71% (n = 5) sampling sites are within patches of 125 Open Ombrophylous Forest (OOF).

There are 15 sampling sites (here after modules) in the study area, but we did not 127 include one of them (M8) in the analyzes. We were not able to fully survey this module 128 during the rainy season, because some of the trails were flooded. The modules were installed 129 according to the RAPELD (Brazilian acronym for rapid survey plus long-term ecological 130 research) method (Magnusson *et al.* 2005, 2013). Each module is composed of two main 5 131 km-long trails, parallel and separated by 1 km. We sampled 10 modules along the BR-319, 132 and four modules on the west bank of the upper Madeira River (Fig. 1). Each module contains 133 ten 250 m-long plots, 10 m wide in each trail. The plots follow the altitudinal curves to 134 minimize environmental heterogeneity within plots. In this study we used modules as 135 sampling units, because environmental data were not available for all plots.

We collected data in August 2010 in the modules on the upper Madeira River, and 137 October to December 2010 in the modules along the BR-319. We found lizards using active 138 visual search (Campbell & Christman 1982) for 60 minutes per plot (average) with two 139 simultaneous observers, 10 m apart. Additionally, we improved sampling cryptic species (e.g. 140 Gymnophthalmidae, Alopoglossidae) by sweeping the leaf litter in a 1 m-wide lane from the 141 central line of the plot.

For species that are difficult to identify in the field, we collected a maximum of three 143 specimens. We killed them using a lidocaine-based anesthetic, fixed them in 10% 144 formaldehyde, and stored them in 70% ethanol. We deposited voucher specimens in the 145 collection of Amphibians and Reptiles of the Instituto Nacional de Pesquisas da Amazônia, 146 Manaus, Brazil (INPA-H). Collecting specimens was authorized by a permanent license 147 (RAN-ICMBio/IBAMA nº 13777-2/2008) granted to the expedition coordinator Albertina P. 148 Lima.

LIZARD ASSEMBLAGES. —We quantified lizard assemblages using four distinct 150 measures of alpha (species and functional richness) and beta diversity (assemblage 151 composition and dispersion of functional traits). We represented species richness by absolute 152 numbers of taxa per module (including *Plica umbra* subspecies). We estimated assemblage 153 composition by pairwise Bray-Curtis dissimilarities in taxa abundances. The dissimilarity 154 matrix was summarized by a Principal Coordinate Analysis (PCoA).

To quantify lizard assemblages based on functional traits, we used a functional 156 richness index (FRic) and a functional dispersion index (FDis), both implemented in the FD 157 R-package (Laliberté *et al.* 2014). We selected functional traits that potentially represent 158 interactions among lizards, biotic and abiotic habitat elements. We used morphometric traits 159 because they determine diet composition (e.g. prey type and size) and the use of habitats (Vitt 160 1991, Vitt *et al.* 1997). We used a digital caliper to measure snout-ventral length, head width, 161 head height, anterior limb length, and posterior limb length. We measured 5–15 individuals 162 per taxa and used average values to estimate functional richness and dispersion. We used 163 foraging mode (active, sedentary ambush, active ambush), because this trait reflects levels of 164 exposure to predators, feed frequency, and consequently defensive behavior and growth rates 165 (Vitt 1991). We used substrate type (terrestrial, arboreal) because this trait represents direct 166 interactions between species and the available habitats (Vitt *et al.* 2001). We obtained data on 167 foraging mode and substrate in the literature (Ávila-Pires 1995, Vitt *et al.* 2008).

We calculated Gower distances in the functional traits between paired taxa and used a 169 cluster analysis to visualize the dissimilarities among taxa in a dendrogram (Pavoine *et al.* 170 2009, 2011). We estimated functional richness (FRic) and dispersion (FDis) using the dbFD 171 function of the FD package (Laliberté *et al.* 2014), based on the sums of the branch lengths of 172 the functional tree (dendrogram) per module. The function returns four different indexes of 173 functional alpha and beta diversity, of which we used FRic as a measure of functional alpha
174 diversity, and FDis as a measure of functional beta diversity. Both measures have been
175 described as not biased by number of traits or outliers (Laliberté *et al.* 2014).

ENVIRONMENTAL GRADIENTS. — To estimate the effects of environmental ENVIRONMENTAL GRADIENTS. — To estimate the effects of environmental ENVIRONMENTAL GRADIENTS. — To estimate the effects of environmental Provide the event of the second seco

We also tested the influence of climate on each metric of lizard assemblage. We 186 obtained climatic variables from the WorldClim database (Hijmans *et al.* 2005). The data used 187 in this study comprised interpolated surfaces from mean values of 50 years period (1,950-188 2,000). To characterize climatic heterogeneity across the study area, we selected all 189 bioclimatic variables available in WorldClim, and we extracted values per centroid 190 geographic coordinates of each module using the DIVA-GIS software (Hijmans *et al.* 2012). 191 All bioclimatic variables were correlated (Pearson r > 0.6 in all cases). The mean 192 annual rainfall had greatest amplitude (1,930 to 2,624 mm), so we used it as a proxy for the 193 heterogeneity in precipitation along the study area (Table S1). Due to the multicollinearity 194 among the measured climatic variables, it was not possible to use them as independent 195 variables in multiple-parameter regression models. We chose to summarize all the 196 environmental heterogeneity measured using Principal Component Analysis (PCA). The first

197 axis of the PCA captured 91.3% of the original variance in the environmental data 198 (precipitation, basal area of the trees and clay content in the soil) and we used it as a 199 biogeographic gradient in the inferential analyzes.

To test differences in lizard assemblages between the main forest types sampled (DOF 201 and OOF) we used models of ANOVA, which were constructed with each of the assemblage 202 metrics (species richness, assemblage composition, FRic and FDis) as dependent variables, 203 and forest type as an independent categorical variable. Additionally, we used simple linear 204 regression models to test the influence of the biogeographic gradient summarizing 205 environmental heterogeneity on each of assemblage metrics, separately. To check the 206 consistency of the results, we also used simple linear regression models constructed with 207 assemblage measures as dependent variables, and each of the raw environmental gradients as 208 independent variables. All the models were validated by normally distributed residuals 209 (Shapiro-Wilk P > 0.05 in all cases), not spatially autocorrelated (Moran's I P > 0.05 in all 210 cases). All analyzes were performed in the R computer environment (R Core Team 2019).

212 RESULTS

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We found 27 taxa of 17 genera distributed in nine families (Table S2). The 215 Gymnophthalmidae family was the most taxa in the sample, represented by seven taxa. 216 Among the most frequently sampled species are *Norops fuscoauratus* (85% of the modules, *n* 217 = 12), *Chatogekko amazonicus* (78%, *n* = 11), and *Ameiva ameiva* (71%, *n* = 10). Taxa 218 richness varied from 4 to 13 (mean = 8.5) among modules.

The first PCoA axis captured 54% of the original dissimilarities among assemblage 220 composition. We found significant differences in the scores produced by the first PCoA axis 221 between forest types (ANOVA $F_{1,12} = 22.44$, P = 0.0004). This finding is graphically showed 222 in Fig. 2.

The biogeographic gradient summarizing correlated environmental variables explained 224 86% of the variation in assemblage composition ($F_{1,12} = 74.9$, P < 0.001, Fig. 3A). This 225 finding suggests that the environmental heterogeneity measured selects different species 226 subsets throughout the study area, which has caused continuous species turnover. The extreme 227 limits of the species turnover gradient are represented by the two sampled forest types (Fig. 228 3A). Although environmental heterogeneity caused species turnover, species richness was 229 randomly distributed along the biogeographic gradient (P < 0.37, Fig. 3B).

The simple linear regression models using each individual environmental variable 231 revealed that assemblage composition is primarily characterized by species turnover along the 232 gradient of basal area ($R^2 = 0.84$, $F_{1,12} = 64.12$, P < 0.001, residual error = 0.12), precipitation 233 ($R^2 = 0.84$, $F_{1,12} = 63.02$, P < 0.001, residual error = 0.12), and soil clay content ($R^2 = 0.68$, 234 $F_{1,12} = 25.70$, P < 0.001, residual error = 0.17). Although the environmental heterogeneity of 235 the study area is characterized by two distinct groups of modules that are consistent with the 236 forest types sampled, relationships between assemblage composition and environmental 237 variables can be demonstrated as continuous gradients of species turnover (Fig. 4). None of 238 the measured environmental variables returned significant effects on the richness (P > 0.16 in 239 all cases).

The patterns of species turnover caused by precipitation and basal area are 241 demonstrated by absence or low abundance of species at certain regions of the gradients (Fig. 242 5). For instance, nine species were restricted to modules with relatively small basal area (Fig. 243 5A). This result was expected for heliothermic species (e.g. *Hoplocercus spinosus*), which are 244 tolerant to the higher ultraviolet radiation in open forests. However, some of the species for 245 which distribution was restricted to these modules are not heliothermic (e.g. *Iphisa elegans*, 246 *Dactyloa punctata*), which suggests that environmental filtering associated to basal area does 247 not necessarily act on thermoregulation mode. The same species were restricted to modules 248 with relatively low levels of precipitation (Fig. 5B). This finding suggests lizard assemblages 249 structured by interactions between basal area and precipitation, although a larger proportion of 250 species has been widely distributed along the measured precipitation gradient.

The clustering by Gower dissimilarities in functional traits among paired species 252 revealed two main groups composed of arboreal and terrestrial species (Fig. 6). The group of 253 terrestrial species was subdivided by foraging mode. We found differences in FRic 254 values between forest types (ANOVA $F_{1,12} = 7.19$, P = 0.02). Modules in Dense 255 Ombrophilous Forest had less trait richness. Additionally, FRIc values were not randomly 256 distributed along modules (Fig. 7A), but negatively related ($R^2 = -0.35$, $F_{1,12} = 6.48$, P = 0.02, 257 residual error = 9.61) to the biogeographic gradient summarizing environmental 258 heterogeneity. However, these findings were not associated with significant turnover (FDis) in 259 functional diversity (Fig. 7B) between forest types (P = 0.21) or along the biogeographic 260 gradient (P = 0.17).

The simple-linear regression models returned FRic (Fig. 8A) values negatively 262 affected by basal area ($R^2 = -0.39$, $F_{1,10} = 7.81$, P = 0.01, residual error = 8.81) and 263 precipitation ($R^2 = -0.43$, $F_{1,12} = 9.63$, P < 0.001, residual error = 8.93), but not by soil clay 264 content (P = 0.15). The functional turnover rates were relatively low throughout the sampled 265 modules, which caused random variation in FDis values (Fig. 8B) along the gradients of soil 266 clay content (P = 0.29), basal area (P = 0.12) and precipitation (P = 0.40). 268 DISCUSSION

269

270 We found that the environmental heterogeneity covered by the Purus-Madeira 271 interfluve predicts spatial structuring of lizard assemblages. This finding is supported by non-272 random distribution of taxonomic and functional diversity measures across categorical (dense 273 and open Ombrophylous forest) and continuous habitats (biogeographic gradient and 274 individual environmental variables). Interestingly, assemblages defined in the taxonomic 275 dimension were only structured by dissimilarities among paired modules (beta diversity), 276 whereas assemblages defined in the functional dimension were only structured by the 277 absolute-trait richness per module (alpha diversity). These findings suggest that the regional 278 lizard diversity is defined by environmental filtering causing species turnover along the 279 landscape, and selection of functional trait subsets that are nested within the global trait 280 diversity. Although large Amazonian rivers are commonly reported as vicariant barriers 281 promoting biodiversity in Amazonia (Haffer 1997, Simões et al. 2008, Antonelli et al. 2010, 282 Ribas et al. 2012, Smith et al. 2014, Boubli et al. 2015), we showed the relevance of 283 environmental gradients as predictors of multi-taxa organism distribution, even in the absence 284 of conspicuous vicariance. Our results also support the importance of investigating a same 285 assemblage dataset under different dimensions of biodiversity for ecology and conservation 286 (see Fraga et al. 2018).

Although most of the species sampled in this study are widely distributed across Although most of the species sampled in this study are widely distributed across Ribeiro-Júnior 2016), they were regionally restricted to optimal habitat types or fractions of environmental gradients. Lizard species turnover along environmental gradients has been

291 demonstrated in different regions of the Amazon, specially related to distance from water 292 courses (Pinto 2006, Moraes *et al.* 2016, Faria *et al.* 2019). However, the ecological models 293 tested in such studies were usually set up to quantify environmental heterogeneity by multiple 294 independent variables. Such an approach assumes certain levels of covariance among multiple 295 environmental variables, which may be useful to control for the effects of covariates on the 296 estimated assemblage composition. Here we demonstrated that patterns of lizard spatial 297 structure may also be captured by reducing multivariate environmental heterogeneity in a 298 single independent variable (biogeographic gradient represented by the first axis of a PCA). 299 Despite the slight loss of information due to the forced dimensionality reduction, our findings 300 suggest that species-habitat associations based on multiple environmental variables may be 301 detected even by models that do not assume covariance.

By testing simple linear regression models, we found species turnover along a gradient 303 of soil clay content. This is assumed as an indirect effect, because soil texture affects 304 invertebrate prey density and water retention (Woinarski *et al.* 1999, Menger *et al.* 2017). In 305 the Amazon, soils with higher clay content have been associated with shallower groundwater 306 (Schietti *et al.*2014), which may contribute to the pattern of co-occurrence of the species 307 locally. Additionally, we found species turnover along basal area gradients and precipitation. 308 The vegetation structure for the lizards is directly responsible for the supply of microhabitats 309 and availability of food, besides acting for the regulation of the air temperature, and affecting 310 the direct solar incidence in the forests (Silva & Araújo 2008), able to influence demographic 311 patterns in assemblages. These thermo-regulatory requirements are important for the 312 physiological processes in tropical lizards, because they maintain several biological aspects of 313 the species (Huey & Slatkin, 1976, Bergallo & Rocha, 1993, Ortega & Pérez-Mellado 2016, 314 Pontes *et al.* 2018). Precipitation, however, is almost never approached in the studies of the 315 spatial structure of assemblages of Amazonian lizards (Vitt 1991, Pinto 1999), but it is also an
316 important factor for the climatic conditions of the environment, necessary for
317 thermoregulation of the species, apart from contributing to the food niche, by influencing the
318 increase of essential invertebrates for the diet of several species (Woinarski *et al.* 1999,
319 Rutschmann *et al.* 2016).

We found significant effects of the biogeographic gradient measured on the functional We found significant effects of the biogeographic gradient measured on the functional trait richness. This finding was supported by negative relationships between FRic with basal area and precipitation, although they were not associated with trait turnover along the study area. These findings suggest that dense and very rainy forests contain functionally area. These findings suggest that dense and very rainy forests contain functionally area assemblages. Relatively low trait richness suggesting regional filtering of aredundant functional traits. In contrast, relatively open and less rainy forests had higher trait area richness, is usually associated with minor effects of competition, through competitive area exclusion, since the available habitats allow the establishment of functionally redundant species (Petchey *et al.* 2007, Straub *et al.* 2010). The influence of such processes changes area aross environmental gradients, where the environmental filtering will exert more influence in and more stressful environmental. Future studies should focus on the explicit effects of an and interaction between environmental conditions and competition on the regional distribution of area functional traits.

Functional traits reflect environmental requirements and tolerances and are responsible 34 for directly influencing the success of foraging, escape ability, predation, and reproductive 335 aspects of the species (Dobson & Michener, 1995, Chown *et al.* 2004). Comparative studies 336 among body, behavioral and habitat characteristics have been reported for a long time in the 337 literature (Vitt *et al.* 1997, Caldwell & Vitt 1999). In our study, rainfall gradients and basal area 338 were efficient environmental filters to predict changes in the species' functional richness.

339 Open Ombrophylous forest environments have lower forest densities and rainfall averages,
340 and tend to select larger numbers of heliothermic, terrestrial species with larger hind limbs
341 capable of improving race performance in more exposed habitats (Silva & Araújo 2008).
342 Differently, more densely forested environments, with high annual precipitation, or subject to
343 periodic flooding, result in forests with denser and stratified canopy, and provide more stable
344 microenvironment for the arboreal or non-heliothermic species (Magnuson & Silva 1993).
345 Body size and shape are also characteristics that determine the permanence of the species in
346 the different habitats (Rickefs & Travis 1980): thinner and longer bodies (e.g., *Anolis* lizards)
347 are associated with the finer branches, whereas for trees with larger trunks the bodies are
348 more robust and flattened (e.g., *Plica* lizards) (Vitt *et al.* 2008).

Habitat disturbance is one important anthropogenic factor that influence ecosystems for resulting in changes in environmental structure and biotic composition (Hobbs *et al.* 2009), finally in tropical forests that harbor an exceptionally high diversity. The Amazon has been structure from these anthropic impacts, whether through fragmentation, deforestation or state and use and land cover (Val & Marcovitch 2019), which tends to the imminent state and soft species. Although habitat conservation is an important factor, knowledge of species distribution and coexistence is essential for conservation mitigation measures (Roll *et al.* state 2017, Magnuson *et al.* 2016). For the Amazonian lizards the high phenotypic conservatism, for intraspecific polymorphism, and low detection probabilities, hinders the true limits of state of the species (Fouquet *et al.* 2015, Ribeiro-Júnior & Amaral 2016). For the state Interfluve different structural aspects of the environment define the alto heterogeneity of habitats (Ximenes, 2008). This scenario consists of an opportunity to alto understand the patterns of distribution of lizards and the relation of these patterns to the life shorty traits of each species, since for environmental characteristics it has a strong influence

363 in limiting the distribution in this group (Costa *et al.* 2008), especially when we associate
364 diverse measures of diversity, capable of measuring the maintenance of ecosystem processes
365 that operate in long periods (Devictor *et al.* 2010, Fraga *et al.* 2018).

In summary, our study was pioneer in evaluate the wide-scale environmental effects 367 on Amazonian lizard assemblages and identify that the structural complexity along a 368 biogeographic gradient have a significant impact on the composition and richness of 369 functional characteristics of lizards. Environmental filters related to edaphic, vegetation and 370 rainfall gradients along the region of the Purus-Madeira influence the species turnover, and 371 determine the differences found between assemblages in the open and dense ombrophilous 372 forests. Finally, this study reinforces the relevance of the studied area for species conservation 373 and management. Future studies on this scale might elucidate patterns of coexistence and 374 distribution of species of Amazonian organisms and their associations to the environment 375 along continuous forests.

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642 Tables

643Table S1 Environmental variables used as proxy for the wide-scale biogeographic644 gradient. Minimum and maximum values for each site along the Purus-Madeira interfluve.

Sampling Modules	Soil clay contente (µm)	Tree basal área (m²/há)	Annual Precipitation (mm)
M-1	11.5 – 29.3	19.9 - 25.32	2156
M-2	13.25 - 21.25	25.41 - 33.12	2170
M-3	18.45 - 31.5	22.0 - 31.97	2272
M-4	12.31 - 30.23	28.6-36.84	2410
M-5	10.5 - 14.5	27.95 - 38.9	2609
M-6	39.06 - 47.74	29.71 - 34.86	2624
M-7	13.5 - 28.7	30.93 - 35.83	2589
M-9	19 – 26	30.88 - 32.77	2556
M-10	11.75 – 14	27.8 - 32.53	2437
M-11	12.5 - 22.75	24.65 - 30.63	2270
M-12	62.2 - 70.4	10.34 - 17.46	2067.25
M-13	59.2 - 72.3	12.44 - 26.72	2004
M-14	49.2 - 54	13.5 - 20.47	1970
M-15	50.55 -68.89	13.8 - 27.1	1930
	Sampling M-1 M-2 M-3 M-4 M-5 M-6 M-7 M-9 M-10 M-11 M-12 M-13 M-14 M-15	Sampling ModulesSoil clay contente (µm)M-111.5 – 29.3M-213.25 – 21.25M-318.45 – 31.5M-412.31 – 30.23M-510.5 – 14.5M-639.06 – 47.74M-713.5 – 28.7M-919 – 26M-1011.75 – 14M-1112.5 – 22.75M-1262.2 – 70.4M-1359.2 – 72.3M-1449.2 – 54M-1550.55 –68.89	Sampling ModulesSoil clay contente (µm)Tree basal área (m²/há)M-111.5 - 29.319.9 - 25.32M-213.25 - 21.2525.41 - 33.12M-318.45 - 31.522.0 - 31.97M-412.31 - 30.2328.6 - 36.84M-510.5 - 14.527.95 - 38.9M-639.06 - 47.7429.71 - 34.86M-713.5 - 28.730.93 - 35.83M-919 - 2630.88 - 32.77M-1011.75 - 1427.8 - 32.53M-1112.5 - 22.7524.65 - 30.63M-1262.2 - 70.410.34 - 17.46M-1359.2 - 72.312.44 - 26.72M-1449.2 - 5413.5 - 20.47M-1550.55 - 68.8913.8 - 27.1

668 Table S2 List of lizard taxa found along the Purus-Madeira Interfluve. OOF= Open 669 Ombrophilous Forest, and DOF= Dense Ombrophilous Forest.

Family/Taxa	DOF	OOF
ALOPOGLOSSIDAE		
Alopoglossus angulatus (Linnaeus, 1758)	-	+
Alopoglossus atriventris (Duellman, 1973)	+	-
DACTYLOIDAE		
Norops fuscoauratus D'Orbigny, 1837	+	+
Norops ortonii Cope, 1868	+	+
Dactyloa punctatus Daudin, 1802	+	+
Norops tandai Ávila-Pires, 1995	+	-
Dactyloa transversalis Duméril, 1851	+	+
GYMNOPHTHALMIDAE		
Arthrosaura reticulata (O'Shaughnessy, 1881)	+	-
Cercosaura argula (Peters, 1863)	+	+
Cercosaura ocellata (Wagler, 1830)	-	+
Iphisa elegans (Gray, 1851)	-	+
Loxopholis osvaldoi Ávila-Pires, 1995	+	-
Loxopholis percarinatum Müller, 1923	+	-
Tretioscincus agilis (Ruthven, 1916)	-	+
HOPLOCERCIDAE		
Hoplocercus spinosus (Fitzinger, 1843)	-	+

ΡΗΥΙΙΟΝΑΟΤΥΙΙΝΑΕ		
Thecadactylus solimoensis Bergmann and Russell, 2007	-	+
SCINCIDAE		
Copeoglossum nigropunctatum (Spix, 1825)	+	+
Varzea bistriata (Spix, 1825)	+	-
SPHAERODACTYLIDAE		
Chatogekko amazonicus (Andersson, 1918)	+	+
Gonatodes hasemani (Griffin, 1917)	-	+
Gonatodes humeralis (Guichenot, 1855)	+	+
TEIIDAE		
Ameiva ameiva (Linnaeus, 1758)	+	+
Kentropyx altamazonica (Cope, 1876)	+	+
Kentropyx pelviceps (Cope, 1868)	+	+
TROPIDURIDAE		
Plica umbra ochrocollaris (Linnaeus, 1758)	+	+
Plica umbra umbra (Linnaeus, 1758)	+	-
Uranoscodon superciliosus (Linnaeus,1758)	+	+

678 Figure legends

679

680 FIGURE 1. Sampling RAPELD modules along the BR-319 federal highway (M1–M11) and 681 the upper Madeira River (M12–M15). The module M8 (in red) was not sampled because it 682 was flooded during the rainy season. Different colors show patches of natural or 683 anthropogenic landscapes, as detailed in the inset legend.

684

685 FIGURE 2. Lizard assemblage composition based on abundance data from 14 sampling 686 modules installed in the Purus-Madeira interfluve, southwestern Amazonian Brazil. 687 Assemblage composition was summarized by the first two axes of a Principal Coordinates 688 Analysis (PCoA) applied on a Bray-Curtis pairwise dissimilarities matrix. Note the 689 segregation in assemblage composition between Open Ombrophilous Forest (light blue 690 circles), and Dense Ombrophilous Forest (dark blue circles).

691

692 FIGURE 3. Relationship between the biogeographic gradient summarizing environmental 693 variables as a PCA axis and lizard assemblage composition (A) and taxa richness (B) sampled 694 in 14 modules along the Purus-Madeira intefluve, southwestern Amazonian Brazil. Light blue 695 circles = Open Ombrophilous Forest; dark blue circles = Dense Ombrophilous Forest.

696

697 FIGURE 4. Relationship between environmental variables and lizard assemblage composition 698 summarized by the first axis of a PCoA applied on Bray-Curtis dissimilarities among paired 699 sampling modules along the Purus-Madeira interfluve, Amazonia. Light blue circles = Open 700 Ombrophilous Forest; dark blue circles = Dense Ombrophilous Forest.

702 FIGURE 5. Ordination of 5 km² sampling modules along gradients of tree basal area (A) and 703 annual precipitation (B) in southwertern Amazonia. The height of the rectangles denotes 704 abundance of lizard individuals per taxon.

705

706 FIGURE 6. Clustering of Gower dissimilarities in functional traits of lizards sampled in 14
707 modules along the Purus-Madeira interfluve, southwestern Amazonia. The blue circle
708 represents the first division of terrestrial and arboreal species. The circle in red shows a
709 second division for the terrestrial species between the species of active foragers and ambush.
710

711 FIGURE 7. Relationships between lizard (A) functional richness (FRic) and (B) functional
712 dispersion (FDis) with a biogeographic gradient summarizing climatic and vegetation cover
713 variables in a PCA axis. Light blue circles = Open Ombrophilous Forest; dark blue circles =
714 Dense Ombrophilous Forest.

715

716 FIGURE 8. Relationships between lizard functional richness (FRic) and functional dispersion
717 (FDis) and environmental gradients measured in 14 sampling modules along the Purus718 Madeira interfluve, southwestern Amazonia. Light blue circles = Open Ombrophilous Forest,
719 dark blue circles = Dense Ombrophilous Forest.

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Figures















Biogeographic gradient



Capítulo 3

Gabriela Marques Peixoto; Rafael de Fraga; Maria C. Araújo; Igor Luis Kaefer; Albertina Pimentel Lima. Hierarchical effects of historical and environmental factors on lizard assemblages in the upper Madeira river, Amazonian Brazil. Manuscrito submetido para a *PloS One*.

1	Hierarchical effects of historical and environmental factors on
2	lizard assemblages in the upper Madeira river Amazonian
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3	Brazil
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6	Gabriela Marques Peivoto ^{1*¶} Rafael de Fraga ² ¶ Maria C. Araúio ¹ ¶ Igor Luis Kaefer ^{1,3} ¶
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31 Abstract

32 Investigating the role of historical and ecological factors structuring assemblages is relevant to understand mechanisms and processes affecting biodiversity across heterogeneous 33 34 habitats. Considering that community assembly often involves scale-dependent processes, different spatial scales may reveal distinct factors structuring assemblages. In this study we use 35 lizard abundance data from 83 plots to investigate assemblage spatial structure at two distinct 36 37 scales in southwestern Amazonian Brazil. At a regional scale, we test the general hypothesis that the Madeira River acts as a barrier to dispersal of some lizard species, which results in 38 distinct assemblages between river banks. At a local scale, we test the hypothesis that 39 40 assemblages are not evenly distributed across heterogeneous habitats but respond to a continuum of inadequate-to-optimal portions of environmental gradients. Our results show that 41 42 regional lizard assemblages are structured by the upper Madeira River acting as barrier to 29.62% of the species sampled. This finding suggests species have been historically isolated at 43 44 one of the river banks, although the strength of the barrier may depend on the regional shape of 45 the river. At a local scale, different sets of environmental gradients affected assemblage composition between river banks or even within a river bank. These findings indicate that 46 environmental filtering is a major cause of lizard assemblage spatial structure in the upper 47 48 Madeira River, but predictor variables cannot be generalized over the study area. Based on a single study system we demonstrate that lizard assemblages along the forests near the banks of 49 50 the upper Madeira River are not randomly structured but respond to multiple factors acting at 51 different and hierarchical spatial scales.

52

55 Introduction

Investigating historical and ecological factors structuring assemblages may reveal 56 patterns of biodiversity distribution across time and space [1,2]. However, defining mechanisms 57 58 and processes that potentially affect assemblage structure is often highly dependent on the spatial scale applied [3-5]. Such dependence results from the fact that assemblage composition 59 (e.g. taxonomic diversity) is influenced by complex hierarchical interactions among processes 60 61 that operate at multiple spatio-temporal scales [6]. In highly heterogeneous habitats such as the Amazonian tropical rainforests the relative contribution of historical and ecological processes 62 to assemblage structuring is poorly understood for many taxa, mainly because multi-scale 63 ecological approaches depend on standardized sampling systems, which have been specifically 64 65 designed for such purpose [e.g. 7-12]. Regarding lizards, poor knowledge on assemblage 66 structure also results from lack of refined data on individual species distribution [13], despite few unpublished studies have shown assemblage spatial structure defined by environmental 67 heterogeneity [e.g. 14-16]. 68

At broad spatial scales (e.g. Amazon Basin), it has been suggested that many organisms 69 70 are restrictedly distributed by their inability to cross large rivers. From the classic studies of 71 Alfred R. Wallace on primate distribution across the Amazon Basin [e.g. 17], it has been known 72 that the Amazon River and some of its main tributaries (e.g. Madeira, Negro) may be important biogeographic barriers to dispersal. Testing the Wallace's hypothesis has revealed the riverine 73 74 barrier as a major factor explaining limited distribution of plants [18], birds [19-22], frogs [23,12], primates [24,25] and spiny rats [26]. Additionally, studies have shown that gene flow 75 reduced or blocked by a riverine barrier may cause genotypic and phenotypic divergence in 76

Amazonia [27-29]. Specifically for lizards, riverine barriers may cause intraspecific genetic
divergence [27], although they do not necessarily produce different morphotypes [30].
Interspecifically, species distribution regionally limited to a single river bank may cause distinct
assemblage compositions between banks [12,31].

81 At local scales, environmental gradients may affect species occurrence and abundance 82 due to the filter effect of the spatial variation in habitat suitability [32,33]. In general, it is 83 expected that habitat-specialist species find inadequate-to-optimum continuums of 84 environmental conditions for survival and reproduction [34]. Environmental filtering has been 85 found in Amazonia for plants [35,36], frogs [37,38], birds [39,40], snakes [41,42] and lizards 86 [43,15]. For the latter, local assemblages may differ due to variation in individual abundance or species turnover along gradients of distance from water courses [44,31], elevation [45], 87 climate seasonality [46], and number of trees [47,43]. Additionally, lizard assemblages may be 88 89 indirectly structured by species turnover along gradients of canopy openness affecting the 90 availability of thermoregulation sites [48,49], understory-plant density affecting the availability 91 of foraging sites for perching species [50], and clay content in the soil affecting plant composition and food availability [43]. 92

93 Integrating multiple spatial scales is relevant to estimating simultaneous effects of 94 historical and ecological factors on assemblage structure, especially in heterogeneous habitats 95 such as rainforests in Amazonia [51]. However, designing a sampling system which is efficient 96 to quantify assemblages and habitats at multiple scales may be challenging. The RAPELD [1] 97 method (Brazilian acronym for rapid sampling plus long-term ecological research) has been shown to be efficient for this purpose in the region of the upper Madeira River [13], due to (i) 98 the adequate distribution of plot sets (5 km² each) so that hypotheses based on the effects of 99 100 historical factors on regional assemblages may be tested (e.g. riverine barriers), and (ii) the

plots following altitudinal contours reduce within-plot environmental variation, which allows them to be assumed as environmental units to test hypotheses based on environmental filtering [1]. The rationale behind testing such hypotheses in southwestern Amazonia is that the Madeira River has been recognized as a barrier to dispersal of Squamata reptiles, which causes species turnover along a longitudinal gradient [52], and the region covers two endemism zones (Rondônia e Inambari) that are distinct regarding geological history and environmental heterogeneity [53].

108 In this study we use plot-based lizard abundance data from the upper Madeira River 109 (southwestern Amazonian Brazil) to investigate patterns of assemblage structure at two distinct 110 spatial scales. At a regional scale, we test the hypothesis that lizard assemblages differ between 111 the river banks. We expect differences in species composition and abundance as a consequence 112 of the Madeira River historically limiting lizard dispersal. At local scale, we test the hypothesis 113 that environmental heterogeneity causes species turnover, because species are absent or occur 114 at low densities in suboptimal portions of environmental gradients. Specifically, we quantify 115 the filtering effects on lizard abundance driven by gradients of number of trees, soil nutrient 116 composition, shrub density, elevation, clay and sand content in the soil, and distance from the 117 river bank. We expect that analyzing assemblages from two distinct perspectives will provide us with deep insights into factors that cause and maintain biodiversity at megadiverse regions 118 119 such as the upper Madeira River.

120 Materials and methods

121 Study area

122 The study area is located near the banks of the upper Madeira River (centroid 123 coordinates 08°48004.0″ S; 63°56059.8″ W), from the outskirts of Porto Velho (Rondônia state) to about 600 km upriver, in the southwestern portion of Brazilian Amazonia. We also surveyed
plots near the Jaci Paraná River, a tributary on the east bank of the upper Madeira River (Fig
1).

127

Fig 1. Location of the upper Madeira River, state of Rondônia, Brazil. Five km² sampling modules (circles) near the banks. Gray circles show modules in the Inambari endemism zone, blue circles are modules in the Rondônia endemism zone [according to 20]. The acronyms summarize sampling modules' local names: TO = Teotônio, IB = Ilha dos Búfalos, IP = Ilha das Pedras, JL = East Jirau, JR = West Jirau, JP = Jaci-Paraná, MO = Morrinhos. In detail on the left side, the standard configuration of each module, with 14 plots (squares), 250 m-long each, distributed along a gradient of distance from the river bank (0–5,000 m).

135

136 In this study we quantified environmental heterogeneity as continuous gradients that may be broadly classified for descriptive purposes in three main habitat types. They mainly 137 differ in canopy height, soil texture, and understory-plant density and species composition 138 [following 54]. In the upland (terra-firme) forests habitats are never flooded by overflowing 139 140 large rivers, the canopy is 30 m high, and the understory-plant density and clay content in the 141 soil often depends on elevation [55]. The várzea forests are seasonally flooded by overflowing 142 sediment-rich rivers, which produces nutrient-rich soils that are water-saturated for long 143 periods. The canopy is 20 m high, and the understory is rich in bromeliads. The campinaranas 144 are patches of palm tree-rich forests growing on a white-sand soil, which is highly drained and 145 nutrient-poor [54].

The climate of the study area is tropical humid, with annual average temperature at 25.5
°C and average precipitation at 2,287 mm [56]. Precipitation is distributed throughout the year

in well-marked dry (May to September) and rainy (October to April) seasons. During the dryseason, small streams can dry completely [56].

150 Sampling design

We collected lizard abundance data in seven 5 km² RAPELD sampling sites (hereinafter 151 152 modules), that were installed perpendicularly to the river bank. RAPELD [1] is a modification 153 of the Gentry's sampling method based on 1-ha plots [57], with the main difference being that 154 the RAPELD plot central lines follow the altitudinal curves to reduce environmental variation 155 within plots (PPBio - http://ppbio.inpa.gov.br). We sampled three modules on the east bank of 156 the Madeira River (East-Jirau, Jaci-Paraná and Morrinhos), and four modules on the west bank 157 (West-Jirau, Ilha das Pedras, Ilha dos Búfalos and Teotônio). The average distance between neighboring modules was 120 km. Each RAPELD module was composed of two 5-km long 158 parallel trails, separated by 1 km. We surveyed seven 250 m plots (20 m wide) on each trail, 159 160 totaling 98 plots (14 plots in each of the seven modules). The plots were distributed along a gradient of distance from the river bank, at 0, 500, 1000, 2000, 3000, 4000 and 5000 m. 161

We were not able to find lizards in 15 plots, and the excess of zeros in the dataset prevented us to reliably estimate pairwise distances among plots to summarize assemblage composition (see Data analysis). Therefore, we excluded zero-valued plots and our analyzes are based on 83 plots.

166 Sampling effort

We sampled each plot in four different periods (24 February to 26 April 2010, July 30 to August 19 2010, November 5 to 26 2010, and January 13 to February 4 2011) to cover large portions of the regional variation in temperature and precipitation along a year. We used species' maximum abundance values per plot in the analyzes. We found lizards using active visual search, with two simultaneous observers positioned 172 10 m apart. In addition, we supplemented the sampling effort by sweeping the leaf litter and 173 removing debris in a 2 m strip following the center line of the plot. This approach was 174 particularly useful to increase the efficiency of sampling fossorial and leaf-litter species (e.g. 175 Alopoglossidae, Gymnophthalmidae). The searching time in each plot varied between 40 and 176 60 minutes.

177 Environmental variables

178 We measured eight environmental gradients in each plot, attempting to quantify spatial heterogeneity in habitat quality. We quantified vegetation structure by measuring (i) number of 179 trees and (ii) shrub density. Those gradients potentially affect squamates abundance by 180 influencing availability of foraging, resting and thermoregulation sites [58-60]. We also 181 182 measured edaphic gradients related to soil texture, fertility, and flat-level deviation, which are 183 (iii) clay content, (iv) sand content, (v) nutrient composition (Soil pH, Calcium, Magnesium, 184 Potassium, Zinc and exchangeable Aluminum), (vi) elevation, and (vii) terrain declivity. Those 185 variables potentially affect lizard abundance by causing variation in the overall primary 186 production [61] and availability of invertebrate prey [62]. Additionally, we measured (viii) 187 distance from the river bank, because it has been found as a major factor structuring plant [36] and animal [31,38,39,41] assemblages in Amazonia. The methods used to measure each 188 189 gradient are described in detail in Appendix 1.

190 **Data analysis**

To quantify assemblage composition, we applied the Bray-Curtis index to estimate pairwise distances in species abundance among plots. We reduced dimensionalities using Principal Coordinate Analysis (PCoA) and represented assemblage composition by the first one or two axes produced (see below). At regional scale (riverine barrier effects) we modeled the PCoA using all data (83 plots). The two first axes captured 30% (PCoA 1 = 16%. PCoA 2 = 14%) of the original variance in species abundance, and we used them to represent assemblage composition. To assess assemblage structuring, we used Multivariate Analysis of Variance MANOVA to test differences in assemblage composition (PCoA axes 1 and 2) between the river banks. We implemented a MANOVA using the vegan [63] R-package [64].

201 Analyzes at regional scale revealed two distinct lizard assemblages between the river 202 banks (see Results). In addition, preliminary analyzes at local scale revealed that in two modules 203 (Ilha das Pedras and East Jirau) environmental gradients may affect assemblage composition in 204 opposite directions compared to the other modules (S2 and S3 Fig). These findings suggested 205 that the banks of the Madeira River and some of the sampling modules within a river bank are 206 distinct environmental units, which contain distinct spatial structures of lizard assemblage 207 composition. Therefore, to assess assemblage structure at local scale we modeled four distinct 208 PCoA ordinations, using data from (i) the west bank, except for the module Ilha das Pedras (37 plots), which captured 86% of the original variance (PCoA 1 = 0.50, PCoA 2 = 0.36); (ii) the 209 210 east bank, except for the module East Jirau (23 plots), which captured 45% of the original 211 variance (PCoA 1 = 0.30, PCoA 2 = 0.15); (iii) the module Ilha das Pedras (12 plots), which 212 captured 45% of the original variance (PCoA 1 = 0.32, PCoA 2 = 0.13); and (iv) the module 213 East Jirau (11 plots), which captured 85% of the original variance (PCoA 1 = 0.49, PCoA 2 =214 0.36).

The environmental gradients measured are expressed in different units and therefore in different orders of magnitude, so we transformed them using the "scale" function of the vegan R-package. This function subtracts mean values from each variable and scales centralized variables by dividing them by their standard deviation [63]. We used Mixed Linear Models to 219 test the effects of scaled environmental gradients on assemblage composition based on data 220 from multiple sampling modules. By using this method, we were able to include sampling 221 modules as random effects to minimize potential abrupt differences in environmental gradients and lizard assemblages among the modules analyzed in a same model [65]. We set up two 222 223 different groups of mixed models, according to the assemblage compositions summarized by PCoA for the west and east banks of the Madeira River. Each group was composed of as many 224 225 models as necessary to test all possible combinations of environmental gradients, except for 226 those that were highly correlated. For instance, clay and sand content in the soil were not used 227 in a same model because they were highly correlated on both river banks ($r \ge 0.93$). In addition, elevation was correlated with terrain declivity on both river banks ($r \ge 0.78$) and soil-nutrient 228 229 composition on the east bank (r = 0.66).

For the two modules that were analyzed separately (Ilha das Pedras and East Jirau), it was not necessary to control random effects of sampling sites, so we tested the effects of environmental gradients on the assemblage composition using multiple linear regression models. We tested models with assemblage composition (PCoA 1) as dependent variable, and all possible combinations of uncorrelated environmental gradients as independent variables.

To select the most parsimonious mixed-effects and multiple-regression models we ranked all the models by the Akaike's Information Criterion corrected for few parameters [66]. We refined the model selection by penalizing nested models assuming $\Delta AICc < 2$ as a cut-off point. All selected models were validated by normal distribution of residuals (Shapiro-Wilk W > 0.95, P > 0.05 in all cases).

For visually checking the distribution of lizard abundance values per species along river banks and environmental gradients (only those that significantly affected assemblage composition) we plotted ordinated sampling plots. These graphs will be used in this study for 243 assessing how spread the distributions of abundance values are over the river banks and the 244 environmental heterogeneity measured.

245

RESULTS 246

247 We found 27 lizard species, which are classified in 18 genera and 10 families. The most frequently found species were Norops fuscoarautus (Dactyloidae), Gonatodes humeralis 248 249 (Sphaerodactylidae), and Ameiva ameiva (Teiidae), which occurred in both banks of the Madeira River, in 55, 49 and 30% of the plots respectively. Contrarily, Alopoglossus angulatus 250 251 (Alopoglossidae) and Enyalius leechii (Leiosauridae) were found in one single plot (Table 1).

252

Table 1. List of lizard species sampled in the upper Madeira River, Brazil. N = total 253

254 abundance per species, East and West = Madeira river banks filled with presence (1) and

Family/Species	Ν	East	West	
Dactyloidae				
Norops fuscoauratus (D'Orbigny, 1847)	103	1	1	
Norops tandai (Wagler, 1830)	2	0	1	
Norops ortonii (Cope, 1869)	2	1	1	
Dactyloa punctata (Daudin, 1802)	27	1	1	
Dactyloa transversalis (Dumeril, 1851)	9	0	1	
Alopoglossidae				
Alopoglossus angulatus (Linnaeus, 1758)	2	0	1	
Gymnophthalmidae				
Arthrosaura reticulata (O'Shaughnessy, 1881)	5	1	0	
Cercosaura argula (Peters, 1863)	5	1	1	
Cercosaura eigenmanni (Griffin, 1917)	11	1	1	
Cercosaura bassleri (Ruibal, 1952)	8	0	1	
Iphisa elegans (Gray, 1851)	8	1	1	
Loxopholis percarinatum (Muller, 1923)	10	1	1	
Hoplocercidae				
	·	1	83	

255 absence (0) data.

Enyalioides laticeps (Guichenot, 1855)	3	1	1
Hoplocercus spinosus (Fitzinger, 1843)	2	1	1
Leiosauridae			
Enyalius leechii (Boulenger,1885)	2	1	0
Scincidae			
Copeoglossum nigropunctatum (Spix, 1825)	14	1	1
Phyllodactylidae			
Thecadactylus rapicauda (Houttuyn, 1782)	21	1	1
Sphaerodactylidae			
Chatogekko amazonicus (Andersson, 1918)	12	1	1
Gonatodes hasemani (Griffin, 1917)	29	1	1
Gonatodes humeralis (Guichenot, 1855)	432	1	1
Teiidae			
Kentropyx altamazonica (Cope, 1876)	14	1	1
Kentropyx calcarata (Spix, 182)	37	1	0
Kentropyx pelviceps (Cope, 1868)	29	0	1
Ameiva ameiva (Linnaeus, 1758)	48	1	1
Tropiduridae			
Plica plica (Linnaeus, 1758)	7	1	1
Plica umbra ochrocollaris (Spix, 1825)	21	1	1
Uranoscodon superciliosus (Linnaeus, 758)	5	1	1
Total	868		

256

257 Regional assemblage structuring - Madeira River as a biogeographic barrier

258 We found 19 species on both banks of the Madeira River, which is equivalent to 70.37% of the total diversity sampled. This finding suggests that most of the species sampled are widely 259 distributed throughout the study area. However, for several of the species found on both sides 260 261 of the river (e.g. Loxopholis percarinatum, Kentropyx altamazonica, Cercosaura eigenmanni, 262 Plica plica, Uranoscodon superciliosus, Copeoglossum nigropunctatum), plot-related 263 frequency and abundance were not even between the river banks (Fig 2). Additionally, five species (18.52%) were restricted to the west bank - Alopoglossus angulatus, Norops tandai, 264 265 Dactyloa transversalis, Cercosaura bassleri and Kentropyx pelviceps, and three species 266 (11.11%) were restricted to the east bank -Arthrosaura reticulata, Kentropyx calcarata e *Enyalius leechii*. These findings suggest two distinct assemblage compositions delimited by the Madeira River, which is strongly supported by differences in the PCoA scores (based on 83 plots) between the river banks (MANOVA Pillai Trace = 0.315, $F_{1-81} = 18.40$, P <0.001).

270

Fig 2. Plots ordinated according to their position on the upper Madeira River (west and
 east). The heights of the black rectangles are relative to species abundance values.

273

274 Local assemblage structuring – the role of environmental gradients

275 On the west bank of the Madeira River (except for the module Ilha das Pedras) three 276 mixed-effects models were selected by $\Delta AICc < 2$ (Table 2). All the selected models 277 consistently returned number of trees as a major gradient affecting assemblage composition (P < 0.001 in all cases). Despite some species occupied large portions of the gradient of number 278 279 of trees (e.g. Ameiva ameiva, Norops fuscoauratus), species absence or low abundance in specific intervals between 144 and 613 trees caused species turnover (Fig 3). According to the 280 models selected, assemblage composition was not affected by elevation (P = 0.76), and soil-281 content of sand (P = 0.84) or clay (P = 0.91). 282

283

Table 2. Summary of the results returned by Linear Mixed-Effects Models. The models were set up using data from the west (Teotônio, Ilha dos Búfalos and West Jirau) and east (Morrinhos and Jaci-Paraná) banks of the upper Madeira River. The models were selected by AICc $\Delta < 2$. Shapiro-Wilk tests were applied on the residuals from each model to test normality. Bolded p-values show cases in which the null hypothesis was rejected.

Margin	Fixed effects	AICc	Weight	df	t	p	Variance	Shapiro
								-Wilk
	Number of	12.89	0.314	Intercept:2.18	-6.92	<0.001	54%	P=0.109
	Trees and			Trees:3.01	18.8	<0.001	-	
	Elevation			Elevation:1.43	-0.31	0.76	-	
	~	1.0.00	0.000		1.1.10	0.001		D 0 0 1 1
	Sand and	12.88	0.309	Intercept:3.39	-14.69	0.001	CO 24	P=0.066
West	Number of Trees			Sand:1.86	-0.19	0.84	. 69%	
				Trees:3.29	18.8	<0.001		
	Clay and	12.88	0.305	Intercept:1.00	-9.07	<0.001		P=0.153
	Number of			Clave 76	0.10	0.01	76%	
	Trees			Clay:9.76	0.10	0.91		
				Trees:3.27	18.88	<0.001		
	Elevation	2.0	0.412	Intercept:2.30	6.37	<0.001		P=0.782
	and Margin			Elevation:2.30	-6.27	<0.001	71%	
	distance			Margim:2.30	1.72	0.09	-	
East	Number of	2.0	0.400	Intercept:2.30	5.92	<0.001	72%	P=0.413
	Trees and			Trees:2.10	18.8	0.10	-	
	Elevation			Elevation:2.30	-0.31	<0.001	-	

Fig. 3. Plots ordinated according to their position relative the number of trees in the west

292 bank of the upper Madeira River, state of Rondônia, Brazil. The heights of the black

293 rectangles are relative to species abundance values.

Margins	Variables	AICc	Weight	Std. error	t	Р	F	r2
	Number	15.7	0.31	Intercept:8.76	0.00	1.00	2.746	0.37
	of Trees and			Trees:9.19	0.90	0.39	_	
	Elevation			Elevation:9.19	-2.06	0.06	-	
st	Sand and	15.8	0.29	Intercept:8.81	0.00	1.00	2.66	0.37
We	Elevation			Sand:9.21	0.85	0.42	-	
				Elevation:9.21	-2.18	0.05	-	
	Clay and	16.2	0.25	Intercept: 1.21	0.1	1.10	2.45	0.35
	Elevation			Clay:6.12	-0.64	0.53	-	
				Elevation:1.88	-1.98	0.07	-	
	Clay and	6.5	0.655	Intercept: 5.69	0.00	1.00	15.42	0.81
	Distance			Clay: -1.05	-1.69	0.13	-	
East	from the margin			Margim:2.89	4.63	<0.001	_	
	Sand and	7.9	0.367	Intercept: 2.30	5.92	<0.001	13.07	0.78
	Distance			Sand:8.81	1.28	0. 24	-	
	from the			M : 205	4.15	0.001		
	margin			Margim:2.85	4.15	<0.001		

For the Ilha das Pedras module three multiple-regression models were selected (Table 3), all of them containing elevation as an independent variable. This gradient significantly affected assemblage composition according to a model constructed with soil sand content as an additional independent variable (P = 0.05) (Fig 4). However, the effects of elevation on the assemblage composition were marginally significant in models containing number of trees (P= 0.06) and soil clay content (P = 0.07) as independent variables.

301

Table 3. Summary of the results returned by Linear Mixed-Effects Models. The models were set up using data from the Ilha das Pedras (west river bank) and East Jirau (east river bank) modules for test the effects of environmental gradients on lizard assemblage composition. The models were selected by AICc $\Delta < 2$. Shapiro-Wilk tests were applied on the residuals from each model to test normality. Bolded p-values show cases in which the null hypothesis was rejected.

308

309

Fig. 4. Partials from a multiple linear model for the Ilha das Pedras module. Model for the effects of the elevation and sand contents in the soil on lizard assemblage composition. Assemblage composition was summarized by the first axis of an Analysis of Principal Coordinates based on abundance data of the upper Madeira River, state of Rondônia, Brazil. The shades of blue show values of sand content in the soil.

315

On the east river bank (except for the East Jirau module) two models were selected as most parsimonious. Both models consistently showed strong effects of elevation on assemblage composition (P < 0.001 in both cases). This finding suggests species turnover along an elevational gradient of 69.12-100.59 m (Fig 5). According to the same models, distance from the river bank (P = 0.09) and number of trees (P = 0.1) did not affect assemblage composition.

Fig 5. Plots ordinated according to their position relative to a gradient of elevation in the east bank of the upper Madeira River, state of Rondônia, Brazil. The heights of the black rectangles are relative to species abundance values.

325

Two multiple-regression models were selected for the East Jirau module. Both models consistently returned distance from the river bank (Fig 6) as a relevant gradient affecting assemblage composition (P < 0.001 in both cases). Soil-content of sand (P = 0.24) and clay (P= 0.13) did not affect assemblage composition.

330

Fig 6. Partials from a multiple linear model to test the effects of distance from the river bank, sand and clay contents in the soil on lizard assemblage composition. Assemblage composition was summarized by the first axis of an Analysis of Principal Coordinates based on abundance data from the East Jirau sampling module, located on the east bank of the upper Madeira River, state of Rondônia, Brazil. The shades of blue show values of sand and clay contents in the soil.

337

338 **Discussion**

At regional scale, we found that lizard assemblages are spatially structured by differences in species composition between river banks. This finding is consistent with large Amazonian rivers acting as dispersal barriers for several organisms, which have caused different species subsets composed of plants [18], birds [19,21], primates [24] and diurnal frogs 343 [12]. At local scale, we showed that lizard assemblages are spatially structured by species 344 turnover along environmental gradients. However, a set of environmental gradients cannot be 345 assumed as generalized predictors among sampling sites. Our overall results are broadly consistent with frog assemblages sampled in the same plots [12], which suggests multi-taxa 346 347 ecological patterns. We relied on a single dataset to provide understanding about assemblage structure based on interacting historical and ecological processes. Therefore, we highlight the 348 349 relevance of investigating multi-scale assemblage structuring for ecology and conservation 350 decision making.

351 In the upper Madeira River, assemblage divergence between river banks has been 352 attributed to historical processes regionally reducing species dispersal [12]. Approximately 353 50% of the species composing a frog assemblage (13 species) were absent in one of the river banks. The smaller proportion of regionally isolated lizard species (29.63%) is reasonably 354 355 explained by the lower dispersal capacity of small and site-attached frogs compared with most lizards. Nonetheless, we investigated aseemblages in which about 30% of the sampled species 356 357 were isolated by the river, and another 30% of the species occurred at low relative frequency 358 or abundance at one of the river banks. This was a sufficiently adequate scenario to assume the 359 river as a historical factor segregating assemblages between the river banks. We highlight that 360 most of regionally isolated species in our sample are widely distributed throughout Amazonia 361 outside our study area [13]. Such inconsistency may be explained by the strength of the river as a dispersal barrier varying along the river course, or even being nullified in response to 362 363 meandering shapes [67-69,30]. Additionally, the barriers may be seasonal, because bridges for stepping-stone dispersal may be revealed during the dry season, which allows gene flow 364 between river banks [70]. Therefore, our results for assemblage structure at regional scale 365 366 should not be extrapolated to unsampled stretches of the Madeira River or other Amazonian rivers, because lizards probably have found multiple dispersal routes through evolutionary time[27].

The isolation of species on one of the river banks may be related to the 369 370 geomorphological heterogeneity of the Madeira River across our study area. The Madeira river 371 flows over an incisive fluvial valley, with predominantly crystalline and a geologically ancient 372 basement (ca. 16 Ma). The morphodynamical development was mainly influenced by the 373 geomorphological and climatic changes resulting from the Andean Orogeny in the Cenozoic 374 [71], which have produced a relatively stable course along recent geological times [72]. Such 375 stability in the shape of the river course has prevented meandering across most of the study 376 area, which could facilitate for species to cross the river [73]. Exceptionally, the modules 377 located further upstream (East and West Jirau) have rocky outcrops that are exposed in the 378 middle of the river course during the dry season, which can act as bridges for stepping-stone 379 dispersal (field observation). Although lizard species used alternative dispersal routes to 380 widespread their distribution throughout Amazonia, our study showed that they were regionally 381 prevented from colonizing or maintaining populations on both banks of the upper Madeira 382 River.

383 At local scale, lizard assemblages were spatially structured by environmental filtering 384 causing non-random assemblage composition. Environmental conditions selected species that 385 were able to survive and maintain viable conditions in given sampling plots [74]. Despite we 386 sampled species that are generalist in relation to the environmental gradients measured (e.g. 387 Ameiva ameiva, Norops fuscoauratus), species for which distributions were restricted to narrow regions of gradients (e.g. Cercosaura argula, Norops ortonii, Uranoscodon superciliosus) 388 caused species turnover across sampling plots. Species turnover mediated by environmental 389 390 filtering is a major factor structuring local assemblages in Amazonia [e.g. 41,36,39], and in the 391 upper Madeira River it has efficiently explained assemblage structure in bats [75], frogs [12] 392 and snakes [76]. However, we cannot generalize a single environmental dataset as a predictor 393 for assemblage composition in all plots. Environmental predictors for assemblage composition 394 differed between the river banks or even within a river bank. This finding suggests that the scale 395 at which lizard assemblages respond to environmental heterogeneity may be more refined than 396 the classification of the Madeira river banks as distinct endemism zones [77,20].

397 Number of trees was a major factor causing species turnover in the west bank of the 398 Madeira River. This gradient ranged from 144 to 613 trees, which shows that the vegetation 399 structure is quite heterogeneous throughout our study area. Heterogeneity in vegetation 400 structure affects species occurrence and abundance due to variation in the availability of 401 foraging, nesting, resting, and thermoregulating sites [58,60]. Additionally, tree cover may 402 directly affect food availability, protection against predators, light intensity, temperature, 403 humidity and wind speed [59,60]. The evidence for assemblage structuring along a gradient of 404 number of trees is of concern from a conservation point of view, because our study area has 405 been intensely deforested by the agribusiness and large hydroelectric plants [78]. It is widely 406 expected that species dependent on high levels of tree cover (e.g. Norops tandai, Norops ortonii, 407 Dactyloa transversalis) will either be locally extinct or migrate to more suitable habitats. Future 408 studies should focus on investigating species turnover at time scales.

We found species turnover along an elevational gradient, although this finding was most evident on the east bank of the Madeira River. On the east bank the plots were installed on the depression of the Ji-Paraná river, which generated elevation values below 30 m. Low elevation is often related to outcropping of groundwater and high drainage density [79,71], which favors the occurrence of habitat-specific species for high humidity. For instance, *Arthrosaura reticulata* and *Uranoscodon superciliosus* typically occupy humid low areas [80,81], and in this study those species were found only on the east bank of the Madeira River. Additionally, elevation indirectly influences assemblage composition because it affects water availability and soil fertility [82-84], and therefore the overall structure of available habitats [85]. Extreme variation in elevation may cause behavioral and morphological differentiation in Andean lizards [86]. In this study we showed that even subtle variation in elevation (24 to 128 m) may be sufficient for species to be locally filtered. A similar finding was observed using frog assemblage data from the Guiana Shield [11,37].

422 The gradient of distance from the river caused species turnover in the East Jirau module. 423 Although habitats may be classified in riparian and non-riparian zones [87], gradients of 424 distance from water courses carry multiple continuous interacting variables of microclimate, nutrient availability, vegetation cover and edaphic structure. Habitats continuously changing 425 426 along gradients of distance from streams (< 12 m wide) have caused species turnover structuring plant [36], frog [38], bird [39] and snake [41] assemblages. In this study, we showed a similar 427 428 pattern using lizard abundance data, with the main difference being that the gradient we 429 measured refers to the distance from the bank of one of the major tributaries of the Amazon 430 River. However, no significant effect of distance from the river on assemblage composition was 431 returned using data from the other modules. This finding suggests that assemblages diverging 432 between riparian and non-riparian zones should not be generalized in relation to large rivers, or 433 assemblage segregation should occur at distances that are greater than 5 km away from the river 434 bank.

Some of the results found may be associated to environmental variables that were not
explicitly measured in this study. For example, *Hoplocercus spinosus* (Hoplocercidae) occurred
on both banks of the Madeira River but occurrence was restricted to plots with rocky outcrops.
Such condition was only found in the westernmost sampling modules of the study area (East

and West Jirau), where the species finds optimal availability of thermoregulation and refuge
sites [88]. This finding reflects relationships between species and habitats that are dependent of
biological traits affecting survival [89,90] and dispersal capacity [91,92], such as body size, diet
[93], specificity level in habitat use [81], reproductive [49] and foraging mode [76]. Therefore,
although patterns of assemblage structure are usually described based on dissimilarities among
plots regarding subsets of cooccurring species, they may be determined by ecological
requirements of individual species.

446 We showed that lizard assemblages in the upper Madeira River are structured by scale-447 dependent hierarchical factors. Historical processes related to the Andes uplift [94] have isolated regional assemblages between the river banks, and have also generated distinct habitat 448 449 patches, which in turn generate distinct local lizard assemblages. It is generally well established that interacting historical and environmental factors explain hierarchical structures of 450 451 assemblages [5]. However, empirical application is not common because it relies on efficient 452 sampling designs to capture multiple scales. In the megadiverse Amazonian rainforests this has 453 been achieved by a few studies [73,12,31]. Considering the fine levels in which such studies 454 assessed processes affecting biodiversity, efficient methods for multi-scale sampling should be 455 prioritized by ecology and conservation biology.

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762 Supporting information captions

763	S1 Text. Protocols for measuring the environmental gradients. Gradients used as
764	independent variables in the ecological models to test lizard assemblage structuring in the upper
765	Madeira River, Amazonian Brazil.
766	S2 Fig 1. Partials from Mixed Linear Models for the west bank of the Madeira River. Test
767	the effects of environmental gradients on lizard assemblages composition (PCoA axis 1). The
768	models were selected by $\Delta AICc < 2$. (A) Ilha das Pedras (B) Ilha dos Búfalos (C) Jirau-West
769	(D) Teotônio.
770	S3 Fig 2. Partials from Mixed Linear Models for the East bank of the Madeira River. Test
771	the effects of environmental gradients on lizard assemblages composition (PCoA axis 1). The
772	models were selected by $\Delta AICc < 2$. (A) Jaci- Paraná (B) Jirau-East (C) Morrinhos.
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Figures

Figure 1.



Figure 2.



Direct Ordination

Figure 3.



Figure 4.











S 1. Protocols

NUMBER OF TREES. -The density sampling method used transects that varied in size depending on the size of the plant class being surveyed, as follows: (Transect 1) plants with a diameter at breast height (DBH) ≥ 1 cm were sampled in 1m-wide band to the left side of the centerline, for the entire length of the sample plot; (Transect 2) plants with $DBH \ge 10$ cm were sampled in a 20m wide band, with 10 m on either side of the plot center line. On the left, this band included Transects 1 and 3; (Transect 3) plants with $DBH \ge 30$ cm were sampled in a range of 40 m wide, 20 m being on each side of the center line of the plot. On the left, this range overlapped with Transects 1 and 2, where all plants with DBH greater than or equal to 1 or 10 cm were measured. On the right side, this band includes Transect 2. More details of the plant collection data component available are at: http://ppbio.inpa.gov.br/sites/default/files/Estrutura_vegetacao.pdf. For statistical analyzes the total density of plants (sum values from Transects 1, 2 and 3 combined) per plot was used.

SOIL NUTRIENT COMPOSITION. –Soil pH was obtained from the effective H+ ion concentration, determined with a combined electrode directly immersed in a soil solution diluted with distilled water at a 1:2.5ml ratio. Calcium, Magnesium and exchangeable Aluminum were extracted with KCl 1M. Exchangeable Al+3 was titrated with NaOH 0.025M using bromothymol blue as an indicator. Ca+2 and Mg+2 levels were determined by atomic absorption spectrophotometry (AAS). Potassium and soil micronutrients (iron, zinc and manganese) was extracted with Mehlich I2 extraction solution (double-acid solution), consisting of a mixture of HCl 0.05M + H2SO4 0.0125M. The mL extract ratio was 1:10. K, Fe, Zn and Mn were determined by AAS. Available phosphorus was determined with a colorimetric spectrophotometer, using 3% ammonium molybdate and ascorbic acid. Using

these values, formula was applied to the sum of bases, following the methods of Quesada et al. (2010), which allowed soil fertility in each plot to be inferred. For statistical analyzes the value for the sum of bases in each plot was used.

SOIL SAND AND CLAY CONTENT. –Soil samples were collected at six points on each plot (0, 50, 100, 150, 200 e 250 m along the plot length), at depths of 0 and 5 cm, once surface leaves had been removed. Samples were collected with a 5.5 cm diameter manual auger, stored in plastic bags and subsequently dried at room temperature and cleaned with tweezers, removing all pieces of leaf, root and charcoal. The material was processed and screened with a 2mm mesh sieve, then separated from other soil impurities to yield Fine Air-Dried Earth – FADE. Particle size analysis was made with composite samples (mixing sub-samples from soil obtained at 0, 50,100, 150, 200 and 250 m) at INPA's Soil and Plant Science Laboratory. Particle size was estimated from an aliquot of 10 grams of soil by adding the chemical dispersant sodium pyrophosphate to separate soil particles. Organic matter was oxidized by heating with hydrogen peroxide. The proportion of clay was determined by dry weight of 20 ml of soil suspension. The coarse fraction (fine and coarse sand) were separated by sieving, dried in an oven (105 ° C for 24 hours) and weighed to obtain the respective percentages, following the PPBio methodology (http://ppbio.inpa.gov.br/knb/metacat). The average percentage of clay in the soil of each plot was used to represent particle size and this was then used in statistical analyzes.

ELEVATION–A professional surveyor measured the elevation above sea level at the starting point of the plot. This was done because, to minimize variation in vegetation, soil type and drainage, each plot follows the local contour line and, consequently, variation in elevation is minimal along its length. The value of the elevation of each plot was used for statistical analysis.

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Quesada CA, Lloyd J, Schwarz M, Patiño S, Baker RT, Czimczik C et al. Variations in chemical and physical properties of Amazon forest soils in relation to their genesis. Biogeosciences. 2010; 7: 1515–1541. doi: 10.5194/bg-7-1515-2010.



S2 Fig 1.





Elevation

S3 Fig 2.



Distance from the margin



Number of Trees

Síntese

A maior parte da biodiversidade mundial está concentrada na região Neotropical, especialmente na região amazônica. No entanto, diversas áreas ainda necessitam ser inventariadas. Sabe-se que dentro do espectro geográfico de ocorrência das espécies, diferentes habitats não são igualmente utilizados. Variáveis estruturais do ambiente, por sua vez, são reconhecidas por interferir na distribuição dos organismos determinando um ótimo ambiental ao longo de um gradiente de distribuição. Essas variáveis são frequentemente representadas por fatores físicos do ambiente que podem ter envolvimento na promoção de processos de especiação ecológica, mesmo com ausência de barreiras visíveis. Para lagartos amazônicos, já havia sido observada a influência de gradientes ambientais em escala local, sendo estes ligados a aspectos florestais, edáficos, de proximidade a corpos d'água, ou mesmo declividade ou altitude do terreno.

Dentre os estudos envolvendo lagartos, este foi o primeiro a abranger uma escala tão ampla de uma área intefluvial para a Amazônia brasileira com o objetivo de testar o efeito de fatores estruturais e climáticos do ambiente, além da influência de fatores históricos sobre as assembleias de lagartos em ambientes de florestas de terra firme. Todas as amostragens padronizadas, para os três capítulos, não teriam sido realizadas sem a instalação de módulos de acordo com o método RAPELD de amostragem de biodiversidade. Cada módulo foi composto por duas trilhas principais de 5 km de extensão, paralelas e separadas por 1 km, com distintas parcelas de 250 m localizadas ao longo das trilhas principais. Nossas coletas ocorreram por meio de busca ativa visual limitada por tempo e varredura na liteira.

No primeiro capítulo foi realizado o mapeamento da distribuição e abundância dos lagartos presentes nos 10 módulos, localizados ao longo da rodovia BR-319, que corta o Interflúvio Purus-Madeira, e liga as cidades de Manaus (Amazonas) a Porto Velho (Rondônia). Como resultado foram encontrados 25 táxons distribuídos em oito famílias, e observado um padrão bastante heterogêneo de ocorrência e abundância ao longo da área de estudo. Assim, estes resultados ampliam o conhecimento das distribuições de lagartos para esta área de endemismo e proporciona dados que podem ser utilizados como base em estudos ecológicos e de monitoramento dessa paisagem megadiversa e crescentemente ameaçada por mudanças de origem antrópica.

No segundo capítulo o objetivo foi testar se fatores climáticos e aspectos estruturais do ambiente estariam a moldar a riqueza, composição e diversidade funcional de assembleias de

lagartos em larga-escala na Amazônia. Para isto, foram avaliados 10 módulos instalados ao longo da BR-319, e quatro módulos instalados ao longo da margem oeste do Alto Rio Madeira. Como resultado foram quantificados 26 táxons em 17 gêneros distribuídos em nove famílias, sendo a família Gymnophthalmidae a mais diversa, representada por sete espécies. As assembleias de lagartos foram distintas entre os diferentes tipos de floresta ombrófila: densa e aberta. Além disso o gradiente biogeográfico, representado pelas variáveis ambientais em conjunto, explicou uma alta proporção (86%) da variação na composição de espécies para a região. Entretanto, a riqueza de espécies não foi explicada pelo gradiente biogeográfico, o que sugere que a heterogeneidade ambiental seleciona espécies ao longo da área de estudo, tornando as assembleias distintas ao longo da paisagem amostrada. Quando foram observadas as variáveis ambientais de forma individual, foi verificado que tanto a proporção de argila no solo, quanto a área basal florestal e pluviosidade foram capazes de explicar a variação na composição. Porém, a área basal e a pluviosidade foram capazes de melhor prever, de forma contínua, a mudança na composição das assembleias de lagartos. Em relação à diversidade funcional, diferenças entre os tipos de florestas ombrófilas explicou a riqueza de traços funcionais (FRiq), porém a dissimilaridade dos traços funcionais (FDis) não foi significativamente afetada por esta mudança florestal. O gradiente biogeográfico foi capaz de explicar 35% da variação na riqueza funcional, mas não foi relacionado com a dispersão dos traços funcionais. A riqueza funcional apresentou relação com o gradiente de área basal e com pluviosidade local. As taxas de substituição de traços funcionais foram relativamente baixas ao longo do interflúvio, não sendo explicadas por nenhum dos gradientes ambientais. Assim, um complexo de fatores estruturais e climáticos atuam de forma conjunta sobre o estabelecimento dos lagartos na região do interflúvio Purus-Madeira, influenciando tanto a composição quanto a diversidade funcional das assembleias.

No terceiro e último capítulo foram abordados, de forma integrada, o efeito do alto rio Madeira, em escala regional, como possível barreira biogeográfica para as assembleias de lagartos presentes ao longo das margens leste e oeste do rio, e em escala local, a possível influência de variáveis ambientais. A coleta de dados foi realizada em 83 parcelas de 250 metros, as quais foram amostradas em quatro ocasiões distintas. As variáveis ambientais aferidas para testar o efeito de gradientes foram: número de árvores, densidade de arbustos, proporçao de argila e areia, nutrientes do solo, e elevaçao do terreno. Os resultados para as 27 espécies demonstraram que, em escala regional, o alto rio Madeira atua como uma barreira biogeográfica para 29,6% das espécies de lagartos, com cinco espécies (18.5%) restritas ao lado oeste, e três espécies (11.11%) restritas ao lado leste da região de estudo. Em relação aos gradientes ambientais, para a margem leste o gradiente de elevação melhor explicou a composição de espécies, e para a margem oeste a estrutura da vegetação foi a variável mais explicativa. Assim, foi demonstrado que tanto fatores históricos regionais quanto fatores ambientais locais moldam as assembleias de lagartos do alto Rio Madeira.

De modo geral este estudo, pioneiro em investigar assembleias de lagartos em diferentes escalas espaciais e sob diferentes métricas de diversidade, abre novas perspectivas na biogeografia e na ecologia de comunidades tropicais. E que futuros estudos envolvendo delineamentos amostrais em larga-escala e amostragem de diferentes grupos de organismos deverão colaborar no entendimento dos principais promotores da distribuição heterogênea da megadiversidade amazônica.

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