

Gastropoda (Mollusca) associated to *Sargassum* sp. beds in São Sebastião Channel - São Paulo, Brazil

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Abstract: The phytal is characterized by the formation of seaweed beds and a great diversity of associated species, the malacofauna being one of its main components. Aiming to record the species of Gastropoda associated to the brown algae *Sargassum* sp. C. Agardh, 1820, this study was carried out in São Sebastião Channel, northern coast of São Paulo, and nearby areas. A total of 13945 individuals were identified, belonging to 35 families and 62 species. Cerithiidae, Phasianellidae and Columbidae were the most abundant families, represented by 34, 33 and 17% of the total collected individuals, respectively. *Bittium varium* (Pfeiffer, 1840) (Cerithiidae) and *Eulithidium affine* (C. B. Adams, 1850) (Phasianellidae) are the dominant species, followed by the columbids *Mitrella dichroa* (G. B. Sowerby I, 1844), *Anachis fenneli* Radwin, 1968 and *Costoanachis sertulariarum* (d'Orbigny, 1839). Among the least abundant species, some of them may be considered as of fortuitous occurrences, while others seem to be typical in those habitats, although rare. The presence of juvenile specimens was recurrent, this indicating that the algae can function as a nursery for most of these species. The expressive values found, for both abundance and number of species, illustrate the great ecological importance of the phytal habitats for the gastropod species.

Keywords: Biodiversity, marine gastropods, phytal.

LONGO, P.A.S., FERNANDES, M.C., LEITE, F.P.P., PASSOS, F.D. Gastropoda (Mollusca) associados a bancos de *Sargassum* sp. no Canal de São Sebastião – São Paulo, Brasil. Biota Neotropica. 14(4): e20140115. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1590/1676-06032014011514>

Resumo: O fital é caracterizado pela formação de bancos de algas marinhas e uma grande diversidade de espécies associadas, estando a malacofauna entre seus principais componentes. Com o objetivo de registrar as assembleias de gastrópodes associadas à alga parda *Sargassum* C. Agardh, 1820, este estudo foi realizado no Canal de São Sebastião, litoral norte do estado de São Paulo, e áreas próximas. Um total de 13945 indivíduos foram identificados, pertencentes a 35 famílias e 62 espécies. Em termos de abundância, Cerithiidae, Phasianellidae e Columbidae foram as famílias mais representativas, com 34, 33 e 17% do total de indivíduos coletados, respectivamente. *Bittium varium* (Pfeiffer, 1840) (Cerithiidae) e *Eulithidium affine* (C. B. Adams, 1850) (Phasianellidae) foram as espécies dominantes, seguidas pelos columbelídeos *Mitrella dichroa* (G. B. Sowerby I, 1844), *Anachis fenneli* Radwin, 1968 e *Costoanachis sertulariarum* (d'Orbigny, 1839). Entre as espécies pouco abundantes, algumas podem ser consideradas como de ocorrência ocasional, enquanto outras parecem ser típicas deste ambiente, porém raras. A presença de formas juvenis mostrou-se muito recorrente para a maioria das espécies, o que parece indicar que a alga pode atuar como berçário. Os valores expressivos encontrados, tanto para a abundância de indivíduos como para o número de espécies, ilustram a grande importância ecológica apresentada por este ambiente para as espécies de gastrópodes.

Palavras-chave: Biodiversidade, gastrópodes marinhos, fital.

Introduction

Seaweed beds carrying an associated fauna form a singular community known as the phytal, a generally rich assemblage of organisms regulated by both biotic (e.g. predation, competition,

recruitment and migration) and abiotic factors (e.g. hydrodynamics, nutrients availability, habitat structure, light incidence and temperature) (Chemello & Milazzo 2002, Jacobucci & Leite 2002, Leite et al. 2009). In these communities, algae provide several advantages for invertebrate and vertebrate animals

inhabiting their fronds, including protection against desiccation, wave action and predators, better temperature and salinity conditions, as well as food resources (Jacobucci & Leite 2002, Jacobucci et al. 2006, Leite et al. 2009). Among macroalgae groups composing the phytal, those of *Sargassum* can be considered one of the most representative in some localities of the Brazilian coast (Széchy & Paula 2000), with the malacofauna standing out both in abundance and diversity (Montouchet 1979, Schézy & Paula 2000, Chemello & Milazzo 2002, Jacobucci & Leite 2002, Leite et al. 2009, Veras 2011).

Gastropods, in particular, are an important part of the phytal fauna. Studies highlighting and describing the diversity of phytal molluscan assemblages are scarce in Brazil, especially in the coast of São Paulo state, some of which are Montouchet (1979), Jacobucci et al. (2006) and Leite et al. (2009). Furthermore, illustrated inventories are practically absent in the literature, this kind of work being an important tool to the development of future studies of the phytal gastropod assemblages, as it can facilitate the species identification.

The aim of this study is to provide such an inventory of the gastropod fauna associated to *Sargassum* sp. beds from São Sebastião Channel and nearby areas, thereby increasing knowledge on the biodiversity of this environment, as well as illustrating its species.

Material and Methods

This study was carried out in the northern part of the coast of São Paulo State, southeastern Brazil (23°43'–23°52'S; 45°20'–45°27'W), where algae bed samples were obtained from thirteen sites in March, September and December of 2007, and in February of 2008. Two of these sites are placed in Caraguatatuba and Ubatuba municipalities (at Tabatinga and Ubatumirim beaches, respectively) and eleven are distributed in the São Sebastião Channel. In this channel, six sites were chosen from its insular part (São Sebastião Island, Ilhabela

municipality) and five from the continental part (São Sebastião municipality) (Figure 1).

At each site, a horizontal transect was established, where ten fronds were randomly collected, each of them with its holdfast being detached from the substratum. These fronds were enclosed in a bag of 0.2 mm mesh size and at the laboratory were washed in seawater in order to separate the associated animals from algae, and to sort the gastropods for to be fixed and preserved in a solution of 70% ethanol. The obtained gastropods were examined under the stereomicroscope, identified through their shell characteristics, counted from each collecting site and then separated in lots which were deposited in the Zoology Museum of the State University of Campinas “Prof. Adão José Cardoso”. For each species, well preserved specimens were chosen to be photographed by a camera coupled to a Zeiss “Discovery V8” stereomicroscope. All these lots are georeferenced and registered in the Center of Reference in Environmental Information (CRIA) database. About five morphotypes of shellless opisthobranch gastropods could be distinguished, but most of the total specimens were poorly preserved, hence, precluding an accurate identification; these were, therefore, excluded in this inventory.

Results

A total of 13945 individuals from 62 species belonging to 35 families was obtained (Table 1). These specimens compose 2437 deposited lots (Table 1). All the identified species are shown in Figures 2, 3, 4 and 5. Except for 32 specimens of the single Calliostomatidae (*Calliostoma* sp.), one of the single Marginellidae (*Volvarina* sp.), one of the Eulimidae *Vitreolina* sp., and 32 juveniles of Columbelloidea and 14 of Fissurellidae, all the animals were identified up to the species level. Most families (31) are represented by one or two species (Table 1). Pyramidellidae, Columbelloidea, Eulimidae and Cerithiopsidae are the only exceptions to this rule, each one with eight, six, four and three species, respectively.

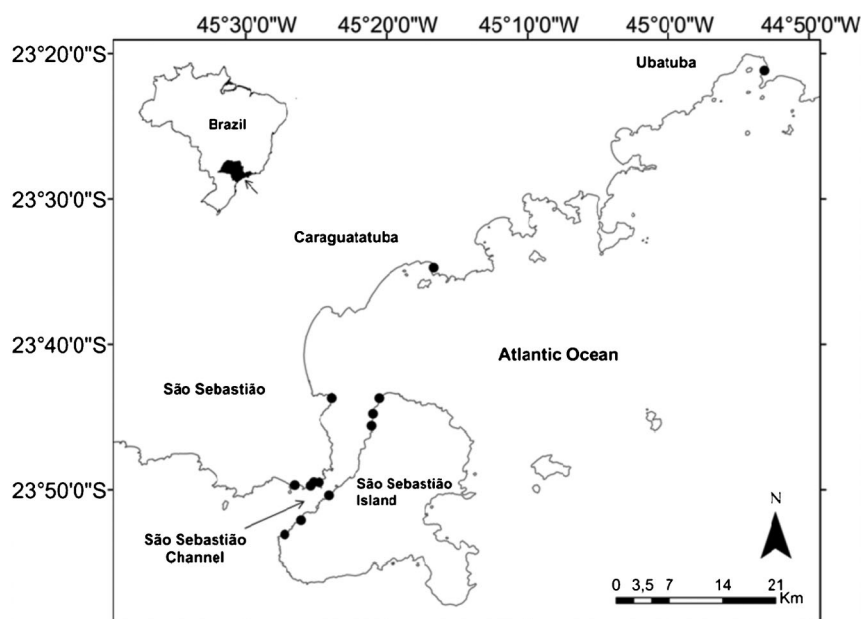


Figure 1. Collecting sites in the insular and continental part of the São Sebastião Channel, and in the Caraguatatuba and Ubatuba municipalities. The placement of this area is indicated by an arrow pointing the north coast of the State of São Paulo (SP), southeastern Brazil.

Table 1. Species, number of individuals (N), series number, literature used for the identification and places where species occurred (X). S.Sb. = São Sebastião; Ib. = Ilhabela (São Sebastião Island); Tb. = Tabatinga (Caraguatatuba) and Ubm. = Ubatumirim (Ubatuba)

Family/Species	n	Series number	Literature used	Species occurrence			
				S.Sb.	Ib.	Tb.	Ubm.
Cerithiidae							
<i>Cerithium atratum</i> (Born, 1778)	81	1652–1660	Marcus & Marcus 1964, Rios 2009	X	X		
<i>Bititulum varium</i> (Pfeiffer, 1840)	4642	2389–2870	Houbrick 1977, Houbrick 1993, Simone 2001	X	X	X	X
Phasianellidae							
<i>Eulithidium affine</i> (C. B. Adams, 1850)	4630	752–1037; 1881–1887	Robertson 1958, Marcus & Marcus 1960; Pereira et al. 2010	X	X	X	X
Columbellidae							
<i>Anachis fenneli</i> Radwin, 1968	626	1366–1420; 1422–1478	Radwin 1968	X	X	X	
<i>Costoanachis sertulariarum</i> (d'Orbigny, 1839)	600	2871–3051	Marcus & Marcus 1962	X	X	X	X
<i>Costoanachis sparsa</i> (Reeve, 1859)	124	1306–1365; 1421;	Marcus & Marcus 1962	X	X	X	X
<i>Anachis obesa</i> (Adams, 1845)	121	1479–1484	Marcus & Marcus 1962	X	X	X	X
<i>Mitrella dichroa</i> (G. B. Sowerby I, 1844)	813	2227–2269	Marcus & Marcus 1962	X	X	X	X
<i>Astyris lunata</i> (Say, 1826)	1	1142–1305	Marcus & Marcus 1962	X	X		
<i>Columbella mercatoria</i> (Linnaeus, 1758)	15	1608	Marcus & Marcus 1962	X	X		
Columbellidae juvenes	32	1588–1607 1812–1825	Marcus & Marcus 1962, Radwin 1977	X	X	X	
Cacidae							
<i>Caecum rissotium</i> de Folin, 1867	323	1038–1100	Mello 1986, Bendel 1996, Gomes & Absalão 1996	X	X	X	X
<i>Caecum brasiliicum</i> de Folin, 1874	294	1101–1141	Mello 1986, Bendel 1996, Gomes & Absalão 1996, Rios 2009	X	X		
Rissoidae							
<i>Alvania auberiana</i> (d'Orbigny, 1842)	302	1994–2070	Abbott 1974, Rios 2009	X	X	X	X
Fissurellidae							
<i>Fissurella rosea</i> (Gmelin, 1791)	200	2270–2359	Righi 1965, Abbott 1974, Rios 2009	X	X	X	X
Fissurellidae juvenes	14	1794–1770	Sasaki 1998, Reynoso–Granados et al. 2007			X	
Pyramidellidae							
<i>Fargoa bushiana</i> (Bartsch, 1909)	5	1863–1869	Abbott 1974, Pimenta et al. 2009	X	X		
<i>Folinella robertsoni</i> (Van Regteren Altena, 1975)	37	1847–1862	Mello 1990, Pimenta et al. 2008, Rios 2009	X	X	X	
<i>Boonea jadisii</i> (Olsson & McGinty, 1958)	16	1717–1727	Rios 1985, Pimenta et al. 2009	X	X	X	
<i>Chrysalida nioba</i> (Dall & Bartsch, 1911)	33	1692–1716	Pimenta 2012	X	X	X	
<i>Turbonilla multicostata</i> (C. B. Adams, 1850)	160	2147–2226	Rios 2009	X	X	X	X
<i>Eulimastoma didyma</i> (Verrill & Bush, 1900)	22	2071–2080	Pimenta et al. 2004	X	X		
<i>Turbonilla penistoni</i> Bush, 1899	10	1633–1643	Bush 1899, Absalão & Pimenta 1999	X	X		
<i>Trabecula krumpfermani</i> (De Jong & Coomans, 1988)	4	1687–1691	Pimenta et al. 2009, Rios 2009	X	X		

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Table 1. Continued.

Family/Species	n	Series number	Literature used	Species occurrence		
				S.Sb.	Ib.	Tb. Ubm.
Cerithiidae						
Rissoellidae						
<i>Rissoella ornata</i> Simone, 1995	194	1953–1993	Simone 1995	×	×	×
Litiopidae						
<i>Alaba incerta</i> (d'Orbigny, 1841)	148	2081–2146	Houbrick 1987, Simone 2001, Rios 2009	×	×	
Barleeidae						
<i>Amphithalamus glabrus</i> Simone, 1996	123	1930–1952	Simone 1995	×	×	
Scaliolidae						
<i>Finella dubia</i> (d'Orbigny, 1840)	43	1752–1763	Abbott 1974, Simone 2001, Rios 2009	×	×	
Cerithiopsidae						
<i>Retilaskya bicolor</i> (C. B. Adams, 1845)	2	1888–1889	Rios 2009		×	
<i>Seila adamsii</i> (H. C. Lea, 1845)	2	1892–1893	Rólan & Fernandes 1990, Rios 2009	×		
<i>Cerithiopsis gemmulosa</i> (C. B. Adams, 1850)	35	1826–1846	Rios 1985, Rolán & Espinosa 1995	×	×	×
Assimineidae						
<i>Assiminea succinea</i> (Pfeiffer, 1840)	18	1905–1917	Marcus & Marcus 1965, Rios 2009	×	×	
Buccinidae						
<i>Engina turbinella</i> (Kiener, 1836)	34	1771–1799	Abbott 1974, Rios 2009	×	×	
Triphoridae						
<i>Marshallora nigrocincta</i> (C. B. Adams, 1839)	6	1800–1802	Rios 2009	×	×	×
<i>Nototriphora decorata</i> (C. B. Adams, 1850)	11	1803–1811	Rios 2009, Fernandes et al. 2013	×	×	
Littorinidae						
<i>Echinolittorina lineolata</i> (d'Orbigny, 1840)	16	1623–1632; 1899–1901	Rios 2009	×	×	×
Muricidae						
<i>Stramonita brasiliensis</i> Claremont & D. G. Reid, 2011	25	1738–1751	Rios 1985, Rios 2009, Claremont et al. 2011	×	×	×
<i>Muricopsis necocheana</i> (Pilsbry, 1900)	6	1902–1904	Absalão & Pimenta 2005, Rios 2009	×	×	×
Calliostomatidae						
<i>Calliostoma</i> sp. Swainson, 1840	13	1678–1686	Quinn 1992, Dornellas 2012	×	×	
Scissurellidae						
<i>Scissurella alexandrei</i> Montouchet, 1972	10	1728–1731	Montouchet 1972	×	×	
Tornidae						
<i>Circulus</i> cf. <i>livatus</i> (A. E. Verrill, 1882)	2	1927–1928	Spencer & Campbell 1987		×	
<i>Parviturboidea interruptus</i> (C. B. Adams, 1850)	8	1644–1651	Abbott 1974, Rios 2009	×	×	
Eulimidae						
<i>Melanella</i> cf. <i>eulimoides</i> (C. B. Adams, 1850)	2	1734–1735	Rios 2009	×		
<i>Vitreolina arcuata</i> (C. B. Adams, 1850)	1	1732	Rios 2009		×	
<i>Vitreolina</i> sp.	1	1733	Warén 1983	×	×	
<i>Melanella eburnea</i> (Mühlfeld, 1824)	1	1736–1737	Queiroz et al. 2013		×	

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Table 1. Continued.

Family/Species	n	Series number	Literature used	Species occurrence			
				S.Sb.	Ib.	Tb.	Ubm.
Cerithiidae							
Turbinidae							
<i>Lithopoma phoebium</i> (Röding, 1798)	2	1919–1920	Abbott 1974, Williams 2007, Rios 2009	×	×		
<i>Tegula viridula</i> (Gmelin, 1791)	3	1896–1898	Williams et al. 2008; Rios 2009	×	×		
Nassariidae							
<i>Nassarius albus</i> (Say, 1826)	2	1890–1891	Matthews 1968, Absalão & Pimenta 2005, Rios 2009		×		
Mangeliidae							
<i>Tenaturris fulgens</i> (E. A. Smith, 1888)	2	1923–1924	Rios 2009	×	×		
<i>Glyphoturris rugirima</i> (Dall, 1889)	2	1894–1895	Absalão et al. 2005, Rios 2009		×	×	
Epitonidae							
<i>Epitonium</i> cf. <i>worsfoldi</i> Robertson, 1994	1	1929	Robertson 1993	×	×		
Retusidae							
<i>Pyrrunculus caelatus</i> (Bush, 1885)	1	1926	Absalão & Pimenta 2005, Rios 2009	×	×		
Ellobiidae							
<i>Pedipes mirabilis</i> (Mühlfeld, 1816)	1	1925	Abbott 1974, Rios 2009		×		
Modiolidae							
<i>Modulus modulus</i> (Linnaeus, 1758)	1	1922	Houbrick 1980		×		
Pseudomelatomidae							
<i>Crassipira</i> cf. <i>fuscescens</i> (Reeve, 1843)	1	1921	Rios 2009, Fallon 2011		×		
Rissoinidae							
<i>Schwartziella bryerea</i> (Montagu, 1803)	23	1609–1622	Rios 2009	×	×		×
Planaxidae							
<i>Fossarus ambiguus</i> (Linnaeus, 1758)	1	3350	Houbrick 1990		×		
Bullidae							
<i>Bulla occidentalis</i> A. Adams, 1850	82	2360–2388	Malaquias & Reid 2008	×	×	×	×
Haminoeidae							
<i>Haminoea antillarum</i> (d'Orbigny, 1841)	16	1871–1879	Abbott 1974	×	×		×
Cylichnidae							
<i>Cylichna discus</i> Watson, 1883	2	1880	Marcus 1970, Absalão & Pimenta 2005, Rios 2009		×		
Marginellidae							
<i>Volvarina</i> sp.	1	1918	Rios 2009		×		

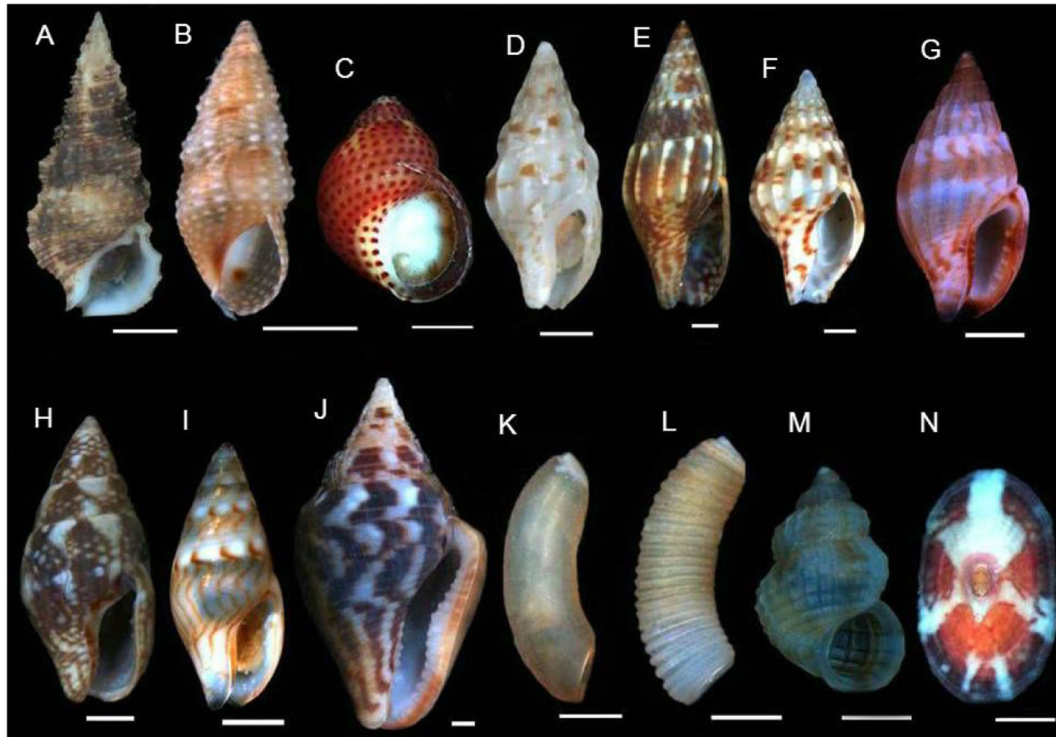


Figure 2. Photomicrographs of the gastropod species collected in *Sargassum* sp. beds from the São Sebastião Channel, Caraguatatuba and Ubatuba (continues in Figures 3 to 5). Cerithiidae: *Cerithium atratum* (A) and *Bittium varium* (B). Phasianellidae: *Eulithidium affine* (C). Columbelloidea: *Anachis fenneli* (D), *Costoanachis sertulariarum* (E), *Costoanachis sparsa* (F), *Anachis obesa* (G), *Mitrella dichroa* (H), *Astyris lunata* (I), and *Columbella mercatoria* (J). Caecidae: *Caecum ryssotitum* (K) and *Caecum brasiliense* (L). Rissoiidae: *Alvania auberiana* (M). Fissurellidae: *Fissurella rosea* (N). Scale bars: 500µm for A and K-N; 1000µm for B-J.

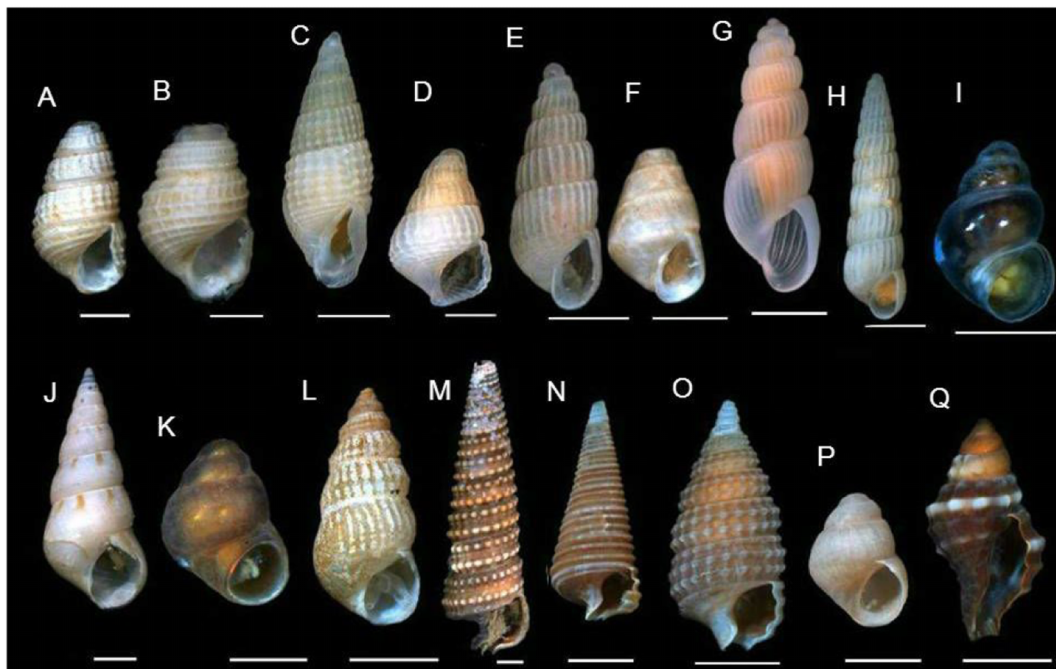


Figure 3. Photomicrographs of the gastropod species collected in *Sargassum* sp. beds from the São Sebastião Channel, Caraguatatuba and Ubatuba. Pyramidellidae: *Fargoa bushiana* (A), *Folinella robertsoni* (B), *Boonea jadisi* (C), *Chrysallida nioba* (D), *Turbonilla multicostata* (E), *Eulimastoma didyma* (F), *Trabecula krumpneri* (G), *Turbonilla penistoni* (H). Rissoellidae: *Rissoella ornata* (I). Litiopidae: *Alaba incerta* (J). Barleeidae: *Amphithalamus glabrus* (K). Scaliolidae: *Finella dubia* (L). Cerithiopsidae: *Retilaskeya bicolor* (M), *Seila adamsii* (N) and *Cerithiopsis gemmulosa* (O). Assimineidae: *Assiminea succinea* (P). Buccinidae: *Engina turbinella* (Q). Scale bars: 500µm for A, D, F, K and P; 250 µm for B; 1000µm for C, E, G-J, L-O and Q.

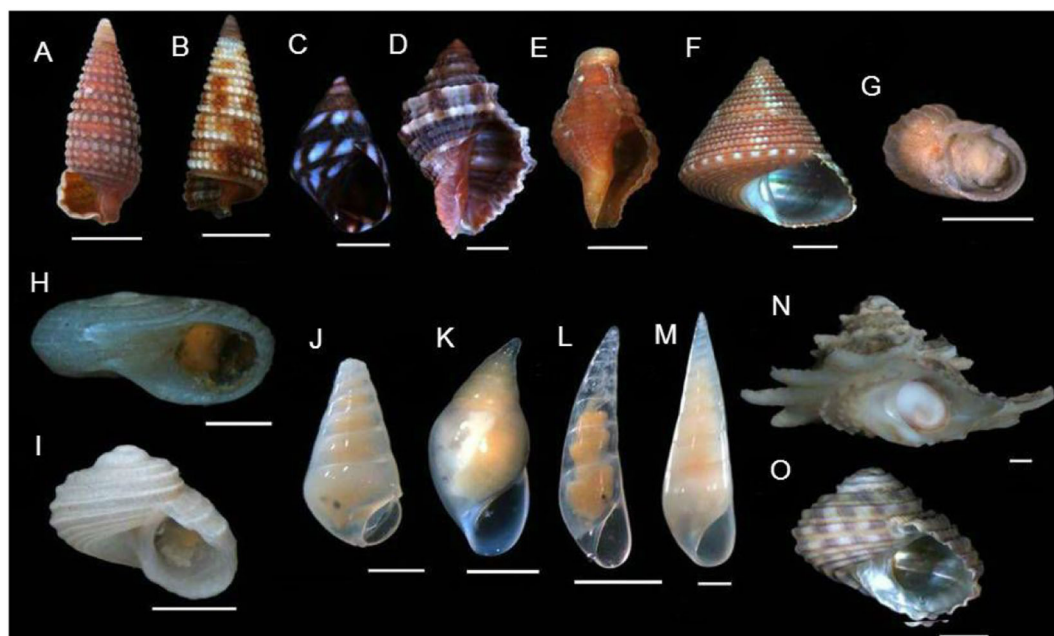


Figure 4. Photomicrographs of the gastropod species collected in *Sargassum* sp. beds from the São Sebastião Channel, Caraguatatuba and Ubatuba. Triphoridae: *Marshallora nigrocincta* (A), *Nototriphora decorata* (B). Littorinidae: *Echinolittorina lineolata* (C). Muricidae: *Stramonita brasiliensis* (D) and *Muricopsis necocheana* (E). Calliostomatidae: *Calliostoma* sp. (F). Scissurellidae: *Scissurella alexandrei* (G). Tornidae: *Circulus* cf. *liratus* (H) and *Parviturboides interruptus* (I). Eulimidae: *Melanella* cf. *eulimoides* (J), *Vitreolina arcuata* (K), *Vitreolina* sp. (L), *Melanella eburnea* (M). Turbinidae: *Lithopoma phoebium* (N) and *Tegula viridula* (O). Scale bars: 1000µm for A-F and K-O; 500µm for G-J.

In terms of abundance, the predominance of a few families is remarkable: specimens of Cerithiidae, Phasianellidae and Columbellidae are the most numerous, representing altogether 84% of the total number of individuals. This is mainly caused by the fact that *Eulithidium affine* (C. B. Adams, 1850) (the

single Phasianellidae) and *Bittium varium* (Pfeiffer, 1840) (Cerithiidae) are the best represented species (4630 and 4642 specimens, respectively), followed by *Mitrella dichroa* (G. B. Sowerby I, 1844) (n=813), *Anachis fenneli* Radwin, 1968 (n=626) and *Costoanachis sertulariarum* (d'Orbigny, 1839)

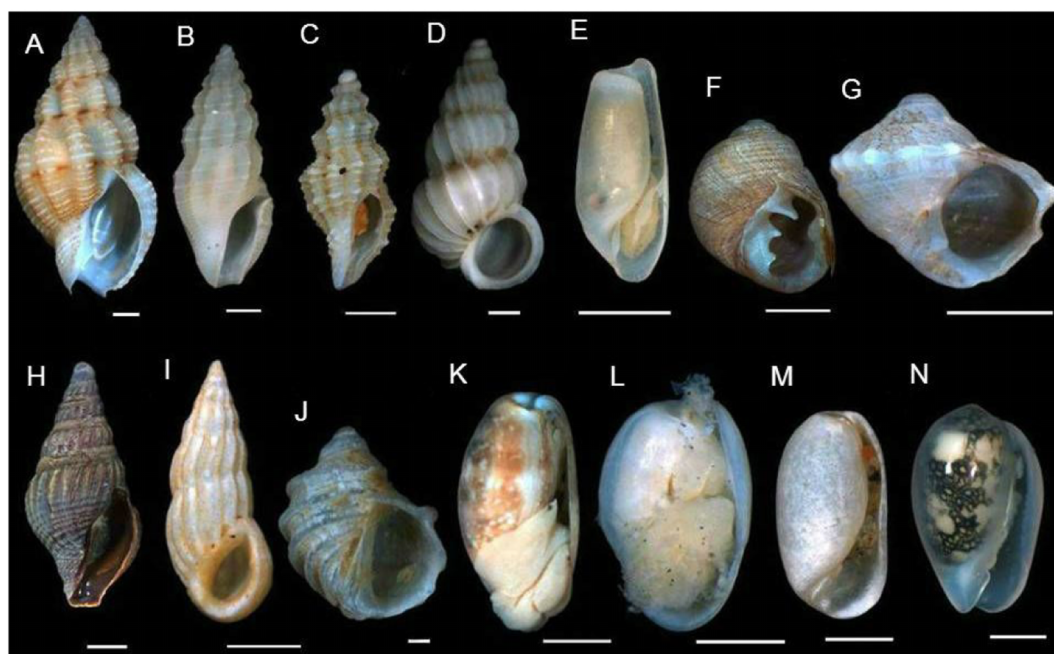


Figure 5. Gastropod species collected in *Sargassum* sp. beds from the São Sebastião Channel, Caraguatatuba and Ubatuba. Nassariidae: *Nassarius albus* (A). Mangeliidae: *Tenaturris fulgens* (B) and *Glyphoturris rugirima* (C). Epitoniidae: *Epitonium* cf. *worsfoldi* (D). Retusidae: *Pyrrunculus caelatus* (E). Ellobiidae: *Pedipes mirabilis* (F). Modulidae: *Modulus modulus* (G). Pseudomelatomidae: *Crassispira* cf. *fuscescens* (H). Rissoinidae: *Schwartziella bryerea* (I). Planaxidae: *Fossarus ambiguus* (J). Bullidae: *Bulla occidentalis* (K). Haminoeidae: *Haminoea antillarum* (L). Cylichnidae: *Cylichna discus* (M). Marginellidae: *Volvarina* sp. (N). Scale bars: 1000µm for A-K; 500µm for L-N.

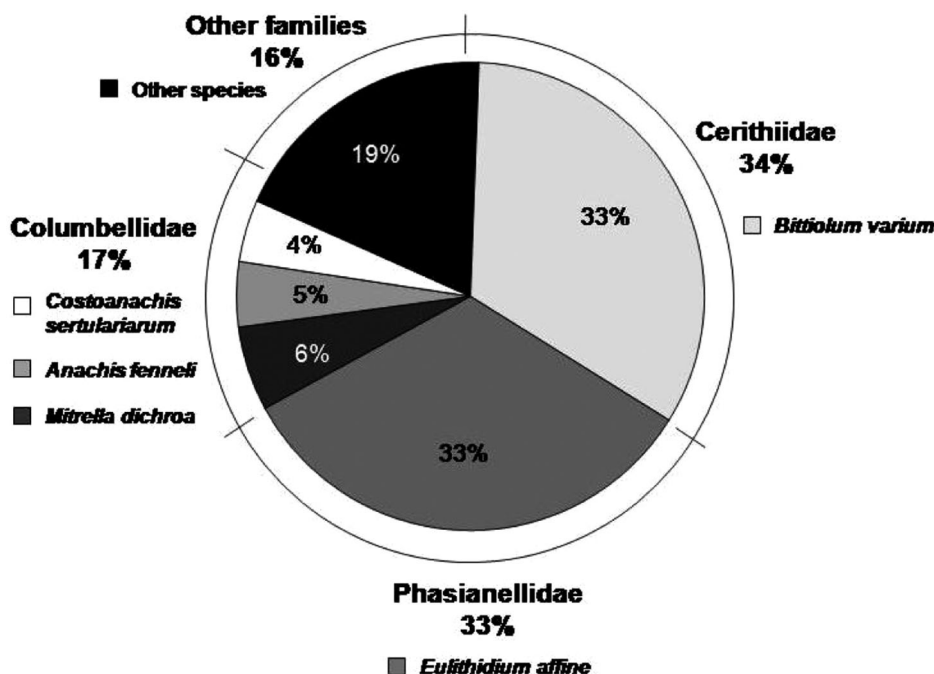


Figure 6. The most representative species and families, in terms of relative abundance of collected individuals.

(n=600) (Columbellidae). Apart from these abundant species, 57 species are responsible for 19% of the total number of individuals (Figure 6). Some of them were well collected, as *Caecum ryssotitum* de Folin, 1867, *Caecum brasiliicum* de Folin, 1874 and *Alvania auberiana* (d'Orbigny, 1842), with 323, 294 and 302 individuals, respectively. Noteworthy is also the occurrence of *Costoanachis sparsa* (Reeve, 1859), *Anachis obesa* (Adams, 1845), *Fissurella rosea* (Gmelin, 1791), *Turbonilla multicostata* (C. B. Adams, 1850), *Rissoella ornata* Simone, 1995, *Alaba incerta* (d'Orbigny, 1841) and *Amphithalamus glabrus* Simone, 1996, each one represented by 100 to 200 specimens. Regarding the more rare species, 26 presented less than 10 specimens; for some species, most animals found are juveniles, as for *Cerithium atratum* (Born, 1778), *F. rosea*, *T. multicostata*, *Stramonita brasiliensis* Claremont & D. G. Reid, 2011, *Calliostoma* sp. and *Bulla occidentalis* A. Adams, 1850.

Discussion

Expressive values for both number of species and individuals were found for the Gastropoda assemblages studied herein. Similar records had already been found for phytal assemblages of other algae species and from other localities (Montouchet 1979, Schézy & Paula 2000, Chemello & Milazzo 2002, Jacobucci & Leite 2002, Jacobucci et al. 2006, Almeida 2007, Leite et al. 2009, Veras 2011). Many families identified in this work, including the most abundant ones (Cerithiidae, Phasianellidae and Columbelloidea) have recurrent records in general phytal studies already developed in Brazil (Montouchet 1979, Jacobucci et al. 2006, Almeida 2007, Leite et al. 2009, Veras 2011).

The two most abundant species, *B. varium* and *E. affine*, exhibit similar feeding habits: they graze algae surface and feed on the periphyton settled on the fronds (Marcus & Marcus 1960, Montfrans et al. 1982). The following most abundant species, the columbellids *M. dichroa* and *A. fenneli*, on the other hand,

are both carnivorous species (Radwin 1977). The Pyramidellidae and the Eulimidae, with eight and four species, respectively, are known as parasites of other invertebrates (Warén 1983, Wise 1996). This diversity in the feeding habits is notorious throughout all the species, and indicates that the *Sargassum* sp. beds are a highly heterogeneous environment, which provides a great variety of food sources for its associated species. This should be expected, since *Sargassum* species are already known as having a high structural complexity (Széchy & Paula 2000).

Among the least abundant species (< 50 specimens), some of them are known to occur in phytal habitats, e.g. *Columbella mercatoria* (Linnaeus, 1758), *Schwartzella bryerea* (Montagu, 1803), *Finella dubia* (d'Orbigny, 1840), *Seila adamsii* (H. C. Lea, 1845), *Assimineia succinea* (Pfeiffer, 1840), *Nototriphora decorata* (C. B. Adams, 1850) and *Glyphoterris rugirima* (Dall, 1889) (Rios 2009). On the other hand, a few species found are typical from other habitats like rocky shores or soft bottoms, e.g. *Echinolittorina lineolata* (d'Orbigny, 1840), *S. brasiliensis*, *Calliostoma* sp., *Melanella eburnea* (Mühlfeld, 1824) and *Tegula viridula* (Gmelin, 1791). In this last case, the occurrence of most species in the *Sargassum* sp. beds can be considered as fortuitous, whilst in the former case, those species can be characterized as rare, even though they can be considered typical in this habitat. In both cases, and also for many of the more numerous species, it is notable the presence of juvenile forms. This may be an indicator that the seaweed beds are a favorable environment for the development of these gastropods, due to the many benefits provided by the algae, which can act as a nursery for many species.

The gastropod assemblages stand out, therefore, as an important component of the associated fauna of the *Sargassum* sp. beds in São Sebastião Channel, northern coast of São Paulo. However, studies describing the composition and dynamics of these phytal assemblages are still scarce, especially the ones developed in Brazil. A higher and more detailed

knowledge of these assemblages are an important step for a better understanding and conservation of these environments.

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Zooplankton communities as eutrophication bioindicators in tropical reservoirs

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Abstract: Eutrophication is a process characterized by an increase in the aquatic system productivity, which causes profound changes in the structure of its communities. Owing to the high environmental sensitivity of planktonic species, the study of their communities can indicate the deterioration of the environment. The Jaguari and Jacaré reservoirs are part of the Cantareira System, supplying water to São Paulo inhabitants and that has been affected by several forms of continuous human interference. Here we analyze some properties of the zooplankton community as bioindicators of eutrophication and water quality change. *In situ* physical and chemical measurements were carried out, water was collected for analysis and quantitative zooplankton samples were taken at eight sites in the two reservoirs, in both seasons, dry and rainy. Species were identified and their numerical abundances and biomasses were determined and used to estimate two biological indices. The overall trophic state and zooplankton structure, the Calanoida/Cyclopoida ratio and the *k*-dominance curves were associated with the disturbance levels, mainly represented by nutrient river inputs and by water level fluctuations. The Jaguari Reservoir was more eutrophicated than the Jacaré Reservoir, as evidenced by the obtained indices values. The zooplankton community properties used as indicators of the reservoir trophic state were useful monitoring tools.

Keywords: zooplankton, ABC curves, Calanoida/Cyclopoida ratio, Cantareira System, environmental impact.

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Resumo: A eutrofização é um processo caracterizado pelo aumento da produtividade do sistema aquático, o que provoca profundas alterações na estrutura de suas comunidades. Devido à alta sensibilidade ambiental das espécies planctônicas, o estudo de suas comunidades pode indicar a deterioração do ambiente. Os reservatórios Jaguari e Jacaré são parte do Sistema Cantareira, que fornece água para os habitantes de São Paulo e que tem sido afetado por diversas formas de contínua interferência humana. Neste trabalho vamos analisar algumas propriedades da comunidade zooplancônica como bioindicadoras de eutrofização e alteração da qualidade da água. Foram realizadas medições *in situ* de variáveis físicas e químicas, amostras de água foram coletadas para análises e amostras quantitativas de zooplâncton foram coletadas em oito localidades compreendendo os dois reservatórios, em duas estações, seca e chuvosa. As espécies foram identificadas e suas abundâncias numéricas e biomassas foram determinadas e utilizadas para estimar dois índices biológicos. O estado trófico e a estrutura do zooplâncton, a relação Calanoida / Cyclopoida e as curvas de *k*-dominância foram associados com os níveis de perturbação, representada principalmente pela entrada de nutrientes transportados pelo rio e pelas flutuações no nível da água. O Reservatório Jaguari se encontrava mais eutrofizado do que o Reservatório Jacaré, como evidenciado pelos índices obtidos. As propriedades da comunidade zooplancônica utilizadas como indicadoras do estado trófico dos reservatórios foram úteis como ferramentas de monitoramento.

Palavras-chave: Zooplankton, curvas ABC, razão Calanoida/Cyclopoida, Sistema Cantareira, impacto ambiental.

Introduction

Eutrophication is a detrimental process that can occur in aquatic ecosystems characterized by the enrichment of nutrients, mainly nitrogen and phosphorus, leading to increased productivity of the system (Serafim-Júnior 2010). This process causes changes in communities that may threaten the conservation of aquatic species and, because it is generally associated with some type of pollution, also poses risks to all living beings that directly or indirectly make use of the contaminated water or consume the organisms.

Such an alteration in the trophic state of a water body usually causes profound changes in the structure of plankton communities (Matsumura-Tundisi & Tundisi 2005), which is the reason why the interpretation of biological events in these populations and qualitative and quantitative analysis of their structures allows the degree of deterioration of the water body as a whole to be assessed (Pinto-Coelho et al. 2005, Silva 2011).

Characteristically, the zooplankton community is composed of highly sensitive organisms that respond to a large number of environmental changes in relatively short periods of time. Moreover, because this community is more developed in lentic aquatic systems, studies of its structure and population dynamics can be very useful tools in the analysis of the environmental disturbances to which these water bodies are subjected (Sampaio et al. 2002, Eskinazi-Sant'anna 2013).

An increase in zooplankton biomass has been related by many authors to a rising level of eutrophication, since, to a large extent, a higher trophic state will lead to increased resource availability, which, in turn, leads to growth in the biomass of zooplankton populations (Serafim-Júnior et al. 2010, Bonecker et al. 2007).

Besides recording biomass as a quantitative parameter, another community property used to indicate the trophic condition of the water body is the set of ratios between component populations of the zooplankton (rotifers, copepods and cladocerans) given that these ratios are also affected by eutrophication (Sampaio et al. 2002, Sendacz et al. 2006, Bini et al. 2007).

Studies performed by Gannon & Stemberger (1978) and Tundisi (1988) have associated lower proportions of calanoid to cyclopoid copepods and cladocerans with eutrophic environments. One generalization usually made in relation to zooplankton size structure and trophic state of water bodies is that species with larger bodies such as Calanoida (predominantly herbivores), occur primarily in oligotrophic environments, where there is a predominance of nanophytoplankton (Hillbricht-Ilkowska 1977, Echevarria et al. 1990), whereas the Cyclopoida occur at higher density in meso-eutrophic environments, owing to their ability to handle larger food particles (Pace 1986, Santos-Wisniewski & Rocha 2007). Water quality in tropical reservoirs can also be indicated by using specific species of cyclopoid as indicators (Silva, 2011).

The aim of this study was to relate the zooplankton communities structure with the trophic state and chemical and physical water properties of the Jaguari and Jacaré reservoirs, through the analysis of spatial and temporal changes in numerical abundance and biomass of the community as a whole and in the proportion of bioindicator groups.

Material and Methods

1. Study area

The Jaguari and Jacaré reservoirs, located at 22°92'33.78" S and 46°41'74.94" W (Figure 1), are interconnected and part of Cantareira System, considered one of the largest water-supply systems in the world. In 2008, this system supplied a major portion of the population of the São Paulo Metropolitan Region, the most populous urban area in Brazil, with approximately 8.8 million people. The Jaguari-Jacaré system provides 45% of the water in the Cantareira System, used entirely for the purpose of supplying water (ISA 2007).

Changes in the land use and occupation of the surrounding area, essentially rural in the 1970s, but now occupied by residential developments and leisure activities reflected in the deterioration of the water quality in some of the main tributaries of the basin. The environmental monitoring of the Cantareira system detected two eutrophic sites on the Jaguari River and a hypereutrophic site on the Jacaré River, both with trend towards increasing eutrophication over time (ISA 2007). Despite a great increase in organic pollution in the Jacaré River, the Jacaré Reservoir has remained oligotrophic at most points, owing possibly to the dilution caused by the large volume of water stored in this reservoir and by the low residence time of the water.

2. Sampling and Data Analysis

In situ physical and chemical measurements, water samples for analysis and quantitative zooplankton samples were taken at eight points in the two reservoirs (Figure 1), three in the Jaguari and five in the Jacaré Reservoir. The geographical location of these points was determined with a Garmin GPS, model 130 SOUNDER. Samples were collected in two seasons and contrasting water levels, due to the operation of the reservoirs (outflow control), one in August 2012 (dry season and high water level) and another in March 2013 (rainy season and low water level). All measurements and samplings were carried out in the interval between 9 a.m. and 4 p.m.

The transparency of the water column checked by readings of the Secchi Disk and depth measurements were performed. The extent of the euphotic zone was calculated by multiplying the Secchi depth reading by the factor 3.0. The pH, electrical conductivity ($\mu\text{S cm}^{-1}$), dissolved oxygen concentration (mg L^{-1}) and temperature of the water ($^{\circ}\text{C}$) were measured with a HORIBA U-10 multisensor. Data were collected every 0.5 or 1.0 m according to the sampling point depth.

Data on rainfall and air temperature were retrieved from the website of the Brazilian National Institute of Meteorology (INMET - <http://www.inmet.gov.br>), based on readings at the meteorological station of Monte Verde, MG, the closest to the reservoirs.

The spectrophotometric methods used for the analysis of nutrients were those described by Golterman et al. (1978) and Mackereth et al. (1978).

The trophic state was assessed in terms of the index proposed by Carlson (1977) and modified by Lamparelli (2004), based on the variables: water transparency measured by Secchi disk readings (S), chlorophyll *a* concentration (Chl), total phosphorus (P) and dissolved inorganic phosphate (PO_4), using the formula $\text{TSI} = \text{TSI}(\text{S}) + 2 [\text{TSI}(\text{P}) + \text{TSI}(\text{PO}_4) + \text{TSI}(\text{Chl})] / 7$.

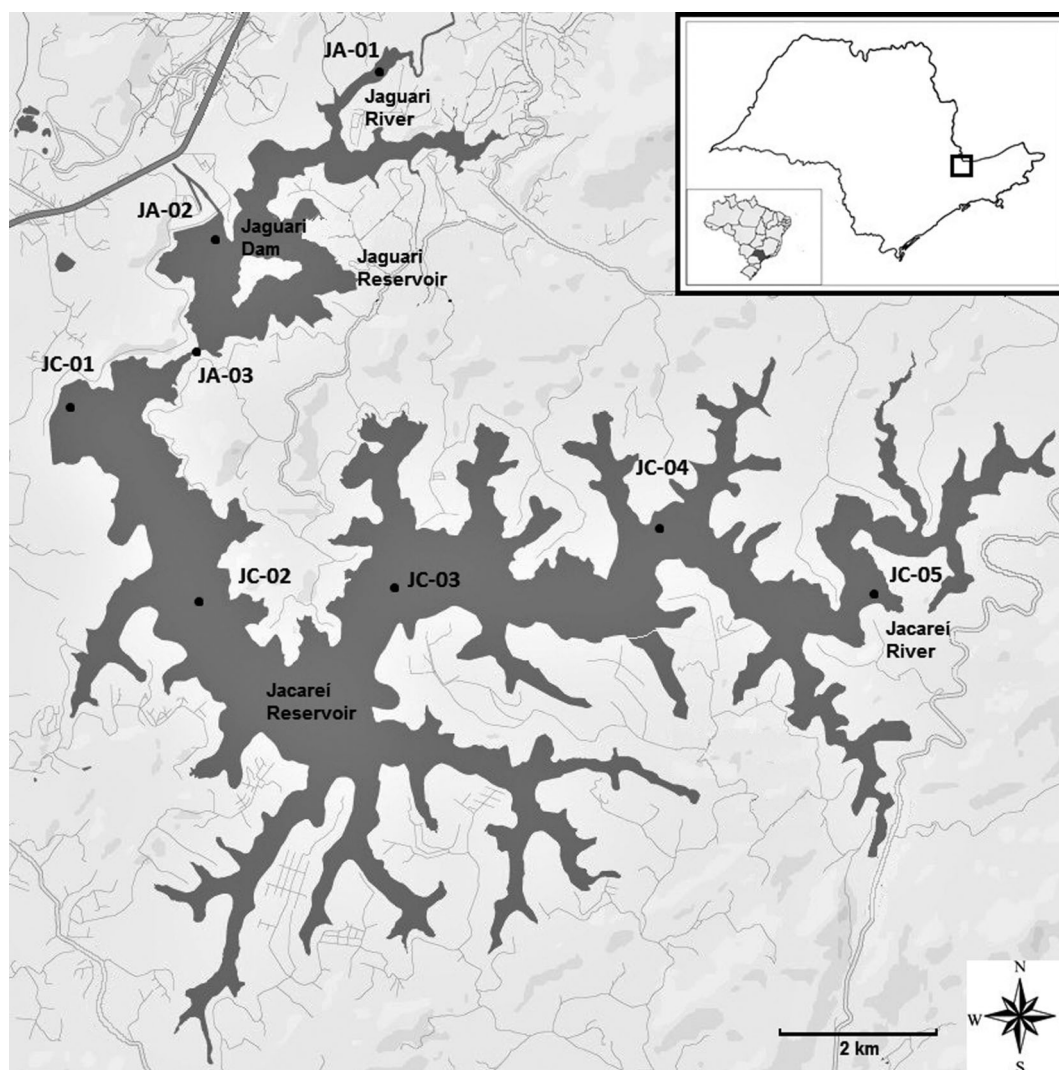


Figure 1. Maps of Jaguari and Jacaréi Reservoirs and inset their location in the state of São Paulo, showing the eight sampling sites in the reservoirs. Geographic coordinates: 22°92'33.78"S and 46°41'74.94" W (Modified from: Google Earth, 2013). The numbers following the abbreviations JC and JA refer to the numbering of the sampling sites.

Chlorophyll concentrations were determined by extraction with 90% acetone, as described in Golterman et al. (1978). Calculations were carried out as indicated by Nush et al. (1980).

Semi-quantitative samples of zooplankton were collected using plankton net of 68 μm mesh aperture, by vertical hauls. The collected volume of water was calculated by multiplying the area of the net mouth by the trawl depth. After sampling, the material was preserved in 4% formaldehyde solution.

The zooplankton were identified to genus or species level under a Zeiss® microscope with camera lucida and magnification up to 1,000 times, and had their sizes measured by a computerized image acquisition system. For taxonomic identification, dissections were performed, slides mounted and the following keys and specialized bibliography were used: Edmondson 1959, Koste 1978, Reid 1985, Nogrady et al. 1993, Elmoor-Loureiro 1997, Nogrady & Segers 2002, Segers & Shiel 2003, Silva & Matsumura-Tundisi 2005.

To determine the numerical abundance of each taxon, samples were analyzed in a gridded acrylic plate under a stereoscopic Leica® MZ6 microscope at 50 times magnification.

Counts were performed on subsamples of variable size, according to species abundance, and for the least abundant species the count was performed on the whole sample. For the Rotifera species and for Copepoda nauplii, subsamples of 1 mL were counted in a Sedgewick-Rafter chamber under an optical microscope, at up to 1,000 times magnification. Once identified and counted, population densities were calculated and expressed as number of individuals per cubic meter of water (ind.m^{-3}).

Body size measurements (about 20 individuals of each species or genus per sample) were made under an optical microscope with an ocular micrometer and together with corresponding population density data, were used to estimate the biomass, expressed in μg of dry weight per cubic meter ($\mu\text{g dw.m}^{-3}$).

Biomasses of Cladocera and Copepoda were calculated with the standard linear equation for the double logarithmic regression proposed by Bottrell et al. (1976), which relates the body length (mm) of individuals in a given taxonomic group (Cladocera and Copepoda) to their dry weight (μg).

The following equations were used: $\ln W = 1.7512 + 2.6530 \ln L$ for cladocerans and $\ln W = 1.9526 + 2.3990 \ln L$ for copepods.

The biomass of each group (Cladocera or Copepoda) was calculated as the sum of the biomass of individual populations. Copepoda was subdivided into two sub-groups, viz. the sub-orders Calanoida and Cyclopoida.

The biomass of Rotifera species was determined by the technique described by Ruttner-Kolisko (1977), in which the biovolume is calculated by specific formulas for the geometrical shape closest to the shape of each species or developmental phase.

Two indices were used as biological indicators of the trophic state of the reservoir or disturbances in particular compartments of the reservoirs.

The first was the ratio CA/CY (Calanoida/Cyclopoida) between the numerical densities of populations belonging to the sub-orders Calanoida and Cyclopoida, which was assessed as a possible bioindicator of the trophic state in the various portions of the reservoirs.

The second index was the shape of the ABC curves (Warwick, 1986) representing the accumulated numerical abundance and biomass of all populations present in a given community, which can be an indicator of environmental perturbation. The W parameter of the ABC curves was obtained from the expression $W = \sum (Bi - Ai) / [50 (S - 1)]$, where Bi is the biomass value of each sequence of species (i) on the ABC curve, Ai is the abundance of each sequence of species (i) on the ABC curve and S is the number of species. This index allows the degree of disturbance of these environments to be expressed quantitatively. Positive values indicate an undisturbed environment; negative values suggest disturbed communities and values near zero indicate moderate disorders: the value of W can range from -1 to 1.

To compare species diversity between the sampled sites in the Jaguari and Jacaré reservoirs, the following indices were calculated: Richness (number of taxa recorded), Shannon-Wiener diversity index (H'), Dominance index (D') and Evenness or Pielou Equitability index (J).

The beta diversity, that informs the heterogeneity of the sampled stations relative to the species richness, was estimated from the β -1 index of Harrison et al. (1992).

The Canonical Correspondence Analysis (CCA) was employed to seek correlations between the environmental variables and the density and biomass of zooplankton groups, through the CANOCO 3:12 program (Ter Braak & Šmilauer 2002). During the analysis, the significance of correlation between environmental and biotic parameters was tested by a Monte Carlo test with 999 random permutations, and $p \leq 0.5$ as the criterion of significance.

Results

In August 2012, the rainfall values (mm) were the lowest in that year, since from mid July until the first sampling date (August) there was very little precipitation (1 mm) and given that in the three months before this sampling the total precipitation in the reservoirs was 363 mm. The second sampling, conducted at the beginning of March 2013, reflected the large amount of rain that had fallen since October 2012, with a rainfall of 938 mm recorded in the three months preceding the data gathering, of which 335 mm was from the previous month. The lowest air temperatures ($^{\circ}\text{C}$) in the year 2012 were recorded in the period between May and October with an average of 14°C in the previous three months to the first collection. From the end of October until March 2013, the average temperature in the three months before the second sampling was higher, being 20°C .

According to data provided by the water authority, SABESP, the maximum operational volume of both reservoirs working in a coupled mode is 1047.9 hm^3 . In August 2012 (low rainfall and high water level), the volume of this operating system reached 73.81% of the maximum capacity, while in March 2013 (high rainfall and low water level) it was 59.19%. The average flow rate for the dry period was $31.5 \text{ m}^3/\text{s}$ and, for the rainy season, $24.9 \text{ m}^3/\text{s}$, resulting in residence times of 284 and 288 days, respectively.

Table 1 presents the values of physical and chemical variables measured at various points in the Jaguari and Jacaré reservoirs. It was found that seven of the eight sampling sites had lower trophic state indices in the dry than in the rainy season. At the first sampling, seven of the eight points were characterized as oligotrophic ($\text{TSI} \leq 44$) and only one point, located in the Jaguari reservoir, was mesotrophic (TSI range = 44 to 54). In the second sampling, however, five sites were

Table 1. Values of Trophic State Index (TSI) of Carlson, modified by Lamparelli, 2004, chlorophyll *a*, total phosphorus and total nitrogen concentrations, pH, electrical conductivity, dissolved oxygen, water temperature, depth of the water column and the Secchi disk with their respective standard deviations, recorded at the sampling sites in Jaguari (JA) and Jacaré (JC) Reservoirs, in August 2012 (dry) and March 2013 (rainy season). The numbers following the abbreviations JC and JA refer to the first (1) and second (2) sampling.

Environ. Variables – Site / Sampling	Measurement Unit	JA/1	JC/1	JA/2	JC/2
TSI	-	42.7 ± 7.04	33.0 ± 4.47	60.7 ± 6.55	38.4 ± 3.07
Chl <i>a</i>	$\mu\text{g/L}$	3.1 ± 0.33	3.4 ± 0.52	22.8 ± 15.73	3.1 ± 2.00
Total P	$\mu\text{g/L}$	32 ± 17.78	28 ± 11.60	135 ± 42.01	25 ± 4.02
Total N	$\mu\text{g/L}$	548 ± 77.19	491 ± 82.00	463 ± 262.11	545 ± 45.58
pH	-	6.5 ± 0.75	6.9 ± 0.83	6.9 ± 1.49	6.4 ± 0.90
Elec.Cond.	$\mu\text{S.cm}^{-1}$	28.2 ± 1.18	27.4 ± 0.70	22.4 ± 1.25	22.1 ± 0.50
DO	mg.L^{-1}	8.0 ± 1.29	8.2 ± 1.26	6.7 ± 3.47	7.4 ± 1.71
Temp.	$^{\circ}\text{C}$	18.2 ± 1.53	19.4 ± 0.77	23.6 ± 2.27	25.1 ± 0.98
Depth	m	10.0 ± 5.92	16.8 ± 5.74	13.8 ± 11.52	16.5 ± 6.71
Secchi	m	2.8 ± 1.11	3.8 ± 0.12	0.5 ± 0.18	2.5 ± 0.38

classified as oligotrophic, all located in the Jacaréí reservoir, while among the three located in the Jaguari reservoir, one site was mesotrophic and two were eutrophic (TSI range = 54 to 74).

It was observed that in the dry period, the amplitude of variation in the nutrient concentrations in the reservoirs was lower than in the rainy season. In the latter period, there were higher peaks of phosphorus, chlorophyll *a* and total nitrogen concentrations in the Jaguari Reservoir. Also in this reservoir there was a fall in Secchi Disk depth readings in the second sampling.

The dissolved oxygen concentrations in the water recorded in the dry period ranged between 7.1 and 9.1 mg L⁻¹, while in the rainy season the range was lower, from 5.6 to 8.7 mg L⁻¹. The electrical conductivity of the water ranged between 26.7 and 30.4 $\mu\text{S}\cdot\text{cm}^{-1}$ in the dry season and between 21 and 23.5 $\mu\text{S}\cdot\text{cm}^{-1}$ in the rainy. In the rainy season the average

temperature was higher at all points, while the pH decreased at six points, relative to the dry season.

Total densities of zooplankton and also those of each group are shown in Figures 2a and 2b, for the dry and rainy periods, respectively. In general, densities were higher in samples collected in August 2012, with the exception of site JA-01, in which density was also high in March 2013, owing the large numbers of cyclopoid copepods. It was also observed that rotifers were numerically dominant at seven of the eight sites in the samples collected during the dry season, while in the rainy season this occurred at only three points and numbers were generally lower.

Figures 2c and 2d present the biomass values for total zooplankton and for each component group. It can be observed that in the dry season (Figure 2c), the total biomass of zooplankton was higher at sites JA-01 and JA-02, but lower at point JC-03. In the samples taken during the rainy season

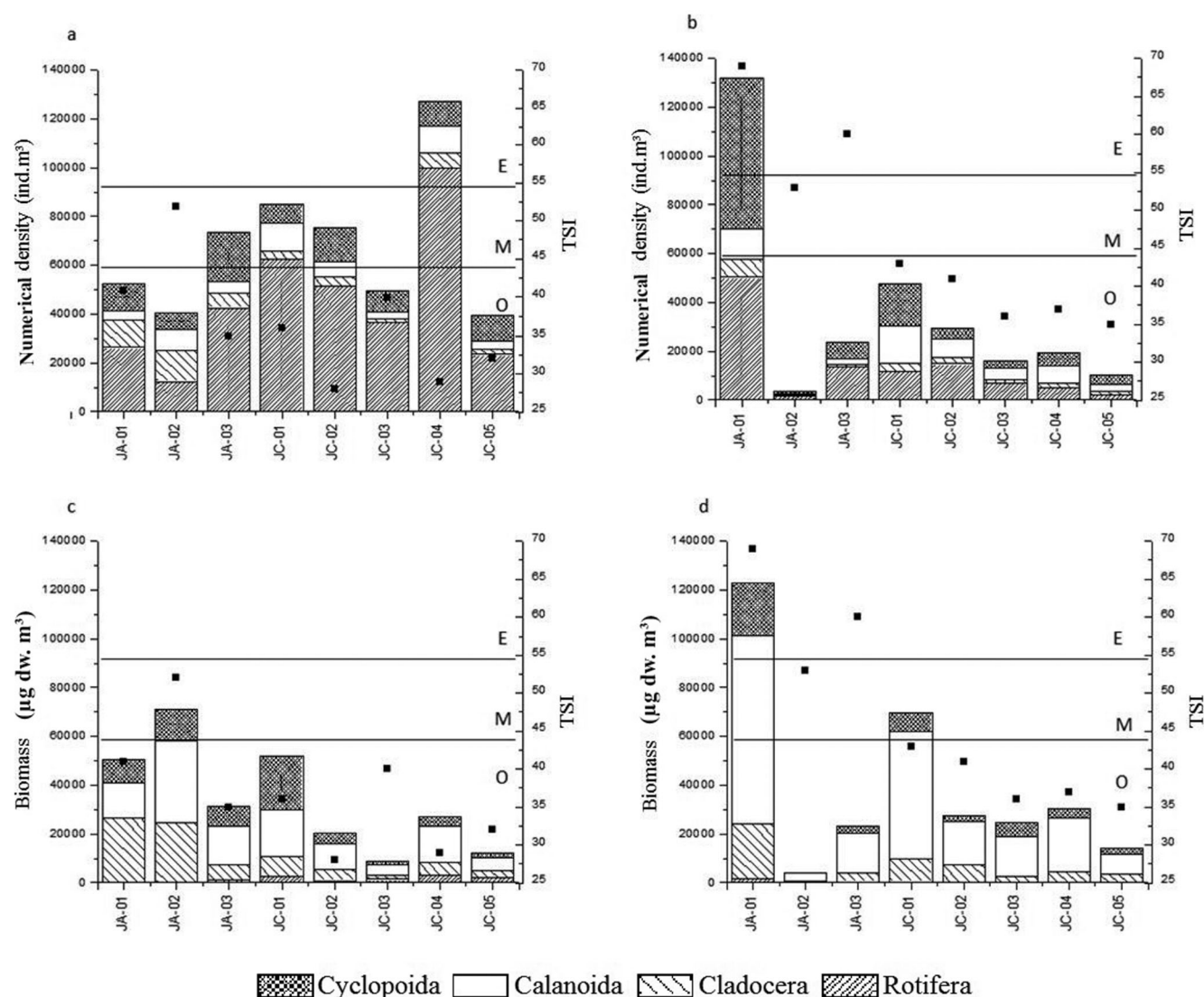


Figure 2. Values of total numerical density (ind.m⁻³) and total biomass (µg dw. m⁻³) of the main components of the zooplankton community groups and values of trophic state index at the sampling sites in the Jaguari and Jacaréí reservoirs, SP, during Aug 2012 (dry season) and Mar 2013 (rainy season). a) Density in August 2012, b) Density in March 2013, c) Biomass in August 2012, d) Biomass in March 2013 (O = oligotrophic, M = mesotrophic, E = eutrophic). The numbers following the abbreviations JC and JA refer to the numbering of the sampling sites.

Table 2. Values of the components of diversity (species richness and evenness) and the Shannon-Wiener Diversity and Dominance Indices for zooplankton species in the Jaguari and Jacaré reservoirs during Aug 2012 (dry season) and Mar 2013 (rainy season). The numbers following the abbreviations JC and JA refer to the numbering of the sampling sites.

1 st sampling	JA-01	JA-02	JA-03	JC-01	JC-02	JC-03	JC-04	JC-05
Richness	13	13	18	19	21	18	21	20
Dominance	0.62	0.39	0.24	0.16	0.16	0.20	0.17	0.18
Shannon-Wiener	0.95	1.56	1.91	2.15	2.06	1.81	1.97	2.06
Evenness	0.37	0.60	0.66	0.73	0.68	0.63	0.65	0.69
2 nd sampling	JA-01	JA-02	JA-03	JC-01	JC-02	JC-03	JC-04	JC-05
Richness	18	5	12	16	13	11	18	20
Dominance	0.14	0.38	0.24	0.13	0.40	0.14	0.12	0.14
Shannon-Wiener	2.43	1.11	1.78	2.39	1.51	2.15	2.47	2.46
Evenness	0.84	0.69	0.71	0.86	0.59	0.90	0.85	0.82

(Figure 2d), the total biomass was high at site JA-01, close to the influx of the Jaguari river.

The highest biomass of cladocerans in the samples collected in August 2012 (low rainfall) occurred near the Jaguari river entry-point (JA-01 and JA-02), while in March 2013 (high rainfall), the biomass of this group was high only at JA-01. In the sampling carried out in March 2013, Calanoid copepods reached a higher biomass than in August 2012 at almost all sites and the highest biomass among all the taxonomic groups (Calanoida, Cyclopoida, Cladocera and Rotifera). Biomasses of all groups were highest at the most eutrophic point, JA -01. Unlike the numerical density, the biomass of Rotifera was the lowest of all groups of zooplankton at all sites in both seasons.

During the dry season, the lowest richness in Jaguari Reservoir was recorded in the upstream part of the Jaguari reservoir (JA-01, JA-02), with a total of 13 species, while at the other sampling sites richness varied between 18 and 21 species; dominance index values were 0.62 and 0.39 at JA-01 and JA-02, while at the remaining sites these ranged from 0.16 to 0.24. The equitability index at JA-01 was 0.37, the lowest value recorded, while at the other sites it ranged from 0.60 to 0.73. The Shannon-Wiener index for the zooplankton community was 0.95 at JA-01 and 1.56 at JA-02, while at other sites it varied from 1.81 to 2.15 (Table 2).

The heterogeneity value obtained through the beta diversity index was 15%, which reveals great similarity of the zooplankton diversity among the Jaguari and Jacaré reservoirs, especially among the Copepoda and the Cladocera; however, some differences were observed in the Rotifera taxonomic composition: seven species occurred only in the Jacaré reservoir (*Ascomorpha ecaudis*, *Asplanchna sieboldi*, *Keratella americana*, *Keratella lenzi*, *Conochilus dossuarius*, *Trichocerca similis* and *Conochilus coenobasis*), whereas the remainder occurred in both reservoirs, except for *Trichocerca Capuccina*, which occurred only in the Jaguari reservoir.

During the dry season, copepods of the order Cyclopoida were dominant at most sites, with values of the ratio CA/CY lower than 1.0. At the few sites where the dominance of the

order Calanoida was observed, the numerical densities of both groups were similar resulting in values of the ratio close to 1.0 (Table 3).

In the rainy season, when a lower water level is maintained in the reservoir, the lowest values of the Calanoida / Cyclopoida ratio (close to 0.0) were obtained at the sites with the highest trophic state index in the Jaguari reservoir, indicating a decrease in the abundance of Calanoida copepods at these sites. At the remaining sites ratios near 1.0 were recorded; however, there was dominance of Calanoida Copepoda in some parts of the Jacaré reservoir, especially at JC-02, where the value of CA/CY was 1.94 (Table 3).

For zooplankton sampled in August 2012 (Figure 3) it is observed that, although the two ABC curves are close, the numerical abundance curve is located above the biomass curve at all sampling sites, indicating slightly disturbed environments, with intermediate conditions. For the sampling conducted in March 2013 (Figure 4), the biomass curve is located above the numerical abundance curve at most sites, indicating undisturbed environments, with the exception of JA-01 and JA-03, where the abundance curve practically covers the biomass curve ($w < 0.09$), suggesting that these are slightly disturbed habitats. In the dry season, it was found that all values of the W index were negative, ranging from -0.14 to -0.031, while in the rainy season, all values were positive and ranged from 0.01 to 0.3 (Figures 3 and 4).

In the CCA conducted relating the numerical density and the abiotic variables (Figure 5a) it was observed that the first two axes explained 77.9% of the data variability. There is a positive correlation between TSI, chlorophyll *a*, temperature and total phosphorus with the zooplankton groups Copepoda and Cladocera and also with the rainy period. On the other hand the numerical densities of Rotifera were positively correlated with the values of dissolved oxygen and total nitrogen and also with the dry period.

Regarding the CCA analysis applied to the biomass and environmental variables values (Figure 5b), the first two axes had an explicability of 53.6%. A positive correlation between the Copepoda biomass and the variables TSI, chlorophyll *a*,

Table 3. Calanoid:cyclopoid copepods density ratio (CA/CY) in zooplankton communities sampled in August 2012 (dry) and March 2013 (rainy season) in Jaguari (JA) and Jacaré (JC) reservoirs. The numbers following the abbreviations JC and JA refer to the numbering of the sampling sites.

CA/CY RATIO	JA-01	JA-02	JA-03	JC-01	JC-02	JC-03	JC-04	JC-05
1 st samp.	0.35	1.16	0.24	1.27	0.44	0.36	1.05	0.28
2 nd samp.	0.20	0.38	0.30	0.85	1.94	1.38	1.36	0.79

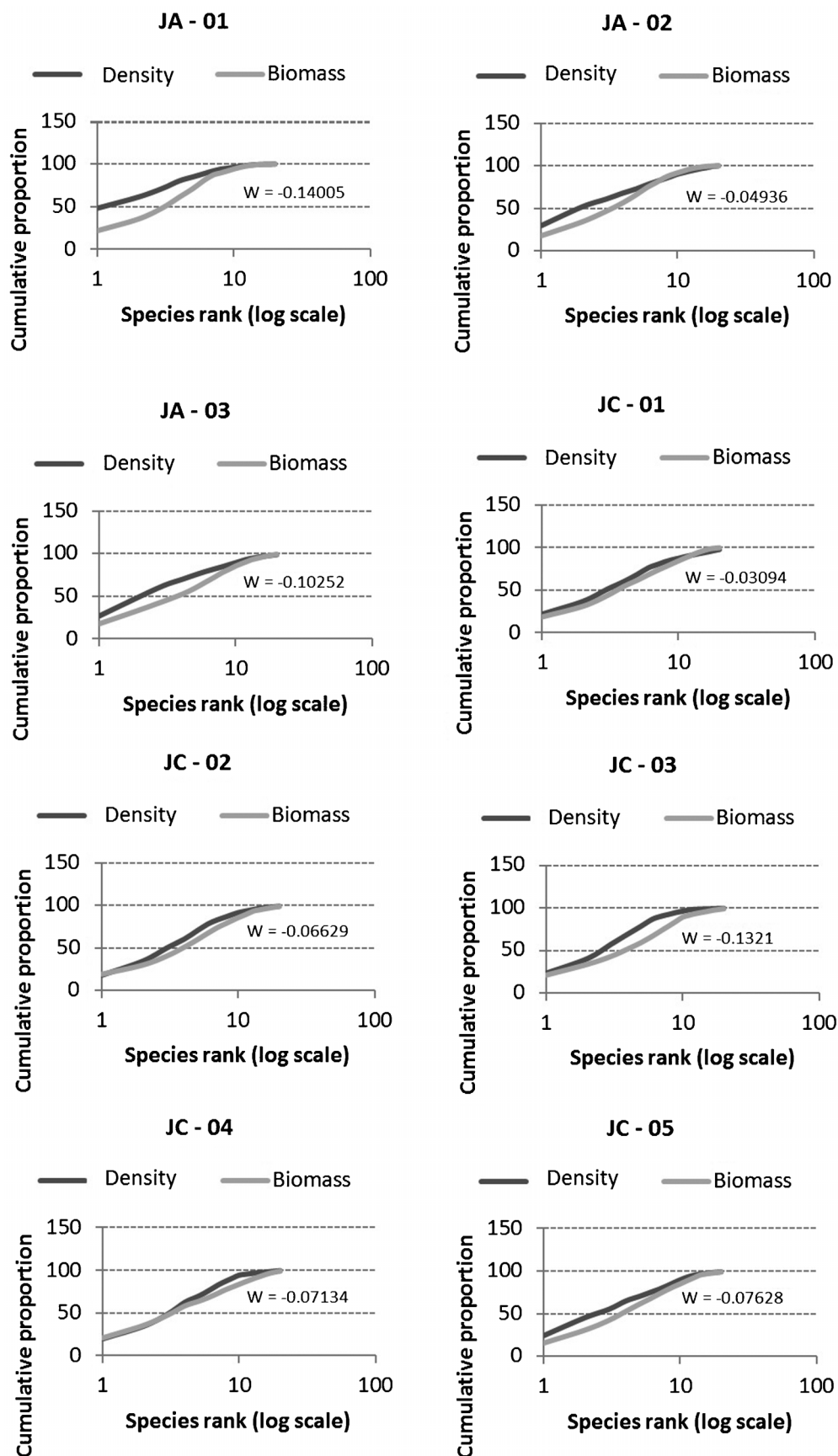


Figure 3. ABC curves comparing cumulative biomass and numerical abundance of all zooplankton taxa and their respective W index values for the zooplankton community at the various sampling sites in the Jaguari (JA) and Jacaré (JC) reservoirs during the dry season (August 2012). The numbers following the abbreviations JC and JA refer to the numbering of the sampling sites.

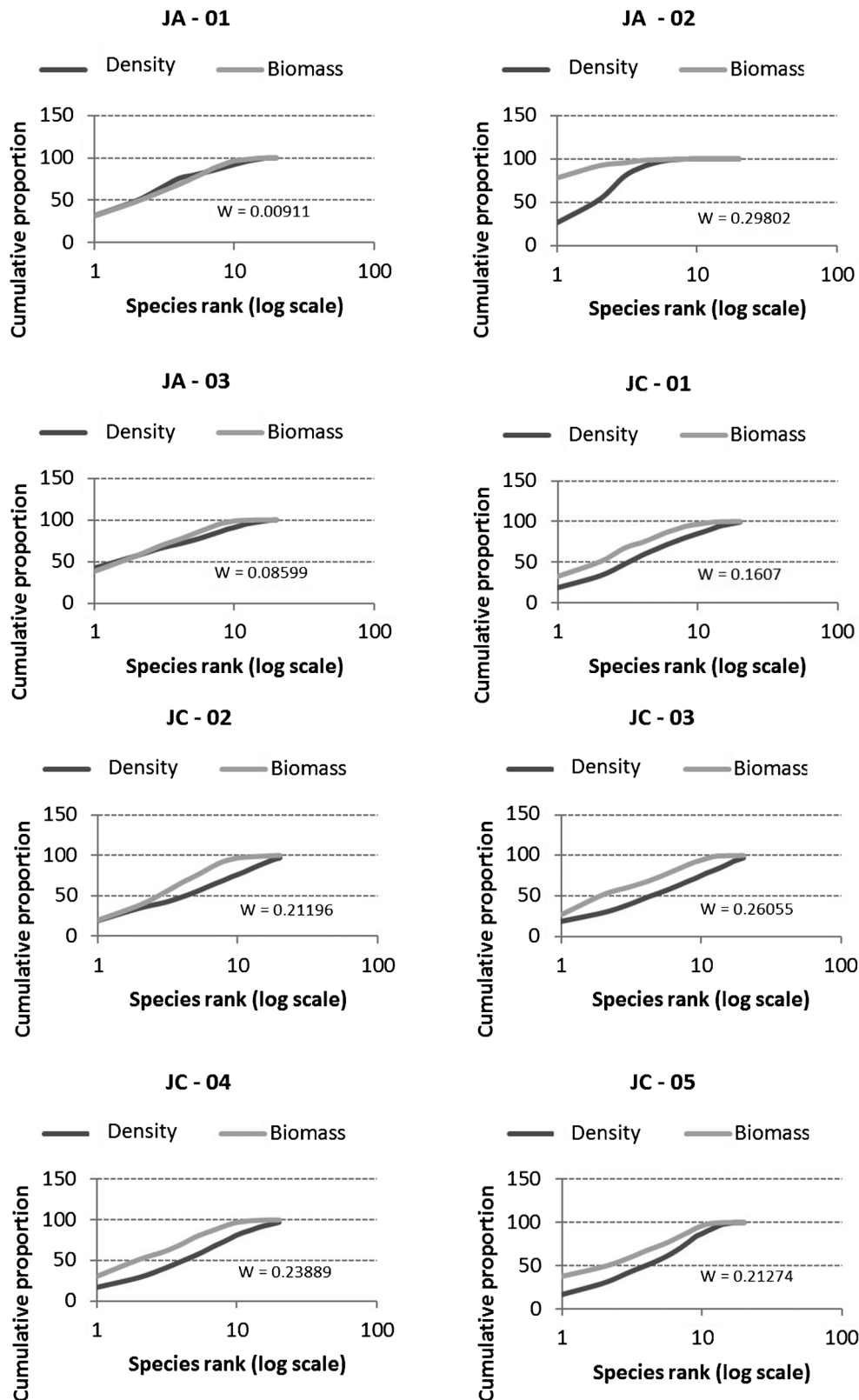


Figure 4. ABC curves comparing cumulative biomass and numerical abundance of all zooplankton taxa and their respective W index values for the zooplankton community at the various sampling sites in the Jaguari (JA) and Jacaré (JC) reservoirs during the rainy season (March 2013). The numbers following the abbreviations JC and JA refer to the numbering of the sampling sites.

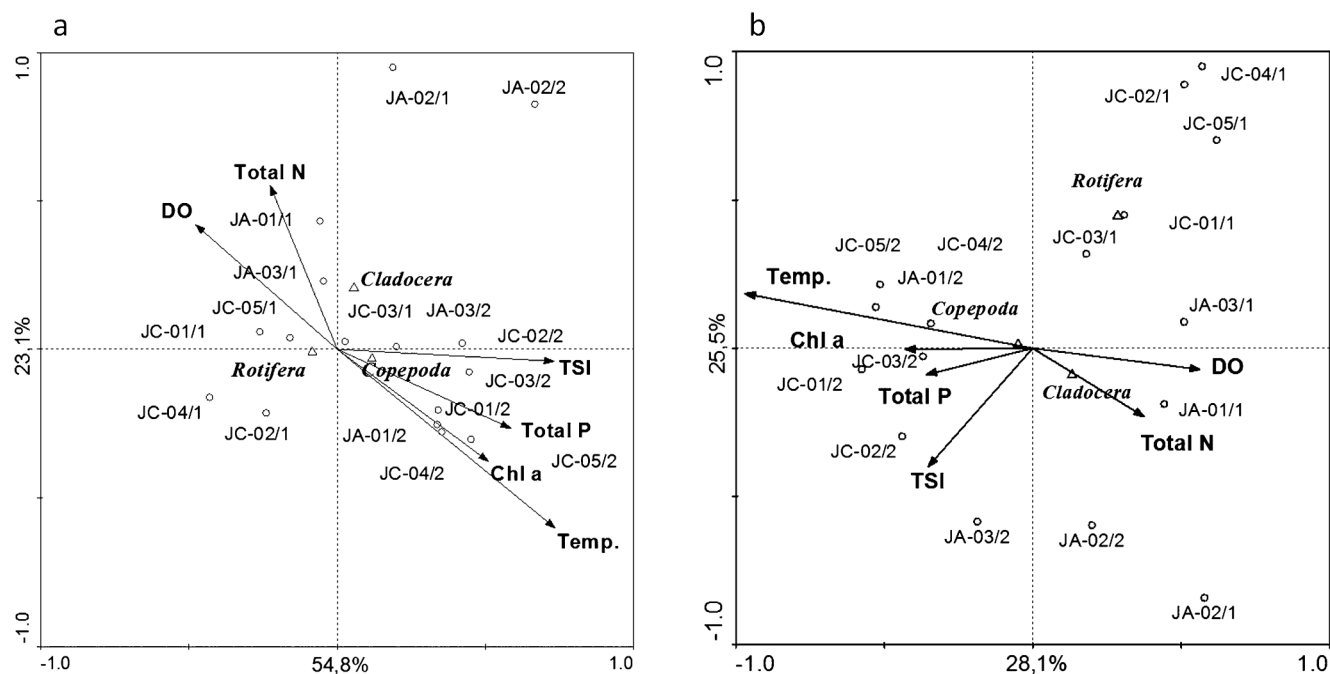


Figure 5. Canonical Correspondence Analysis applied to abiotic variables and a) numerical density and b) total biomass of zooplankton groups in the Jaguarí (JA) and Jacaré (JC) reservoirs during the dry (August 2012) and rainy (March 2013) seasons (/1 – dry season; /2 – rainy season). The numbers following the abbreviations JC and JA refer to the numbering of the sampling sites.

total phosphorus and temperature was found. The biomasses of the Rotifera and Cladocera groups were correlated with the concentrations of total nitrogen and dissolved oxygen.

Discussion

Many Brazilian reservoirs undergo large annual fluctuations in the water level, partially determined by climatic forces but mainly by the operation of the dam. This was the case in Barra Bonita reservoir, the uppermost in the reservoir cascade along the Tietê River basin (Matsumura-Tundisi & Tundisi 2005). Its water level is fully controlled in order to regulate the levels in the downstream reservoirs, as well as the amount of hydroelectricity produced, one of the main zooplankton communities modifiers (Bini et al. 2007). A similar situation was observed in the Jaguarí and Jacaré reservoirs in the present study, where, during the dry season, the reservoirs levels were high, reaching 73.81% of their maximum capacity, whereas in the rainy season they were only 59.19% full. Thus, the water level was more related to the changes in the amount of water extracted for the public supply than to the natural inputs from the catchment basin.

The increasing trophic state of Jaguarí Reservoir (RJA) in the rainy season was evidenced by the increase in the concentration of chlorophyll *a* at two of the three sites sampled and the significant increase in the concentration of total phosphorus, due to the continuous inflow of the Jaguarí River, which receives domestic untreated sewage and thus represents the main point source of pollution and disturbance in this reservoir (ISA 2007); the increase of eutrophication in the rainy period, as well as the strong relationship between this increase with the total phosphorus and chlorophyll *a* concentrations was evidenced by both CCA analyses conducted. On the basis of these variables, this reservoir was classified as eutrophic in the rainy period.

At the sites located in the Jacaré reservoir (RJC), the values of TSI were relatively similar between the two sampling dates and RJC was classified as oligotrophic at all points. Although this reservoir receives the organically polluted waters of the Jacaré River, its much larger volume of water (compared to RJA) results in great dilution of the nutrients transported by the river and also carried in runoff from the disturbed catchment basin (ISA 2007).

The decrease in the water transparency (Secchi disk) in the rainy season is another indication of the increase in the trophic state of Jaguarí Reservoir. However, the high inorganic turbidity of water in tropical reservoirs can, in some periods and depending on the activities occurring in the basin, affect the reliability of this measure of the trophic state, which should not be used alone (Mercante & Tucci-Moura 1999).

Zooplankton densities in the reservoirs were lower at seven of the eight sites sampled during the rainy season, possibly due to dilution by the greater volume of water and partially by the removal of populations by the downstream outflow (water extraction system operation). The only site at which a high density of zooplankton was found was near the entrance of the Jaguarí river, probably reflecting the higher trophic conditions suggested by the high phosphorus and chlorophyll concentrations (TSI value = 69). The fall in zooplankton at the end of the rainy season has also been observed in other reservoirs, as in the Guarapiranga reservoir, by Sendacz et al. (2006), and the Barra Bonita reservoir, by Tundisi et al. (2008).

For the Jaguarí and Jacaré reservoirs the highest concentrations of nutrients were observed during periods of high water level. Tundisi et al. (2008) indicated that, in the Barra Bonita reservoir, the highest concentration of nutrients occurs at the beginning of the rainfall, due to entrainment of soil particles from runoff and via tributaries; however, after some time, a diluting effect may occur because of the increased volume of

water, reducing the concentration of nutrients. This may explain why, despite the high rates of TSI during the rainy season, caused by the importing of nutrients, zooplankton communities have low densities, possibly due to dilution caused by excess rainfall.

A direct relationship was found between the values of zooplankton biomass and trophic levels in the reservoirs in both periods and at almost all sampling sites, except at JC-03 and JC-05 during the dry season, at which the high density of nauplii, possibly due to a reproductive peak, resulted in a lower copepod population biomass, and at JA-02 during the rainy season, which had low chlorophyll concentrations, suggesting that low food availability may have been a limiting factor for community growth, despite the high concentration of nitrogen, an indicator of the presence of sewage carried in the Jaguari river inflow. This close relationship between the values of biomass and TSI was also observed by Bonecker et al. (2007) in three reservoirs in Paraná State.

In the samplings carried out during the dry season, at seven of the eight points, there was a numerical dominance of rotifers, a relationship that is noticeably established by the CCA, not only by the numerical density, but also by the Rotifera biomass, which was strongly related to the dry period too. The dominance of rotifers at most sites is possibly a consequence of an unstable environment, which enhance r-strategists growth (Matsumura-Tundisi & Tundisi 2005). The higher biomass in both periods was associated with Copepoda Calanoida, except at the main river entrance points JA-01 and JC-01, a feature expected for oligotrophic water bodies, as reported by Pinto-Coelho et al. (2005), who concluded that the Calanoida are good indicators of oligotrophy.

In contrast, in the meso-eutrophic Guarapiranga Reservoir Sendacz et al. (2006) reported that the Cyclopoida were the main contributors to the biomass in the reservoir during the dry period, a fact commonly observed in other eutrophic Brazilian reservoirs, like Barra Bonita, SP (Santos-Wisniewski & Rocha 2007).

Under the more eutrophic conditions of sites JA-01 and JA-02 during the dry season and JA-01 during the rainy season, the highest cladoceran biomasses were observed, a response similar to that reported by Bonecker et al. (2007) and Serafim-Júnior et al. (2010) that observed an increase in Cladocera biomass and abundance at points with highest trophic state condition. This strong relationship between the Cladocera and the most eutrophic period and variables, like total phosphorus and chlorophyll *a*, is evidenced by the CCA.

The values of the four diversity related indices reflected the disturbance caused by the Jaguari River nutrient input on the zooplankton community at the sites located in the upper portion of the reservoir, especially during the dry season, indicating the imbalance in the community concerned. In the Jacaréi reservoir, on the other hand, there are lower levels of dominance and higher values of evenness and Shannon-Wiener index, indicating a less disturbed body of water, possibly due to the greater volume of water in this reservoir. The values found for the richness of species in the zooplankton communities of the Jaguari and Jacaréi reservoirs were low compared to those reported by Silva (2011) whereas the evenness of species populations found in this study was high compared to those obtained by the same author.

The taxonomic differences observed for Rotifera between the reservoirs is possibly due to the greater spatial heterogeneity

observed in the Jacaréi reservoir, which may bear a higher number of species, especially rotifers, that have a short life cycle, fast adaptation to environmental variations and higher turnover rates, which makes them a more representative group in freshwater environments and good indicators of the trophic level in these environments (Serafim-Júnior et al. 2010, Bini et al. 2007). Besides these characteristics the lowest trophic level of the Jacaréi reservoir allows greater taxonomic diversity.

The zooplankton community structure did change with the changes of trophic conditions over the reservoirs. Relative numbers and biomass of Calanoids decreased and those of Cyclopoids increased at sites under more eutrophic conditions, thus resulting in lower values of Calanoida-Cyclopoida ratios. This pattern has been reported before for other Brazilian reservoirs (Tundisi 1988, Santos-Wisniewski & Rocha 2007, Sendacz et al. 2006) and elsewhere for both, tropical, and subtropical water bodies (Pace 1986, Caramujo & Boavida 2000), namely that the presence of calanoid copepods relates to a low trophic level in the habitat, while cyclopoid copepods are favored in the more productive areas of higher trophic state. The higher proportion of calanoids in oligotrophic waters is due to the herbivorous-filter feeding habit of most species belonging to this group, especially in adulthood; and such feeding is based on nano-phytoplankton, which is replaced by micro-phytoplankton in environments of higher trophic state. In eutrophic environments, with the fall in the population density of Calanoida, we observe the dominance of Cyclopoida, which are mostly carnivorous and prey on smaller species of Rotifera and Cladocera, usually more abundant at higher levels of nutrients (Matsumura-Tundisi & Tundisi 1976, Nogueira 2001).

The *k*-dominance curves for the zooplankton community in the different compartments of the Jaguari and Jacaréi reservoirs indicated that during the dry season this environment was disturbed or polluted, since the numerical density curve was raised above the biomass curve, especially at sites located in the Jaguari reservoir, possibly because the low rainfall augmented the constant supply of nutrients from the Jaguari river. For the zooplankton sampled in the rainy season, the raising of the biomass curve over the density at most sites, indicates that the environment was undisturbed, which is probably due to the dilution caused by the rains and the dam operation. A similar result was observed by Arantes-Júnior (2011) in his study of the zooplankton community in the Madeira river in various hydrological cycles, where the numerical curves were raised in most samples collected during periods of low water and flooding (with lower depths, low light and high concentrations of suspended solids). However, during periods of high depth and rates of flow due to high rainfall, the biomass curves overlapped, indicating lower disturbance than in other periods.

In the rainy season, however, the *k*-dominance curves obtained for the zooplankton at the Jaguari river entrance and at the downstream compartment (sites JA-01 and JA-03) show an overlapping of the lines, indicating moderate perturbation, resulting from the constant supply of nutrients coming from the river Jaguari and consequent eutrophication, corroborated by the corresponding trophic indices.

Regarding the values of *W*, it was found that in the dry period this parameter was negative, suggesting a disturbed environment, while in the rainy season, the positive values of *W* indicate that the environment was undisturbed, or, in the case of JA-01 and JA-03, in an intermediate condition (Warwick

1986). Sonoda (2011) also applied these parameters to microcrustaceans in the Tropeiros lake and found that near the littoral zone the numerical curve was above the biomass curve and the value of W negative, indicating a community in a disturbed habitat. For the limnetic region, the biomass curve was higher than the numeric curve and W was positive, indicating that the community environment was undisturbed. The author explains that the region near the land suffers greater outside influence and, being a shallower region, it may be affected more by turbulence, due to sediment suspension, besides other factors.

In the case of Jaguari and Jacaré reservoirs, the main disturbances were due to the combined effects of two factors: eutrophication and controlled changes in the water level due to variations in the water extraction.

In conclusion, it can be seen that biological indices can be used to assess the effects of various environmental disorders, which alter the number and biomass of the zooplankton in a similar manner.

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Five new species of Ectobiidae (Blattodea) collected in the Reserva Ducke, Amazonas, Brazil

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Abstract: Herein we describe five new species of the Ectobiidae subfamilies Pseudophyllodromiinae (*Amazonina spiculata* sp. nov., *Amazonina spinostylata* sp. nov., *Cariblatia duckeniana* sp. nov., *Cariblatia manauensis* sp. nov.) and Nyctiborinae (*Nyctibora nigra* sp. nov.), collected in the Reserva Ducke, Manaus, state of Amazonas. The specimens were collected from litter, fallen logs, branches, and foliage. We illustrate the male genitalia of the new species.

Keywords: Blattaria, Nyctiborinae, Pseudophyllodromiinae, Taxonomy, Leaf litter.

LOPES, S.M., OLIVEIRA, E.H., TARLI, V. Cinco espécies novas de Ectobiidae (Blattodea) coletados na Reserva Ducke, Amazonas, Brasil. Biota Neotropica. 14(4): e20130079. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1590/1676-06032014007913>

Resumo: Neste trabalho são descritas cinco novas espécies das subfamílias Pseudophyllodromiinae (*Amazonina spiculata* sp. nov., *Amazonina spinostylata* sp. nov., *Cariblatia duckeniana* sp. nov., *Cariblatia manauensis* sp. nov.) and Nyctiborinae (*Nyctibora nigra* sp. nov.) coletadas na Reserva Ducke, Manaus (Estado do Amazonas). Os espécimens foram coletados em folheto, troncos caídos, ramos e folhagens. Foram ilustradas as genitálias dos machos das novas espécies.

Palavras-chave: Blattaria, Nyctiborinae, Pseudophyllodromiinae, Taxonomia, Folheto.

Introduction

The specimens of Blattodea presented herein were collected in the Reserva Ducke, Manaus, state of Amazonas, and belong to the family Ectobiidae. Most ectobiid species are small in size compared to blaberids and many blattids. They are usually long-legged and very fast-moving (Rentz 2014). Forest ecosystems, such as the area within the Ducke Reserve, have structurally complex habitats where cockroaches are relatively diverse. These habitats offer many niches for roach populations, including living and dead leaves, branches, cracks and spaces in the bark, twigs, hollows, etc. (Bell et al. 2007). In temperate climates, cockroaches play a minor role in soil biology because their populations are not very dense (Eisenbeis & Wichard 1985). Similarly, in tropical forests, ants, mites and springtails are dominant, and cockroaches are only occasionally mentioned in this context (Fittkau & Klinge 1973).

In this contribution we describe and illustrate the male genitalia of five new species of Ectobiidae collected in the Reserva Ducke, Manaus, state of Amazonas. Four of the new species belong to the subfamily Pseudophyllodromiinae and one to Nyctiborinae. The Ectobiidae were studied by Khambampati (1996), based on 31 species of cockroaches and their mitochondrial DNA and RNA concluded that

Ectobiidae is a sister group of Blaberidae. This conclusion was supported by Maekawa & Matsumoto (1999) after analyzing 18 species of orthopteroid insects, including three species of Asian cockroaches belonging to the families Blaberidae, Ectobiidae and Blattidae, based on COII, and added that Blattidae is a sister-group of the Blaberidae and Ectobiidae.

In the checklist provided by Beccaloni (2014), among Pseudophyllodromiinae, the genus *Amazonina* Hebard, 1929 comprises 17 species, of which 15 are Neotropical and 14 of these are described from Brazil, in the Amazon region; and the genus *Cariblatia* Hebard, 1916 comprises 82 Neotropical species, of which 45 are listed for South America, with 42 species in Brazil and seven restricted to the Amazon region. The present study adds two species to each of these genera. The subfamily Nyctiborinae comprises 32 species, of which 29 are Neotropical, including 22 from Brazil with 15 recorded in the Amazon region; an additional species of *Nyctibora* from the Amazon is added herein.

The diversity of Blattodea is little known. Rocha e Silva Albuquerque (1974) studied members of *Amazonina* in the Amazon region; Lopes & Oliveira (2002a) added one species to the genus, and Lopes (2008) presented a new record of the genus for southeastern Brazil Rocha e Silva Albuquerque &

Lopes (1975) recorded six species for the Amazon region. Lopes & Oliveira (2009) recorded two species of *Nyctibora*, and Vélaz-Bravo (2013) recorded six additional species of this genus in the Amazon region. Lopes & Oliveira (2002b, 2004 and 2005) reported new locality records for members of both genera.

Materials and Methods

This study was conducted in the dense ombrophilous forest of the Reserva Ducke. The Reserva Ducke is located at km 26 of highway AM-010 (Manaus-Itacoatiara) between 03°00'02" and 03°08'00" S and 59°58'00" W. The regional climate is type Af according to the Köppen classification. The mean annual temperature is 25°C, and the minimum mean monthly temperature never falls below 18°C. The mean annual rainfall is 2000 mm, with a rainy season from November to May, with most rainfall in March and April; and a dry season from June to October, with September typically the driest month (Sampaio et al. 2005).

The vegetation is typical terra-firme tropical humid forest, which can be differentiated into plateau forest, with predominantly clay soils or dystrophic yellow-alc latosol; forest slope along the transition between the plateau and the valley, with predominantly quartz-sand soils; and campinarana forest or valley, with predominantly sandy soils (Ribeiro et al. 1999).

The collecting focused on adults found in the leaf litter, and on twigs, fallen logs and foliage. We collected during the early evening hours, using a plastic container with 50 ml of 70% ethanol, to euthanize the specimens. The specimens were placed in plastic containers with 70% ethanol and 8 ml glycerin in a proportion of 80:20, and were labeled as to collector, date, time of collection and plot number. They were then taken to the laboratory, sorted and pinned. The species were identified at the Museu Nacional of Rio de Janeiro, with the aid of identification keys and comparison with previously identified material. For observation of the genital plates, we separated the tail from the abdomen, using traditional dissection techniques described by Lopes & Oliveira (2000). After analysis, the plates and genital parts were stored in microtubes containing glycerin, and stored next to their respective specimens, a technique developed by Gurney et al. (1964). The terminology of the genitalia and the taxonomic classification are based on Roth (2003).

We collected a total of 777 specimens of Ectobiidae, of which 359 belong to subfamily Pseudophyllodromiinae, 409 to Blattellinae, 7 to Anaplectinae and 2 to Nyctiborinae. The 5 new species described are represented by 132 specimens belonging to the subfamilies Pseudophyllodromiinae and Nyctiborinae. The remaining 227 individuals are other, known species of Pseudophyllodromiinae.

The material studied in this paper was deposited in the collection of the Instituto Nacional de Pesquisas da Amazônia, INPA and in the collection of the Entomology Department of the Museu Nacional, UFRJ/MN.

Results

Amazonina spiculata sp. nov.

General coloration dark brown (Figure 6a). Head and interocular space with scattered dark-brown marks, eye black (Figure 1a); antennae and palps pale, golden-tomentose; pronotum indistinctly hyaline; central disk pale brown with

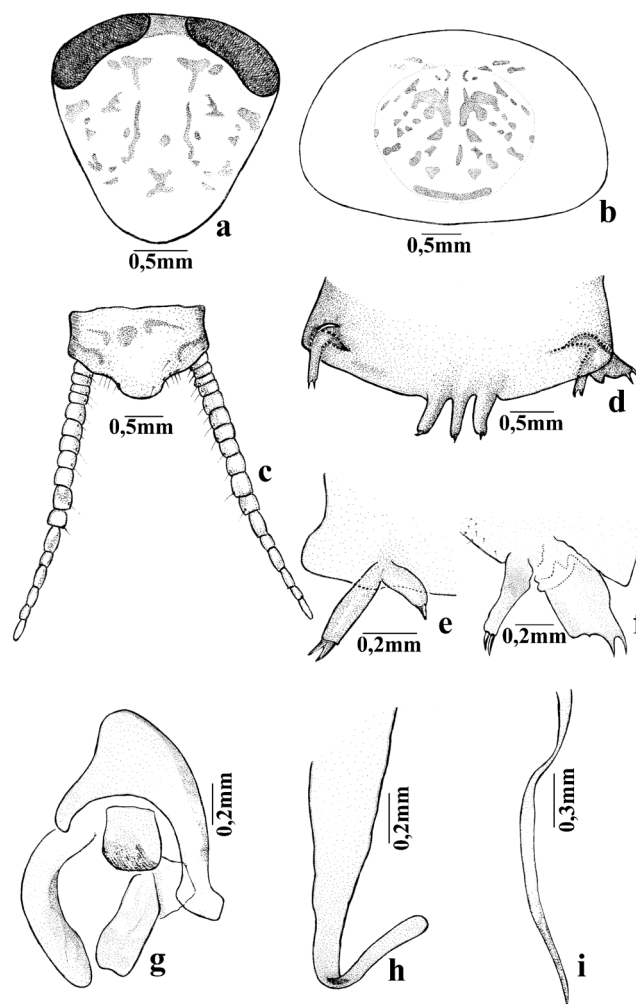


Figure 1. *Amazonina spiculata* sp. nov., male holotype. a. Head, ventral view; b. pronotum, dorsal view; c. Supranal plate, dorsal view; d. Subgenital plate, ventral view; e. Detail of the lateral base of the subgenital plate with a spiniform structure, left side, ventral view; f. Detail of the lateral base of the subgenital plate with a spiniform structure, right side, ventral view; g. Left phallomere, dorsal view; h. Right phallomere, dorsal view; i. Median sclerite, dorsal view.

dark-brown dots and strokes (Figure 1b); tegmina with sparse dark-brown dots; legs with insertion area of tibial spines dark brown; pulvilli whitish. Wings with dilated apices of radial veins brown.

Dimensions of Holotype ♂. Total length: 15.4 mm; length of pronotum: 2.8 mm; width of pronotum: 3.8 mm; length of tegmen: 13.4 mm; width of tegmen: 3.2 mm.

Head subtriangular, vertex slightly exposed beneath pronotum in dorsal view; interocular space narrow, approximately one-third of distance between antennal bases. Antennae long, reaching beyond apex of abdomen; maxillary palps with third and fourth articles similar in size and larger than the dilated fifth article.

Thorax with pronotum subtrapezoidal, lateral flaps rounded and slightly deflexed. Legs spiny; fore femur with ventrocephalic margin bearing row of 12 spines that gradually decrease in size toward the apex, plus two large apical spines; ventrocaudal margin with four well-spaced spines in median-apical region, one apical spine; middle and hind femora each

with five or six large, well-spaced spines, including one apical spine, similarly arranged on ventral surfaces; genicular spine present; pulvilli present on all tarsomeres, claws symmetrical and specialized; arolium small. Tegmina long, reaching beyond apex of cerci; marginal field narrow. Scapular field elongate, with oblique veins; discoidal field with longitudinal venular arrangement; basal branches arranged almost obliquely; anal field narrow, with 6 or 7 axillary veins. Wings, costal field with apices of branches of radial vein dilated; apical triangle present, small; anal field folded as a fan.

Abdomen. Supranal plate narrow, slightly indented medially between cerci (Figure 1c). Cerci long, tapering toward apex. Subgenital plate wide, with 2 elongated styles and a median projection between them, and tapered expansion on each lateral edge (Figures 1d, 1e, 1f). Left phallomere shaped as an inverted U with arms subequal in size and shape (Figure 1g). Right phallomere hooked, with elongate and widened apex (Figure 1h). Median sclerite comma-shaped, tapering toward apex (Figure 1i).

Material examined. Holotype: ♂, Brazil, Amazonas, Manaus, Reserva Ducke, V.D. Tarli & V. Linard cols.; Paratypes: 1 ♂, 12/VII/2011; 1 ♂, 30/VI/2010; 6 ♂ and 6 ♀, 8–14/XI/2010; 17 ♂ and 5 ♀, 30/XI–5/XII/2010; 10 ♂ and 1 ♀, 11–12/VII/2011; 5 ♂ and 4 ♀, 24–27/V/2011; 4 ♂ and 3 ♀, 10–14/V/2011 (INPA); 1 ♂ and 1 ♀, 30/XI–5/XII/2010 (MNRJ). All paratypes from same locality as holotype.

Etymology. The species name refers to the shape of the apex of the style.

Discussion. This species is similar to *A. goiana* (Rocha e Silva-Albuquerque, 1974) in the lateral configuration of the base of the subgenital plate (Figure 1d). It differs in the configuration of the styles and the genitalia (Figures 1g, 1h, 1i).

Amazonina spinostylata sp. nov.

General coloration light brown (Fig. 6b) Head with distinct dark-brown marks on the labrum, genae, and between insertion of antennae; dark-brown transverse stripe on interocular space (Figure 2a), antennae light-golden tomentose; pronotum hyaline, central disk milky light brown with dark-brown nuances (Figure 2b). Tegmina dark brown, hyaline, with sparse dark-brown dots. Legs pale, basal portion of most femoral and tibial spines dark brown; pulvilli whitish.

Dimensions of Holotype ♂. Total length: 14.2 mm; Length of pronotum: 2.5 mm; width of pronotum: 2.9 mm; length of tegmen: 11.9 mm; width of tegmen: 3.0 mm.

Head triangular, vertex exposed beneath pronotum in dorsal view. Interocular space ample, about half of space between bases of antennae; antennae long, reaching beyond apex of abdomen; maxillary palpi with third and fourth articles subequal in length and larger than the remaining articles, fifth article dilated.

Thorax with pronotum subtrapezoidal, with rounded, slightly deflexed lateral flaps; central disk conspicuous. Legs spiny; fore femora, ventrocephalic margin with 4 spines, decreasing in size toward apex, plus 2 larger apical spines; ventrocaudal margin with robust median spine plus 3 spines on apical third and one apical; middle and hind femora with 4 to 6 well-spaced spines and one apical spine, similarly arranged on both ventral surfaces. Genicular spine present. Pulvilli tiny, present on all tarsomeres; claws symmetrical and specialized. Tegmina long, reaching beyond apex of cercus; marginal field narrow, approximately one-third length of tegmina; scapular

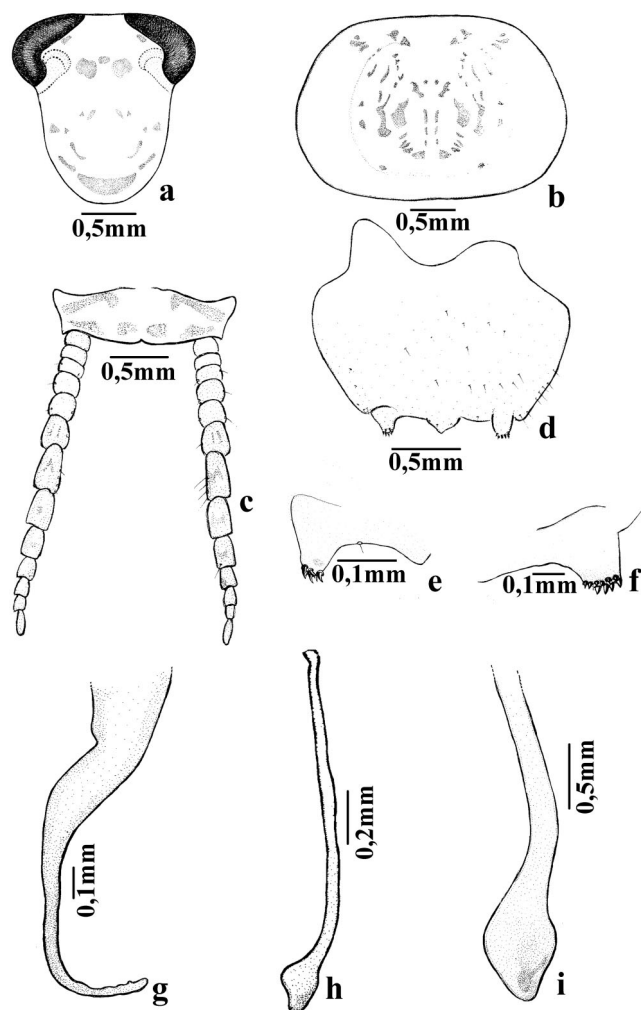


Figure 2. *Amazonina spinostylata* sp. nov., male holotype. a. Head, ventral view; b. Pronotum, dorsal view; c. Supranal plate, dorsal view; d. Subgenital plate, ventral view; e. Detail of the rounded left style with spiniform structures on apex, ventral view; f. Detail of the rounded right style with spiniform structures on apex, ventral view; g. Right phallomere, dorsal view; h. Median sclerite, dorsal view; i. Detail of apically spoon-shaped median sclerite, dorsal view.

field long, with oblique venules; discoidal field with longitudinal veins, radiating in such a way that basal branches appear oblique; anal field short and narrow, with four or five axillary veins.

Abdomen. Supranal plate narrow, with slight median indentation; cerci long and tapering toward apex (Figure 2c); subgenital plate symmetrical, with conspicuous triangular projection medially (Figure 2d); styles short, round, with spiny projections on apex (Figures 2e, 2f); right phallomere slender, hook-shaped, with slight projections apically (Figure 2g); median sclerite slender and spoon-shaped apically (Figures 2h, 2i).

Material examined. Holotype ♂, Brazil, Amazonas, Manaus, Reserva Ducke, 24–27/V/2012, V.D. Tarli & V. Linard; Paratypes: 1 ♂, 10–14/V/2011; 14 ♂, 30/XI–5/XII/2010; 8 ♂, 24–27/V/2011; 7 ♂, 10–14/V/2011 (INPA); 1 ♂, 1 ♀, 10–14/V/2011 (MNRJ). All paratypes from same locality as holotype.

Etymology. The species is named for the shape of the styles.

Discussion. This species is similar to *A. nodipenis* (Hebard, 1926) in the configuration of the subgenital plate (Figure 2d) and styles (Figures 2e, 2f), differing in its general coloration (Figure 6b) and genitalia (Figures 2g, 2h, 2i).

Cariblatta duckeniana sp. nov.

General coloration brown (Fig. 6c). Head dark brown with vertex yellowish brown, interocular space dark brown (Figure 3a); eye black; antennae with seven light-brown basal antennomeres. Pronotum with central disk dark brown, lateral flaps hyaline (Figure 3b). Legs dark brown with whitish pulvilli. Tegmina bicolored, marginal field and outer stripe narrow and scapular field hyaline; anal and discoidal fields and inner stripe of scapular field dark brown.

Dimensions of Holotype ♂. Total length: 11.2 mm; length of pronotum: 1.92 mm; width of pronotum: 2.8 mm; length of tegmen: 10.3 mm; width of tegmen: 2.6 mm.

Head subtriangular, vertex exposed beneath pronotum in dorsal view; interocular space narrow, approximately 1/4 space between antennal insertions; antennae long and tomentose, reaching beyond apex of abdomen; maxillary palpi tomentose, third article longer than fourth, fifth article dilated.

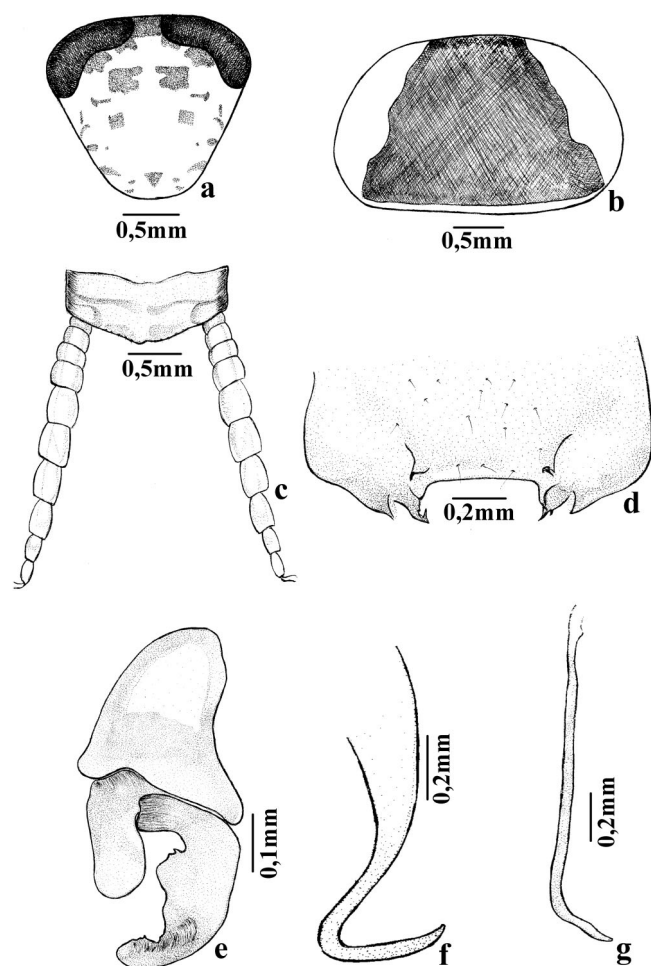


Figure 3. *Cariblatta duckeniana* sp. nov. male holotype. a. Head, ventral view; b. Pronotum, dorsal view; c. Supranal plate, dorsal view; d. Subgenital plate, ventral view; e. Left phallomere, dorsal view; f. Right phallomere, dorsal view; g. Median sclerite, dorsal view.

Thorax with pronotum subtrapezoidal, transverse, convex, with lateral flaps rounded and slightly deflexed; legs spiny. Fore femora with ventrocephalic margin bearing 12 spines that decrease in size toward apex, plus 2 larger apical spines; ventrocaudal margin with three spines on apical third, plus one apical spine. Middle and hind femora with 6 to 7 well-spaced spines up to apex, one apical spine, spines similar on both ventral surfaces. Middle and hind femora each with genicular spine; pulvilli present on all tarsomeres; claws symmetrical, specialized, with ventral denticles. Arolium present, small. Tegmina lanceolate, long, reaching beyond apex of cerci, marginal field narrow and long, reaching to midlength of tegmina; scapular field with oblique venules; discoidal field with longitudinal veins; anal field short, with four axillary veins. Wings with costal field having apices of branches of radial vein dilated; apical triangle present, small; anal field ample and folded as a fan.

Abdomen. Supranal plate narrow, with slight median indentation between cerci; cerci long, slightly dilated (Figure 3c); subgenital plate wide, base straight between styles; two projections present near base of plate, tapering toward apex, styles differentiated, bearing apical spine (Figure 3d); left phallomere shaped as inverted U with 2 arms differing in shape and size (Figure 3e); right phallomere hook-shaped, with pre-apical notch (Figure 3f); median sclerite long and slender at apex (Figure 3g).

Material examined. Holotype: ♂, Brazil, Amazonas, Manaus, Reserva Ducke, 10–14/V/2011, V.D. Tarli & V. Linardi cols.; paratypes: 1 ♂, 30/XI–5/XII/2010; 2 ♀, 24–27/V/2011 (INPA); 1 ♀. All paratypes from same locality as holotype. No material deposited in Museu Nacional, UFRJ.

Etymology. The name of the species is derived from the type locality, the Reserva Ducke.

Discussion. This species can be distinguished from all other members of the genus by the shape of the subgenital plate (Figure 3d), differing in the general coloration (Figure 6c) and genitalia (Figures 3e, 3f, 3g).

Cariblatta manauensis sp. nov.

General coloration dark brown (Figure 6d); frons with dark-brown transverse stripe between bases of antennae; interocular space with slightly darker stripe; antennae yellowish dark brown, golden-tomentose (Figure 4a); pronotum hyaline with central disk milky with dark-brown marks, strokes and dots (Figure 4b). Legs with base of tibial spines and apex of tarsal articles dark brown. Tegmina hyaline with light brownish-orange veins and dark-brown transverse veins in median and apical regions of discoidal field.

Dimensions of Holotype ♂. Total length: 13.9 mm; length of pronotum: 2.6 mm; width of pronotum: 3.1 mm; length of tegmen: 11.7 mm; width of tegmen: 3.1 mm.

Head subtriangular, wide, vertex slightly exposed beneath pronotum in dorsal view; interocular space narrow, approximately 1/4 distance between bases of antennae; antennae long and tomentose, reaching beyond apex of abdomen; maxillary palps with third article longest, fifth article dilated.

Thorax with pronotum convex, subtriangular, lateral flaps and apex rounded. Legs spiny, fore femora with ventrocephalic margin armed with 16 spines, 6 decreasing in length toward apex, plus 2 apical spines; ventrocaudal margin with 2 spines on apical third, plus 1 apical spine; middle and hind femora with 4 or 5 spaced spines and 1 apical spine; spines similar on both

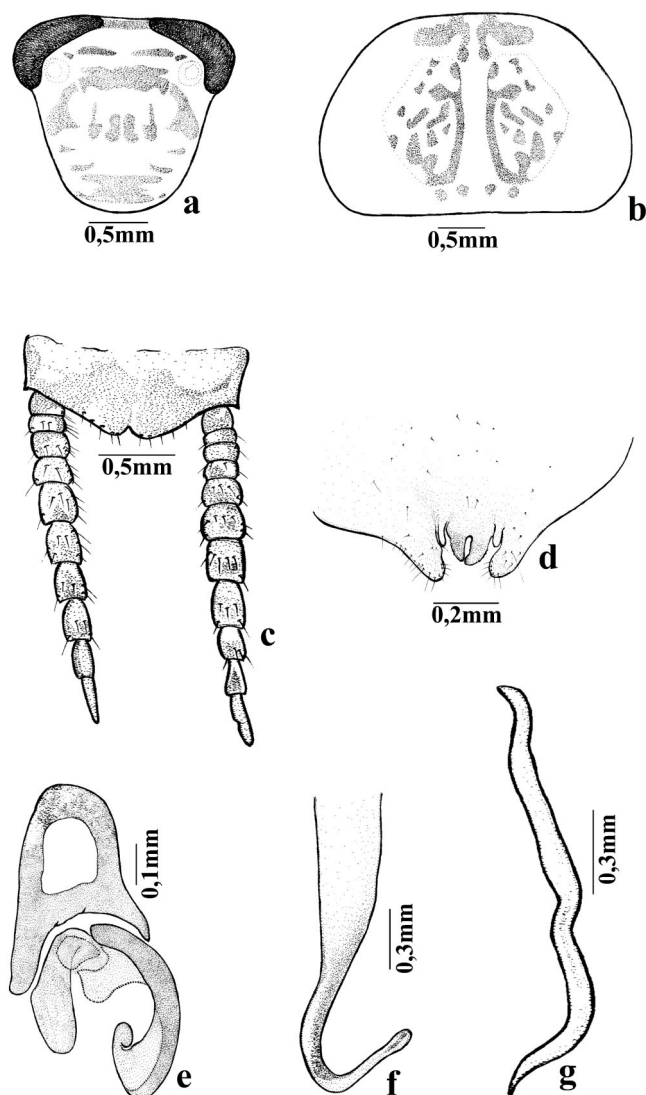


Figure 4. *Cariblatia manauensis* sp. nov. male holotype. a. Head, ventral view; b. Pronotum, dorsal view; c. Supranal plate, dorsal view; d. Subgenital plate, ventral view; e. Left phallomere, dorsal view; f. Right phallomere, dorsal view; g. Median sclerite, dorsal view.

ventral surfaces; pulvilli on all tarsomeres; claws symmetrical and specialized, with ventral denticles; arolia present. Tegmen lanceolate, marginal field narrow and deflexed; scapular field elongate, with oblique venules; discoidal field with veins arranged longitudinally; anal field short, with 6 to 7 axillary veins. Wings, costal field with apices of branches of radial vein dilated; apical triangle present, small; anal field ample and folded as a fan.

Abdomen. Supranal plate narrow, with distinct median indentation between cerci (Figure 4c); subgenital plate ventrally narrowing toward apex, with rounded extensions with median styliform notch, serrated internally, and with two smaller rounded styles (Figure 4d); left phallomere shaped as an inverted U with two arms differing in shape and size (Figure 4e); right phallomere hook-shaped with conspicuous pre-apical notch, apex elongate and round (Figure 4f); median sclerite long, its apex slender (Figure 4g).

Material examined. Holotype: ♂, Brazil, Amazonas, Manaus, Reserva Ducke, 8–14/X/2010, V.D. Tarli & V.

Linard cols.; paratypes: 1 ♂ and 5 ♀, 8–14/XI/2010; 1 ♂ and 7 ♀, 30/XI–5/XII/2010; 2 ♀, 11–12/VII/2011; 2 ♀, 24–27/V/2011; 4 ♀, 10–14/V/2011 (INPA); 1 ♀, 30/XI–5/XII/2010 (MNRJ). All paratypes from same locality as holotype.

Etymology. The specific name refers to the name of the city, Manaus, where the material was collected.

Discussion. This species is similar to *C. vera* (Rocha e Silva-Albuquerque & Lopes, 1975) differing in the configuration of the subgenital plate (Figure 4d).

Nyctibora nigra sp. nov.

General coloration dark brown, with yellowish dark-brown tomentosity (Figure 6e). Head brown (Figure 5a), eyes almost black; tip of clypeus light brown; palps and antennae golden-tomentose with light-brown tips; ocelli whitish yellow; pronotum black (Figure 5b); legs dark, golden-tomentose with dark-brown spines; pulvilli whitish.

Dimension of Holotype ♂. Total length: 27.2 mm; length of pronotum: 6.9 mm; width of pronotum: 9.8 mm; length of tegmen: 24.2 mm; width of tegmen: 8.4 mm.

Head subtriangular; vertex slightly exposed beneath pronotum in dorsal view; interocular space ample, measuring

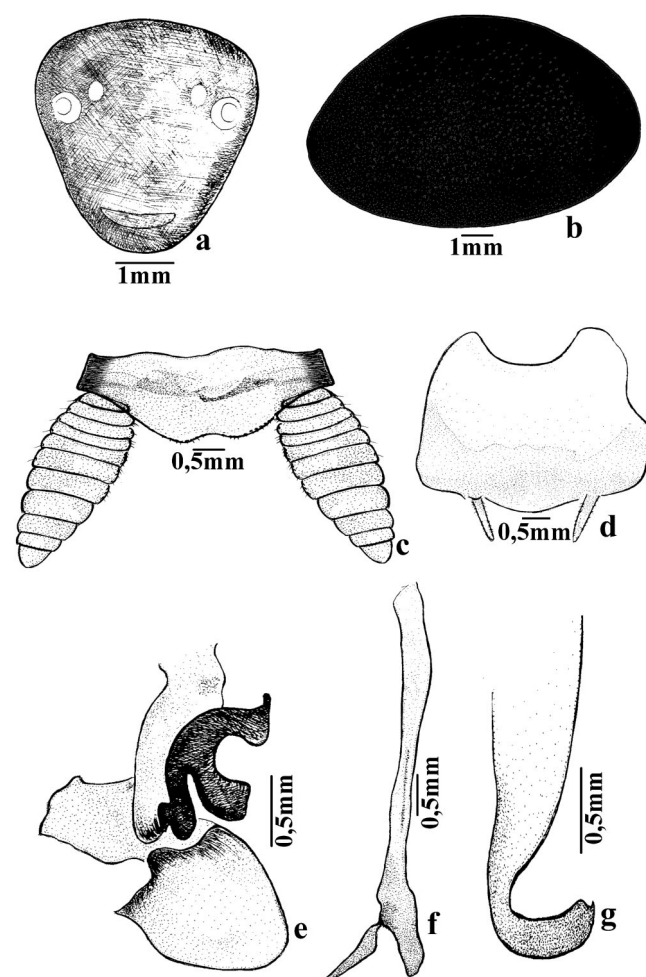


Figure 5. *Nyctibora nigra* sp. nov. male holotype. a. Head, ventral view; b. Pronotum, dorsal view; c. Supranal plate, dorsal view; d. Subgenital plate, ventral view; e. Right phallomere, dorsal view; f. Median sclerite, dorsal view; g. Left phallomere, dorsal view.

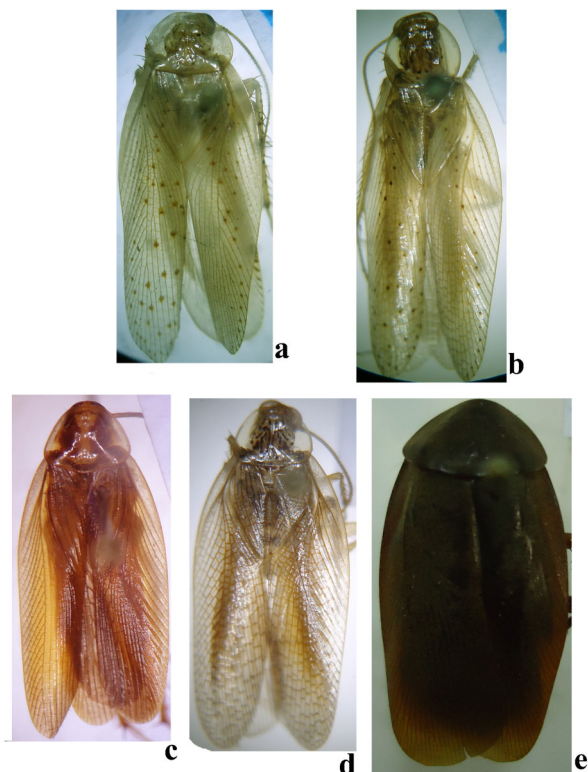


Figure 6. Habitus. a. *Amazonina spiculata* sp. nov., male holotype; b. *Amazonina spinostylata* sp. nov., male holotype; c. *Cariblatta duckeniana* sp. nov., male holotype; d. *Cariblatta manauensis* sp. nov., male holotype; e. *Nyctibora nigra* sp. nov., male holotype.

about half distance between bases of antennae; ocelli conspicuous; antennae long, reaching beyond apex of cerci; maxillary palps with four articles, each dilated at apex, and fifth article dilated and longer than remaining articles.

Thorax with pronotum elliptical, transverse and convex. Legs robust and tomentose; fore femora with ventrocephalic margin bearing small spines up to apex, pre-apical spine longest, and 2 larger apical spines; ventrocaudal margin with spines up to apex, with 1 spine on apical third, plus apical spine. Middle and hind femora with 6 to 9 robust, well-spaced spines, 1 apical spine; spines similar on both ventral surfaces; middle and hind femora each with genicular spine. Claws symmetrical, not specialized; arolia present; pulvilli present on all tarsomeres. Tegmina tomentose and developed, reaching beyond apex of cerci; marginal field narrow and elongate; scapular field with oblique venules; discoidal field ample, with longitudinal venules; anal field ample, with 11 axillary veins. Wings developed; apical triangle absent; anal field folded as a fan.

Abdomen. Supranal plate narrow proximally, distal half wider; inconspicuous indentation medially between cerci; cerci short, wide, tapering toward apex (Figure 5c); subgenital plate wide, short and asymmetrical, with apex slightly rounded and inconspicuous at the base between the styles, styles similar in shape and size (Figure 5d); right phallomere with laminar arms and sclerotized medially (Figure 5e); median sclerite long, wide at base, with slender medial-apical projection (Figure 5f); left phallomere hook-shaped (Figure 5g).

Material examined. Holotype: ♂, Brazil, Amazonas, Manaus, Reserva Ducke, 24–27/V/2011, V.D. Tarli & V. Linard cols.; paratype: 1 ♀, same locality as holotype, 8–14/

XI/2010 (INPA). No material deposited in Museu Nacional/UFRJ.

Etymology. The species epithet refers to the general coloration.

Discussion. This species differs from other members of the genus in size, coloration (Figure 6e), and the configuration of the genital plates (Figures 5e–g).

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Diversity of small land mammals in a subtropical Atlantic forest in the western region of the state of Santa Catarina, southern Brazil

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MAESTRI, R., GALIANO, D., KUBIAK, B.B., MARINHO, J.R. Diversity of small land mammals in a subtropical Atlantic forest in the western region of the state of Santa Catarina, southern Brazil. *Biota Neotropica*. 14(4): e20140129. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1590/1676-06032014012914>

Abstract: Small land mammals possess features that significantly influence the dynamics of ecosystems and participate in various levels of the food web. In the Brazilian Atlantic Forest the richness of these animals is high, which makes them even more ecologically and numerically relevant in this environment. In this context, we investigated the species composition of small mammals in an unexplored area of southern Brazil, and compared the species composition of this area with other Atlantic Forest regions in order to understand how this community is related to others. The study area was located in an interior Atlantic forest formation, at a transition region between deciduous and Araucaria forests. Small mammals were captured at five collection points using pitfall traps. We compared the species composition found in our studied area with the composition of other 11 studies in different regions by a cluster analysis, and we investigated the presence of spatial autocorrelation between communities with a Mantel test. We recorded 779 individuals from 21 species of small rodents (15 species) and marsupials (six species) during the 13 months of the collection period. This richness was high compared to other studies conducted in the Atlantic Forest formations near to coastline and in interior forest formations. This may be a result of the conditions provided by this transition area (deciduous and Araucaria forests), where could be found elements of the both forests formations, which probably allows the establishment of small mammal species from both forest types. Despite differences in sampling effort of the studies, our results suggest that the interior forest formations may harbor a number of species comparable to the formations near the coast. The species composition of this area was similar to those found in other interior forest formations with the same phytophysionomy characteristics and at nearby regions, and it was less similar to the distant formations located in southeastern and northeastern Brazil and nearby to the coastline. This can be a result of both the spatial autocorrelation (i.e. more nearby communities tend to have more similar species composition) and the differences of forest characteristics among regions.

Keywords: Richness, species composition, Uruguay River, Rodentia, Didelphimorphia.

MAESTRI, R., GALIANO, D., KUBIAK, B.B., MARINHO, J.R. Diversidade de pequenos mamíferos terrestres em floresta Atlântica subtropical na região oeste do estado de Santa Catarina, sul do Brasil. *Biota Neotropica*. 14(4): e20140129. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1590/1676-06032014012914>

Resumo: Pequenos mamíferos terrestres possuem características que influenciam significativamente a dinâmica dos ecossistemas, participando em vários níveis da teia trófica. Na floresta Atlântica brasileira a riqueza desses animais é alta, o que os torna ainda mais ecológica e numericamente relevantes neste ambiente. Neste contexto, nós investigamos a composição de espécies de pequenos mamíferos em uma área não estudada, e comparamos a composição de espécies desta área com outras regiões de floresta Atlântica de modo a entender como esta comunidade de pequenos mamíferos é relacionada a outras. A área de estudo está localizada em uma formação de floresta Atlântica de interior, em uma transição entre floresta decidual e floresta com Araucária. Os pequenos mamíferos foram capturados em cinco pontos de coleta por meio do método de armadilhas de interceptação e queda. Nós comparamos a composição de espécies encontrada em nosso estudo com a de outros 11 estudos realizados em diferentes regiões através de uma análise de agrupamento, e nós investigamos a presença de autocorrelação espacial entre comunidades por meio de um teste de Mantel. Nós registramos 779 indivíduos de 21 espécies de pequenos roedores (15 espécies) e

marsupiais (seis espécies) durante um período de 13 meses de coleta. A riqueza é alta comparada com outros estudos em formações de floresta Atlântica próximas do litoral e formações de interior. Isso pode ser o resultado das condições fornecidas por esta área de transição (floresta decidual e floresta com Araucária), onde podem ser encontrados elementos das duas formações florestais, o que provavelmente permite o estabelecimento de espécies de pequenos mamíferos dos dois tipos de floresta. Apesar das diferenças no esforço amostral entre os estudos, esses resultados são uma boa indicação de que as formações de floresta Atlântica de interior podem abrigar um número de espécies comparáveis a de formações próximas da costa. A composição de espécies desta área é mais similar a de outras formações Atlânticas de interior com as mesmas características florestais e de regiões espacialmente próximas, e é menos similar as formações localizadas no sudeste e no nordeste do Brasil, e de regiões próximas da costa. Isso pode ser o resultado de autocorrelação espacial (i.e. comunidades mais próximas tendem a ter uma composição de espécies mais similar) e das diferenças nas características florestais entre as regiões.

Palavras-chave: Riqueza, composição de espécies, Rio Uruguai, Rodentia, Didelphimorphia.

Introduction

Small terrestrial mammals (both rodents and marsupials), characterized here as those that weigh less than 1 kg in average (Fonseca et al. 1996), are important numerically and possess features that significantly influence the dynamics of ecosystems (Pardini & Umetsu 2006). They are important predators of insects, consume fruits, disperse seeds (Carvalho et al. 1999) and fungal spores (Pyare & Longland 2001) as well as participate in the cycle of various zoonoses that affect man (Bonecker et al. 2009, Pinto et al. 2009). In addition to knowing the species composition of any community, it is important to understand how these species are distributed in space in comparison to other communities of different regions. Such information can assist us when devising of strategies for the conservation of the sampled sites and increasing our understanding of the ecological relationships between species (Begon et al. 2007).

The Atlantic Forest is one of the richest and most threatened biomes in the world. Efforts to understand and outline strategies to conserve biodiversity must be urgent (Myers et al. 2000). The richness of small land mammals, as with most animal groups, is remarkable in this region (Galindo-Leal & Câmara 2003). There are approximately 100 species of small marsupials and rodents spread throughout the biome (Bonvicino et al. 2002, Pardini & Umetsu 2006, Pinto et al. 2009, Paglia et al. 2012). Despite the increasing number of studies in this biome, some regions remain poorly sampled. For example, only a few studies of small mammal species have been carried out in the western state of Santa Catarina, where this study was conducted. In this region, the information available is results from fauna surveys (Studies of Environmental Impact) at hydroelectric plants (Cherem et al. 2008, Cherem et al. 2012).

In this context, the aims of our study was (1) to evaluate the species composition of small mammals present in a poorly sampled region in a transition between deciduous and Araucaria forests in southern Brazil; and (2) to compare the species composition of this area with other Atlantic Forest regions in order to understand how this community of small mammals is related to others. Additionally, we discuss the conservation potential of our study area based on the small mammal richness in relation to other studies.

Material and Methods

1. Study area

The study was conducted in a fragment of Atlantic Forest in a transition region between deciduous and Araucaria forests.

The fragment is located in the western region of the state of Santa Catarina in southern Brazil (Figure 1). The ground has a large slope; the altitude ranges from 388 to 600 meters above sea level. The total area of this fragment reaches approximately 400 hectares. About 300 hectares are of native vegetation, permeated by 100 hectares of a eucalyptus plantation. The surrounding area of the fragment is dominated by eucalyptus monocultures, forestry and housing. The area inside the

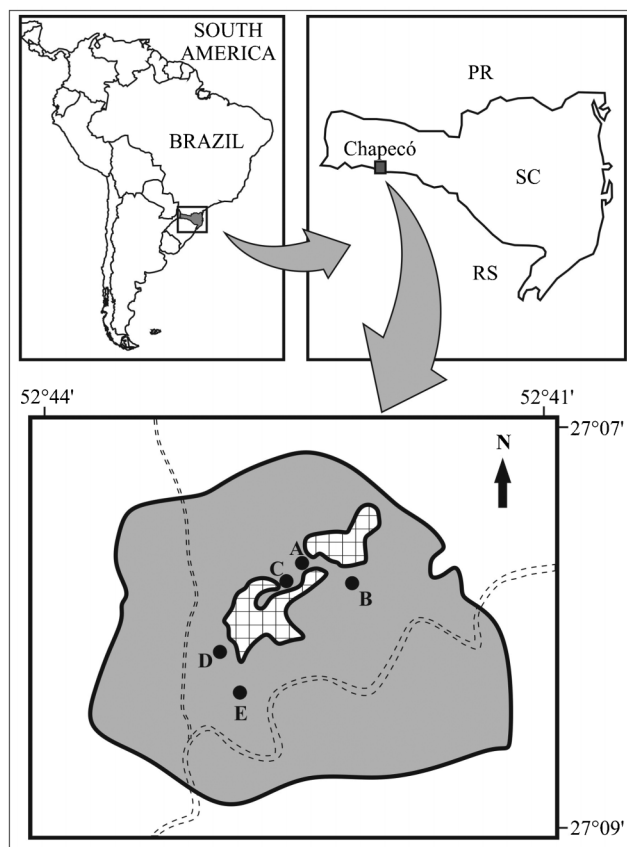


Figure 1. Sketch of the study area and its location in the context of the state of Santa Catarina and Brazil. The black dots represent the places where the traps to catch small mammals were located. The grey area represents the native vegetation (i.e. the transition between deciduous and Araucaria forest). The area in squares represents eucalyptus plantations. Dashed lines denote rivers; the vertical one is an unnamed river; and the horizontal one is the Passo dos Índios River. Acronyms: PR, Paraná state; SC, Santa Catarina state; RS, Rio Grande do Sul state.

fragment was greatly affected by logging (approximately 10 years before our sample). The native forest is in regeneration, but moderate disturbances caused mainly by hunting has continued. The climate classified as Köppen type Cfb, mesothermic humid, with an average annual temperature of approximately 18° to 19° C and an average annual rainfall of approximately 1,800 mm (Peel et al. 2007). Rainfall is equally distributed over the year. A warm season and a cold season are present, which gives the seasonal character of the forest. The subtropical climate favors the onset of the following two main types of vegetation: the deciduous forest commonly associated with the valley and the rivers, and the Araucaria forest occurring in higher places. The studied area was located at a transition region between these two physiognomies (Silva-Filho & Pugues 2008). The Deciduous forest owes its name to foliar seasonality of the dominant arboreal elements, whose percentage of leaf fall is 50% or more in the colder months. Currently, the original vegetation has been reduced to a few fragments, usually located in steep terrain (Silva-Filho & Pugues 2008). The Araucaria forest, typical in areas with high rainfall, presents a mixture of floras from different regions. One of its most remarkable features is the presence of Araucaria pine (*Araucaria angustifolia* (Bert.) O. Ktze.) (Netto et al. 2012). In the studied area, near the Chapecó River, the original forest was composed mainly of deciduous forest elements (e.g. *Apuleia leiocarpa* (Vogel) J.F. Macbr; *Parapiptadenia rigida* (Benth) Brenan; *Cedrela fissilis* Vell.), with the presence of some typical examples of Araucaria forest (e.g. *Araucaria angustifolia*; *Ocotea porosa* (Ness) Baroso; *Luehea divaricata* Mart. et. Zucc.) (Silva-Filho & Pugues 2008, Netto et al. 2012).

2. Data collection

Small mammals were captured using only pitfall traps (see Ribeiro-Júnior et al. 2011 and Cechin & Martins 2000 for discussion concerning this choice). These traps were distributed at five sampling points (A to E) (Figure 1). The maximum distance between the external points (A-E) was 1,180 meters; the inside points (A-B, A-C, B-C, C-D, D-E) were nearly 400 m apart. Each sample point consisted of 10 buckets with 100-liter capacities that were buried in the ground and arranged in a Y-shape. The distance between the buckets was 10 meters. A

drift fence (plastic screen), with approximately 50 cm high, placed over the middle of each bucket, connected one bucket to another. The traps were left open for 10 consecutive days over the following 13 months: August 2011 (pilot field) and from October 2011 to September 2012. The overall sampling effort was 6,500 trap-nights. The sample points were revised daily during the sample period.

All of the individuals captured were collected for the preparation of their skin and skull and are deposited in the collection of the Museu Regional do Alto Uruguai (MURAU) of the Universidade Regional Integrada do Alto Uruguai e das Missões (URI) with the numbers MURAU301 to MURAU1061. This collection excluded specimens of the genus *Didelphis* Linnaeus 1758, and one individual of *Guerlinguetus* sp. that was visualized and did not fall in the pitfall. The animals were captured with the consent of environmental agencies (ICMBio), under the permanent and personal license number 15224-2 (J.R.M.).

3. Data Analysis

The richness, relative abundance and frequency of occurrence of the species in this study were quantified in totality (i.e. a sum of all the five sampling points). In the case of the genus *Didelphis*, individuals caught for a second time in less than two days at the same sample point were not considered in the abundance calculation for suspected of being the same individual. We choose this criterion as a method to estimate the abundance of *Didelphis*, because the individuals were not marked. A species accumulation curve was generated with 1,000 randomizations in the order of the samples.

We compared the species composition found in our studied area to the composition of other regions present in the Atlantic Forest biome (Table 1). All of the analyzed studies had survey durations greater than eight months. To do this comparison, a cluster analysis was carried out using the Jaccard coefficient of similarity and a UPGMA algorithm of clustering. To avoid bias, we did not consider in the analysis individuals classified at the taxonomic level of genus or exotic species. We analyzed the consistency of the similarity by a bootstrap analysis with 1,000 permutations, which gives a value (ranging from 0 to 100) stating the percentage of replicates where each node is

Table 1. List from the 13 small mammal surveys used to compose the cluster analysis. The number of species shown does not include those classified at the taxonomic level of genus or exotic species, this is the reason for some studies (including this one) show here fewer species. Acronyms: BA, Bahia state; ES, Espírito Santo state; RJ, Rio de Janeiro state; SP, São Paulo state; SC, Santa Catarina state; RS, Rio Grande do Sul state. Formation: CAF: Coastal Atlantic Forest (maximum of 80 km of the coast); IAF: Interior Atlantic Forest (minimum of 180 km from the coast).

Locality	Formation	Geographic coordinates	Number of species	Reference
Una (BA)	CAF	39°11'W; 15°12'S	15	Pardini 2004
Viana (ES)	CAF	40°29'W; 20°23'S	19	Pinto et al. 2009
Itatiaia (RJ)	CAF	44°34'W; 22°29'S	29	Geise et al. 2004
Cotia (SP)	CAF	46°55'W; 26°36'S	21	Pardini & Umetsu 2006
Florianópolis (SC)	CAF	48°31'W; 27°43'S	10	Graipel et al. 2006
Cambará do Sul (RS)	CAF	50°06'W; 28°58'S	6	Dalmagro & Vieira 2005
Três Barras (SC)	IAF	50°18'W; 26°07'S	8	Cherem & Perez 1996
São Domingos (SC)	IAF	53°33'W; 26°40'S	11	Cherem et al. 2008
Xanxerê (SC)	IAF	52°24'W; 26°36'S	15	Cherem et al. 2012
Mato Castelhana (RS)	IAF	52°11'W; 28°17'S	10	Galiano et al. 2013; Galiano 2010
Erechim (RS)	IAF	52°16'W; 27°38'S	9	Kessel 2011; Kubiak 2010; Kubiak et al. 2009
Chapecó (SC)	IAF	52°42'W; 27°08'S	19	Present study

supported. All of these analyses were performed using PAST software (Hammer et al. 2001). We ran a Mantel test to correlate the matrix of distance in the composition (based on Jaccard) with a matrix of geographic distance. The last matrix was calculated based on the degrees of latitude and longitude (see Table 1) using Euclidean distance. The Mantel test was made in order to determine if spatial autocorrelation was present among the communities. This analysis was developed in the R program for statistical computing (R Core Team, 2014) with the vegan package (Oksanen et al. 2013).

Results

We recorded 779 individuals belonging to 21 small mammal species. Of these, 15 species were rodents and six were marsupials (Table 2). The species accumulation curve showed a tendency for stabilization (Figure 2).

The cluster analysis revealed two distinguished groups with a consistent similarity index (Figure 3). One group was comprised of the formations of southeastern and northeastern Brazil (SE/NE group), where all the locations are less than 80 km of the coast (CAF – Coastal Atlantic Forest) and had

distinct forest features from each other. The second group included all of the studies in southern Brazil (SR group), and presents both interior forest formations (IAF – Interior Atlantic Forest, at least 180 km from the coast) and CAF formations. The composition of small mammal species in our study area was more similar to that found in the Erechim and Mato Castelhano municipalities (approximately 100 and 200 km from our study site, respectively). Erechim presents a forest formation very similar to ours, composed by a transition region between semideciduous and Araucaria forests (Budke et al. 2010). Mato Castelhano has a typical mixed ombrophilous forest dominated by *Araucaria angustifolia* (Bertol.) Kuntze (Araucaria forest) (Galvão et al. 2013). Regarding the others locations, IAF, Xanxerê and São Domingos have the same forest characteristics found in this study, a deciduous forest associated with elements from the Araucaria forest (Silva-Filho & Pugues 2008, Netto et al. 2012), and Três Barras was originally composed by Araucaria forests, which currently are found only in small fragments (Cherem & Perez 1996). Still, within the southern group the more external studies in the cluster occurred in a strict Araucaria forest at Cambará do Sul (Dalmagro & Vieira 2005) and in a Dense Submontane forest at

Table 2. Number of individuals captured and the frequency of occurrence of the 21 species recorded in the period of August 2011 (pilot field) and from October 2011 to September 2012 in Chapecó, Santa Catarina in southern Brazil. The equitability and dominance indices are displayed at the end of table. *This species is undergoing taxonomic revision and its epithet may be changed.

Species	Number of individuals	Frequency of occurrence (%)
Order Rodentia		
Family Cricetidae		
<i>Oligoryzomys flavescens</i> (Waterhouse, 1837)	374	48.01
<i>Akodon montensis</i> Thomas, 1913	188	24.13
<i>Sooretamys angouya</i> (G. Fisher, 1814)	49	6.29
<i>Oligoryzomys nigripes</i> (Olfers, 1818)	40	5.13
<i>Thaptomys nigrita</i> (Lichtenstein, 1829)	35	4.49
<i>Abrawayaomys ruschii</i> Cunha and Cruz, 1979	3	0.38
<i>Brucepattersonius iheringi</i> (Thomas, 1896)	3	0.38
<i>Juliomys pictipes</i> * (Osgood, 1933)	3	0.38
<i>Necomys lasiurus</i> (Lund, 1841)	1	0.12
<i>Necomys squamipes</i> (Brants, 1827)	1	0.12
<i>Oxymycterus judex</i> Thomas, 1909	1	0.12
<i>Euryoryzomys russatus</i> (Wagner, 1848)	1	0.12
Family Echimyidae		
<i>Euryzygomatomys spinosus</i> (G. Fisher, 1814)	2	0.25
Family Sciuridae		
<i>Guerlinguetus</i> sp.	1	0.12
Family Muridae		
<i>Mus musculus</i> Linnaeus, 1758	9	1.15
Order Didelphimorphia		
Family Didelphidae		
<i>Didelphis aurita</i> (Wied-Neuwied, 1826)	35	4.49
<i>Monodelphis americana</i> (Müller, 1776)	13	1.66
<i>Gracilinanus microtarsus</i> (Wagner, 1842)	10	1.28
<i>Didelphis albiventris</i> Lund, 1840	5	0.64
<i>Monodelphis dimidiata</i> (Hensel, 1872)	5	0.64
<i>Marmosa paraguayana</i> (Tate, 1931)	1	0.12
Richness		21
Individuals		779
Dominance		0.30
Equitability		0.55

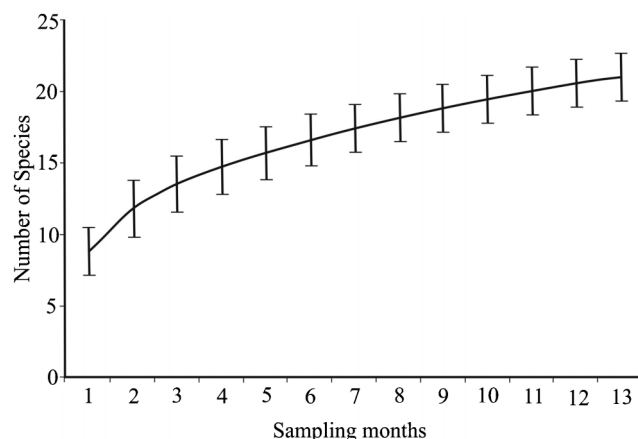


Figure 2. Species accumulation curve. Calculated based on data obtained in the period of August 2011 (pilot field) and from October 2011 to September 2012 in Chapecó, Santa Catarina in southern Brazil. The black line represents the mean, and the bars are the standard deviations generated by 1,000 randomizations. The numbers 1-13 correspond to the sampling months.

Florianópolis (Graipel et al. 2006). These last two localities are very close to the coastline. We found a geographically structured pattern of variation in species composition among the localities with the Mantel test ($r = 0.66$; $p = 0.003$); we observed that spatially closer populations are more similar in species composition, especially within the southern group, and more distant populations are more dissimilar (Figure 4).

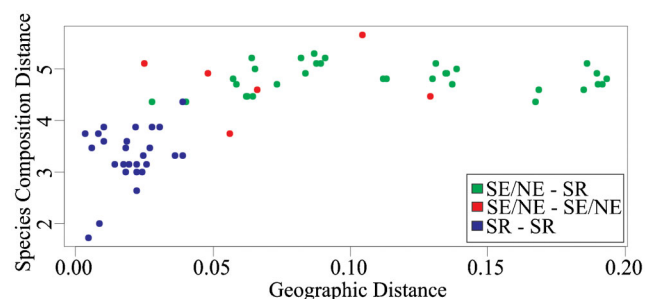


Figure 4. Scatterplot of the pairwise species composition distance against the pairwise geographic distance between localities. The species composition distance was calculated with Jaccard distance, and the geographic distance was calculated by Euclidean Distance. Mantel $r = 0.66$. SR: Southern; SE/NE: Southeastern/Northeastern.

Discussion

The number of species found in this study ($n=21$) is similar to other studies carried out in the Atlantic forest and approaches to. Pardini & Umetsu (2006) reported one of the largest numbers of species in the biome ($n=23$) in Cotia (São Paulo state) by a study using both pitfall traps as cages. Cotia is mostly covered by vegetation classified as dense mountain ombrophilous forest (Metzger et al. 2006). When compared to studies from the nearby areas of the deciduous and Araucaria forests, our results show a substantially greater number of species (Galiano et al. 2013 $n=6$, Kubiak et al. 2009 $n=7$; Cherem et al. 2012 $n=20$, Cherem et al. 2008 $n=12$, Dalmagro & Vieira, 2005 $n=6$). This large number of species could be a

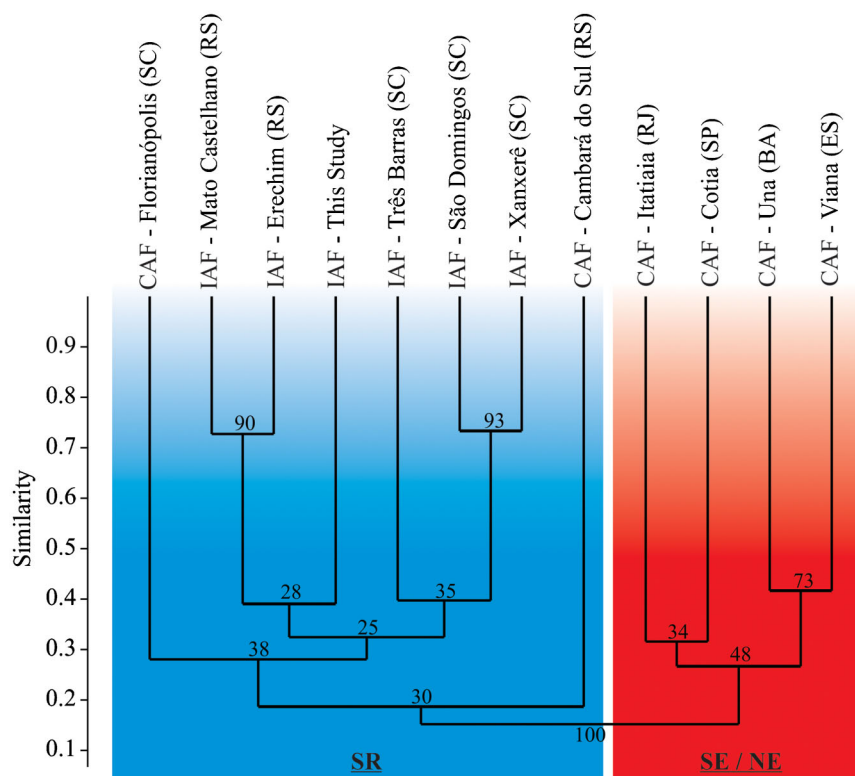


Figure 3. A cluster analysis showing the similarity in small mammal species composition among Atlantic forest localities. The tree was constructed based on Jaccard distance and a UPGMA algorithm. Numbers inside the tree represent the percentage of consistency of the similarity calculated by 1,000 bootstraps. SR: Southern; SE/NE: Southeastern/Northeastern.

result of the conditions provided by the transition region between the both forest formations (as also found by Cherem et al. 2012 in the same forest characteristics). In addition, the high diversity we found is an indication that the interior forest formations may harbor a number of species comparable to those forests nearby the coast, and this might be a result of the presence of different physiognomies at the interior forests.

Despite the high richness found in the area, the fragment sampled is small compared to other sampled areas in the biome (Galiano et al. 2013, Pardini & Umetsu 2006, Geise et al. 2004, Grelle 2003). In addition, the sample area is not protected under a conservation unit. Pardini & Umetsu (2006) provided a summary of 20 surveys of small mammals in Atlantic Forest fragments representing an area greater than 700 ha; however, only two of these studies (Bonvicino et al. 1997 and Pardini & Umetsu 2006) found richness equal to or greater than that reported here. In a study near the Paranapiacaba ecological *continuum*, Leiner & Silva (2012) caught 20 species of small non-volant mammals in one of the largest regions of Atlantic forest (due to the presence of four conservation units). In one of the few surveys conducted in the western region of the state of Santa Catarina, Cherem et al. (2012) recorded 20 species of small non-flying mammals; of these, three were exotic and 17 were native. This last study was also conducted in a non-protected area in a transition region between deciduous and Araucaria forest. Moreover, Cherem et al. (2012) used only cage traps, and their sampling effort was about 3,300 trap/nights, while our sampling effort was much bigger, totaling 6,500 trap/nights. It is important to denote that regions where high richness is associated with high anthropogenic threats, as in the present study, are clearly prioritized for biodiversity conservation, and protection efforts in such areas should be more urgent (Myers et al. 2000). The richness found in the area and the presence of rare and specialized species, such as *Abrawayaomys ruschii* and *Juliomys pictipes* are good indicators of the quality of this fragment in maintaining biodiversity.

The analysis of species composition revealed that forest formations in the Atlantic Forest biome in SR Brazil contain a unique set of species different from those found in SE/NE regions. This is most likely the result of geographic distance (Figure 4) and less clearly the result of the different types of physiognomies. All SE/NE areas are near to the coastline, while southern regions are composed by interior and coastal forests. Inside the southern region, there is one clearly closed cluster composed of interior forest formations that share similar species compositions. This group is composed of communities found in areas with characteristics of Deciduous, Semideciduous and Araucaria forests. The more dissimilar areas within the southern group are the two located near the coastline; one is a Dense Submontane forest (Graipel et al. 2006), and the other is an Araucaria forest (Dalmagro & Vieira 2005). Therefore, the species composition found in our study is more influenced by the nearby communities and physiognomy characteristics of the Deciduous and Araucaria forests, than by distant regions.

Finally, the accumulation curve showed a tendency to stabilization. It is possible that species not yet registered would occur if sampling had continued. This fact, combined with all the data mentioned above, indicates the importance of this fragment in the maintenance of ecosystem diversity, and it is concerning that this area is not legally protected. It is important that more studies be conducted in nearby areas, and also in other interior Atlantic forest formations, in order to track the

species diversity in other fragments, which will permit a more accurately assessment of the regional richness and species composition.

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First record of *Corbicula largillierti* (Philippi 1844) in the Paraíba River Basin and potential implications from water diversion of the São Francisco River

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AZEVEDO, E.L., BARBOSA, J.E.L., VIDIGAL, T.H.D.A., CALLISTO, M., MOLOZZI, J. **First record of *Corbicula largillierti* (Philippi 1844) in the Paraíba River Basin and potential implications from water diversion of the São Francisco River.** Biota Neotropica. 14(4): e20140036. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1590/1676-0603003614>

Abstract: *Corbicula largillierti* is a native mollusk from China. In Brazil, this species was first recorded in the Pantanal of Mato Grosso. This short communication reports the occurrence of *C. largillierti* for the first time in the Paraíba river basin (Brazilian semi-arid), and also considers the risk of introduction of other molluscs invaders in this basin due to the diversion of water from the São Francisco River. Densities of individuals ranged from 33 to 65 ind.m⁻² (maximum values of 484 ind.m⁻²) in coarse sediment (gravel, 2-4 mm). The diversion of waters from the São Francisco river can lead to the introduction of new species, enhancing ecological problems in the Paraíba river basin.

Keywords: Invasive species, Semi-arid, Molluscs, Corbiculidae.

AZEVEDO, E.L., BARBOSA, J.E.L., VIDIGAL, T.H.D.A., CALLISTO, M., MOLOZZI, J. **Primeiro registro de *Corbicula largillierti* (Philippi 1844) na bacia do Rio Paraíba e implicações potenciais com a transposição das águas do Rio São Francisco.** Biota Neotropica. 14(4): e20140036. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1590/1676-0603003614>

Resumo: *Corbicula largillierti* é um molusco nativo da China. No Brasil esta espécie foi registrada primeiramente no Pantanal do Mato Grosso. Esta nota registra a primeira ocorrência de *C. largillierti* na bacia do Rio Paraíba (semiárido brasileiro). Considera também os riscos potenciais de introdução de outros moluscos invasores nesta bacia devido à transposição das águas do Rio São Francisco. As densidades do molusco variaram de 33 a 65 ind.m⁻² (atingindo valor máximo de 484 ind.m⁻²) em sedimentos grossos (cascalho, 2-4 mm). A transposição das águas do Rio São Francisco pode ocasionar a introdução de novas espécies exóticas potencializando problemas ecológicos na bacia do Rio Paraíba.

Palavras-chave: Espécies invasoras, Semiárido, Moluscos, Corbiculidae.

Introduction

The introduction of exotic species is the second most important cause for biodiversity loss in global scale (Darrigran et al. 2011). Exotic species can become pests (Fernandes et al. 2012) and cause a range of problems with environmental and human health consequences, as well as, economical and even political implications (Shine 2007). Therefore, the study of the dynamics and distribution of invasive species can explain the process of invasion and predict the dispersion patterns of these species (Darrigran et al. 2009).

Corbicula largillierti is a freshwater bivalve belonging to the Corbiculidae family (Bivalvia, Heterodonta, Veneroidea) from Asian origin and endemic of lakes from the Yangtze Kiang river systems, in China. In has been found in several areas in South America (Mansur et al. 2004) but for the first time in the Rio de la Plata River, near Buenos Aires (Ituarte 1981). It has

latter been recorded in Uruguay (Ituarte 1984) and again in Argentina (Ituarte 1994). In Brazil, *Corbicula largillierti* was first recorded in the Pantanal, Mato Grosso (Callil & Mansur 2002) and latter in the Sinos River basin, Rio Grande do Sul (Mansur & Pereira 2006). Recently, the species was recorded in Minas Gerais, Espírito Santo, Santa Catarina and Ceará states (Silva & Barros 2011). In a recent review, Pereira et al. (2012) reported *C. largillierti* for the Brazilian northeastern coastal basins, the São Francisco River, eastern, southern and southeastern basins, as well as the Paraná/Paraguay and Uruguay basins.

The waters from the São Francisco river will be diverted to the Paraíba river basin (Brasil 2007). This diversion is likely to cause ecological damage to the receiving basins with the introduction of exotic species, water pollution and decrease in discharges of the São Francisco river (Li et al. 2013) as well as proliferation of green algae (Zhu & Ketola 2012).

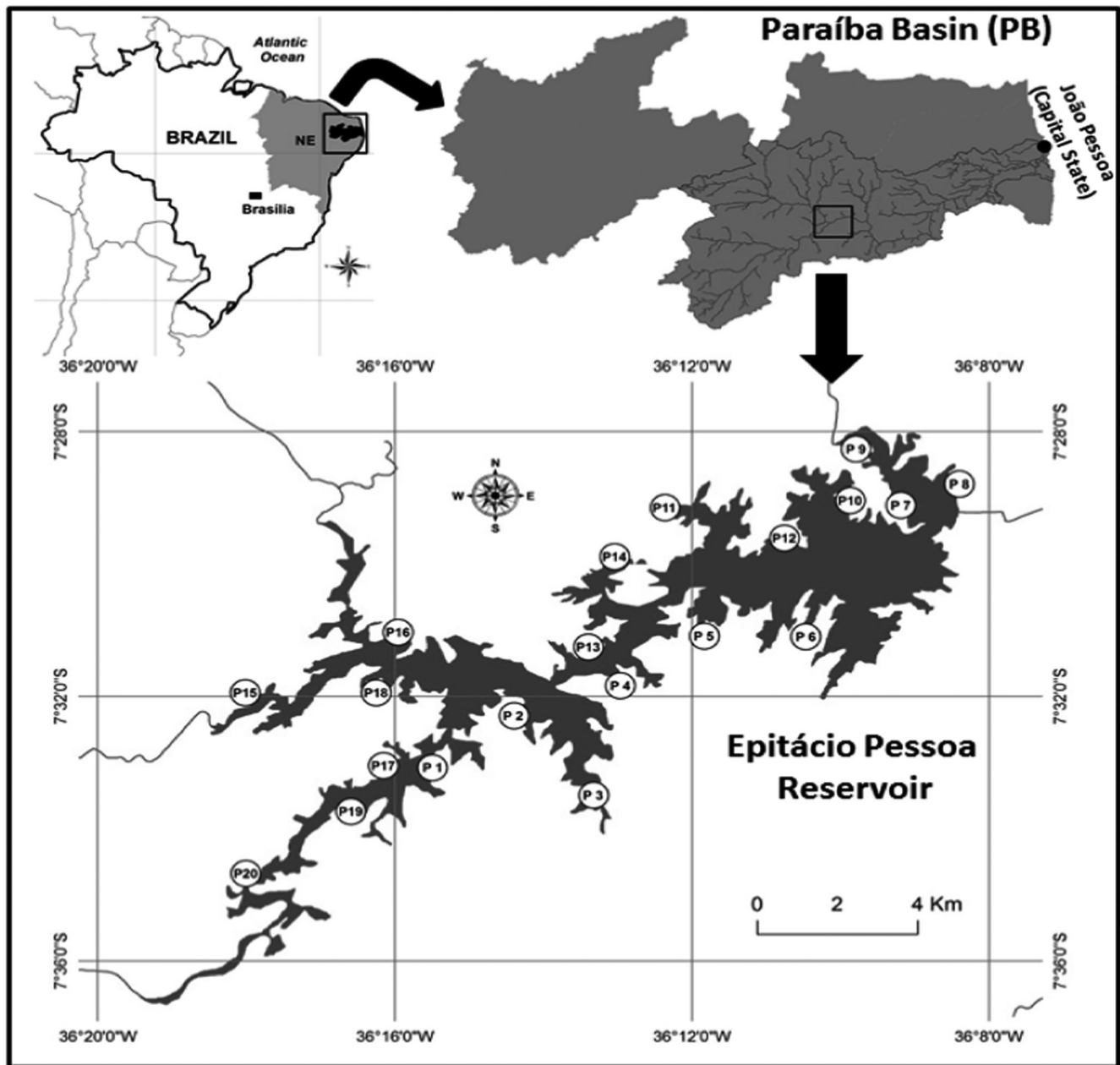


Figure 1. Sampling sites reservoir Epitácio Pessoa, Paraíba River basin, Brazilian semi-arid.

This short communication reports the occurrence of *C. largillierii* for the first time in the Paraíba basin river (Brazilian semi-arid) and also considers the risk of the introduction of other mollusc invaders in this basin due to the diversion of waters from the São Francisco River.

Materials and Methods

Study Area

The Paraíba river basin (Figure 1) encompasses an area of 20,071.83 km² (6°51'31" - 8°26'21" S; 34°48'35" - 37°2'15" W). This basin is the second largest of the Paraíba State, covering 38% of the State and harboring 1,828,178 inhabitants (52% of the State population). This basin is, therefore, among the most important freshwater systems in the Brazilian semi-arid

(Paraíba, 2012) being also a receiver of waters to be diverted from the São Francisco river.

Sampling

The specimens of *C. largillierii* from the present study were collected in sediment samples from 20 sites taken from the margins of the Epitácio Pessoa reservoir (7° 28'4" - 7° 33' 32" S, 36° 8'23" - 36° 16'51" W) located in the Paraíba river, Brazilian semi-arid region. Samples were taken using a Van-Veen (477 cm²) dredge in June 2010 and December 2011.

Results and Discussion

Corbicula largillierii is easily mistaken for the *C. fluminea*, the former having a fragile shell, lower height and lower umbos (Mansur & Pereira 2006, Pereira et al. 2012). The

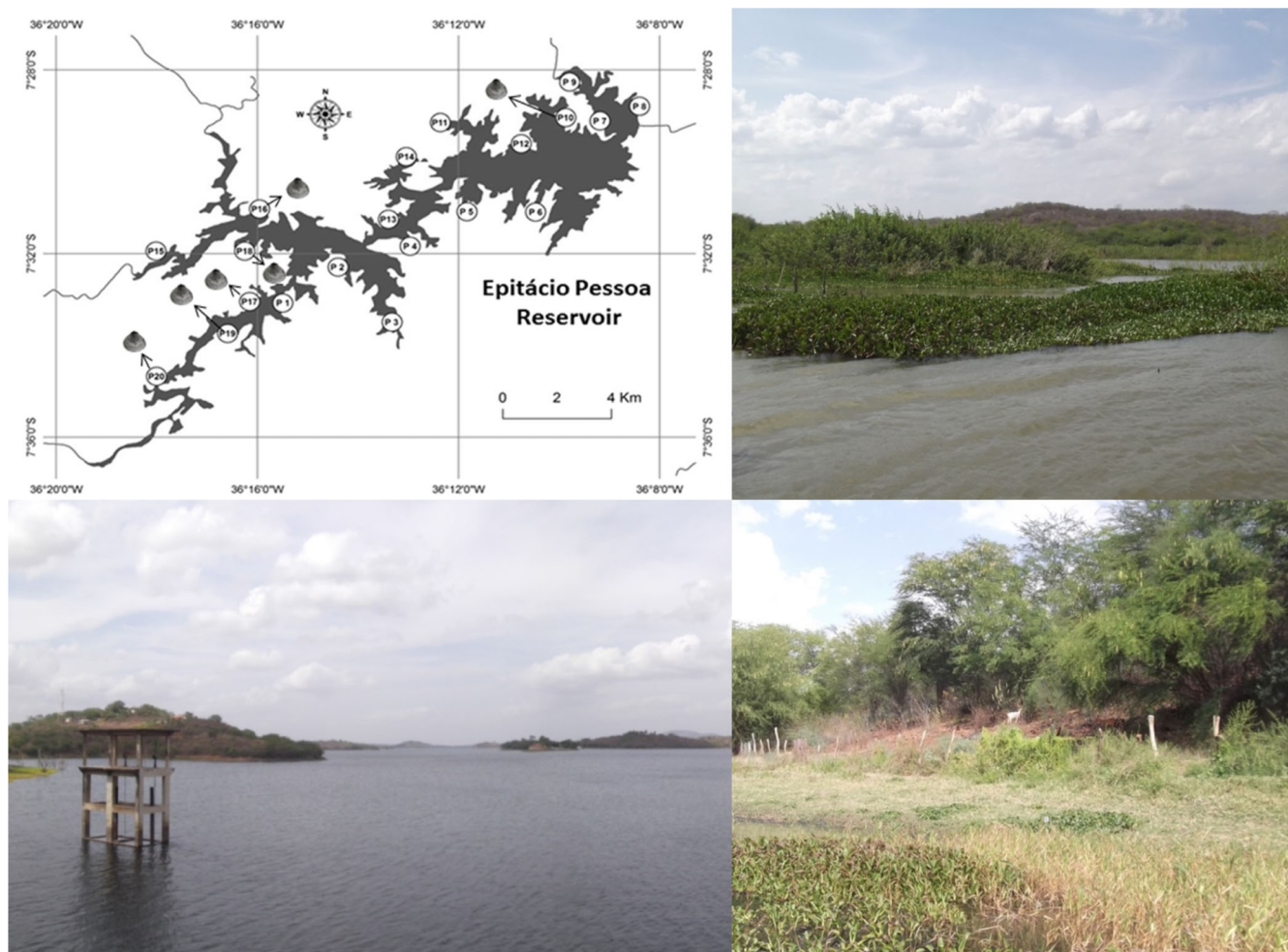


Figure 2. Reservoir Epitácio Pessoa and places of occurrence *Corbicula largillierti*, Paraíba River basin, Brazil.

introduction of Corbiculidae in freshwater ecosystems may alter fish diets and impair industrial activities, leading to economical loss (Darrigran 2002, Santos et al. 2012). It can also cause damage to human health given that some Corbiculidae are bioaccumulators of heavy metals (Darrigran 2002, Santos et al. 2012).

Densities of individuals ranged from 33 to 65 ind.m⁻² (maximum values of 484 ind.m⁻²) in coarse sediments (gravel, 2-4 mm), in six sampling sites (Figure 2). Identification of specimens was performed through shell characterization according to Mansur et al. (2004) and Pereira et al. (2012). The specimens were deposited in the Reference Collection of the Malacology and Molecular Systematics Laboratory of Universidade Federal de Minas Gerais, lots LMSM 3582 and 3583 (Figure 3).

The introduction of the mollusk in the study reservoir may have happened due to a variety of reasons. Given the higher densities near entry points of tributary streams into the reservoir, we believe that the mollusk was carried into the reservoir from these affluent tributaries. An alternative is that *Corbicula largillierti* may have been brought along with exotic molluscivorous fish that have been introduced into the reservoir (Gurgel & Fernando 1994). It is known that some species of



Figure 3. Record of *Corbicula largillierti*, reservoir Epitácio Pessoa, Paraíba River basin, Brazil.

mollusks can stay alive even after passing through the digestive tract of fish. Another possible way for the introduction of *Corbicula largillierti* is through the many small boats which are commonly used in the reservoir for fishing, recreation and inspection (Fernandes et al. 2012).

The presence of *C. largillierti* and other introduced species, such as *Melanoides tuberculatus* (Müller 1774) (Caenogastropoda, Thiaridae) (Paz et al. 1995), in the Paraíba river basin are examples of the threat of dispersion of exotic species throughout aquatic systems, which is commonly magnified by river flow and aquatic birds (Figueroa & Green 2002). Furthermore, in a study on niche models, Oliveira et al. (2010) highlighted the potential threat of the introduction of *Limnoperna fortunei* (Dunker 1857) (Bivalvia, Mytilidae) in the São Francisco river basin. With the water diversion from this basin, this species may spread to the Paraíba river basin, affecting native species of fish and mollusks. Another invasive mussel, which has caused serious environmental damage, *Corbicula fluminea* (Müller 1774), has also invaded semiarid ecosystems. There is the risk that shellfish reach the Paraíba River basin as a result of the diversion of waters from the São Francisco River, considering that this has already been recorded in the Hydroelectric of Xingó, in the São Francisco River Basin (state of Sergipe) (Santana et al. 2013).

Water diversions have been reported to alter water flow. In the Paraíba river, which is an intermittent system, it is expected that the water flow become perennial, which will lead to modifications of the habitat characteristics and will favor invasive species (Kingsford 2000). Changes in flow regime have been associated with the invasion success of introduced species. Hence, the water diversion of the São Francisco river invasive species may become established given that (i) the natural water flow is a major player in habitat structure; (ii) aquatic species have specific strategies to respond to flow regime; and (iii) the maintenance of natural patterns of longitudinal and lateral connection are essential to the viability of riverine species (Bunn & Arthington, 2002).

The semi-arid region of Brazil has been receiving alien species for many years. Government policies executed by the Departamento Nacional de Obras Contra a Seca (DNOCS) led to the introduction of 42 species of fish and crustaceans in over 100 reservoirs in the semi-arid region (Gurgel & Fernando 1994). This is a threat to native diversity and highlights the need for more studies on the introduction of species in the semi-arid region, especially as a consequence of the São Francisco river waters diversion.

We propose that future studies on the subject should use a niche modeling approach (e.g.: Peterson and Vieglais 2001) and

evaluate limiting abiotic factors in order to predict systems at risk of species invasion (Darrigran et al. 2011).

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The ethnoecological knowledge of fishermen from three coastal lagoons in the northern of the State of Rio de Janeiro, Brazil

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Abstract: The current study investigated the ethnoecological knowledge developed by fishermen through their fishing activities and searched for ways to match such knowledge to empirical data available in the scientific literature. The research involved fishermen from three coastal lagoons in the northern region of the State of Rio de Janeiro, Brazil, who were consulted through semi-structured interviews after the establishment of a trustful relationship over a period of three years with the interviewer. Their knowledge, in addition to its cultural and historical importance to these populations' survival, in many ways matches scientific studies based on an ethnoecological approach. Their knowledge considers reproductive aspects, feeding habits, and migratory fishing as well as the consequences and the importance of sandbar openings to estuarine-dependent species and the understanding of the consequences of sandbar openings to lagoon trophic state and other organisms' control (such as macrophytes). This set of data can contribute to the construction of plans for managing these ecosystems, in which fishermen may have a more important role than at present.

Keywords: Fishing, co-management, ethnoecology.

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Resumo: O presente estudo investigou o conhecimento etnoecológico desenvolvido pelos pescadores no exercício da atividade da pesca, além disso, investigou maneiras de agregar esse conhecimento aos dados disponíveis na literatura científica. A pesquisa envolveu pescadores de três lagoas costeiras na região norte do Estado do Rio de Janeiro, Brasil, os quais foram consultados por meio de entrevistas semiestruturadas após o estabelecimento de uma relação de confiança construída ao longo de três anos. Foi observado que o conhecimento dos pescadores, além de sua importância histórica e cultural para a sobrevivência dessas populações, em muitos aspectos, é compatível com os estudos científicos baseados em uma abordagem etnoecológica. Esse conhecimento se refere aos aspectos reprodutivos, hábitos alimentares, pesca migratória, bem como as consequências de aberturas de barra das lagoas para as espécies de estuarino dependentes e seus efeitos no estado trófico e no controle das macrófitas aquáticas. Este conjunto de dados pode contribuir para a construção de uma proposta de manejo para esses ecossistemas, no qual os pescadores possam ter um papel mais relevante do que se apresenta atualmente.

Palavras-chave: Pesca, manejo compartilhado e etnoecologia.

Introduction

Coastal lagoons are inland water bodies widely spread along the entire continental coast, and approximately 10% of these systems are located in South America (Barnes 1980). In Brazil, coastal lagoons are viewed as a very important set of freshwater ecosystems. They are distributed along the Brazilian coast mainly in the states of Rio Grande do Sul and Rio de Janeiro (Esteves 1998). Both ecologically and economically important ecosystems due to their high productivity, coastal

lagoons support communities that are unique in structure and diversity, making them ecosystems that contain important features in terms of conservation (Gordon 2000). The conservation of those systems is linked to uses established by society.

In addition to the local residents, the government and researchers recognize the role played by fishermen who historically developed a relationship of direct use of fishery resources from these systems. Therefore, we use the ethnosciences in order to understand the relationship between human populations and

these ecosystems. Ethnoecology studies concepts and knowledge regarding nature, enabling traditional societies to set and reproduce material and spiritual conditions related to their social existence by means of the appropriate management of their natural resources and ecosystems (Toledo 1990).

The present study aimed to investigate the ecological knowledge developed by fishermen through their fishing activity and to search for ways to match such knowledge to the empirical data available in the scientific literature. It is expected that the final outcomes may provide the basis for a proposal regarding the conservation of these ecosystems, one that comprises different sectors of society and respects all forms of knowledge construction.

Materials and methods

Study area

The research involved fishermen from three lagoons in the northern region of the State of Rio de Janeiro, Brazil. The three lagoons are Saquarema, Imboassica and Carapebus, the last of which is located within the boundaries of the Restinga de Jurubatiba National Park (Figure 1). Carapebus is a coastal lagoon located in Carapebus city; it is isolated from the sea by a sandbar and is part of the sandy coastal plain phytogeographical region. It has an area of 6.5 km², with a drainage basin of 126 km², and a mean depth of 2.4 m. Imboassica is an impacted urban lagoon located between Rio das Ostras and Macaé cities. It has an area of 3.26 km² with a mean depth of 1.09 m and a drainage basin of 50 km² (Panosso et al. 1998).

Saquarema lagoon is located at Saquarema city and has an area of 21.2 km² with a mean depth of 1.15 m and a drainage basin of 215 km² (Wasserman 2000). This lagoon has four different compartments (Mombaça, Jardim, Boqueirão and Lagoa de Fora) and is permanently linked to the sea by a sandbar that has been opened to minimize impacts from sewage disposal.



1. Saquarema: 22°55'06"S 42°32'08"O
2. Imboassica: 22°24'41"S 41°49'47"O
3. Carapebus: 20°13'42"S 40°12'43"O

Figure 1. Location of Saquarema lagoon (1), Imboassica lagoon (2) and Carapebus lagoon (3) (Illustration: Américo Pastor).

Data sampling

Data sampling was based on qualitative research, including field notes, interviews, chats, photographs and recordings (Quintas 2005), established over a three-year relationship with interviewees. Initially, free interviews were performed to establish mutual trust between researcher and informant. This initial approach has supported the construction of a question script and the definition of interviewees for the semi-structured interviews (Mello 1995, Elliot 2012).

Scripts for the semi-structured interviews had questions related to ecological knowledge, fishing techniques, observation, response of ecosystem to sandbar opening, and management proposals and possibilities.

To take part in the experiment, interviewees from each lagoon were chosen by *snowball sampling* in which some of the interviewees are previously identified and, after being interviewed, are asked to indicate new possible interviewees for the research (Biernacki & Waldorf 1981). Initially, legitimate representatives from all lagoons were contacted. Thus, Carapebus' lagoon Residents Association former president - who is the son of one of the fishermen - was interviewed. After him, two old fishermen were also interviewed. The representative from a fishermen colony at Imboassica - who also works at the Carapebus lagoon - was interviewed in public locations. He is recognized by fishermen from both colonies and other sectors of society as a local leader. At Saquarema lagoon, the interviews were initiated with the fishermen's leader. From his recommendations, two other fishermen were contacted and they indicated five more fishermen, totaling eight fishermen interviewed at this lagoon. Thus, in total, 11 fishermen were interviewed in addition to the chairman of the Association of Residents of Carapebus beach who provided important historical information. The sample was considered sufficient based on the effect of a progressive inclusion that allowed applying the criterion for completeness (Andrade et al. 2006a b). The number of interviewees was adequate for the purpose of this research, given the semi-structured interview questions, which were seeking answers of a technical nature. This research did not target issues related to personal opinions, which would have required a quantitative analysis. Moreover, as already mentioned, the fishermen have long experience in the profession and are recognized among other fishermen as leaders and experts in fisheries in coastal lagoons. The number of interviewees was similar to those used by Costa-Neto et al. (2002) and Costa-Neto (2000) in ethnoichthyological studies. It is worth noting that finding active fishermen at Imboassica lagoon is very rare, due to urbanization, as mentioned by Frota & Caramaschi (1998). Each interview took from 30 to 70 minutes, depending on the interviewees' mood to speak with researchers. All interviews were recorded, for a total of 10 hours of recordings, which are stored at the Limnology Lab of the Federal University of Rio de Janeiro.

Analysis

The recordings were analyzed considering qualitative factors, interpreting the interviewees' speech and searching for as much contrast as possible between the ethnoecological and the scientific knowledge, according to Martins et al. (2011) and Mourão & Nordi (2003). Therefore, based on an ethnoecological approach (Diegues 2002), we presented a data set and

discussed the similarities and differences to available scientific knowledge.

Results and discussion

Ecological aspects of ichthyofauna

The fishermen's responses demonstrated a good range of information about the lagoons' ecology. Such knowledge was acquired through their fishing activities. Thus, it differs from scientific knowledge according to origin and validation criteria (Table 1).

Regarding fish origins, the classification system used by the fishermen is extremely similar to that suggested by the scientific community. There are several ways to classify fish from estuarine regions. Fischer et al. (2004) stated that fish are divided into estuarine residents, estuarine dependents and estuarine opportunistic, in addition to freshwater fish. The classification system proposed by the fishermen perfectly meets their needs because the most relevant issue for them is the commercial value given to the fish they catch, as observed by Ramires et al. (2012). Once marine fish hold a higher commercial value than freshwater fish, such a point of view is reasonable enough. Marine and freshwater fish are classified by the fishermen as "white fish" and "black fish", respectively. However, in spite of appearances, the fishermen's classification system shows an interesting level of complexity. Along with the issue of a fish's origin, another factor that demonstrates the logic behind the classification system proposed by the fishermen is related to the reproductive cycle of marine fish. All

interviewees state that there is practically no marine fish reproduction in the lagoons, and this observation supports their arguments in favor of open sandbars in coastal lagoons. While fishermen did not list all resident species, they are aware of their existence. The species mentioned are especially those of commercial interest, which reinforces the fact that fishermen do have the knowledge that is essential for their activity. This discussion is extremely relevant because there are commercially important species in the studied lagoons, e.g., *Genidens genidens* (Cuvier, 1829) and *Atherinella brasiliensis* (Quoy & Gaimard, 1825) at the Imboassica lagoon (Frota & Caramaschi 1998), and *Platanichthys platana* (Regan, 1917), *Genidens genidens*, *Atherinella brasiliensis* and *Jenynsia multidentata* (Jenyns, 1842) at the Carapebus lagoon (Sánchez-Botero et al. 2009). Although the fish mentioned by the fishermen, such as *Centropomus parallelus* Poey, 1860 and *Centropomus undecimalis* (Bloch, 1792), are classified by the aforementioned authors as marine dependents, the complex fish classification system among the professionals is highlighted. Similar results were reported by other authors who aimed to inform about species' ethnology (Costa-Neto & Marques 2000); taxonomy (Costa-Neto et al. 2002); habitat preferences (Moura & Marques 2007) and seasonality (Lopes & Begossi 2008). The studies have emphasized the criteria refinement used by the fishermen to create ethnoecological categories.

According to Sánchez-Botero et al. (2008), *Mugil curema* Valenciennes, 1836 and *Mugil liza* Valenciennes, 1836 or mullets, whose occurrence was documented in the region, are marine dependent species. Fischer et al. (2004) asserted that

Table 1. Summary information provided by fishermen

Topic	% mentioned	Statement	Example
Sandbar opening for entrance of different species	100	Favors species that need the lagoon at some life stage	"Because in the lagoon there are two categories of fish. Black fish and white fish. The black fish is the one that is born and reproduces in the lagoon and has low commercial value, but also important, it is a fish that do not grow too much. The white fish is the one that enters the sea, with high commercial value and reaches 10Kg, 12 Kg."
How was the learning of fishing	100	With father or older relatives	"My father... I was raised here in the lagoon"
Salinity at the lagoons	100	Increases with sandbar opening but decreases after a while	"The tendency here is to turn into freshwater. The whole lagoon. But in 6 or 8 months it becomes brackish water. In two, three years it is freshwater."
Sandbar openings and improving of sanitary conditions of the lagoons	81	Entrance of sea-water with higher salinity and output of excess nutrients improves the sanitary conditions of the lagoons	"Because when the sewage comes, it goes to the bottom. It (sandbar opening) stirred all this mud in the bottom, those things that were quite is now emerged (...) but is leaving, it is leaving, and the sea later will renovate it." "I guess, because I'm not a technician nor a scientist, but I guess that salt kills thousands of harmful bacteria, the exceeding vegetation, this black mud, so the salt comes in and clean it"
Importance of aquatic macrophytes for some fish species	55	Macrophytes act as shelters for larvae of some fish species	"Disappearing of cattails at Mombaça there are no more fish breeding sites."
Variations of macrophytes stands	72	Macrophytes increase with eutrophication and decrease with salinity	"We associate that the amount of sewage proliferates an amount of vegetation, disordered, in excess. Like cattails, water hyacinth..." "When it (the lagoon) fills, it brings renewed water from sea to fill enough, to reach the edge of the cattails, the cattails in excess, their roots absorb the salty water and dies, the excess, you see it does not die, the cattails are here."

mulletts inhabit shallow coastal waters, form shoals in order to spawn in the sea, and enter the lagoons for the estuarine phase necessary for juvenile stages (Bizerril & Costa 2001). Such scientific information corroborates the observation by a fisherman at Imboassica lagoon that these fish leave the lagoon to spawn at sea, which usually happens in June. Costa-Neto (2000) also observed that fishermen from the State of Bahia note June as the spawning time for this species. The information from the fisherman about the mullets' reproductive cycle was obtained when he was questioned about the species' closed season and the impossibility of opening sandbars. As he said: "What is the purpose of forbidding fishing during the breeding season if they cannot breed in the lagoon and cannot leave it once the sandbars cannot be opened?"

The argument in favor of sandbar openings is based on fish reproductive cycles and is supported by the assumption that marine species ("white fish") are part of the ichthyofauna in the lagoon. The motivation for opening sandbars concerns not only fish entering lagoons but also the need for estuarine dependent species to exit the lagoons. Thus, considering that fishermen have a grasp of factors such as population fluctuation, fish biology, fishing losses and temporal factors, it was clear that their proposals regarding the lagoons' management are worth consideration.

In addition to the reproductive issue, fishermen demonstrated a good understanding about the diet of some fish species. They realized that, just as other animals, fish have a varied diet, with some feeding on plants and others on other animals – such as small crustaceans -and even on other fish. They also talked about the habit of some fish that re-suspend sediments in their search for food. This knowledge indicated that fishermen are aware of the complexity of trophic interactions in the lagoons. According to Paiva et al. (2008), *Diapterus rhombeus* (Cuvier, 1829) shows preference for feeding on small benthic invertebrates. Moreover, Costa-Neto & Marques (2000) have identified- among fishermen and among the corresponding scientific literature - the awareness of foraging habits of certain species from benthic regions. Mulletts, on the other hand, feed on small algae and detritus (Fischer et al. 2004) and present the strategy -mentioned by an interviewee- of re-suspending sediments in order to access items that are part of their diet. Such feeding behavior is also described by Costa-Neto & Marques (2000) and Ramires et al. (2007).

Some species had been identified by the fishermen as predators. According to one of them, *C. parallellus*, *Hoplias malabaricus* (Bloch, 1794) and *Caranx latus* Agassiz, 1831, are examples of predatory fish. According to the scientific literature, these three species feed on fish and invertebrates (Silvano 2001, Sánchez-Botero et al. 2008). The first two are piscivorous, both in number of food items and consumed biomass (Loureiro & Hahn, 1996, Toniniet al. 2007), whereas *C. latus* eats both fish and invertebrates, but the consumed biomass of fish is higher than the invertebrates' (Silvano 2001). *Clarias gariepinus* (Burchell, 1822), described by a fisherman as a "terrifying predator", presents few restrictions on feeding habits and its diet can consist of terrestrial invertebrates, aquatic insects, fish, crustaceans, mollusks, fish eggs, aquatic macrophytes and detritus (Groenewald 1964, Mwebaza-Ndawula 1984, Spataru et al. 1987, Dadebo 2000).

In addition to being aware of this species' potential, fishermen are also concerned about the impacts caused by

exogenous species. They demonstrated this concern by mentioning the occurrence of *Tilapia rendalli* (Boulenger, 1897) and *Clarias gariepinus* at the Imboassica lagoon. According to Caramaschi et al. (2004), the occurrence of *T. rendalli* on 10 mm mesh hauls went from 34% - between 1991 and 1993 – up to 66% - between 2000 and 2003 - at the Imboassica lagoon. According to the authors, such dominance is favored by salinity decrease during the closed periods of sandbars and by the species' colonizing ability. Fishermen have also demonstrated knowledge that the existence of exotic species can cause changes in the community. This understanding is clear to them because such changes modify species appearing in fishing nets and can bring economic losses due to a possible reduction of the availability of marine species. Despite the fact that *T. rendalli* has a good acceptance in the market, and as a result is often caught by fishermen, the species of marine origin are the most valuable for these professionals.

Fishermen's knowledge about fish feeding habits is widely discussed in ethnoecology studies. The results indicate detailed knowledge on specific criteria such as reproductive features. Fishermen recognize fish as generalists and specialists (Costa-Neto & Marques 2000), omnivorous, opportunists, carnivorous, planktivorous, iliofagous and piscivorous (Mourão & Nordi 2003). Furthermore, Mourão & Nordi (2003) state that the fishermen at the estuary of the Mamanguape River recognize a large variety of fish behaviors such as reproduction, sound emission, odor release, feeding, migration and protection from predators. Their behavior had also been observed by fishermen interviewed during our research. In a broader sense, Diegues (2002) states that fishermen are aware of fish behavior, location, availability and that they know about the species distribution as well as about taxonomic and habit classifications.

Lagoons physical and chemical features

Marine fish are the fishermen's primary target, but the fishermen also seem to understand other factors related to the ecosystem as a whole, such as salinity. A fisherman at Carapebus lagoon described a sequence of events that goes from salt water, right after the bar was opened, going to brackish water 6 months later and up to freshwater after a few years. Such a sequence is common in all the lagoons that have regular contact with the sea, where rain and river waters are the main sources for freshwater. Therefore, the time required for salinity reduction varies, because depending on the rainfall season, it could happen for a few months, as described by Santangelo (2009) at Imboassica lagoon, or for a year, as mentioned by the fisherman and Sánchez-Botero (2005).

A fisherman at Saquarema lagoon mentions the different salinity in distinct lagoon regions: "this first lake salinity is 35, almost equal to sea. At Boqueirão it is 30, and at Mombaça it is 25 according to our recent observations". Another fisherman at the same lagoon knows about the long-term changes in the salinity at Saquarema lagoon: "nowadays, it is more salty". The salinity data are corroborated by Wasserman (2000) and Azevedo (2005). The former author showed that inner lagoons' regions (Boqueirão e Mombaça) at Saquarema lagoon have lower salinity values than the region known as "Lagoa de Fora", and the latter states that after the permanent opening of the sandbar, the same region has salinity nearly equal to that of the sea.

Still concerning salinity, the fishermen believe that sea water intrusion leads to a decrease in pathogenic bacteria proliferation; these are present in the lagoon, due to non-treated sewage outflow. The fisherman at Imboassica lagoon reported that when salinity increases, the amount of "harmful" bacteria decreases, as does the amount of vegetation (macrophytes). Mallin et al. (2000) found that the abundance of pathogenic bacteria presents a negative correlation to an increase in salinity, a fact that was confirmed by Lutterbach et al. (2001), Meirelles-Pereira (2002) and Ajayi & Akonai (2003). Low salinity lagoons, such as Carapebus, usually have large macrophyte stands dominated by *Typha domingensis* Pers (Farjalla et al. 1999). On the other hand, the opposite condition was confirmed by Glenn et al. (1995) and Macek & Rejmánková (2007). According to Palma-Silva (1998), *T. domingensis* is the species of the genus *Typha* more tolerant to brackish water and is also tolerant to seawater intrusion in Imboassica lagoon. However, considering other authors' results, such a tolerance does not prevent its decrease in periods of sandbar openings.

Lagoons trophic features

Sandbar openings, in general, are related to trophic features in lagoons. The lagoons were historically surrounded by houses (Imboassica and Saquarema), crops and industries (Carapebus) that drain their sewage into such freshwater systems. Regarding this particular subject, the fisherman at Imboassica lagoon understands important concepts about the lagoon's trophic state. This understanding could first be seen when he mentioned the sewage deposition in the sediment and also when he talked about the relationship between sandbar openings and the nutrient's excessive outputs. Fishermen at Saquarema lagoon report differences between the closed sandbar period and the current period of permanent opened sandbar. According to them, after this change in the lagoon dynamics, there was no fish mortality, which was common in earlier times. As they said: "The constant opened sandbar was good because at first there was a great deal of fish mortality; many fish died when the water heated during warm weather. That is the only advantage of this permanently opened sandbar: there is no more fish mortality". "There used to be great fish mortality. This channel was good for the lagoon. Because the sandbar is opened. The channel is opened. Since it is this way, what was the fish mortality? None."

The aforementioned mortality is related to two common phenomena in lagoons that have periodical sandbar openings: fish death caused by the sanitary conditions of the lagoon, leading to high organic matter decomposition and oxygen consumption, when the lagoon receives effluents and remains closed for a long period (Esteves 2011), and after openings that promote seawater input, leading to the death of freshwater fish (Frota & Caramaschi 1998).

This specific case has been discussed by the scientific community; systematic openings may contribute to the export of nitrogen forms, which does not happen with phosphorus. Because phosphorus is deposited on the bottom, it is re-suspended, enriching the water column, and is accumulated in the lagoons over the years (Meirelles 2003, Bozelli et al. 2009). This highlights the gaps in fishermen's knowledge. Based on this case, Johannes et al. (2000) argue that even though there are flaws in the fishermen's knowledge about the system, such gaps also exist in the scientific knowledge. Such a conclusion

supports part of the present research's proposal, which does not intend to diminish the importance of a certain form of knowledge in favor of another. It is meant to reinforce the dialogue between the various existing forms of knowledge.

Aquatic macrophytes

The fishermen argued that excessive amounts of macrophytes are a problem for their activities. They reported some activities performed by the plants as well as the response to the changes caused by the sandbar openings. According to the fisherman at Imboassica lagoon, many aquatic macrophyte species are found in the lagoon. Due to sewage disposal, there is an increase in the density of some of them, which can be an obstacle for sailing.

The species mentioned by him (*Nymphaea ampla* (Salisb.) DC., *Typha domingensis* Pers and *Eichhornia crassipes* (Mart.) Solms are aquatic macrophytes found at Imboassica lagoon (Lopes-Ferreira 1998, Santos & Esteves 2004). *Cyperus rotundus* L. and *Brachiaria* sp. are terrestrial and invasive worldwide species that can colonize transitional areas of aquatic systems and that can become mixed with aquatic macrophytes, depending on the water level (Ricci et al. 2000). The macrophytes mentioned by the fishermen include free-floating and attached macrophytes as well as submerged and emergent macrophytes, including charophytes.

In addition to the information given on the species found in the lagoon, the fisherman discussed the macrophytes' expansion and the consequent reduction of the water surface, and he associated the plants spreading with the increase of sewage discharge in the lagoon. Such information is quite similar to results found by Palma-Silva (1998). The author assumes that *T. domingensis* Pers. development is favored by eutrophication, because - near the sewage channel - the species presents higher growth rates compared to other species that are not influenced by nutrient loading. It is corroborated by Macek & Rejmánková (2007), who state that *T. domingensis* Pers. responds mainly to nitrogen and phosphorus additions.

Despite the fact that macrophytes in excess are considered as obstacles by fishermen, its total absence is harmful for the reproductive cycles of some species as mentioned by fishermen at Saquarema lagoon. These fishermen state that "with the disappearance of cattails (*T. domingensis* Pers.) at Mombaça, there is no more fish breeding". The use of macrophytes by different fish species in coastal lagoons is highlighted by Sánchez-Botero et al. (2008). According to them, some species are highly dependent on such environments, for both feeding in juvenile or adult stages and for using macrophytes for parental fish eggs and larval care. Similar results were found by Sánchez-Botero & Araujo-Lima (2001) in floodplain lakes in the central Amazon. The authors claim that macrophyte roots create an important nursery for many species in these ecosystems, including the commercially important ones.

The relevance of ethnoecological knowledge

The type of information presented by the current study, according to its historical value, displays what we call innate relevance or, as stated by Berkes et al. (1995): "by itself and the socio-cultural value." Moreover, one should take into consideration that such knowledge "through generations ensure the sustenance of human populations by using natural resources" and that an essential factor to the present discussion is the fact that many areas are currently protected, were preserved and

kept a high biodiversity while being inhabited and managed by traditional populations (Diegues & Viana 2004).

When analyzed by means of an ethnoscientific point of view, the information given by the fishermen indicates a high correlation to scientific knowledge, just as it was observed in several regions of Brazil by Costa-Neto (2000), Costa-Neto & Marques (2000), Silvano et al. (2006), Costa-Neto et al. (2002), Mourão & Nordi (2003), Thé (2003), Silvano & Begossi (2005), Rosa et al. (2005), Mourão & Nordi (2006), Grando (2006), Moura & Marques (2007), Ramires et al. (2007) and others. Thus, according to the aforementioned authors, such knowledge gives to the fishermen the status of essential partners when studying and managing ecosystems of which they are a part, exactly as stated by Berkes et al. (1998). Therefore, these people's knowledge should be taken into account by decision makers when elaborate projects of local conservation are proposed for both the maintenance of wildlife and access to this natural resource (Pereira & Schiavetti 2010).

In general, fishermen can provide information about temporal factors (annual, seasonal, daily, lunar, tide-related), pointing to different behaviors, habitats and species abundance and stating how these influence fishing strategies. In cases in which long-term data are unavailable, older fishermen may also be the only source of information regarding historical changes in fish stocks and on environmental conditions. Fishermen's ecological knowledge can thus help improve management of fish stocks and rebuilding of marine ecosystems (Johannes et al. 2000). Nevertheless, there are cases in which observations reported by fishermen –essential to decisions regarding fishing strategies –are not supported by the ichthyological literature. They are viewed as folklore or popular belief, even with the existing gaps in scientific knowledge. Accordingly, the relevance of partnerships between scientific and local knowledge becomes evident for research development (Mourão & Nordi 2003).

Based on the scenario presented by the current study, we refer to Gadgil & Berkes (1991), who have proposed rethinking and rebuilding the sciences involved in ecosystems management, making these better suited to fulfill the needs of ecological sustainability and of the people who use such resources. To do so, it is imperative to maintain both biological and cultural diversity, because together, they offer a variety of practices and traditional management resource systems. In sum, collective-choice rules affect who is involved in deciding about future rules and how preferences will be aggregated (Ostrom et al. 1999).

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Intra annual seed production and availability of two morphotypes of *Brosimum rubescens* taubert in forests of the Colombian Amazon

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Abstract: We assessed the reproductive phenology, production, and availability of seeds for two morphotypes of *Brosimum rubescens* Taub. (Moraceae), locally known as black palosangre (BP) and white palosangre (WP) during an annual cycle in a 20-ha mega plot located in a primary forest at the El Zafire Biological Station, in the Colombian Amazon. We found that 87% and 41% of potentially reproductive individuals of BP and WP respectively, was fertile and the production of reproductive structures was variable within and between morphotypes. The phenological pattern was seasonal in both morphotypes, characterized by flowering at the end of the dry season and fruiting at the start of the rainy season. BP produced and aborted large amounts of infructescences (approximately 21743), possibly as a response to satiate predators. Relative predation in terms of pre-dispersion of seeds was similar in both morphotypes, with a greater damage generated by a Scolytidae Curculionidae (Coleoptera) and to a lesser degree by frugivorous vertebrates. The number of mature fruits, total seeds, and removed seeds was similar for both morphotypes. Differences in the amount of reproductive structures and in the timing of phenophases between morphotypes decreased the competition and contributed to their coexistence. It seems that in undisturbed forests seed limitation could be more conditioning for WP, while other limitations after fruit and seed production could occur in BP.

Keywords: Fecundity, predation, reproductive phenology, seed limitation, seed removal.

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Resumen: Se evaluó la fenología reproductiva, producción y disponibilidad de semillas de dos morfotipos de *Brosimum rubescens* Taub. (Moraceae), conocidos localmente como palosangre negro (PN) y palosangre blanco (PB), durante un ciclo anual en una megaparcera de 20 ha localizada en bosques primarios de la Estación Biológica El Zafire, Amazonía colombiana. Se encontró que estuvieron fértiles el 87% y 41% de los individuos potencialmente reproductivos de PN y PB, respectivamente. La producción de estructuras reproductivas fue variable dentro y entre morfotipos. El patrón fenológico fue estacional en ambos: florecieron al final de la época seca y fructificaron al inicio de la lluviosa. Aunque en PB aparentemente ocurre limitación en la polinización, la maduración de los óvulos fecundados es más eficiente que en PN. Este último produjo y abortó abundante cantidad de infrutescencias, posiblemente para saciar depredadores. En ambos morfotipos la depredación relativa pre-dispersión de las semillas fue similar, siendo mayor el daño generado por un Curculionidae Scolytidae (Coleóptera) y menor por frugívoros vertebrados. El número de frutos maduros, semillas totales y semillas removidas también fue similar entre morfotipos. Diferencias en la cantidad de estructuras reproductivas y en el tiempo de manifestación de las fenofases entre morfotipos, disminuyen la competencia y contribuyen a su coexistencia. Aparentemente, en bosques no disturbados la limitación de semillas podría ser más condicionante para PB, pero otras limitaciones posteriores a la producción de frutos y semillas podrían presentarse en PN.

Palabras clave: Depredación, fecundidad, fenología reproductiva, limitación de semillas, remoción de semillas.

Introduction

The production of seeds and their dispersion are critical processes for the population dynamics of tree communities in neotropical forests (Levin *et al.* 2003, Muller-Landau *et al.* 2008, Stoner & Henry 2010). Low and uncertain seed production is a limitation for the transition in sufficient quantities to subsequent stages of the biological cycle of populations and for the reproductive success (Schupp & Fuentes 1995, Tufto *et al.* 1997, Clark *et al.* 1998, de Steven & Wright 2002, Muller-Landau *et al.* 2008). It has been shown that a high variability in seed production diminishes the interspecific competition, thus allowing for the coexistence of many species as well as for the promotion of a high diversity at multiple scales (Tilman 1994, Hurr & Pacala 1995, Hubbell *et al.* 1999, Schupp *et al.* 2002).

In rain forests, despite the production of abundant pistillate flowers with potential of fecundation, it is common that a limited number of seeds mature and spread (Larson & Barrett 2000, Clark *et al.* 2004). This may happen for different reasons: 1) limited pollen availability (Larson & Barrett 2000, Stoner & Henry 2010), 2) deficiency in resource availability (Wright *et al.* 1999), and 3) losses pre dispersion by predators (Maron & Gardner 2000, Hulme 2001). Many species overcome these limitations through different strategies in their reproductive characteristics (Herrera 1998, van der Wal 2004, van Rhee 2005, Wright *et al.* 2005a, Muller-Landau *et al.* 2008), which are associated with evolutionary processes such as abiotic and biotic interactions, endogenous factors and or phylogenetic relations (Wright & Calderón 1995, Williams-Linera & Meave 2002, Marques *et al.* 2004, Breatly *et al.* 2007).

The identification of reproductive phenological patterns from species groups, guilds, or conspecific individuals is key to understand the assemblages of vegetation communities, especially of those groups with very similar phylogenetic characteristics that coexist in similar habitats. High similarity in the availability of fruits for dispersion might increase intra and interspecific competition, with yet unknown consequences for future regeneration processes (Levin *et al.* 2003, Clark *et al.* 2004).

Such is the case of two morphotypes of the woody tree *Brosimum rubescens* Taub. (Moraceae). These morphotypes coexist in Terra firme forests of the Colombian Amazon. The species is a long-lived, shade tolerant, generalist species, which inhabits different landscapes over well-drained soils of the Amazonia (Marimon & Felfili 2001, Duque *et al.* 2003, Palacios 2005, Rivera *et al.* 2006). These two morphotypes, locally named Palosangre negro (Black palosangre-BP) and Palosangre blanco (White palosangre-WP) differ mainly in their foliar structures but are similar in terms of size, weight, shape and color of fruits and seeds (Palacios 2005). The study of temporality and productivity of cyclical biological events of each morphotype will be fundamental to better understanding their regenerative niche and their coexistence in the same habitat. In this study we assessed whether possible differences in the reproductive phenology and final availability of seeds, contribute both to the coexistence and abundance of these two morphotypes in terra firme forests. Specifically, our research questions were: Are there differences in the reproductive phenology between the two morphotypes? And how does seed availability vary in each morphotype?

Materials and methods

1. The studied species

Brosimum rubescens Taubert is a species from the Moraceae family (Berg 1972, Berg & Simonis 2000) distributed in the tropical rain forests from America, being the Amazonia its center of dispersion, where it has been reported in terra firme forests (Duivenvoorden & Lips 1993, Urrego 1997, Sánchez 1997, López & Cárdenas 2002, Duque *et al.* 2003, Rudas & Prieto 2005, Palacios 2005, Parrado-Roselli 2005, Rivera *et al.* 2006, Peñuela & Pijache 2007). Adult trees reach the main canopy, with maximum heights of 30 - 35 m and up to 90 cm of diameter. It is considered as a shade-tolerant and long-lived species, typical of primary forests (Marimon & Felfili 2001, Palacios 2005, Rivera *et al.* 2006). According to results from 14 to 18 years of growth data in permanent plots, the life cycle of this species could be between 450 - 700 years (Laurance *et al.* 2004), though recent studies based on radio carbon would support the higher limit (Vieira *et al.* 2011). Our data at the El Zafire Biological Station average 1 mm per year of diametric growth (Peñuela & Jiménez, unpublished data).

Brosimum rubescens is a monoicous tree, whose male and female reproductive structures occur in the same inflorescence. Though Berg & Hijman (1999) suggest that inflorescences of *Brosimum* are adapted for insect pollination, in a phylogenetic study of Moraceae Datwyler & Weiblen (2004) say that pollination syndrome of *Brosimum* is anemophilous; however, the pollination biology of many Moraceae is not known and observations of floral visitors are lacking, particularly in *Sorocea* and the tribe Dorstenieae (to which *Brosimum* belongs). Fruit is round and fleshy, light green when ripening, its diameter is about 2 cm and has one seed. Diameter of brown seeds is on average 1.5 cm and is covered with sweet and almost transparent mucilage. The germination is hypogeous and occurs in few days (usually within 15-20 days) because seeds are recalcitrant. Seedlings are abundant in the understory of terra firme forests, especially under the crown of maternal trees (Palacios 2005, Rivera *et al.* 2006).

A wide variety of frugivorous animals are potential dispersers of *B. rubescens*, including primates (Rodríguez *et al.* 1995, Palacios *et al.* 1997, Defler 2003). In 2003, when occurred a massive fructification of this species in the study area, we observed flocks of parrots (*Brotogeris* sp.) consuming the fruits. Groups of Psittacidae, Ramphastidae, Cotingidae, Callithrichidae, and Cebidae have been reported removing seeds of *Brosimum utile* (Parrado-Roselli 2005), and Quiróptera in *Brosimum alicastrum* (Acosta & Aguanta 2006). We also have seen secondary dispersion of this species by small rodents (*Proechimys* sp.), which used fruits for the construction of burrows in terra firme forests.

2. Study area

The study was carried out in a 20-ha permanent plot of a terra firme forest located at the El Zafire Biological Station in the southern Colombian Amazon in a National Forest Reserve, bordering Brazil (4° 00' 00" S and 69° 53' 57" W) (Figure 1). The studied forest is well conserved; it has about 650 trees greater than 10 cm of diameter at breast height (DBH) in 160 species per hectare. The most abundant species belong to the genera *Eschweilera* from the Lecythidaceae family (*E. bracteosa*, *E. coriacea*, and *E. punctata*), as well as the Woody tree *Andiroba* (*Carapa guianensis*). According to Caldas-Lang's

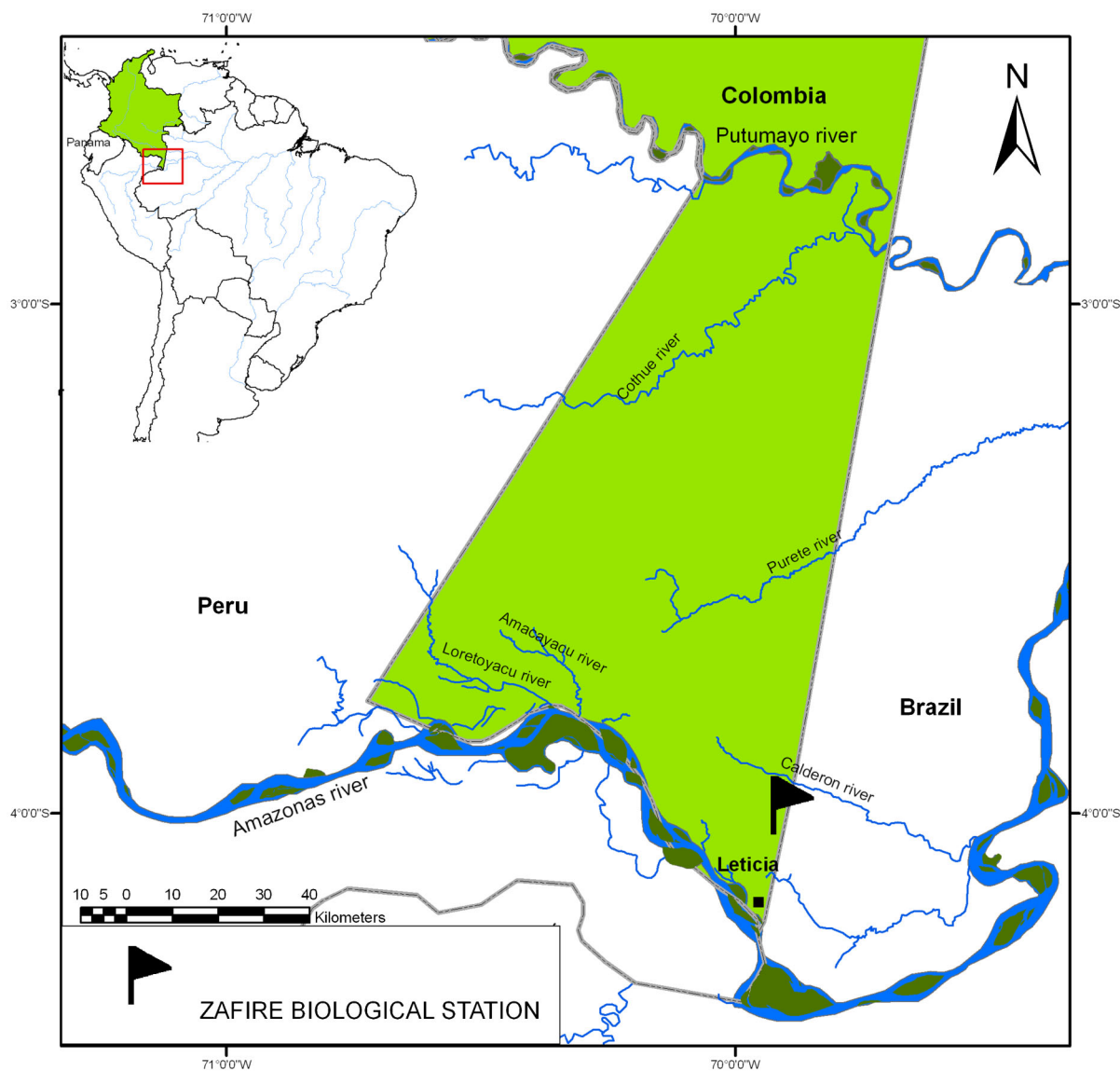


Figure 1. The El Zafire Biological Station study area (S 4°00'00'', W 69°53'57'') and National forests reserve in the Colombian Amazon (modified from Peñuela-Mora 2014).

climate classification (Rangel & Luengas 1997), the study area is wet and warm with an average temperature of 27° C and an average annual rainfall varying between 2600 and 3400 mm. The regime of precipitation is dominated by a rainy season from October to May and a dry season from June to August.

Geologically, the area belongs to the upper tertiary Mariñame formation, which forms the predominant subsoil of the Amazon basin (Arbeláez 2003) and is characterized by large sand deposits (Palacios 2005). Important variations in soils and topography are reported with altitude, which varies between 80 and 120 m, and characterizes the terra firme forests with undulated, moderate to flat slopes. Soils are generally classified as Ultisols with medium to coarse sands and high quartz contents. These conditions result in a mostly sandy and sandy-loam texture dominating the region with clay loam soils in some areas. Soils are extremely acidic (pH<4.5), with very low CEC and total base saturation. Mineral elements such as calcium, magnesium, potassium, and sodium occur in minimal quantities, less than 0.2 meq/100 g (Arbeláez 2003).

3. Tree selection for phenological monitoring

All adult trees of *B. rubescens* were sampled in a 20-hectare plot previously established in primary forests. Botanical samples of both *Brosimum* morphotypes were collected and separated according to biological traits described by Palacios (2005). We selected trees with DBH > 33.5 cm, which were considered sexually mature and potentially fertile trees (PFT). To estimate the crown area (square meters) of each tree we measured 8 radii from the main stem of the tree (separated by an angle of 45°) to the projection of the crown's edge to the ground. Crown area was calculated as the sum of the areas of each of the triangles formed by two consecutive radii. Each month from February 2007 to January 2008 the phenological state of each tree was recorded. Phenophases were described as follows: *flowering*, when there were flowers in the crown or on the ground. *Early fruiting*, when fruits were harder and fertilized ovules showed no distinguishable seeds, and *advanced fruiting*, when pericardium fragments showing the cavity that

holds the seeds or fruits with clearly differential seeds were found (Figure 2f).

4. Trap sampling under parent trees

Ten **BP** and six **WP** individuals displaying fertile activity were monitored; under each tree four traps were installed along cardinal points in the midpoint between the tree stem and the crown drip line. A total of 40 traps were located under **BP** and 24 under **WP** trees. Each trap of 1m² area was placed 0.50 m above the ground (Rozo-Mora & Parrado-Roselli 2004, Parrado-Roselli *et al.* 2006). Trap content was collected every two weeks from September 2007 to January 2008 (8 samplings), during the main reproductive activity of both morphotypes. Samples were processed and analyzed at the Natural Products Lab of the National University of Colombia in Leticia.

5. Laboratory processing

Collected samples were oven dried at 103° C to constant weight. Reproductive structures were separated, counted and

grouped into: *inflorescences*, *unripe fruits*, *ripe fruits*, *damaged fruits* (with holes or mechanical damage), *empty fruits* (those with diameter \geq 1cm and an empty cavity showing that there was at least one well developed seed (Figure 2f), and *free, ripe seeds* (when well-developed free seeds were found). Each sample was weighted in analytical scale to the nearest 0.001g.

6. Variables evaluated

The absolute and relative density of actively fertile trees with relation to PFT was assessed for each morphotype. Because all reproductive structures of both morphotypes are green (even after ripening), it was extremely difficult to distinguish through observations with binoculars the change from inflorescence to fruit; for this reason, the level of synchrony of fertile activity was assessed from the percentage of individuals that started fertile activity (flowering only) and we did not determine this variable for fruting. Following Bencke & Morellato (2002), a phenophase was considered synchronous when more than 60% of trees exhibited that

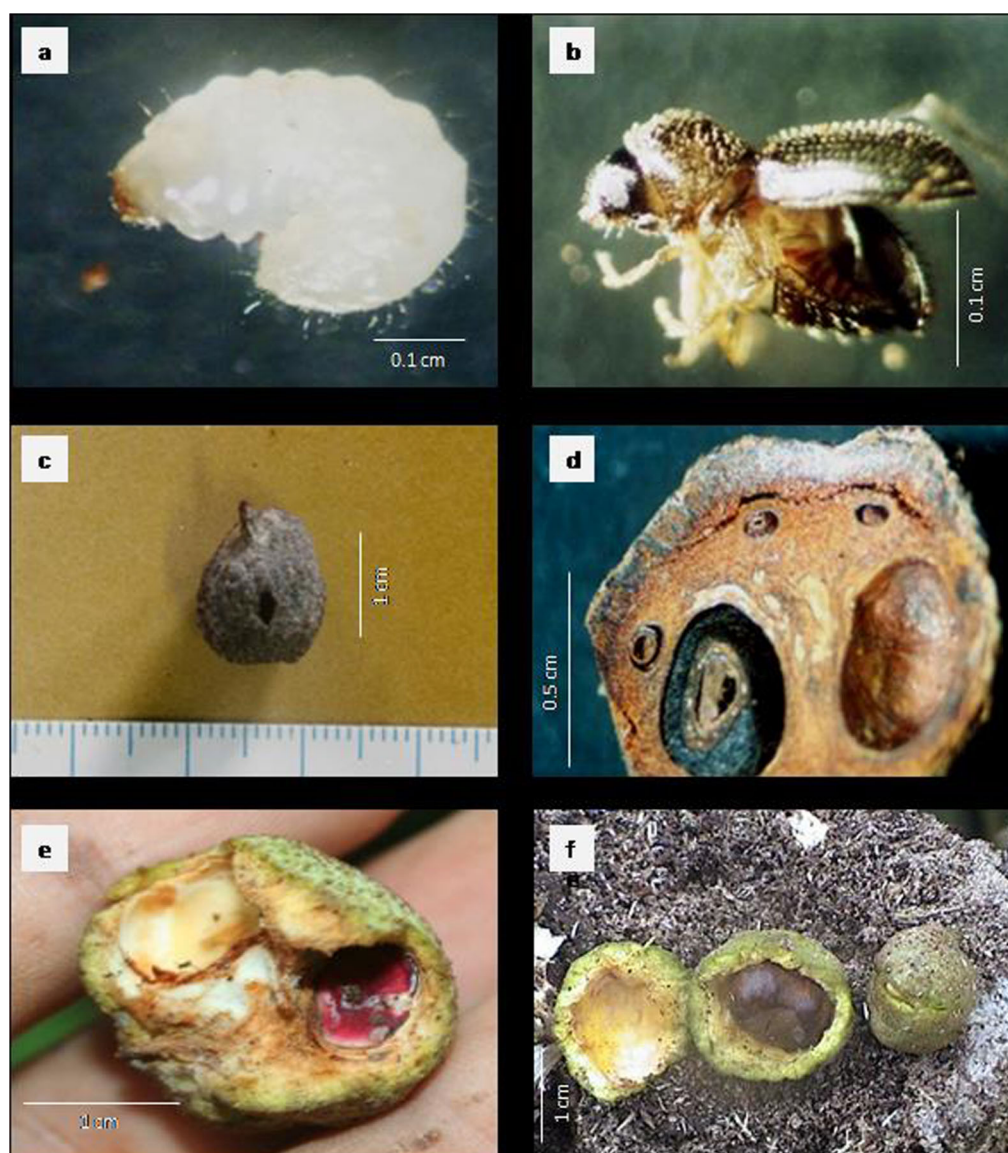


Figure 2. Fruits damaged in *B. rubescens*. **a** and **b** Larvae and adult stages of Scolytidae. **c** and **d**. Holes in seeds and fruits made by Scolytidae. **e**. Damage in fruits caused by vertebrate frugivores. **f**. Holes in fruits (pericarpium) suggesting that a well-developed seed developed inside the fruit.

phenophase, with low synchrony if the phenophase occurred between 20% and <60% of trees, and asynchronous if less than 20% of individuals showed the phenophase. Distances (m) to the nearest potential reproductive neighbour was also determined, as well as distances to the nearest fertile neighbour.

Data from traps were used to quantitatively evaluate variables associated with flowering, fruiting, pre-dispersal fruit damage, seed production, seed removal, and biomass of reproductive structures per tree. In doing so, the average value of each variable per trap (1 m²) of each sampled tree was multiplied by the crown area of the tree. **Unfertilized inflorescences** were those fallen on the ground before pollination and captured in the traps and **total number of inflorescences** was the sum of infertile inflorescences and total number of fruits produced.

For fruiting we defined the following variables: **number of ripe fruits**, those well-developed fruits with at least one seed or evidence of a well-developed ripe seed (Figures 2e and 2f); **number of abortions**, those structures with ovaries that fell down to the ground before ripening; **total number of fruits**, the sum of ripe fruits and abortions. Seeds were accounted as: **removed seeds**, fragments (>50%) of empty fruits (pericarpium); **free seeds**, those well developed and morphologically viable; and **total number of seeds**, the sum of free seeds, ripe fruits, and removed seeds.

Predation was assessed in two classes: **damaged fruits by insects**, those with holes, and **fruits damaged by frugivores**, those with beaks and teeth marks, both in ripe and unripe fruits. To estimate the **biomass** of reproductive structures produced per tree in each monitoring period, we averaged the biomass collected in the four traps below each tree, which was then multiplied by the crown area of the respective tree.

7. Data analysis

For data analysis we used the software Statgraphics Centurion XVI.II. All data were tested for normality using the Shapiro-Wilk test. Non-normal data were log and square root-transformed. According to our research questions, we are interested in assessing differences in the reproductive phenology and seed availability between the two morphotypes of *B. rubescens*. Therefore, for all variables evaluated in this study (for example, DBH, crown area, and distance to the nearest PFT, as well as the variables associated to reproductive phenology, such as flowering, incipient fruiting, and advanced fruiting, etc.) were compared with a Student's t-test, which allows to evaluate the null hypothesis of no differences between morphotypes. Variables associated to reproductive phenology were also compared using a Kolmogorov-Smirnov test, which allows to compare the differences between cumulative relative frequencies of two independent samples, especially when data numbers are reduced (Guisande *et al.* 2006). Finally, Pearson

correlation analyses were carried out to test the correlation between observations of variables associated with reproductive phenology per tree along time.

Results

1. Population of reproductive trees in the 20 ha plot

There were 16 PFT of **BP** whose DBHs varied between 35.2 and 75.3 cm, and 17 PFT of **WP** with DBHs between 34.4 and 75.4 cm. Along the year of monitoring, twice of PFT of **BP** flowered in comparison to **WP** (Table 1). This phenophase was slightly synchronic in **BP**, with up to 43.8% of total PFT flowering in the same month. In **WP** flowering began 30 days later than in **BP** and was completely asynchronous, with values of up to 17.6%. Distances between nearest PFT were not significantly different between morphotypes ($P=0.345$), with averages (\pm SD) of 56.2 ± 30.8 m in **BP** and 60.5 ± 33.5 m in **WP**. However, distances between fertile trees were significantly different between morphotypes ($P<0.000$). In **BP** these distances were similar to those between PFT (63.1 m), while in **WP** they were greater (92.3 m).

2. Flowering

Flowering began in September 2007 in **BP** trees and 30 days later in **WP** trees. In both morphotypes maximum flowering occurred at the end of October and decreased gradually at the end of December for **BP** and at the end of November for **WP** (Figures 4a and 4b). In **BP** flowering was more conspicuous given the amount and size of inflorescences (mean \pm SD = 5 ± 0.4 mm) than in **WP** (mean = 3 ± 0.3 mm). Temporal variation, evaluated through the cumulative relative frequencies of the total *inflorescence production*, was not statistically different between morphotypes (Kolmogorov Smirnov $KS=1.2$, $P=0.09$), as well as the variation of the *number of unfertilized inflorescences* ($KS=0.8$, $P=0.63$) (Table 2). However, there was a positive correlation between *unfertilized inflorescences* and *abortions* ($r=0.878$, $P=0.041$) and with fruit damage ($r=0.800$, $P=0.017$) in **BP**, but no relationships were found in **WP**. No significant differences were found on infertile inflorescences between morphotypes, although average in **BP** was twice that of **WP** (21565 vs. 10240 inflorescences) (Table 4); however, in terms of percentage of total inflorescences, the trend was opposite: infertile inflorescences were significantly higher in **WP** than in **BP** (79% vs. 0.29%), i.e. the morphotype with the smaller production of inflorescences had the higher percentage of infertile ones.

3. Fruiting

Temporal distribution of abortions was significantly different between morphotypes ($KS=2$, $P=0.00$; Table 2). At the end

Table 1. Total number of fertile trees per month of two morphotypes of *Brosimum rubescens* Taub. that came to fertile activity along one year of monitoring. The value in parenthesis is the relative monthly percentage of potentially fertile trees (PFT) that were active. The number in bold is the maximum percentage per morphotype.

Morphotype	Total PFT	Aug	Sep	Oct	Nov	Dec	Jan	Fertile activity	Total percentage
Black palosangre (BP)	16	0 (0%)	4 (25%)	7 (43.8)	3 (18.8)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	14	87.5%
White palosangre (WP)	17	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	3 (17.6)	3 (17.6)	1 (5.9%)	0 (0%)	7	41.2%

Table 2. Results of the Kolmogorov-Smirnov statistical test comparing the cumulative distribution of relative frequencies for each reproductive phenological variable through time ($n = 8$ observations along a six-month period) between morphotypes of *Brosimum rubescens* Taub.

Variables	Black palosangre (BP)				White palosangre (WP)				Kolmogorov-Smirnov			
	SD	VC%	MIN	MAX	SD	VC%	MIN	MAX	MD	K-S	P	S
Total number of inflorescences	5726	114	193	15553	2080	167	23	5246	0.6	1.2	0.09	ns
Unfertilized inflorescences	3036	127	0	8257	2080	167	23	5245	0.4	0.8	0.63	ns
Number of abortions	2715	107	121	7254	46	130	0	113	1.0	2.0	0.00	*
Number of ripe fruits	65	70	12	192	62	97	0	183	0.3	0.5	0.96	ns
Number of damaged fruits	815	92	121	2101	34.1	98	0	85	1.0	2.0	0.00	*
Number of free seeds	27	91	0	71	17	118	0	44	0.4	0.8	0.63	ns
Number of removed seeds	41	77	0	110	56	183	0	164	0.5	1.0	0.27	ns
Total number of seeds	64	78	0	181	62	138	0	183	0.5	1.0	0.27	ns
Biomass reproductive structures (g)	378	104	0	938	10	98	0.3	27.5	0.9	1.8	0.00	*

SD= Standard deviation, VC%= variation coefficient; MD= maximum distance between cumulate distributions of both samples; K-S= Kolmogorov-Smirnov statistic; P= P value; S= statistical significance (statistical significant level = 0.05). ns= non-significant. *= significant

of October there was a peak in abortions, coincident with flowering in **BP**, whereas the peak occurred 30 days after the peak of flowering in **WP**. (Figure 4d). Ripe fruit production reached its maximum at the end of November, 30 days after maximum flowering. In **WP** it occurred in the middle of December, 45 days after peak flowering (Figures 4c and 4d). Relative distribution values of ripe fruits through time did not show significant differences between morphotypes (KS= 0.5, P= 0.96) (Table 2).

Some correlations were found between variables associated with reproductive phenology. In **BP** number of abortions was positively correlated with: *infertile inflorescences* ($r = 0.878$ and $P = 0.004$), *damaged fruits* ($r = 0.984$, $P = 0.000$), *free seeds* ($r = 0.713$, $P = 0.047$) and *biomass of reproductive structures* ($r = 0.975$, $P = 0.000$). In **WP** the *number of abortions* was correlated with *damaged fruits* ($r = 0.748$, $P = 0.033$) and total seeds ($r = 0.780$ and $P = 0.023$) (Table 3).

The total number of fruits was significantly different between morphotypes ($P = 0.010$), and much higher in **BP** (22448) than in **WP** (858) (Table 4). This difference is counteracted with 97% abortions (21743) in **BP** vs. 35% abortions (329) of fertilized ovules in **WP** ($P = 0.00$). No statistical differences were found in total number of ripe fruits between morphotypes ($P = 0.506$) as **BP** showed 705 ripe fruits and **WP** 528; however, in terms of percentage of ripe fruits **WP** showed higher values than **BP** (65% vs. 3%) (Table 4).

4. Fruit predation

Two types of damage were found for both morphotypes: **a)** damaged caused by insects in the larvae and adult stages of the Scolitydae family (Coleoptera), expressed by tissue necrosis and one or two small holes (1-2mm) in unripe fruits, ripe fruits and inflorescences (Figures 2c, 2d) and **b)** damaged caused by vertebrates frugivores as evidenced by beak and teeth scars.

Damaged fruit fall for **BP** occurred at the beginning of October, concomitant, with the inflorescence fall, abortions, and fertilized inflorescences that increase towards the end of the month. The trend continued for about 30 days and then

progressively diminished, whereas the production of ripe fruits and seeds increased (Figures 4c, 4e). Damage in fruits was found in October for **WP**, when abortions were also observed, and reached their maximum in the middle of November (Figures 4d, 4f). Temporal variation of damaged fruits was statistically different between morphotypes (KS =2, $P = 0.00$) (Table 2).

Mean number of damaged fruits was significantly different between **BP** (7061) and **WP** (308.2) ($P = 0.006$) (Table 4). However, relative damaged in relation to the total number of fruits was not different between morphotypes (44.5% vs. 37.5%) ($P = 0.313$) (Table 4). Damage caused by vertebrate frugivores in **BP** was 33% vs. 29% in **WP** and mainly affected the ripe fruits, whereas the damaged caused by Scolitydae was 62% and 71% respectively, mainly in unripe fruits (Figure 2c). In **BP** the damage of fruits showed a strong correlation with the fall of infertile inflorescences ($r = 0.802$, $P = 0.017$), abortions ($r = 0.984$, $P = 0.000$) and biomass of reproductive structures ($r = 0.997$, $P = 0.000$), whereas **WP** damage of fruits was correlated with abortions ($r = 0.812$, $P = 0.014$) and ripe fruits ($r = 0.748$, $P = 0.033$) (Table 3).

5. Production and removal of seeds

Temporal variation of seed production showed a similar trend to the ripe fruit production in both morphotypes, with maximum numbers occurring towards the end of November in **BP** and towards the middle of December in **WP** (Figure 4e and 4f). The temporal distribution of the number of free seeds was not significantly different between morphotypes (KS=0.8, $P = 0.63$) as well as the total number of seeds produced (KS=1, $P = 0.27$) (Table 2). The total number of seeds per tree showed non-significant differences between morphotypes ($P = 0.396$), with an average (\pm SD) of 1382 ± 705 and 933 ± 471 seeds for **BP** and **WP**, respectively (Table 4). Of this total, 259 free seeds (18.7%) in **BP** and 124 (13.4%) in **WP** fell down beneath the parent tree, which added to the total number of ripe fruits produced (705 and 528, respectively), represented about 70% of all seeds produced (i.e. about 30% of seeds produced were

Table 3. Significant ($P < 0.05$) correlation coefficients of Pearson for the temporal variation of each phenological variable in two morphotypes of *Brosimum rubescens* Taub (correlation: upper number, P value: lower number ($n = 8$)).

		Unfertilized inflorescences	Abortions	Ripe fruits	Damaged fruits	Free seeds	Removed seeds	Total number of seeds	Biomass (g)
Black palosangre (BP)	Unfertilized inflorescences								
	Abortions	0.878 0.004							
	Ripe fruits								
	Damaged fruits	0.802 0.017	0.984 0.000						
	Free seeds		0.713 0.047	0.746 0.034					
	Removed seeds			0.991 0.000		0.752 0.031			
	Total number of seeds			0.978 0.000		0.859 0.006	0.980 0.000		
		0.787 0.021	0.975 0.000		0.997 0.000				
White palosangre (WP)	Unfertilized inflorescences								
	Abortions								
	Ripe fruits								
	Damaged fruits		0.812 0.014	0.748 0.033					
	Free seeds								
	Removed seeds								
	Total number of seeds			0.780 0.023			0.922 0.001		
	Biomass (g)								

removed) (Table 4). These seeds are exposed to dense-dependent predation under the parental tree or to dispersion by secondary agents.

Of total seeds produced, 418 and 281 were removed in **BP** and **WP**, respectively; these data show that crown frugivory was about 30% in both morphotypes. According to the type of damage of reproductive structures that fell on the ground (a cavity inside the fresh and ripe pericarpium where a well-developed and morphologically viable seed was located), seed removal and the behaviour of vertebrate frugivores in the crowns were similar in both morphotypes (Figure 2e, 2f). Seed removal peaked at the end of November in **BP** and in the middle of December in **WP** (Figure 4e, 4f). However, temporal distribution was not significantly different between morphotypes ($KS = 1$, $P = 0.27$, Table 2). In **BP** seed removal was correlated with the production of ripe fruits ($r = 0.991$, $P = 0.000$), free seeds ($r = 0.752$, $P = 0.031$) and total of seeds ($r = 0.970$, $P = 0.000$). In **WP** seed removal was only correlated with the total number of seeds ($r = 0.932$, $P = 0.001$) (Table 3). The number of seeds removed did not show significant differences between morphotypes ($P = 0.72$).

Discussion

1. Availability of seed sources, fecundity and phenological variation

Temporal variation of reproductive phenophases of *B. rubescens* was not different from the typical patterns of most

tree species of humid tropical forests, characterized by flowering in the dry season and fruiting in the rainy season (ter Steege & Persaud 1991, Rivera & Borchert 2001, Chapman *et al.* 2005, Stevenson *et al.* 2008). Likewise, a similar pattern has been reported for other phylogenetically similar species, such as *B. alicastrum*, *B. guianense*, *B. lactescens* in forests of the Colombian Amazon (Stevenson *et al.* 2008). However, our results should be taken cautiously as much they are based on one year of observations, which is short because phenological behaviour might vary from year to year (ter Steege & Persaud 1991, Williams-Linera & Meave 2002, Marques *et al.* 2004).

Though the timing of flowering showed a slight discrepancy between morphotypes at the beginning of the phase, it showed synchrony at its maximum expression. However, timing of peaks of maximum production of ripe fruits and seeds were different (Figures 4e and 4f). This phenological pattern would reduce competition between them and would enhance fruiting and seed dispersion at the beginning of the rainy season, when germination of *B. rubescens* would be favored, given the recalcitrant condition of their seeds, as well as growth and survival of seedlings (Rivera *et al.* 2006).

The sample size (17 and 16 PFT of **BP** and **WP**, respectively) seems low for making conclusions on phenology and reproductive biology of the entire population of a species. However, this is the number of PFT of each morphotype found in a mega plot of 20 ha, which is a big sampling area in comparison with most of studies in tropical forests. The main reason for this limitation is the low density of trees of most

Table 4. Statistical results per tree for reproductive variables of two morphotypes of *Brosimum rubescens* Taub. Significant differences ($P < 0.05$) with the t test in bold. Highlighted are variables expressed as percentage of totals. SD: standard deviation.

Variables	Black palosangre (BP)				White palosangre (WP)				t test
	Mean	SD	Min	Max	Mean	SD	Min	Max	P
Total number of inflorescences	44013	35988	2538	149688	11097	11416	1232	29422	0.074
Number of infertile inflorescences	21565	42235	288	128484	10240	10826	616	27321	0.438
Total number of fruits	22448	21120	1819	63206	858	742	142	2102	0.010
% fructification	0.71	0.27	0.14	0.94	0.21	0.23	0.01	0.50	0.002
Number of abortions	21743	20539	1729	61506	329	364	35	947	0.009
% abortion	0.97	0.02	0.91	1.00	0.35	0.16	0.19	0.57	0.000
Number of ripe fruits	705	636	0	1700	528	399	105	1154	0.506
% ripe fruits	0.03	0.02	0.00	0.09	0.65	0.16	0.43	0.81	0.000
Number damaged fruits	7061	6012	1472	22287	308.2	243.4	47.3	710.4	0.006
Relative fruit damage (%)	44.5	23.2	18.8	80.9	37.5	4.3	33.3	42.9	0.313
Total number of seeds	1382	705	0	1683	933	471	95	1036	0.396
Number of free seeds	258.6	241	0	629	123.9	88.8	0	236.8	0.136
% free seeds	0.20	0.10	0.11	0.44	0.13	0.08	0.00	0.20	0.162
Number of removed seeds	418	415	0	1097	281	304	59	799	0.463
% removed seeds	0.26	0.10	0.00	0.33	0.30	0.14	0.13	0.50	0.574
Fruit biomass (g)	3188	3987	89	10394	83	63	14	189.4	0.036
DBH (cm)	55.7	12.3	36.9	75.3	56.4	13.5	38	75.4	0.496
Crown area (m ²)	60.3	19.9	20.1	82.4	75.6	23.4	47.3	118.4	0.214

species in tropical forests, which makes difficult and extremely expensive the monitoring of large samples due to the extensions that would need to be covered.

Quantitative analyses of flowering showed that annual production of inflorescences was not statistically different between morphotypes. Nevertheless, the proportion of unfertilized inflorescences in relation to the total was different, since in **BP** it was about half of that in **WP** (49% and 92.3%, respectively) (Table 4). This result suggests certain inability for effective pollination in **WP**, which could suggest a limitation of pollination as a consequence of a greater effective distance between active PFT in the last one (92.3 m as compared to 63.1 m in **BP**) despite distances between PFT were similar (**BP**= 56.2 m and **WP**= 60.5 m). Greater distances between fertile trees have the potential to negatively affect pollination and therefore the number of fruits and seeds at the end of the cycle (Murcia 2002). Greater density of trees with fertile activity in **BP** (>87% of PFT) probably increased the rate of pollination by insects and wind due to the shorter distance between reproductive trees and subsequently the greater probability of fecundation as compared to **WP**.

On the other hand, abortions were significantly higher in **BP** (97% of total number of fruits) as compared to **WP** (35%). The abortion of young fruits is common due to self-incompatibility when self-pollination occurs (Bawa & Webb 1984). This could be the case in monoicous species such as *B. rubescens* when flower production is high; under such conditions pollinators are easily satiated in a single tree, which increases the chances of self-pollination. Although this hypothesis was not tested in this study, it is a plausible explanation for the high level of abortion in **BP**, whose number of inflorescences was four times that in **WP**. However, abortions could also result as a consequence of a Scolytidae attack in inflorescences and unripe fruits (Figure 2). As a result of these processes, annual production of fruits and seeds was similar for the two morphotypes (Table 4), although the energetic cost was much lower for **WP**. The lack of a significant relationship between the production of inflorescences with that of fruits and seeds

(Table 3) suggests that the strategies for fruiting seemed to be different between morphotypes, with rates of transition between phases in **BP** mainly controlled by predation and abortion. Therefore, the higher number of flowers does not necessarily mean a higher number of fruits and seeds (Roberson & Mac Nair 1995).

2. Predation effects on the availability of fruits and seeds

Predation of ripe fruits and seeds before dispersion highly affected the availability of fruits for primary dispersion (Table 4), as reported for other neotropical tree species (Janzen & Vasquez-Yanes 1991, Forget *et al.* 1999, Hulme 2001). The pattern of damage was similar between morphotypes and was probably associated with fruit similarity (Figure 3c and 3d) and the coexistence in the same habitat (Wright *et al.* 1999). Damage caused by vertebrate frugivores mainly occurs on ripe fruits, probably by primates and birds, which have been reported consuming *Brosimum* fruits (Defler 2003, Stevenson *et al.* 2000, Parrado-Roselli 2005), as well as by bats. Insect damage associated with immature reproductive parts could be related to the time required for larvae to complete their life cycle and emerge before being consumed by vertebrates along with the fruits (Restrepo 2002, Wright *et al.* 2005b).

Early attack of Scolytidae (Coleoptera) could be responsible for the massive abortion, mainly in **BP** (Table 4), because probably it is unfavorable to develop and mature a high number of unripe fruits infested by larvae. This type of relationship with predators supports the satiation hypothesis (Auspurguer 1981, Shupp 1992), which states that a high production of fruits increases the predator satiation and consequently a large number of seeds could reach maturity evading an attack.

3. Seed removal by frugivores

Close to 30% of seeds produced were removed from tree crowns of the two morphotypes. Beak and teeth scars in the reproductive structures, mainly in ripe fruits (Figure 2), and a

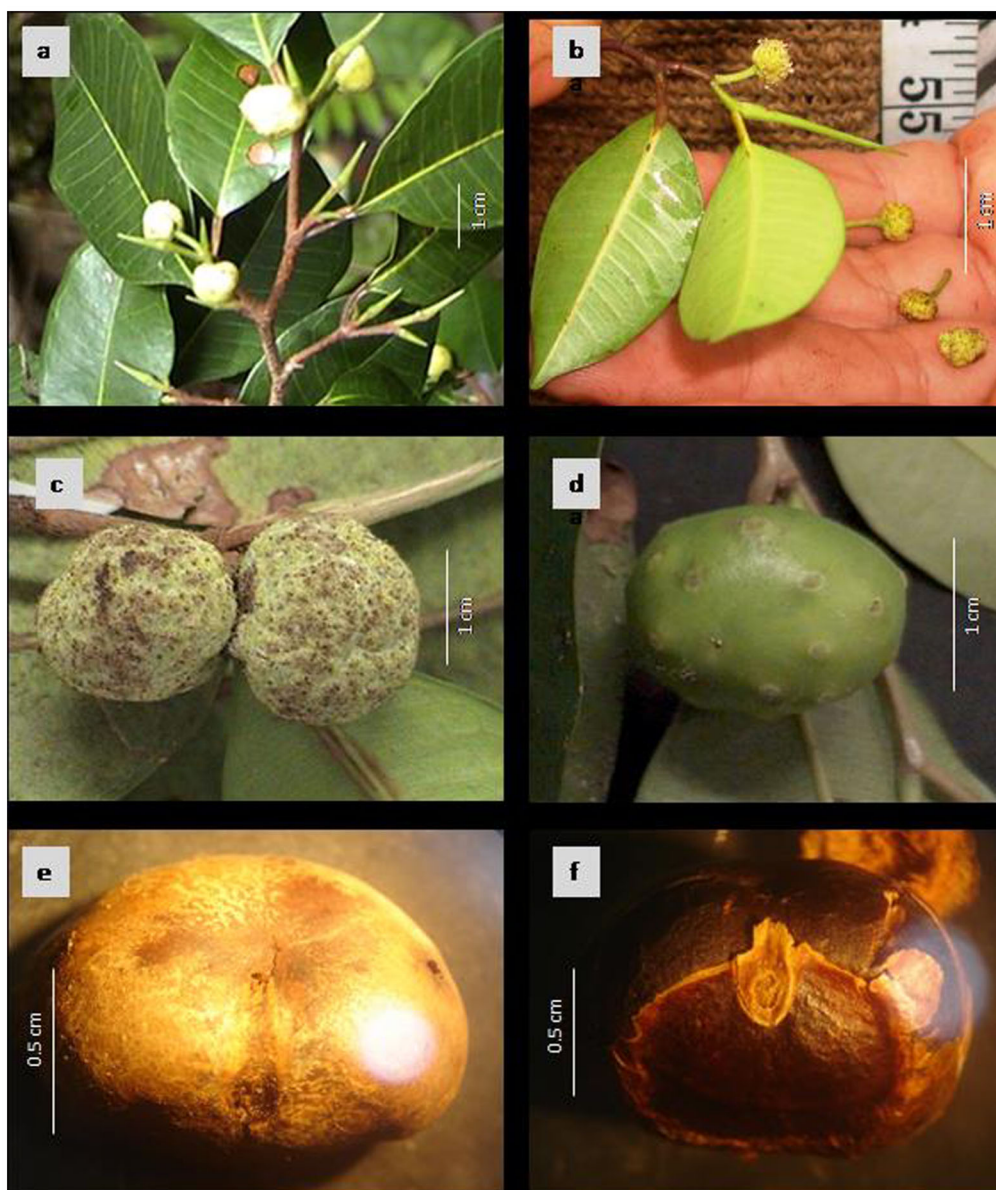


Figure 3. Reproductive structures of two morphotypes of *B. rubescens*. BP at the left and WP at right. **a** and **b**. Leaves and pistillate inflorescences. **c** and **d**. Well-developed fruit structures almost ripe. **e** and **f**. Ripe fruits.

similar number of removed seeds in both morphotypes (Table 4) suggest a similar behaviour of frugivores. These results are probably due to the high similarity in size, weight, and colour of fruits and seeds (Figure 3) (Restrepo 2002), even though the morphology of the two morphotypes is strictly different (Palacios 2005).

Various species of monkeys and parrots from the genus *Brotogetis* have been reported as *B. rubescens* consumers and potential dispersers (Stevenson 2002, Defler 2003, Rivera, pers. obs.). Groups of Psittacidae, Ramphastidae, Cotingidae, Callithrichidae and Cebidae have also been reported as removing seeds from *B. utile* (Parrado-Roselli 2005), and Quiroptera in *B. alicastrum* (Acosta & Aguanta 2006). According to the theory of no frugivore-specialization (Hubbell et al. 1999, Terborgh et al. 2002), the availability of a wide group of frugivores would give *B. rubescens* an adaptive advantage for dispersion.

In neotropical forests, there is a strong seasonality in the annual supply of available fruits for the frugivores associated with rains. Therefore, a shortage season occurs in the dry season and an abundant one in the rainy season (Borchert 1998, Wright & Van Schaik 1994, Stevenson et al. 2000, Parrado-Roselli 2005, Stevenson et al. 2008). Availability of ripe fruits and seeds, coincident in the two morphotypes of *B. rubescens*, with the abundant season (Table 4), would allow them to share several fruit consumers. Conversely during the dry season, there is less overlap between diets of animals (Terborgh 1986). However, competition between morphotypes of *B. rubescens* by frugivores could be reduced by the slight temporal variation of seed production peaks between them (Figure 4c and 4d) and by the wide offer of potential frugivores during this season. The high number of removed seeds (Table 4) highlights the important role that frugivores play in the fitness of these two morphotypes.

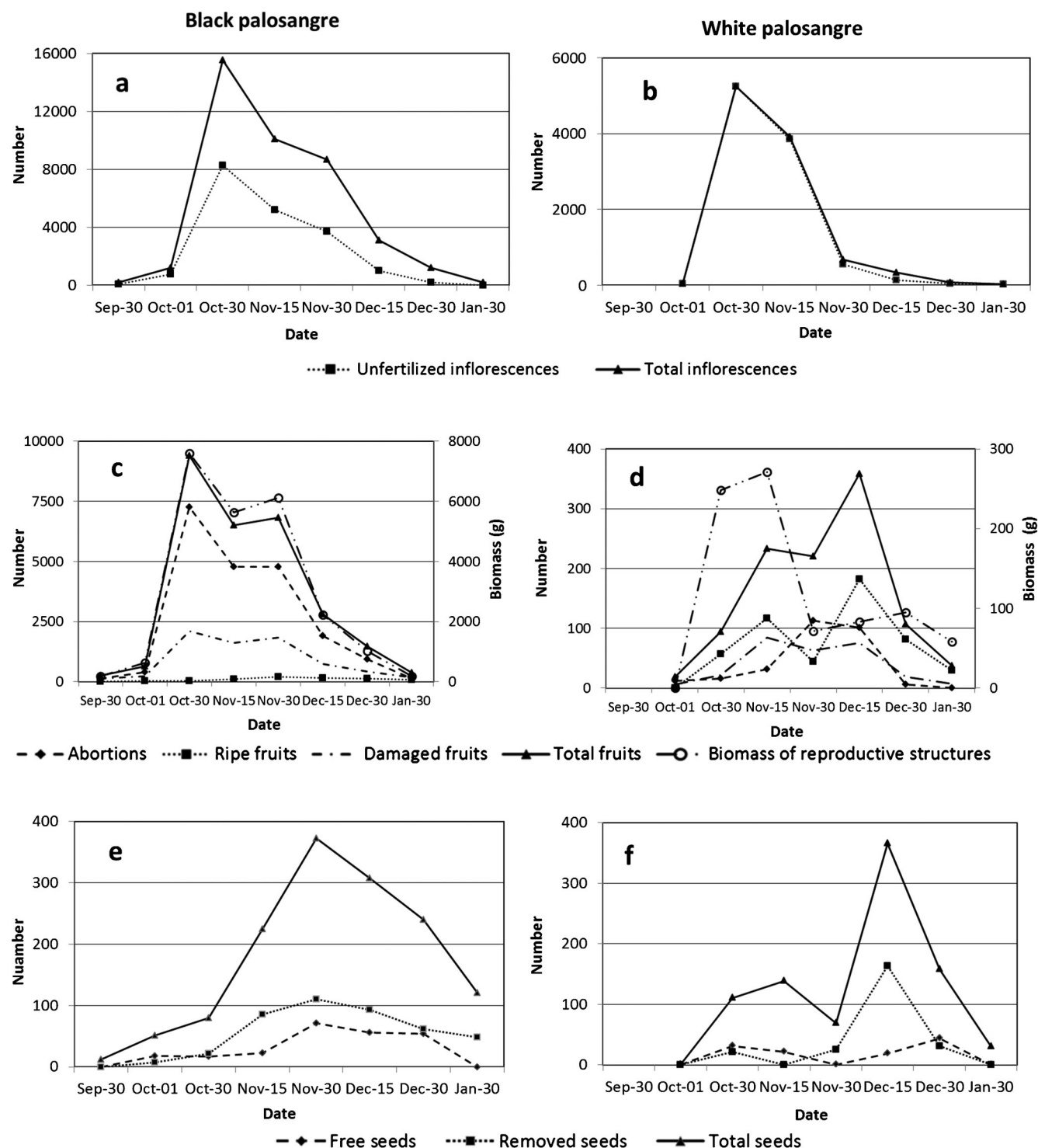


Figure 4. Temporal course of variables describing reproductive phenology of two *B. rubescens* morphotypes. Each value shows the average by tree. **a** and **b**. Total number of inflorescences vs. infertile inflorescences. **c** and **d**. Total number of fruits, ripe fruits, abortions, damaged fruits, and biomass of reproductive structures **e**. and **f**. Total number of seeds, removed seeds, and free seeds.

Conclusions

The availability of potential seed sources was similar between morphotypes, as well as the seed production per fertile tree. However, a low number of PFT of WP went into fertile activity over the annual cycle. Therefore, it is more probable that WP shows seed limitations than does BP. Given that

population structure is similar for both morphotypes, other processes after fruit and seed production should be occurring in BP to make similar the number of individuals between them.

Both morphotypes showed similar production of ripe fruits and viable seeds available for primary dispersion thanks to niche separation by adopting slightly different reproductive strategies, which probably diminishes competition

between morphotypes and allow the coexistence over the same habitats.

In **BP** the strategy is to produce massive inflorescences and abortions during the fruiting phase, and by doing so, it satiates predators and produces enough viable seeds. On the other hand, **WP** fertilizes a significantly lower number of inflorescences and shows a reduced rate of abortions, with the result of a similar number of viable seeds to **BP**. This behavior corresponds to the pollination limitation hypothesis.

These findings imply that unplanned wood extraction via the harvest of reproductive trees would diminish the density of these individuals per unit area as well as the distance between reproductive neighbors. This probably will affect processes such as pollination, flowering, fruiting, fruit removal, dispersion and seedling establishment. To evaluate such effects on the local populations is important in the immediate future, particularly in **WP**, since effects of extraction probably will be more drastic in its populations by increasing pollination limitation and subsequently seed production.

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Checklist of climbing plants in an Araucaria forest of Rio Grande do Sul State, Brazil

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Abstract: Climbing plants are remarkable components of forests, highly contributing for the diversity and dynamics of communities. Studies focusing on climbing plants are scarce and for many vegetation types little is known about climbing species composition and their traits relevant for dispersal and establishment. The focus of this study is to provide the first floristic inventory of climbing plants in an *Araucaria* forest of Brazil, describing the dispersal syndromes and climbing mechanisms of species and comparing these traits and species composition patterns with other study sites in Southern Brazil. We found 104 taxa belonging to 33 families, with Asteraceae (22 spp.) and Apocynaceae (14 spp.) being the richest families. Among climbing mechanisms, stem twiner (50 spp.) is the most common, followed by tendril (20 spp.) and scrambler (12 spp.), while in relation to the dispersal syndromes, anemochoric species (65 spp.) are the most relevant followed by endozoochoric (28 spp.). Three new species registries were found for Rio Grande do Sul State expanding their occurrence range towards South Brazil. The comparison of climbers' survey sites showed two sharp groups in relation to species composition and traits proportion, Seasonal and *Araucaria*/Atlantic forest sites, but with no difference of traits frequency between sites. There is a predominance of stem twiners species in all sites, but the relative difference for tendril species increases in *Araucaria* and Atlantic forest sites. The Asteraceae and Apocynaceae families were the most relevant, contrasting to Seasonal forests of Southeast Brazil. Interesting patterns can be achieved with a more detailed classification of climbing mechanisms and the results found in this study contributes to enhance the knowledge on climbers' traits and diversity in South Brazil.

Keywords: *Lianas, Vines, Climbing mechanisms, Dispersal syndromes, Floristic of climbers.*

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Resumo: Trepadeiras são importantes componentes florestais, contribuindo na diversidade e dinâmica de comunidades vegetais. Estudos focados em trepadeiras são escassos e para muitos tipos vegetacionais pouco se sabe sobre a composição de espécies de trepadeiras e seus atributos relevantes para dispersão e estabelecimento. O foco deste estudo é fornecer o primeiro inventário florístico de plantas trepadeiras em uma floresta de Araucária no Brasil, descrevendo as síndromes de dispersão e mecanismos de escalada das espécies e comparando esses atributos e a composição de espécies com outros sítios no Sul do Brasil. Foram encontrados 104 taxa pertencentes a 33 famílias, sendo Asteraceae (22 spp.) e Apocynaceae (14 spp.) as famílias mais ricas. Dentre os mecanismos de escalada, o tipo volúvel (50 spp.) é o mais comum, seguido por gavinhas (20 spp.) e apoiantes (12 spp.), enquanto em relação às síndromes de dispersão as espécies anemocóricas (65 spp.) são as mais relevantes seguidas por endozoocóricas (28 spp.). Três novos registros de espécies foram encontrados para o Estado do Rio Grande do Sul, expandindo suas extensões de ocorrência para o Sul do Brasil. A comparação entre sítios evidenciou dois grupos nítidos em relação à composição de espécies e proporção de atributos, sítios em florestas sazonais e nas florestas com Araucária e Atlântica, porém não há diferença na frequência dos atributos entre os sítios. Há uma predominância de espécies volúveis em todos os sítios, entretanto a diferença relativa para espécies com gavinhas aumenta nos sítios de floresta com Araucária e Atlântica. As famílias Asteraceae e Apocynaceae foram as mais relevantes, contrastando com florestas sazonais no Sudeste do Brasil. Padrões interessantes podem ser encontrados com uma classificação mais detalhada dos mecanismos de escalada e os resultados encontrados neste estudo contribuem para aumentar o conhecimento sobre os atributos e a diversidade de trepadeiras no Sul do Brasil.

Palavras-chave: *Lianas, Mecanismos de Escalada, Síndromes de dispersão, Florística de Trepadeiras.*

Introduction

The *Araucaria* forest, part of Mata Atlântica Biome, is the main forest type of South Brazil (IBGE 2004). It occurs continuously in the highlands of the Southern Brazilian Plateau and in small isolated areas of Argentina, Paraguay, Southeast Brazil and “Serra do Sudeste” formation in Rio Grande do Sul State, Brazil (Hueck 1972, Carlucci *et al.* 2011a). Timber logging of *Araucaria angustifolia* (Bertol.) Kuntze and other species was an important economic feature in the last century (Reitz *et al.* 1983), which contributed for reducing the *Araucaria* forest to less than 12.6% of its original area (Ribeiro *et al.* 2009). In spite of its wide geographic range, studies in the *Araucaria* forest mainly focused on trees’ communities (e.g. Duarte *et al.* 2012), no study to date has focused on climbing plants.

Climbing plants are important components of forests dynamics, contributing with biomass and plant diversity (Schnitzer & Bongers 2011), affecting mortality and growth of trees (Ingwell *et al.* 2010), collaborating with treefall gaps formation and preventing trees regeneration on it (Schnitzer & Carson 2010). Climbing species show a diversity of climbing mechanisms/strategies (Hegarty & Caballé 1991) to reach the best productive position, with full access to sunlight where they reproduce and spread through other trees canopies (Campbell & Newbery 1993). Forest structure directly influences the abundance, diversity and distribution of climbers. For instance, forest edges and treefall gaps present high diversity and density of climbers (Laurance *et al.* 2001, Londré & Schnitzer 2006), strongly determined by light availability on these early successional stages (DeWalt *et al.* 2000).

The *Araucaria* forest is expanding over *Campos* grasslands since the Holocene (Behling & Pillar 2007), mainly through forest edge expansion (Carlucci *et al.* 2011b) and nucleation process (Duarte *et al.* 2006). These expansion processes create a great amount of habitats for climbing species like forest edges and patches with different sizes and light availability, which are similar to fragmented landscapes caused by anthropic action known to positively affect climber’s abundance (Londré & Schnitzer 2006). Since climbers are considered pioneer species and play an important role in forest succession (DeWalt *et al.* 2000), it is important to know their diversity, as well as their traits that might give an important overview of their limitations and capacity of dispersal and establishment at different environments. In this context, the aim of this study is to provide the first survey focused on climbing plants in an *Araucaria* forest of Southern Brazil and compare species traits (dispersal syndromes and climbing mechanisms) and composition with other study sites belonging to different forest types in South Brazil. We hypothesize that study sites of the same forest type are similar in relation to species composition and traits proportion.

Material and Methods

The floristic survey was carried out at the National Forest of São Francisco de Paula - ICMBIO (“Floresta Nacional de São Francisco de Paula”; FLONA-SFP), a conservation unit of sustainable use, located in São Francisco de Paula municipality in Rio Grande do Sul State (29°25’24”S, 50°23’13”W; Figure 1). FLONA-SFP is composed by a mosaic landscape of *Araucaria* forest remnants together with ecologically-managed *Araucaria angustifolia* (Bertol.) Kuntze,

Eucalyptus spp. and *Pinus* spp. plantations and a small area of unmanaged *Campos* grassland. It covers 1,606 ha, where 36.6 % is covered by *Araucaria* forest remnants, ranging in altitude from 600 to 923 m a.s.l. The regional climate is characterized as subtropical rainy, with precipitation uniformly distributed throughout the year. The annual mean rainfall reaches 2,252 mm and the annual mean temperature is 14.4 °C with the occurrence of negative temperatures from April to November and rare events of snow (National Institute of Meteorology – INMET).

Climbers were monitored monthly from July 2007 to August 2009 along 13 km of trails inside and at the edges of *Araucaria* forest remnants and planting areas of *A. angustifolia*. Additionally, another 15 field trips were done from March 2010 to October 2013 at areas not visited before. These extra field trips covered around 70 ha of *Araucaria* forest remnants and 240 treefall gaps. The total survey comprised around 200 days of field trips. Voucher specimens were deposited at ICN Herbarium (Departamento de Botânica, Instituto de Biociências, Universidade Federal do Rio Grande do Sul). All taxa were classified into families following the APG III system (APG 2009) and according to its dispersal syndrome and climbing mechanism, using specialized literature and personal observation. Dispersal syndromes were classified according to van der Pijl (1982) into anemochoric, endozoochoric, epizoochoric, autochoric and barochoric. Some species uncertain about their dispersal syndrome and not clearly classified in specialized literature, were classified as anemochoric only when specialized appendices like plumes or wings were present, otherwise were considered as barochoric. The climbing mechanisms were classified according to Hegarty (1991) into stem twiner, petiole twiner, secondary shoot twiner, tendril (that coil), clasp tendril, adhesive tendril (terminal adhesive pads), scrambler, hook/spine (also aculeus or trichomes that prevent slipping) and adherent roots. Many species combine different climbing mechanisms, making them difficult to be correctly classified (Hegarty 1991). In these cases, we considered the main climbing mechanism the first to appear during species development (personal observation), but we also cite the secondary climbing mechanism. Species abundance was estimated by counting individuals during July 2007 to August 2009 (with an exception for new species found within March 2010 to October 2013) and species were classified as singletons (one individual found), low abundance (two to five individuals) and high abundance (more than 100 individuals).

In the State of Rio Grande do Sul (RS), 11 studies sampled climbing species (Table 1) in different forest types, but only three of them, besides this survey, strictly focused on climbing plants. For the comparison between sites we selected the studies with more than 40 climbing species (eight sites), considered as reliable surveys. In each study, we compiled the checklist, checked for species synonymies, excluded exotic species, and complemented the survey reviewing species deposited at ICN and PACA (Instituto Anchietano de Pesquisas/UNISINOS) herbariums, assessing herbarium records from *speciesLink* (CRIA 2014) and consulting taxonomic studies for RS State. Species were classified in relation to their dispersal syndromes and climbing mechanisms following the same classification explained before, combining personal knowledge and specialized literature. To analyze sites relationship according to species composition and traits proportion (dispersal syndromes and climbing mechanisms) we performed separate cluster

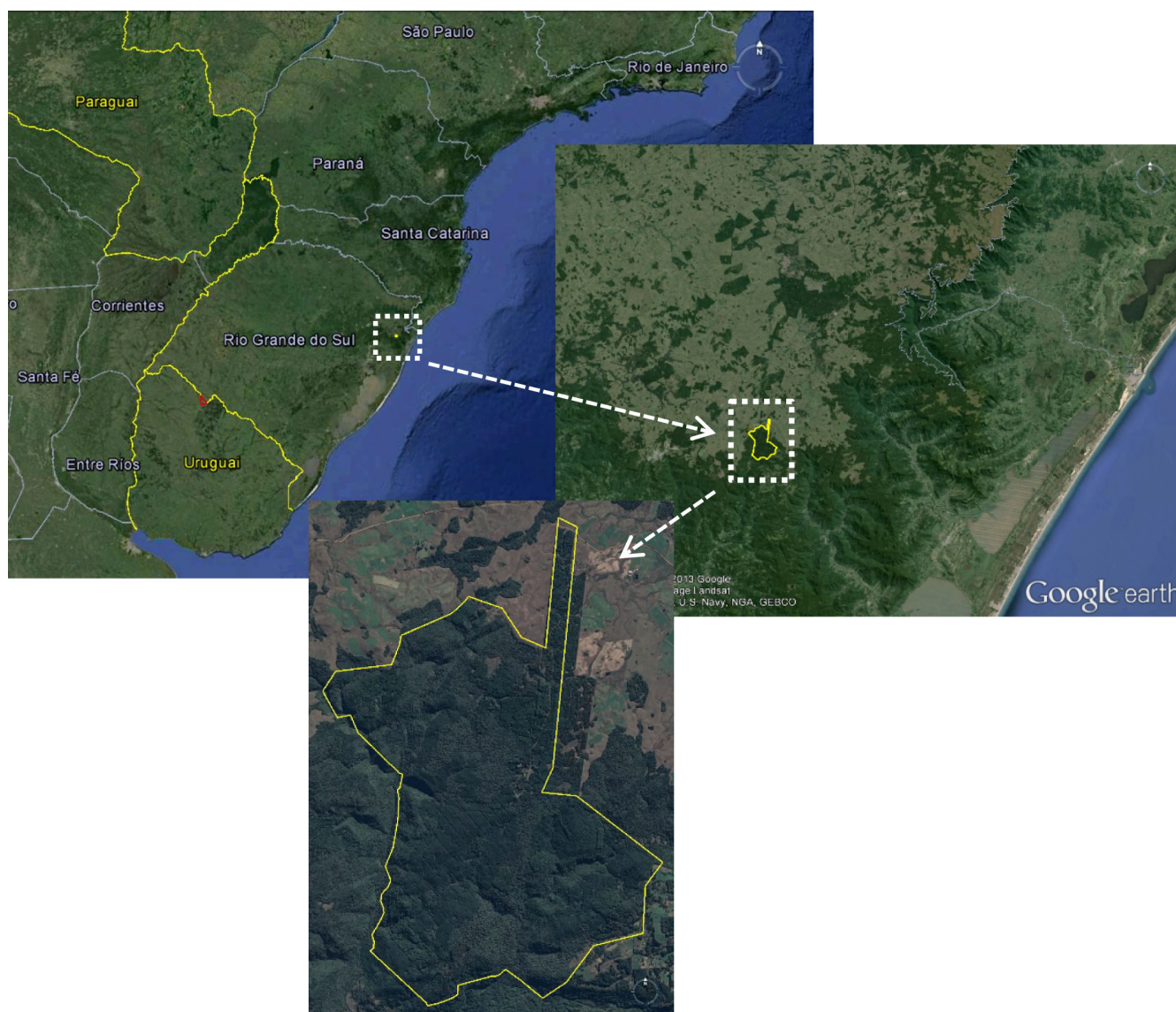


Figure 1. Location of the National Forest of São Francisco de Paula, RS, Brazil (29°25'24"S, 50°23'13"W) (Source: <http://earth.google.com>, 2013).

analyses, using Ward's clustering criterion and evaluating groups partition sharpness through 10,000 bootstrap resampling (Pillar 1999). As resemblance measurements between sites, we used the complement of Jaccard's similarity for species composition, and a modification of Gower's distance (Pavoine *et al.* 2009) for traits proportion. We also performed Fisher's exact tests with 10,000 Monte Carlo test replicates to evaluate whether there was a difference in the frequency of dispersal syndromes and climbing mechanisms between all sites. The modified Gower's distance was calculated in the package *ade4* v.1.6-2 (Dray & Dufour 2007) in the R Statistical Environment (R Core Team 2014). The complement of Jaccard's similarity and clustering analyses were performed using MULTIV 3.27b statistical software (by V.D. Pillar; available at <http://ecoqua.ecologia.ufrgs.br/software>).

Results

A total of 104 taxa were found at FLONA-SFP, belonging to 103 species, 62 genera and 33 families (Table 2). The

richest families were Asteraceae (21 species), Apocynaceae (14), Fabaceae (10), Rubiaceae (7), Bignoniaceae and Malpighiaceae (5). Altogether these six families comprise 62 taxa (60% of total richness). Around a half of the families (16) contain two or more taxa, comprising 84% of total richness, while 20 genera containing two or more taxa comprise 62 taxa (60% of total richness). The richest genera were *Mikania* Willd. with 12 species, *Oxypetalum* R.Br. and *Manettia* Mutis ex L. with five. Around 29 species presented low abundance with a maximum of five individuals found and within them, six were singletons (Table 2). Considering the species in reproductive activity during July 2007 to August 2009 (G.D.S. Seger, unpublished data), eight species presented more than 100 individuals, while considering sterile individuals this number rises up to 27 species (Table 2).

The most common climbing mechanism is stem twinner (50 taxa) followed by tendril (20), scrambler (12), hook/spine (8), petiole twinner (6), adherent roots (3), clasp tendril (2), secondary shoot twinner (2) and adhesive tendril (1) (Table 2). A secondary climbing mechanism is present in six species.

Table 1. Floristic surveys of climbing plant species in Rio Grande do Sul State, Brazil. **Forest types:** AR - *Araucaria* forest; AT - Atlantic forest; D - Deciduous forest; R - Restinga forest; SD - Semideciduous forest; †Floristic survey of all plant life forms; Forest types classification is according to IBGE (2012).

Site (Coordinates)	Species richness	Forest type	Richest families (species number)	Reference
Derrubadas - P.E. Turvo † (27°13'15"S, 53°52'52"W)	130	D	Asteraceae (14), Bignoniaceae (13), Apocynaceae (12), Fabaceae (11) and Sapindaceae (9)	Brack <i>et al.</i> (1986) and herbarium review
Santa Maria (29°41'37"S, 53°48'51"W)	70	D	Sapindaceae (8), Apocynaceae, Bignoniaceae & Convolvulaceae (7)	Durigon <i>et al.</i> (2009)
São Jerônimo and Butiá † (29°57'23"S, 51°46'24"W)	37	SD	Bignoniaceae & Asteraceae (5) and Convolvulaceae & Sapindaceae (4)	Bueno <i>et al.</i> (1987)
Guaíba (30°10'47"S, 51°23'33"W)	92	SD	Asteraceae (14), Apocynaceae (11) and Fabaceae (9)	Durigon & Waechter (2011) and Matzenbacher <i>et al.</i> (2011)
Porto Alegre - Lami † (30°15'29"S, 51°6'11"W)	22	R	Asteraceae & Bignoniaceae (5) and Passifloraceae (3)	Fuhro <i>et al.</i> (2005)
Viamão - Morro do Coco † (30°16'3"S, 51°3'20"W)	60	SD	Bignoniaceae (8), Apocynaceae (6) and Convolvulaceae (5)	Knob (1978), Backes (1981), Aguiar <i>et al.</i> (1986) and herbarium review
Viamão - Morro da Grota † (30°21'57"S, 51°1'17"W)	33	SD	Bignoniaceae (5) and Asteraceae & Rubiaceae (3)	Aguiar <i>et al.</i> (1986)
Viamão - Morro Grande (30°5'8"S, 50°49'35"W)	44	SD	Asteraceae (7), Apocynaceae, Bignoniaceae & Passifloraceae (5)	Venturi (2000) and herbarium review
São Francisco de Paula (29°25'24"S, 50°23'13"W)	103	AR	Asteraceae (21), Apocynaceae (14), Fabaceae (10), Rubiaceae (7), Bignoniaceae & Malpighiaceae (5)	This study
Dom Pedro de Alcântara † (29°24'21"S, 49°50'53"W)	49	AT	Apocynaceae (7) and Asteraceae & Passifloraceae (5)	Silva Filho <i>et al.</i> (2013)
Torres - P.E. Itapeva † (29°21'28"S, 49°45'34"W)	100	AT	Asteraceae (20), Apocynaceae (13) and Cucurbitaceae (5)	SEMA (2006) and herbarium review

There is a predominance of anemochoric dispersal syndrome (65 taxa) followed by endozoochoric (28), barochoric (6), autochoric (4) and epizoochoric (1). Within anemochory, there are more pogonochoric species (plummed diaspores; 39 species) than pterochoric (winged diaspores; 26 species) (Table 2).

We found three new registries for the State of RS, *Matelea dusenii* Morillo (Apocynaceae family), *Manettia verticillata* Wernham (Rubiaceae) and *Piptadenia affinis* Burkart (Fabaceae) (Figure 2), extending their occurrence range towards South Brazil. *P. affinis* presented low abundance with only eight individuals found. *M. dusenii* is very rare with just one sapling and one individual at reproductive stage found, while *M. verticillata* presented only three individuals.

The floristic surveys with more than 40 species (eight sites) comprised 286 species, distributed in 131 genera and 49 families. The richest families were Apocynaceae and Asteraceae (36 spp.), Fabaceae (24), Bignoniaceae (18), Cucurbitaceae and Convolvulaceae (16), Malpighiaceae (15), Passifloraceae and Sapindaceae (13) and Rubiaceae (11). These families comprised 69% of total richness. The richest climbing mechanism was stem twiner (144 spp.), followed by tendrils (66), scramblers (31) and hook/spine (21). Anemochoric species (154 spp.) were the most common, followed by endozoochoric (81), barochoric (26) and autochoric (18). The cluster analysis of species composition revealed two major groups that were the only group's combination supported by group's partition sharpness analysis, one with the Atlantic and *Araucaria* forests sites and other with Seasonal forest sites (Figure 3). The cluster analysis of traits proportion showed support for up to four sharp groups

(Figure 4), firstly separating the Atlantic and *Araucaria* forests sites from Seasonal forest sites, the Semideciduous from Deciduous forest sites and the Torres (Tr) site from the FLONA-SFP and Dom Pedro de Alcântara (DP) sites. There is a clear predominance of the anemochoric dispersal syndrome in all sites followed by endozoochoric syndrome (Figure 5). Comparing the most abundant climbing mechanisms (stem twiner, tendrils, scramblers and hook/spines), that together represent between 86 and 95% of total richness in each site, there is a predominance of stem twiners in all sites, followed by tendril climbers (Figure 6). Other interesting patterns are the inversion of scramblers proportion in relation to hook/spine species in the Atlantic forest sites (DP and Tr; Figure 6) and the presence of species that climb with the aid of adherent roots in eastern sites (FLONA-SFP, DP and Tr; Figure 6). Comparing the floristic surveys, the Fisher's exact test showed no difference for dispersal syndromes ($P = 0.94$) and climbing mechanisms ($P = 0.23$). Although there is a trend of observing a lower difference between anemochory and endozoochory in Semideciduous forest sites and a higher difference between stem twiners and tendril climbers in the Atlantic and *Araucaria* forest sites (Figures 5 and 6). When analyzing climbing mechanisms combining them in four major groups (joining stem twiner species with petiole twiner and secondary shoot twiner; tendril species with clasp tendril and adhesive tendril species; scrambler species with hook/spine species; and the adherent root species), as commonly seen in studies that classify the species' climbing mechanisms (e.g. Santos *et al.* 2009), the Fisher's exact test showed a significant result ($P = 0.02$).

Table 2. Species list, climbing mechanism, dispersal syndrome and the ICN voucher number of climbing species surveyed at the National Forest of São Francisco de Paula, RS, Brazil. **Climbing mechanism:** STw (Stem Twiner); PTw (Petiole Twiner); SSTw (Secondary Shoot Twiner); Td (Tendrill); CTd (Clasp Tendril); ATd (Adhesive Tendril); Sc (Scrambler); HS (Hook/Spine); R (Adherent Roots). **Dispersal Syndrome:** A (Anemochoric); Z (Endozoochoric); Ep (Epizoochoric); T (Autochoric); B (Barochoric); Anemochoric subtypes (Pg - Pogonochoric; Pt - Pterochoric). **Abundance:** S (Singleton); L (Low; two to five individuals); H (High; more than 100 individuals). *Voucher deposited at the HUCS Herbarium (Universidade Federal de Caxias do Sul, Rio Grande do Sul State, Brazil).

Family/Species	Climbing mechanism	Dispersal Syndrome	Abundance	ICN Number
ALSTROEMERIACEAE				
<i>Bomarea edulis</i> (Tussac) Herb.	STw	Z	-	162137
APOCYNACEAE				
<i>Araujia sericifera</i> Brot.	STw	A (Pg)	L	175748
<i>Forsteronia</i> cf. <i>refracta</i> Müll.Arg.	STw	A (Pg)	L	175742
<i>Mandevilla pentlandiana</i> (A.DC.) Woodson	STw	A (Pg)	L	-
<i>Marsdenia montana</i> Malme	STw	A (Pg)	-	175100
<i>Matelea dusenii</i> Morillo	STw	A (Pg)	L	161668
<i>Orthosia scoparia</i> (Nutt.) Liede & Meve	STw	A (Pg)	H	183748
<i>Orthosia urceolata</i> E. Fourn.	STw	A (Pg)	H	183739
<i>Orthosia virgata</i> (Poir.) E. Fourn.	STw	A (Pg)	-	153827
<i>Oxypetalum appendiculatum</i> Mart.	STw	A (Pg)	L	175739
<i>Oxypetalum pedicellatum</i> Decne.	STw	A (Pg)	L	153826
<i>Oxypetalum mosenii</i> (Malme) Malme	STw	A (Pg)	-	162152
<i>Oxypetalum pannosum</i> Decne.	STw	A (Pg)	-	161716
<i>Oxypetalum wightianum</i> Hook. & Arn.	STw	A (Pg)	-	161718
<i>Peltastes peltatus</i> (Vell.) Woodson	STw	A (Pg)	L	175746
ASTERACEAE				
<i>Baccharis anomala</i> DC.	Sc	A (Pg)	H	172502
<i>Baccharis oxyodonta</i> DC.	Sc	A (Pg)	S	172508
<i>Baccharis trinervis</i> (Lam.) Pers.	Sc	A (Pg)	-	172526
<i>Calea pinnatifida</i> (R.Br.) Less.	Sc	A (Pg)	H	172510
<i>Lepidaploa balansae</i> (Chodat) H.Rob.	Sc	A (Pg)	-	172524
<i>Mikania burchellii</i> Baker	STw	A (Pg)	H	169834
<i>Mikania campanulata</i> Gardner	STw	A (Pg)	-	169822
<i>Mikania cordifolia</i> (L.f.) Willd.	STw	A (Pg)	S	-
<i>Mikania hirsutissima</i> DC.	STw	A (Pg)	-	169833
<i>Mikania involucrata</i> Hook. & Arn.	STw	A (Pg)	H	169836
<i>Mikania laevigata</i> Sch. Bip. ex Baker	STw	A (Pg)	-	161685
<i>Mikania micrantha</i> Kunth	STw	A (Pg)	-	169824
<i>Mikania oreophila</i> Ritter & Miotto	STw	A (Pg)	-	162153
<i>Mikania orleansensis</i> Hieron.	STw	A (Pg)	H	169840
<i>Mikania paranensis</i> Dusén	STw	A (Pg)	-	169842
<i>Mikania parodii</i> Cabrera	STw	A (Pg)	L	169844
<i>Mikania ternata</i> (Vell.) B.L.Rob.	STw	A (Pg)	-	161682
<i>Mutisia campanulata</i> Less.	Td	A (Pg)	L	162216
<i>Mutisia speciosa</i> Aiton ex Hook.	Td	A (Pg)	-	172498
<i>Pentacalia desiderabilis</i> (Vell.) Cuatrec.	R/Sc	A (Pg)	-	161683
<i>Piptocarpha ramboi</i> G.Lom.Sm.	Sc	A (Pg)	H	172519
BASELLACEAE				
<i>Anredera tucumanensis</i> (Lillo & Hauman) Sperling	STw	Z	L	175752
BEGONIACEAE				
<i>Begonia fruticosa</i> A. DC.	R	A (Pt)	-	175091
BIGNONIACEAE				
<i>Amphilophium crucigerum</i> (L.) L.G.Lohmann	Td	A (Pt)	H	175060
<i>Bignonia sciuripabula</i> (K.Schum.) L.G.Lohmann	Td	A (Pt)	-	175078
<i>Dolichandra uncata</i> (Andrews) L.G.Lohmann	CTd/R	A (Pt)	H	175081
<i>Dolichandra unguis-cati</i> (L.) L.G.Lohmann	CTd/R	A (Pt)	H	175065
<i>Tanaecium selloi</i> (Spreng.) L.G.Lohmann	Td	A (Pt)	L	-
BORAGINACEAE				
<i>Tournefortia breviflora</i> DC.	STw	Z	-	183179
<i>Tournefortia paniculata</i> Cham.	Sc	Z	-	172522

Continued on next page

Table 2. Continued.

Family/Species	Climbing mechanism	Dispersal Syndrome	Abundance	ICN Number
CANNABACEAE				
<i>Celtis iguanaea</i> (Jacq.) Sarg.	HS	Z	H	183511
CAPRIFOLIACEAE				
<i>Valeriana scandens</i> L.	STw	A (Pg)	-	175074
CELASTRACEAE				
<i>Pristimera celastroides</i> (Kunth) A.C.Sm.	STw	A (Pt)	L	175109
CONVOLVULACEAE				
<i>Convolvulus crenatifolius</i> Ruiz & Pav.	STw	B	L	183177
CUCURBITACEAE				
<i>Apodanthera laciniosa</i> (Schltdl.) Cogn.	Td	Z	-	161694
<i>Cayaponia diversifolia</i> Cogn.	Td	Z	L	161712
<i>Cayaponia palmata</i> Cogn.	Td	Z	-	161713
<i>Cayaponia pilosa</i> (Vell.) Cogn.	Td	Z	H	162151
DIOSCOREACEAE				
<i>Dioscorea multiflora</i> Mart. ex Griseb.	STw	A (Pt)	-	183514
<i>Dioscorea subhastata</i> Vell.	STw	A (Pt)	-	175088
EUPHORBIACEAE				
<i>Tragia volubilis</i> L.	STw	Ep	-	175063
FABACEAE				
<i>Canavalia bonariensis</i> Lindl.	STw	B	-	161672
<i>Dalbergia frutescens</i> (Vell.) Britton	SSTw	A (Pt)	H	172530
<i>Lathyrus nervosus</i> Lam.	Td	T	L	183549
<i>Lathyrus paranensis</i> Burkart	Td	T	S	175097
<i>Mimosa niederleinii</i> Burkart	Sc	T	-	183223
<i>Phanera microstachya</i> (Raddi) L.P.Queiroz	Td	A (Pt)	-	175111
<i>Piptadenia affinis</i> Burkart	HS	B	-	164538
<i>Senegalia nitidifolia</i> (Speg.) Seigler & Ebinger	HS	B	-	175747
<i>Senegalia velutina</i> (DC.) Seigler & Ebinger	HS	B	H	172517
<i>Vigna peduncularis</i> (Kunth) Fawc. & Rendle	STw	T	L	166514
GRISELINIACEAE				
<i>Griselinia ruscifolia</i> (Clos) Taub.	R	Z	-	183543
LOGANIACEAE				
<i>Strychnos brasiliensis</i> Mart.	HS	Z	H	175086
MALPIGHIACEAE				
<i>Heteropterys aenea</i> Gris.	STw	A (Pt)	-	172514
<i>Heteropterys intermedia</i> (A. Juss.) Griseb.	STw	A (Pt)	-	175902
<i>Heteropterys syringifolia</i> Griseb	STw	A (Pt)	-	175898
<i>Janusia guaranitica</i> (A. St.-Hil.) A. Juss.	STw	A (Pt)	L	172523
<i>Tetrapteryx phlomoides</i> (Spreng.) Nied.	STw	A (Pt)	-	172529
MALVACEAE				
<i>Abutilon vexillarium</i> E. Morren	Sc	B	S	162390
MENISPERMACEAE				
<i>Cissampelos pareira</i> L.	STw	Z	-	175087
<i>Disciphania contraversa</i> Barneby	STw	Z	-	175106
ONAGRACEAE				
<i>Fuchsia regia</i> (Vell.) Munz	Sc	Z	L	161673
PASSIFLORACEAE				
<i>Passiflora actinia</i> Hook.	Td	Z	H	183527
<i>Passiflora caerulea</i> L.	Td	Z	H	161691
<i>Passiflora foetida</i> var. <i>negelliflora</i> L.	Td	Z	S	161693
PHYTOLACCACEAE				
<i>Seguiera americana</i> L.	HS	A (Pt)	H	175070
POACEAE				
<i>Melica sarmentosa</i> Nees	STw/HS	A (Pg)	L	175738
RANUNCULACEAE				
<i>Clematis bonariensis</i> Juss. ex DC.	PTw	A (Pg)	L	161678

Continued on next page

Table 2. Continued.

Family/Species	Climbing mechanism	Dispersal Syndrome	Abundance	ICN Number
<i>Clematis dioica</i> L. ROSACEAE	PTw	A (Pg)	H	172528
<i>Rubus erythrocladus</i> Mart.	HS	Z	H	175056
<i>Rubus sellowii</i> Cham. & Schltdl. RUBIACEAE	HS	Z	H	169892
<i>Galium hypocarpium</i> subsp. <i>gracillimum</i> (Ehrend.) Dempster	Sc	Z	-	175093
<i>Galium hypocarpium</i> subsp. <i>hypocarpium</i> (L.) Endl. ex Griseb.	Sc	Z	H	175090
<i>Manettia gracilis</i> Cham. & Schltdl	STw	A (Pt)	S	HUCS 10935*
<i>Manettia paraguariensis</i> Chodat	STw	A (Pt)	L	161695
<i>Manettia pubescens</i> Chamisso & Schlechtendal	STw	A (Pt)	-	183751
<i>Manettia tweediana</i> K.Schum.	STw	A (Pt)	-	168751
<i>Manettia verticillata</i> Wernham SAPINDACEAE	STw	A (Pt)	L	168754
<i>Serjania</i> cf. <i>laruotteana</i> Cambess.	Td	A (Pt)	-	175704
<i>Serjania meridionalis</i> Cambess.	Td	A (Pt)	-	175705
<i>Urvillea ulmacea</i> Kunth SMILACACEAE	Td	A (Pt)	L	183744
<i>Smilax cognata</i> Kunth SOLANACEAE	Td/HS	Z	H	183555
<i>Solanum flaccidum</i> Vell.	PTw	Z	-	161700
<i>Solanum inodorum</i> Vell.	PTw	Z	-	167122
<i>Solanum laxum</i> Spreng. TROPAEOLACEAE	PTw	Z	H	183212
<i>Tropaeolum pentaphyllum</i> Lam. VIOLACEAE	PTw	Z	-	192397
<i>Anchietea pyrifolia</i> A. St.-Hil. VITACEAE	STw	A (Pt)	H	161708
<i>Cissus striata</i> Ruiz & Pav.	ATd	Z	H	175107
<i>Cissus verticillata</i> (L.) Nicolson & C.E.Jarvis	Td/R	Z	-	175062

Discussion

This is the first study focused only on climbing plant species realized in an *Araucaria* forest in Brazil. Studies focusing on climbing species are scarce in South Brazil (Citadini-Zanette 1997, Venturi 2000, Durigon *et al.* 2009, Durigon & Waechter 2011, Carneiro & Vieira 2012) and even when climbing habit is included on broad floristic surveys, the species richness is commonly underestimated. Nevertheless, in many cases broad floristic surveys give an important overview of climbers' richness, contributing for the knowledge of patterns like families' richness in some regions. Among them, the study of Brack *et al.* (1985) at the Seasonal forest of Turvo State Park presented the highest richness of RS State, with around 130 species and since it was not focused only on climber plants, the richness could be even greater. The cluster analysis results partially agreed with our hypothesis that species composition is similar within forest types, showing two sharp groups of Seasonal forests and *Araucaria*/Atlantic forests, with no clear pattern association of Deciduous and Semideciduous forests. The study of Durigon & Waechter (2011) found that the species composition of Guaíba site, one of the sites analyzed in this study, is similar to the biogeographic expansion line represented by the States from the north border of RS State. Our sites comparison is more detailed in relation to forest types,

showing that the Semideciduous forests that are geographically close and present a mixture of floristic contingents of different origins (Waechter 2002) are more similar to Deciduous forests than *Araucaria*/Atlantic forests. It is noteworthy, as cited by Santos *et al.* (2009) that any species richness comparison between these surveys should be done with some caution, since they differ in sampled area and time effort and some studies may be underestimating the real richness of the study areas.

The richest families sampled at FLONA-SFP are according to other surveys in the Atlantic forest of Southeast Brazil (Lima *et al.* 1997, Barros *et al.* 2009, Villagra & Neto 2010), but there is a clear predominance of Apocynaceae and Asteraceae families not only at FLONA-SFP but also in most sites of RS State. In Seasonal forests of Southeast Brazil (Santos *et al.* 2009, Udulutsch *et al.* 2010), there is a predominance of species from Bignoniaceae, Fabaceae and Malpighiaceae families, in which the first two are also more representative in Seasonal forests of RS State. This demonstrates that the order of importance of families might not be only ruled by the vegetation type, but by the diversity center of some rich families/genera. In Seasonal forests of Southeast Brazil, Bignoniaceae presents its main diversity center (Lohmann *et al.* 2013), while in rainforests Asteraceae family increases in importance. The highest richness of Asteraceae family is reported to high altitudes and its great representativeness is

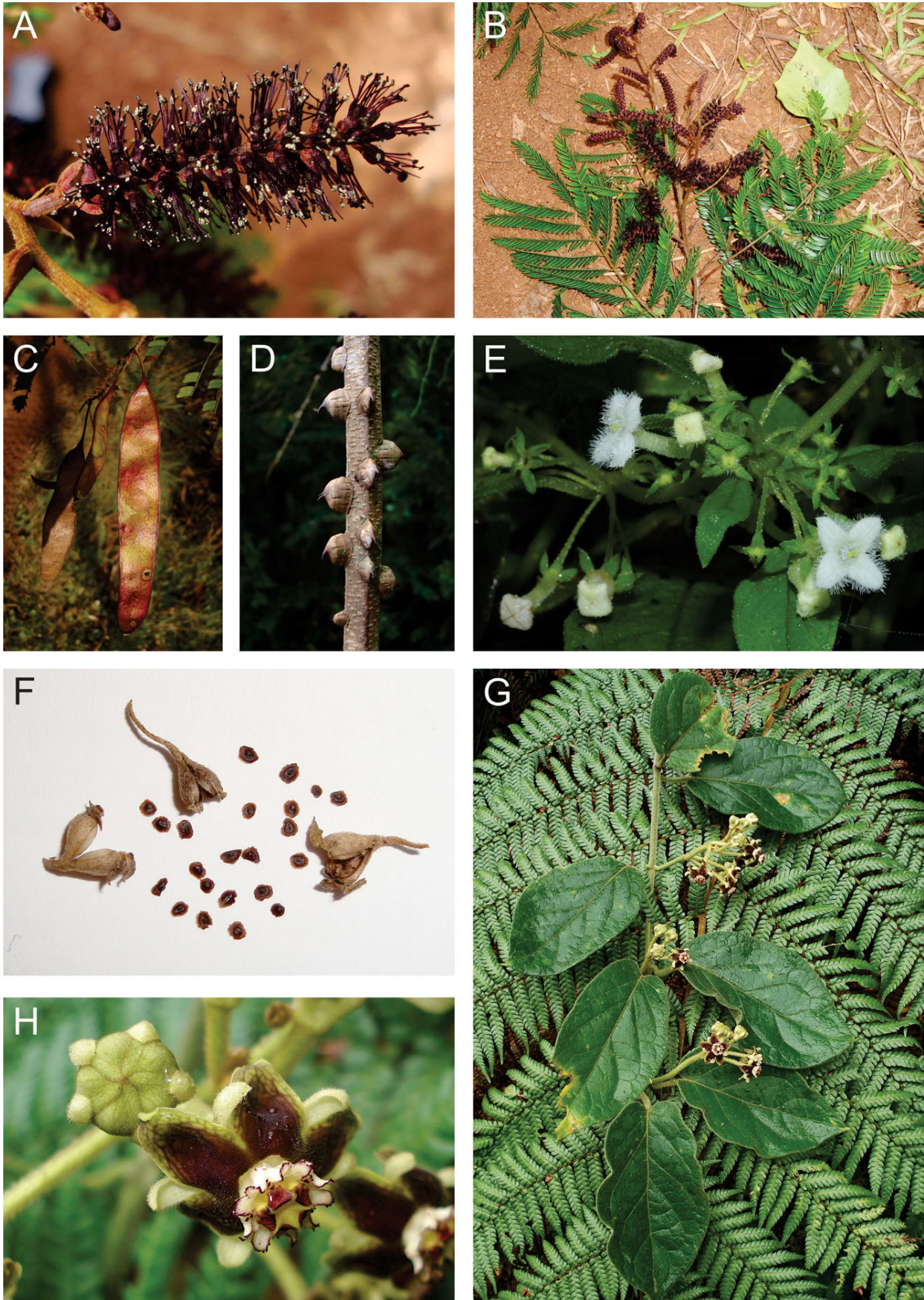


Figure 2. New species occurrences for Rio Grande do Sul State, Brazil. A-D: *Piptadenia affinis* Burkart; E and F: *Manettia verticillata* Wernham; G and H: *Matelea dusenii* Morillo.

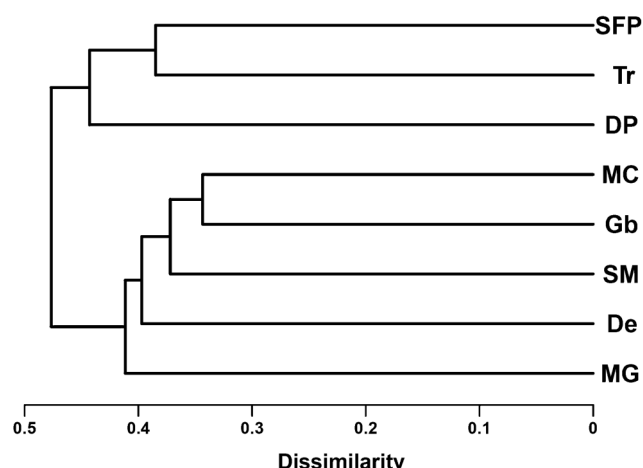


Figure 3. Dendrogram of climbers' survey sites according to species composition in Rio Grande do Sul State, Brazil. Cluster analysis performed using Ward's clustering criterion and the complement of Jaccard's similarity as resemblance measure. **Sites:** De – Derrubadas (Turvo State Park); SM – Santa Maria; MC – Viamão (Morro do Coco); MG – Viamão (Morro Grande); Gb – Guaíba; SFP – National Forest of São Francisco de Paula; DP – Dom Pedro de Alcântara; Tr – Torres (Itapeva State Park).

driven by *Mikania* Willd., the sixth world largest genus of climbers (Gentry 1991), that present its main diversity center in the Atlantic forest (Ritter & Waechter 2004). These phytogeographical patterns directly influences the climbing mechanisms and dispersal syndromes patterns over sites, since both families are anemochoric and Asteraceae is predominantly twiner while Bignoniaceae predominantly presents tendrils that coil. In Seasonal forests of Southeast Brazil, tendril species (encompassing tendrils that coil, clasp and adherent tendrils) overcome twiner species in many sites (Santos *et al.* 2009) whereas in Seasonal forests of RS State there is a prevalence of stem twiners. Adherent root climbers were more represented in the *Araucaria* and Atlantic forest sites, confirming their association with areas with high precipitation levels (Durigon *et al.* 2013).

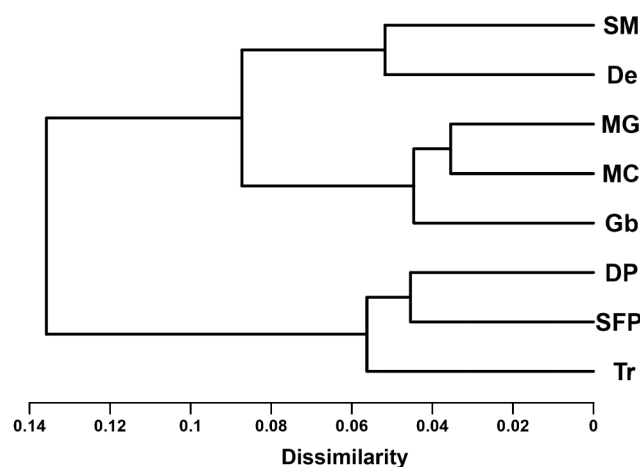


Figure 4. Dendrogram of climbers' survey sites according to climbing mechanisms and dispersal syndromes proportion in Rio Grande do Sul State, Brazil. Cluster analysis performed using Ward's clustering criterion and a modification of Gower's distance as resemblance measure. For sites abbreviations consult Figures 3 and 5.

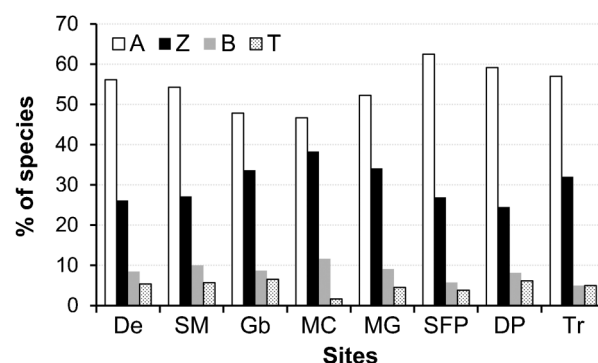


Figure 5. Species proportion at each study site (sites with more than 40 species) at Rio Grande do Sul State, according to its dispersal syndrome. Sites are disposed from west (left) to east (right). **Dispersal Syndrome:** A (Anemochoric); Z (Endozoochoric); B (Barochoric); T (Autochoric). **Sites:** De – Derrubadas (Turvo State Park); SM – Santa Maria; MC – Viamão (Morro do Coco); MG – Viamão (Morro Grande); Gb – Guaíba; SFP – National Forest of São Francisco de Paula; DP – Dom Pedro de Alcântara; Tr – Torres (Itapeva State Park).

The cluster analysis confirmed our hypothesis that species traits proportion were similar within forest types, showing that traits patterns are not modified by species turnover between sites and that it might be ruled by an association of vegetation type and geographic scale.

Not only light availability determines climbers' distribution, but also the presence of suitable supports, which influences each climbing mechanism. Trelisses density, that is higher on forest edges and treefall gaps, limits climbers' access to the canopy, since few species are capable to climb supports with more than 10-20 cm of diameter (Putz 1984, Putz & Holbrook 1991). In this way, each climbing mechanism has support limitations that direct its occurrence and abundance to different successional stages with particular vegetation structure and/or forest disturbance regimes (Schnitzer & Bongers, 2002). The tendril climbers' group formed by species with clasp tendrils, adhesive tendrils and tendrils that coil, present different support limitations which determine its success on climbing supports with high diameters and different types of bark. Tendrils are usually limited to supports with a maximum of 10 cm of diameter (Putz 1984), while clasp and adherent

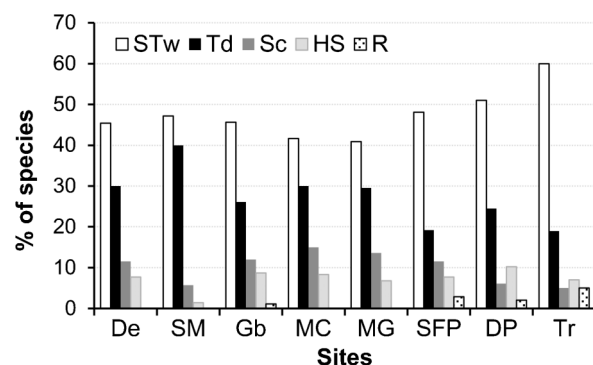


Figure 6. Species proportion at each study site (sites with more than 40 species) in Rio Grande do Sul State, according to its climbing mechanism. Sites are disposed from west (left) to east (right). **Climbing mechanism:** STw (Stem Twiner); Td (Tendril); Sc (Scrambler); HS (Hook/Spine); R (Roots). For sites abbreviations consult Figure 3 and 5.

tendrils species do not have any support limitation, climbing trees with large diameters. These limitations also occur with the twiner's group that climbs through shoot tips, secondary shoots and petioles. Our sites comparison revealed that the frequency of climbing mechanisms did not change over sites when using a detailed classification, while grouping species in major categories showed a significant result, indicating a difference between sites. So, it is interesting to classify the species as more specific as possible instead of grouping on major categories, to capture these strategies that directly influence species distribution in different environments. It is also important to pay attention on species that combine different climbing mechanisms, developing a secondary mechanism (e.g. adherent roots), which clearly gives them an advantage to firmly attach on their supports.

The three new occurrences for RS State found at FLONA-SFP had their occurrence range expanded towards South Brazil. The species *M. dusenii* was endemic to Paraná State (PR; Koch *et al.* 2013), *P. affinis* was endemic to Santa Catarina State (SC; Burkart 1979) and *M. verticillata* was registered for SC, PR, Minas Gerais and Rio de Janeiro States (Marinero *et al.* 2012). Based on this information we indicate these species to be included in future evaluations of the red list of threatened flora of RS State and Brazil.

As the definition of climber says it has to germinate and always keep contact with soil, some species can be confounded with hemiepiphytes, specifically the root-climber species. In this survey *Begonia fruticosa* A. DC., *Pentacalia desiderabilis* (Vell.) Cuatrec. and *Griselinia ruscifolia* (Clos) Taub. were considered climbers even though they can present a hemiepiphytes/epiphyte habit (Falkenberg & Voltolini 1995, Orihuela & Waechter 2010). The first species was always found as a climber, while the second was found a few times as a hemiepiphyte and the latter the majority of times as a hemiepiphyte (personal observation). Other example is *Mandevilla atrovioleacea* (Stadelm.) Woodson, which was found just once with an epiphyte habit but was observed as a climber many times in adjacent areas near FLONA-SFP (*i.e.* Centro de Proteção e Conservação da Natureza Pró-Mata; personal observation). Another similar issue occurs with scrambler species that can be found at initial growth stages as shrubs or with a prostrate habit. The species *Fuchsia regia* (Vell.) Munz was found just three times as scrambler at FLONA-SPF, while in adjacent areas (*i.e.* CPCN Pró-Mata) this is the common habit. The species *Mimosa niederleinii* Burkart was commonly found as a prostrate herb, but in some cases it clearly climbs the vegetation, scrambling up to three meters of height.

An important issue at FLONA-SFP is the impact of the invasive climbing species *Hedera helix* L. and *Lonicera japonica* Thunb. that spreads over the edges and inside of tree plantations, preventing the recruitment and establishment of native species (personal observation). Their management and control is very difficult, being dispersed mainly by birds and may cause in a short time a great loss of habitat for many climbing species. In spite of this threat for climbing diversity, the great amount of forest edges, the unmanaged trees plantations where the understory is not periodically removed, and the *Araucaria* plantations that provide a high incidence of sunlight in the understory due to its canopy structure, allow a great establishment and development of climbers. These landscape features are only possible since FLONA-SFP is a conservation unit of sustainable use, and future management strategies of tree plantations in the area should consider the impact it may cause in climber species.

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Interactions between frugivorous birds and plants in savanna and forest formations of the Cerrado

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Abstract: We recorded interactions between frugivorous birds and plants in the Cerrado and we assessed the role and importance of birds as potential seed dispersers. We analyzed the distribution of recorded feeding events, bird-plant interactions, and bird species composition between savanna and forest formations and between the dry and rainy seasons. Samplings were carried out from August 2009 to October 2010 and from November 2011 to August 2012 by means of line transects and focal observations. We recorded 348 feeding events and 187 interactions involving 44 plant species and 60 bird species. Most of the feeding events were observed in the forests and during the dry season ($\chi^2 = 39.529$; $gl = 1$; $p < 0.001$). However, no significant difference was found in the number of interactions ($\chi^2 = 15.975$; $gl = 1$; $p = 0.06$) between the two vegetation formations and between seasons. The bird species composition differed between savanna and forest formations (ANOSIM, $R = 0.238$; $p < 0.001$) and between the dry and rainy seasons (ANOSIM, $R = 0.223$; $p < 0.001$). Most of the potential seed dispersers were generalist birds that preferentially occupy forests during the dry season. Records of feeding events in forest formations increased in the dry season, indicating that birds use these sites as foraging areas during this period. We suggest that the preservation of forests in predominantly savanna-like ecosystems such as the Cerrado is extremely important for frugivorous birds and for frugivore-plant interactions.

Keywords: Mutualistic interactions, Neotropical savanna, seasonality, seed dispersal.

PURIFICAÇÃO, K.N., PASCOTTO, M.C., PEDRONI, F., PEREIRA, J.M.N., LIMA, N.A. Interações entre aves frugívoras e plantas em formações savânicas e florestais do Cerrado. Biota Neotropica. 14(4): e20140068. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1590/1676-06032014006814>

Resumo: Registramos interações entre aves frugívoras e plantas no Cerrado e avaliamos o papel e a importância das aves como potenciais dispersoras de sementes. Observamos como números de registros de alimentação e de interações e composição de espécies de aves se distribuem entre formações savânicas e florestais e entre as estações seca e chuvosa. Realizamos amostragens entre agosto/2009 e outubro/2010 e entre novembro/2011 e agosto/2012 por meio de transecções e observações focais. Observamos 348 registros de alimentação e 187 interações envolvendo 44 espécies de plantas e 60 espécies de aves. A maioria dos registros de alimentação foi observada nas florestas e durante a estação seca ($\chi^2 = 39,529$; $gl = 1$; $p < 0,001$). Já em relação ao número de interações não encontramos diferença significativa ($\chi^2 = 15,975$; $gl = 1$; $p = 0,06$) entre as duas formações vegetacionais e entre as estações. A composição de espécies de aves diferiu entre formações savânicas e florestais (ANOSIM, $R = 0,238$; $p < 0,001$) e entre as estações seca e chuvosa (ANOSIM, $R = 0,223$; $p < 0,001$). A maioria das espécies potencialmente dispersoras foi aves generalistas que ocupam preferencialmente florestas durante a estação seca. Durante a estação seca há aumento de registros de alimentação nas formações florestais, indicativo de que as aves usam estes locais como área de forrageio nesse período. Sugerimos que a manutenção de florestas em ecossistemas predominantemente savânicos como o Cerrado é extremamente importante para a avifauna frugívora e para as interações frugívoro-planta.

Palavras-chave: Interações mutualísticas, savana Neotropical, sazonalidade, dispersão de sementes.

Introduction

One of the main positive interactions between plants and animals is seed dispersal by frugivores. Plants benefit from the dispersal of their propagules away from the parent plant because this reduces competition and predation (Howe & Smallwood 1982) and increases gene flow between populations. In return, animals that consume fruits receive nutritional benefits (Howe & Primack 1975, Snow 1981).

The interactions between fruiting plants and frugivorous birds in a community define a pattern comprising a few bird species that interact with many plant species and a few plants that interact with many birds. This makes the dependence between bird and plants species essential to the stability of the ecological processes of a community (Fadini & De Marco 2004).

Birds stand out as seed dispersers due to the high abundance and frequency with which they feed on fruits and their great ability to move between environments (Jordano 1994). Frugivorous birds represent 56% of the world's avian families and, in Neotropical forests, 25 to 30% of the avifauna includes fruits in their diet (Pizo & Galetti 2010). According to Jordano (1987), studies of frugivory by birds in tropical forests are relatively well reported (e.g., Snow 1981, Jordano 1987, Galetti & Pizo 1996, Medellín & Gaona 1999, Silva & Tabarelli 2000, Bascompte et al. 2003, Saracco et al. 2005, Galetti et al. 2013). It is estimated that 50 to 90% of tree species in tropical forests produce zoochorous fruit (Howe & Smallwood 1982). In contrast, in tropical savannas, despite the wide geographical distribution and rich biodiversity, few studies have addressed the frugivory and seed dispersal by birds (e.g., Dean et al. 1999, Hovestadt et al. 1999, Wütherich et al. 2001, Faustino & Machado 2006, Christianini & Oliveira 2009, Pascotto et al. 2012, Maruyama et al. 2013).

Savannas are defined primarily by their seasonal climate and fire regime, with vegetation characterized by an herbaceous stratum dominated by grasses and a discontinuous woody shrub stratum (Skarpe 1992). The Brazilian Cerrado, the largest savanna in the world, is represented by a mosaic of phytophysionomic formations such as Fields, Cerrado *sensu stricto*, Semideciduous Forests and Gallery Forests (Silva & Bates 2002). The climate is represented by two well-defined seasons (one warm and wet and the other cool and dry), due to the changes in temperature and precipitation over the year (Eiten 1972).

With about 12000 plant species (Mendonça et al. 2008) and 837 bird species (Myers et al. 2000) catalogued, it is estimated that about half of the plant species in the Cerrado need animals to disperse their seeds, and birds are the main group of dispersers (Gottsberger & Silberbauer-Gottsberger 1983, Pinheiro & Ribeiro 2001, Kuhlmann 2012). The proportion of zoochorous plant species is high in both savanna and forest physiognomies of the Cerrado. In the Cerrado *sensu stricto* of Central Brazil, for example, the proportion of zoochorous plant species ranges from 51 to 68% (Vieira et al. 2002). On the other hand, in the Gallery Forests of Central and Southeastern Brazil, 63 to 89% of the plants have zoochorous dispersion and more than half of them are *ornithochorous* (Pinheiro & Ribeiro 2001, Motta-Junior & Lombardi 2002).

The fruit production of most Cerrado *sensu stricto* zoochorous species follows a seasonal pattern, with a peak in fruit ripening in the rainy season (Silberbauer-Gottsberger

2001, Lenza & Klink 2006, Pirani et al. 2009, Camargo et al. 2013). The same pattern has been observed in Gallery Forests (Oliveira & De Paula 2001). However, the fruit of most abundant species in the two phytophysionomies ripen in the dry season (Gouveia & Felfili 1998).

Knowing that seed dispersal is an important ecological process that acts in the maintenance of diversity and that frugivory is the first step in studying this event (Cordeiro & Howe 2001), our objectives were (i) to identify the interactions between frugivorous birds and plants and the most important species in the community (*sensu* importance Murray 2000), and (ii) to evaluate the potential of seed dispersal, number of feeding records, number of interactions and composition of frugivorous bird species in savanna and forest formations of the Cerrado, considering the dry and rainy seasons. We tested the hypothesis that forest formations have higher numbers of feeding records and interactions, since most of the zoochorous plants of the Cerrado are concentrated in forests (Pinheiro & Ribeiro 2001, Kuhlmann 2012), and that the records of feeding and interactions show higher values during the rainy season, because there is greater availability of ripe fruit in the Cerrado during this season (Silberbauer-Gottsberger 2001, Lenza & Klink 2006, Pirani et al. 2009, Camargo et al. 2013). Our second hypothesis is that the composition of frugivorous bird species does not differ between savanna and forest formations or between the dry and rainy seasons, since most of the bird species of the Cerrado occur in both vegetation formations (Silva 1997, Bagno & Marinho-Filho 2001).

Material and Methods

Study area – This study was conducted in Serra Azul State Park (15°52'S and 51°16'W), located in the municipality of Barra do Garças, in the region of the Araguaia Valley, in the eastern part of the state of Mato Grosso. With an area of about 11,000 ha, this is an important Conservation Unit in the Cerrado containing a variety of phytophysionomies typical to this biome, including savanna and forest formations (Ribeiro & Walter 2008). The average altitudes in the region range from 600 to 700 m and its soils are classified as clayey dystrophic red-yellow latosol (oxisol) (Pirani et al. 2009).

According to the Köppen classification the region has an Aw type climate, hot and humid, with two well-defined seasons, a rainy summer (October to March) and dry winter (April to September). The average annual temperature is 25.5°C and annual average rainfall is 1,528 mm (Pirani et al. 2009).

Data collection – Sampling was conducted from August 2009 to October 2010 (first period) and from November 2011 to August 2012 (second period). In the first period, we used four preestablished trails, each approximately 2 km in length, two of which passed through savanna formations (rocky outcrop Cerrado - *Cerrado Rupestre* and Typical Cerrado - *Cerrado Típico*) and two through forest formations (Gallery Forest and Semideciduous Forest). In the second period we sampled the module that follows the RAPELD model (Magnusson et al. 2005), in which two parallel 5-km-long trails, one kilometer apart from each other, pass through different Cerrado phytophysionomies, such as Shrubby Grassland Cerrado (*Cerrado Ralo*), Typical Cerrado, Semideciduous Forest and Gallery Forest (*sensu* Ribeiro & Walter 2008).

The interactions were recorded using the line transect method (Bibby et al. 2000), with adaptations for frugivory

studies (Pizo & Galetti 2010). In addition to the line transect method, focal observations were made involving twelve plant species chosen mainly because of their large individual fruit production and the easy visibility of the crown (*Byrsonima sericea* DC. – Malpighiaceae, *Cecropia pachystachya* Trécul – Urticaceae, *Copaifera langsdorffii* Desf. – Fabaceae, *Lasiacis ligulata* Hitchc. & Chase – Poaceae, *Miconia staminea* (Desr.) DC. – Melastomataceae, *Myrcia multiflora* (Lam.) DC. – Myrtaceae, *Myrsine umbellata* Mart. – Primulaceae, *Norantea guianensis* Aubl. – Marcgraviaceae, *Rudgea viburnoides* (Cham.) Benth. – Rubiaceae, *Schefflera morototoni* (Aubl.) Maguire et al. – Araliaceae, *Xylopia aromatica* (Lam.) Mart. e *Xylopia sericea* A. St.-Hil. – Annonaceae). Focal observations of the same plant were made on non-consecutive days, with an average of three observers per sampling. Three hours of focal observations were made for each plant species and only complete observations were considered, in which a frugivore was observed from its arrival on the plant until its departure, without losing sight of the bird during its entire visit (Silva et al. 2002).

Each time a bird was observed eating fruit the feeding event was recorded, regardless of the number of fruits consumed and the duration of the visit. In the case of flocks of birds foraging at the same time on the same plant, an individual feed record was made of the fruit consumed by each bird in the flock (Pizo & Galetti 2010). Records of feeding events by a bird species on a plant species corresponded to an interaction. Thus, an interaction indicated that a particular bird species consumed fruits of a particular plant species, regardless of the number of recorded feeding events.

In each recorded feeding event, we noted the consumer bird species, the plant species whose fruits were consumed, the phytophysiognomy and the date of the record. The mode of fruit consumption by the birds was also evaluated, including the portion of fruit consumed (pulp, aril, seed, and/or entire fruit) and the fruit's ripeness. Birds observed consuming whole propagules or taking them away from the parent plant were considered potential seed dispersers. The species that ate unripe fruits or that shredded the seeds were considered seed predators (Howe & Smallwood 1982, Moermond & Denslow 1985).

Weekly visits to the field were made in the first period, so that each phytophysiognomy was sampled at least once a month by the line transect method. Two to three weekly field visits were made in the second period, so that each vegetation type would also be sampled at least once a month by the line transect method, ensuring that the number of samplings in savanna and forest formations would be as similar as possible. Samplings were conducted between 6:00 AM and 1:00 PM., totaling 284 hours of sampling work by the line transect (248 hours) and focal methods (36 hours).

A frugivore was considered based on the criteria of Moermond & Denslow (1985), according to which a frugivorous bird is one that includes fruits in its diet at least during some season or stage of life, but does not feed exclusively on fruits. To separate the frugivorous birds into feeding guilds, we used the criteria adopted by Vieira et al. (2013) for the avifauna of Serra Azul State Park. The taxonomic classification and nomenclature of bird species was based on the proposal of the Brazilian Ornithological Records Committee (CBRO 2014) and of plant species on the List of Brazilian Flora Species (2014).

Data analysis – The importance index (I) was calculated for each bird species considered a potential seed disperser. This index denotes the contribution of a bird species compared with

the other bird species to each of the plants with which it interacts. The index is characterized by assigning a weight to the species with many interactions, which include many exclusive interactions (Murray 2000), and is given by the following formula: $I_j = \sum [(C_{ij}/T_i)/S]$ where T_i is the total number of bird species that fed on the fruit of plant i , S is the total number of sampled plants species, and C_{ij} is equal to 1 if the bird species j consumed the fruits of the plant species i or 0 if it did not. The value of I varies between 0 and 1, with 0 corresponding to avian species that did not interact with any plant and 1 corresponding to those that consumed fruits from all the plants contained in the sample. The same index was used to calculate the plant species whose fruits were eaten by the birds. In this case, i corresponded to the bird species and j to the plant species.

We used the chi-square test (χ^2) by means of contingency tables (Zar 1999) to test our first hypothesis, i.e., to ascertain if there are more records of feeding events and interactions (consumed/did not consume) in forest formations than in savanna formations, and to determine how these values are distributed between the dry and rainy seasons. The composition of frugivorous bird species between savanna and forest formations and between the dry and rainy seasons (second hypothesis) was compared based on a multivariate analysis of similarity (ANOSIM) (Clarke & Green 1988), using the Jaccard similarity coefficient. The significance of the test (p) was obtained after 9,999 permutations and sequential Bonferroni correction (Legendre & Legendre 1998). The analyses were performed using the R-2.13.0 software program (R Development Core Team 2011).

Results

A total of 348 feeding events were recorded (average of 1.22 events per hour) and 187 interactions involving 44 plant species (26 families) and 60 bird species (19 families). Of the 60 bird species observed consuming fruit, 47 belong to the order Passeriformes, and are distributed in 12 families. Among them, the most numerous in terms of species were Thraupidae (16) and Tyrannidae (11). Among the non-passerines (13 species), the Psittacidae family was the most well represented (5 species) (Figure 1A). The plant families with the highest species richness were Myrtaceae (4), Melastomataceae (3) and Malpighiaceae (3) (Figure 1B).

The bird species that interacted with the largest number of plants were *Turdus leucomelas* Vieillot, 1818 (15 interactions) and *Dacnis cayana* (Linnaeus, 1766) ($n = 12$), followed by *Tangara cayana* (Linnaeus, 1766) ($n = 9$) and *Cyanocorax cyanopogon* (Wied, 1821) ($n = 9$). Considering only forest formations, *Turdus leucomelas* ($n = 12$), *Dacnis cayana* ($n = 8$) and *Saltator maximus* (Statius Muller, 1776) ($n = 8$) were the bird species that interacted with the largest number of plant species. In the savanna formations, *Dacnis cayana* and *Tangara sayaca* (Linnaeus, 1766) stood out with five interactions each, and *Hemithraupis guira* (Linnaeus, 1766) and *Elaenia chiriquensis* Lawrence, 1865, with four interactions each.

The plant species that interacted with the largest number of bird species were *Miconia staminea* (23 interactions), *Cecropia pachystachya* ($n = 12$) and *Dilodendron bipinnatum* Radlk. ($n = 12$). In the forest formations, 35% of the observed interactions involved *Miconia staminea* ($n = 23$), *Dilodendron bipinnatum* ($n = 12$) and *Schefflera morototoni* ($n = 10$). On the other hand,

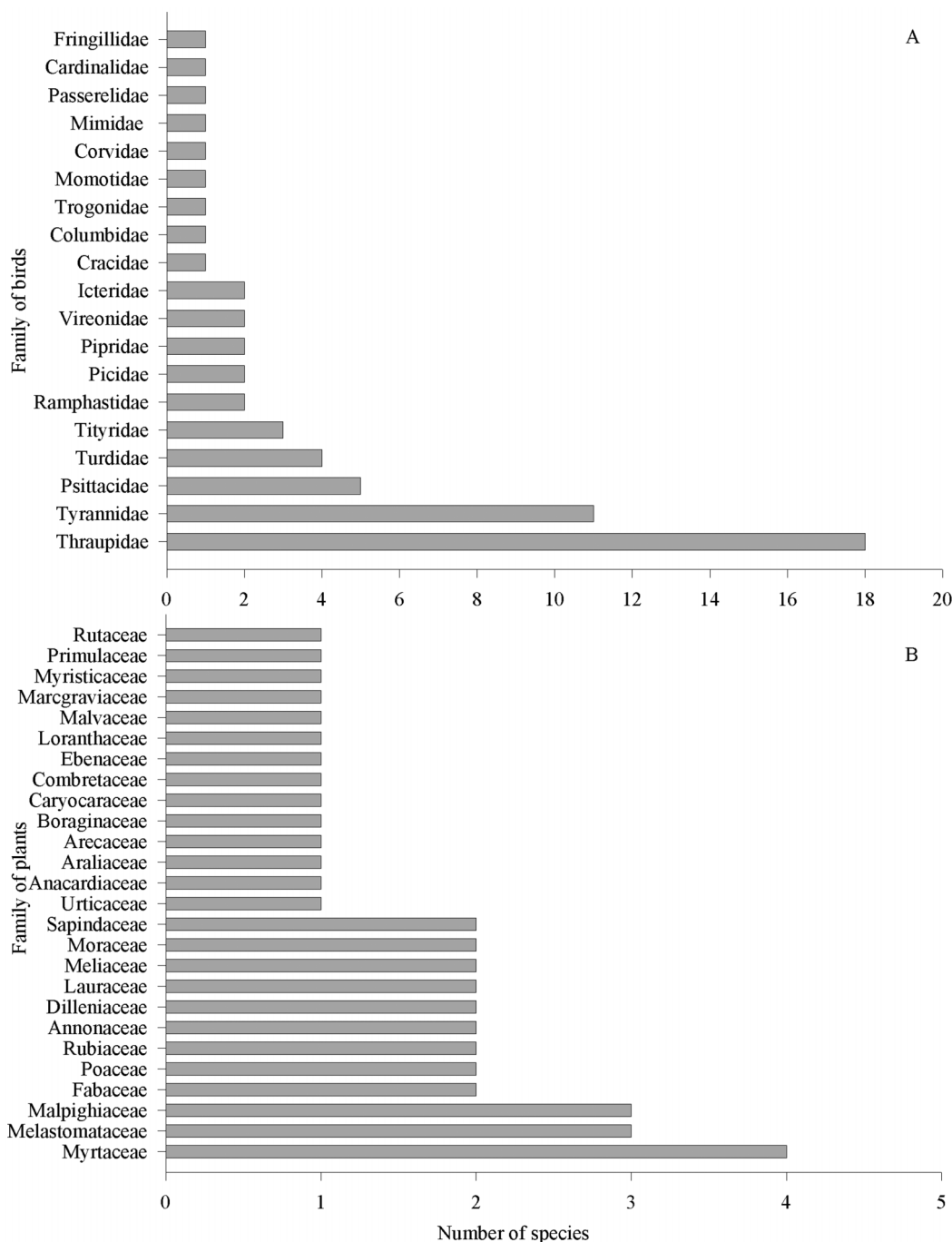


Figure 1. Specific richness of the avian (A) and plant (B) families that presented interactions in frugivory events in Serra Azul State Park, Mato Grosso, Brazil.

about 40% of the interactions in the savanna formations involved *Cecropia pachystachya* (9 interactions), *Curatella americana* L. (n = 9) and *Copaifera langsdorffii* (n = 7).

As for the importance index, *Turdus leucomelas* ($I = 0.107$), *Cyanocorax cyanopogon* ($I = 0.066$) and *Trogon curucui* Linnaeus, 1766 ($I = 0.054$) were the most important bird species in the entire community (Figure 2A). The most important bird species in the forests were *Turdus leucomelas* ($I = 0.116$), *Trogon curucui* ($I = 0.078$) and *Saltator maximus* ($I = 0.071$). In the savanna formations, the bird species with the highest levels of importance were *Volatinia jacarina* (Linnaeus,

1766) ($I = 0.080$), *Turdus leucomelas* ($I = 0.065$), *Tangara sayaca* ($I = 0.065$) and *Myiodynastes maculatus* (Statius Muller, 1776) ($I = 0.065$).

Among plants, *Miconia staminea* ($I = 0.162$), *Cecropia pachystachya* ($I = 0.083$) and *Rudgea viburnoides* ($I = 0.063$) were the most important in the community (Figure 2B). The plants that stood out in the forest formations were *Miconia staminea* ($I = 0.255$), *Rudgea viburnoides* ($I = 0.089$) and *Xylopia sericea* ($I = 0.084$). The most important plants in the savanna formations were *Cecropia pachystachya* ($I = 0.170$), *Curatella americana* ($I = 0.165$) and *Copaifera langsdorffii* ($I = 0.111$).

Interactions between frugivorous birds and plants

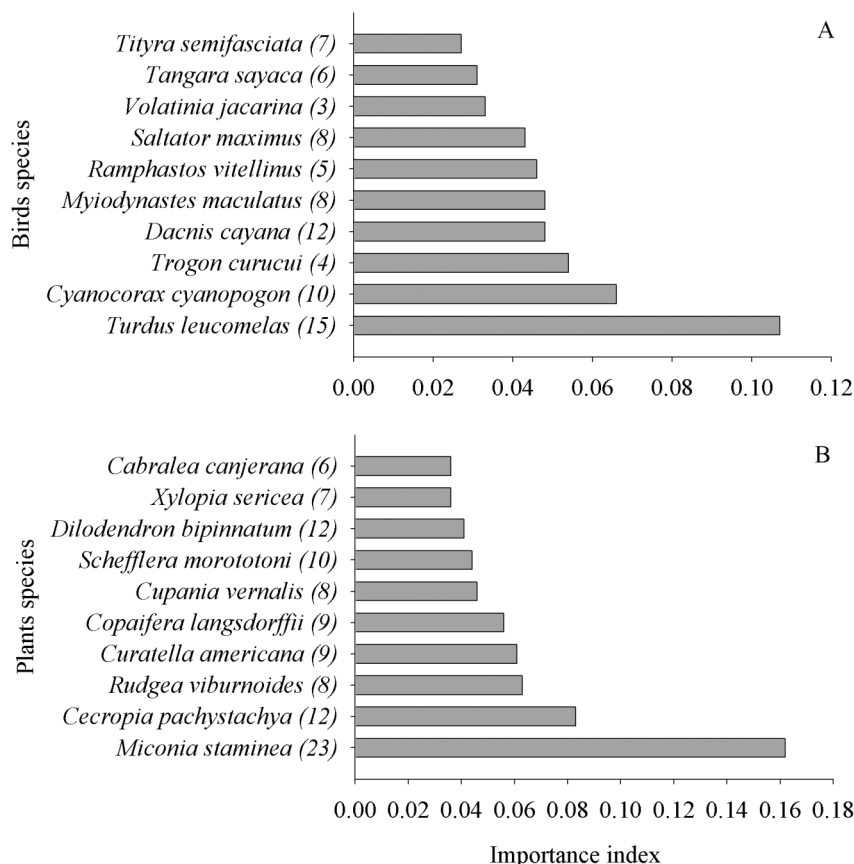


Figure 2. Indices of importance of the ten avian (A) and plant (B) species that presented the highest values in Serra Azul State Park, Mato Grosso, Brazil. The number of recorded interactions are shown in parentheses.

Among the observed interactions, 77% showed a potential for dispersal. Of the 60 bird species, 49 (82%) were considered potential dispersers of all the plant species with which they interacted. Seed predators, represented mainly by species of the Psittacidae family, accounted for 12% of the observed bird species. Besides parrots, only *Cyclarhis gujanensis* (Gmelin, 1789), *Nemosia pileata* (Boddaert, 1783), *Neothraupis fasciata* (Lichtenstein, 1823), *Tersina viridis* (Illiger, 1811), *Zonotrichia capensis* (Statius Muller, 1776) and *Gnorimopsar chopi* (Vieillot, 1819) were not considered potential seed dispersers of any plant species (Table 1).

The seeds of nine plant species were not dispersed by any bird species. The seeds of four of these plant species [*Brosimum gaudichaudii* Trécul, *Caryocar brasiliense* Cambess., *Cordia sellowiana* Cham. and *Pseudobombax tomentosum* (Mart. & Zucc.)] were shredded by parrots. Added to these plant species, the fruits of *Mezilaurus crassiramea* (Meisn.) Taub. ex Mez and Indeterminate 1 were consumed only in the unripe stage. The consumption of pulp was observed only in *Buchenavia tomentosa* Eichler, *Diospyros brasiliensis* Mart. ex Miq. and *Mangifera indica* L. (Table 1).

Most of the feeding events (70% of total) were recorded in forest formations and during the dry season (73%) ($\chi^2 = 39.529$; $gl = 1$; $p < 0.001$). As for the number of interactions (consumed/did not consume), about 70% of them were recorded in the forest formations and also during the dry season (75%). However, this result was not significant ($\chi^2 = 15.975$; $gl = 1$; $p = 0.06$). Of total number of frugivorous birds recorded, 75%

occurred in forest formations and 52% in savanna formations, indicating that the composition of frugivorous bird species differed between the two types of vegetation (ANOSIM, $R = 0.238$, $p < 0.001$). The bird species composition also differed between seasons (ANOSIM, $R = 0.223$, $p < 0.001$). About 80% of the species were recorded during the dry season, while approximately 50% were recorded eating fruits in the rainy season. Twenty-nine bird species were recorded consuming fruits exclusively in forests, 15 exclusively in savanna formations, and 16 in both environments (Table 1).

Discussion

Bird species of the Thraupidae and Tyrannidae families (Passeriformes) were found to be the main potential seed dispersers. In frugivory studies conducted in the Cerrado (Francisco & Galetti 2002, Cazetta et al. 2002, Melo et al. 2003, Marcondes-Machado & Rosa 2005, Pascotto 2006, 2007, Francisco et al. 2007, Christianini & Oliveira 2009, Allenspach & Dias 2012, Pascotto et al. 2012, Maruyama et al. 2013), species of the aforementioned families also stood out as the main potential seed dispersers, with *Tangara sayaca*, *Tangara cayana* (Thraupidae), *Pitangus sulphuratus* (Linnaeus, 1766) and *Myiodynastes maculatus* (Tyrannidae) standing out as the most frequently recorded species.

Species of the tanager family are very important to seed dispersal in the Cerrado, as well as throughout the Neotropics (Snow & Snow 1971). According to Francisco & Galetti (2002),

Table 1. Avian species observed consuming fruit during 284 hours of observations in forest and savanna formations in Serra Azul State Park, municipality of Barra do Garças, Mato Grosso, Brazil. ¹**Dispersal potential (DP):** (PD) Potential disperser, (ND) Non-disperser. ²**Diet (D)** (Vieira et al. 2013.): (Fru) Frugivorous, (Omn) Omnivorous, (Ins) Insectivorous, (Nec) Nectivorous, (Gra) Granivorous. ³**Vegetation formation (VF):** (F) Forest, (S) Savanna. ⁴**Season (S):** (D) Dry, (R) Rainy. *Seed shredder species. †Species carrying fruit in their beak/nails.

Birds	Plants	DP ¹	D ²	VF ³	S ⁴	Portion consumed
Cracidae						
<i>Penelope supercilii</i> Temminck, 1815	<i>Rudgea viburnoides</i> (Cham.) Benth (Rubiaceae)	PD	Fru	F	D	Whole fruit
Columbidae						
<i>Patagioenas speciosa</i> (Gmelin, 1789)	<i>Schefflera morototoni</i> (Aubl.) Maguire et al. (Araliaceae)	PD	Fru	F	D	Whole fruit
	Indeterminada 1	ND		F	R	Unripe fruit
Trogonidae						
<i>Trogon curucui</i> Linnaeus, 1766	<i>Byrsonima</i> sp. (Malpighiaceae)	PD	Omn	F	R	Whole fruit
	<i>Byrsonima sericea</i> DC. (Malpighiaceae)	PD		F	R	Whole fruit
	<i>Dilodendron bipinnatum</i> Radlk. (Sapindaceae)	PD		F	D	Seeds
	<i>Guarea guidonia</i> (L.) Sleumer (Meliaceae)	PD		F	D	Seeds
Momotidae						
<i>Momotus momota</i> (Linnaeus, 1766)	<i>Cabralea canjerana</i> (Vell.) Mart. (Meliaceae)	PD	Omn	F	D	Seeds
	<i>Xylopia aromatica</i> (Lam.) Mart. (Annonaceae)	PD		F	D	Seeds
Ramphastidae						
<i>Ramphastos toco</i> Statius Muller, 1776	<i>Cecropia pachystachya</i> Trécul (Urticaceae)	PD	Fru	S	D	Pulp/Seeds
<i>Ramphastos vitellinus</i> Lichtenstein, 1823	<i>Calyptanthus</i> cf. <i>lucida</i> Mart. ex DC. (Myrtaceae)	PD	Fru	F	D	Whole fruit
	<i>Campomanesia eugenioides</i> (Cambess.) D.Legrand ex Landrum (Myrtaceae)	PD		F	R	Whole fruit
	<i>Cecropia pachystachya</i> Trécul (Urticaceae)	PD		F	R	Pulp/Seeds
	<i>Ocotea corymbosa</i> (Meisn.) Mez (Lauraceae)	PD		F	R	Whole fruit
	<i>Myrsine umbellata</i> Mart. (Primulaceae)	PD		F	D	Whole fruit
Picidae						
<i>Celex flavescens</i> (Gmelin, 1788)	<i>Xylopia aromatica</i> (Lam.) Mart. (Annonaceae)	PD	Ins	F	D	Seeds
	<i>Xylopia sericea</i> A.St.-Hil. (Annonaceae)	PD		F	D	Seeds
<i>Dryocopus lineatus</i> (Linnaeus, 1766)	<i>Myrcia multiflora</i> (Lam.) DC. (Myrtaceae)	PD	Ins	S	R	Whole fruit
Psittacidae						
<i>Ara chloropterus</i> Gray, 1859	<i>Caryocar brasiliense</i> Cambess. (Caryocaraceae)	ND	Fru	S	D	Pulp/Seeds*
<i>Diopsittaca nobilis</i> (Linnaeus, 1758)	<i>Cordia sellowiana</i> Cham. (Boraginaceae)	ND	Fru	F	R	Pulp/Seeds*
<i>Psittacara leucophthalmus</i> (Statius Muller, 1776)	<i>Cordia sellowiana</i> Cham. (Boraginaceae)	ND	Fru	S	R	Pulp/Seeds*
<i>Eupsittula aurea</i> (Gmelin, 1788)	<i>Brosimum gaudichaudii</i> Trécul (Moraceae)	ND	Fru	S	D	Pulp/Seeds*
<i>Brotogetis chiriri</i> (Vieillot, 1818)	<i>Brosimum gaudichaudii</i> Trécul (Moraceae)	ND	Fru	S	D	Pulp/Seeds*
	<i>Pseudobombax tomentosum</i> (Mart. & Zucc.) A.Robyns (Malvaceae)	ND		F	D	Pulp/Seeds*
Pipridae						
<i>Pipra fasciicauda</i> Hellmayr, 1906	<i>Miconia staninea</i> (Desr.) DC. (Melastomataceae)	PD	Fru	F	D	Whole fruit
<i>Antilophia galeata</i> (Lichtenstein, 1823)	<i>Rudgea viburnoides</i> (Cham.) Benth (Rubiaceae)	PD	Fru	F	D	Whole fruit
Tityridae						
<i>Tityra inquisitor</i> (Lichtenstein, 1823)	<i>Rudgea viburnoides</i> (Cham.) Benth (Rubiaceae)	PD	Ins	F	D	Whole fruit

Continued on next page

Table 1. Continued.

Birds	Plants	DP ¹	D ²	VF ³	S ⁴	Portion consumed
<i>Tityra semifasciata</i> (Spix, 1825)	<i>Byrsonima sericea</i> DC. (Malpighiaceae)	PD	Ins	F	R	Whole fruit
	<i>Dilodendron bipinnatum</i> Radlk. (Sapindaceae)	ND		F	D	Aril
	<i>Miconia staminea</i> (Desr.) DC. (Melastomataceae)	PD		F	D	Whole fruit
	<i>Ocotea corymbosa</i> (Meisn.) Mez (Lauraceae)	PD		F	D	Whole fruit
	<i>Schefflera morototoni</i> (Aubl.) Maguire <i>et al.</i> (Araliaceae)	PD		F	D	Whole fruit
	<i>Virola sebifera</i> Aubl. (Myristicaceae)	PD		F	D	Seeds/Aril
	<i>Xylopia aromatica</i> (Lam.) Mart. (Annonaceae)	PD		F	D	Seeds
<i>Pachyrhamphus viridis</i> (Vieillot, 1816)	<i>Miconia staminea</i> (Desr.) DC. (Melastomataceae)	PD	Omn	F	D	Whole fruit
Tyrannidae						
<i>Camptostoma obsoletum</i> (Temminck, 1824)	<i>Miconia staminea</i> (Desr.) DC. (Melastomataceae)	PD	Ins	F	D	Whole fruit
<i>Elaenia flavogaster</i> (Thunberg, 1822)	<i>Byrsonima pachyphylla</i> A.Juss. (Malpighiaceae)	PD	Omn	S	D	Whole fruit
	<i>Miconia staminea</i> (Desr.) DC. (Melastomataceae)	PD		F	D	Whole fruit
	<i>Xylopia aromatica</i> (Lam.) Mart. (Annonaceae)	PD		S	D	Seeds
<i>Elaenia mesoleuca</i> (Deppe, 1830)	<i>Xylopia sericea</i> A.St.-Hil. (Annonaceae)	PD	Omn	F	D	Seeds
<i>Elaenia chiriquensis</i> Lawrence, 1865	<i>Brosimum gaudichaudii</i> Trécul (Moraceae)	ND	Omn	S	D	Pulp
	<i>Byrsonima pachyphylla</i> A.Juss. (Malpighiaceae)	PD		S	D	Whole fruit
	<i>Byrsonima sericea</i> DC. (Malpighiaceae)	PD		S	R	Whole fruit
	<i>Cupania vernalis</i> Cambess. (Sapindaceae)	ND		F	D	Aril
	<i>Miconia albicans</i> (Sw.) Triana (Melastomataceae)	ND		S	D	Unripe fruit
	<i>Miconia staminea</i> (Desr.) DC. (Melastomataceae)	PD		F	D	Whole fruit
<i>Myiarchus swainsoni</i> Cabanis & Heine, 1859	<i>Cabralea canjerana</i> (Vell.) Mart. (Meliaceae)	PD	Ins	F	D	Seeds
	<i>Dilodendron bipinnatum</i> Radlk. (Sapindaceae)	ND		F	D	Aril
	<i>Miconia staminea</i> (Desr.) DC. (Melastomataceae)	PD		F	D	Whole fruit
	<i>Virola sebifera</i> Aubl. (Myristicaceae)	PD		F	D	Seeds/Aril
<i>Sirystes sibilator</i> (Vieillot, 1818)	<i>Cabralea canjerana</i> (Vell.) Mart. (Meliaceae)	PD	Ins	F	D	Seeds
<i>Pitangus sulphuratus</i> (Linnaeus, 1766)	<i>Copaifera langsdorffii</i> Desf. (Fabaceae)	PD	Omn	F	D	Seeds/Aril
<i>Myiodynastes maculatus</i> (Statius Muller, 1776)	<i>Byrsonima sericea</i> DC. (Malpighiaceae)	PD	Omn	F	R	Whole fruit
	<i>Byrsonima</i> sp. (Malpighiaceae)	PD		F		Whole fruit
	<i>Cabralea canjerana</i> (Vell.) Mart. (Meliaceae)	PD		F	D	Seeds
	<i>Copaifera langsdorffii</i> Desf. (Fabaceae)	PD		F/S	D	Seeds/Aril
	<i>Cupania vernalis</i> Cambess. (Sapindaceae)	PD		F	D	Seeds/Aril
	<i>Curatella americana</i> L. (Dilleniaceae)	PD		S	D	Seeds/Aril
	<i>Davilla elliptica</i> A.St.-Hil. (Dilleniaceae)	PD		S	D	Seeds/Aril
	<i>Dilodendron bipinnatum</i> Radlk. (Sapindaceae)	ND		F	D	Aril
<i>Megarynchus pitangua</i> (Linnaeus, 1766)	<i>Byrsonima</i> sp. (Malpighiaceae)	PD	Omn	F	R	Whole fruit
	<i>Cabralea canjerana</i> (Vell.) Mart. (Meliaceae)	PD		F	D	Seeds
	<i>Curatella americana</i> L. (Dilleniaceae)	PD		S	R	Seeds/Aril
	<i>Miconia staminea</i> (Desr.) DC. (Melastomataceae)	PD		F	D	Whole fruit
<i>Empidonamus varius</i> (Vieillot, 1818)	<i>Byrsonima sericea</i> DC. (Malpighiaceae)	PD	Ins	F	R	Whole fruit
	<i>Miconia staminea</i> (Desr.) DC. (Melastomataceae)	PD		F	D	Whole fruit

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Table 1. Continued.

Birds	Plants	DP ¹	D ²	VF ³	S ⁴	Portion consumed
<i>Chenotricus fuscatus</i> (Wied., 1831)	<i>Miconia staminea</i> (Desr.) DC. (Melastomataceae)	PD	Ins	F	D	Whole fruit
Vireonidae						
<i>Cyclarhis guianensis</i> (Gmelin, 1789)	<i>Cupania vernalis</i> Cambess. (Sapindaceae)	ND	Ins	F	D	Aril
<i>Vireo chivi</i> (Linnaeus, 1766)	<i>Cupania vernalis</i> Cambess. (Sapindaceae)	PD	Omn	F	D	Seeds/Aril
	<i>Dilodendron bipinnatum</i> Radlk. (Sapindaceae)	ND		F	D	Aril
	<i>Miconia staminea</i> (Desr.) DC. (Melastomataceae)	PD		F	D	Whole fruit
	<i>Zanthoxylum rhoifolium</i> Lam. (Rutaceae)	PD		F	D	Seeds
Corvidae						
<i>Cyanocorax cyanopogon</i> (Wied, 1821)	<i>Acrocomia aculeata</i> (Jacq.) Lodd. ex Mart. (Arecaceae)	PD§	Omn	F	R	Pulp
	<i>Buchenavia tomentosa</i> Eichler (Combretaceae)	ND		S	D	Pulp
	<i>Copaifera langsdorffii</i> Desf. (Fabaceae)	PD		S	D	Seeds/Aril
	<i>Diospyros brasiliensis</i> Mart. ex Miq. (Ebenaceae)	ND		F	D	Pulp
	<i>Mangifera indica</i> L. (Anacardiaceae)	ND		F	R	Pulp
	<i>Miconia albicans</i> (Sw.) Triana (Melastomataceae)	PD		F	C	Whole fruit
	<i>Miconia macrothyrsa</i> Benth. (Melastomataceae)	PD		F	D	Whole fruit
	<i>Tocoyena formosa</i> (Cham. & Schltdl.) K.Schum. (Rubiaceae)	PD		S	D	Seeds/Pulp
	<i>Virola sebifera</i> Aubl. (Myristicaceae)	PD		F	D	Seeds/Aril
Turdidae						
<i>Turdus leucomelas</i> Vieillot, 1818	<i>Byrsonima sericea</i> DC. (Malpighiaceae)	PD	Omn	F	R	Whole fruit
	<i>Cabralea canjerana</i> (Vell.) Mart. (Meliaceae)	PD		F	D	Seeds
	<i>Calyptranthes cf. lucida</i> Mart. ex DC. (Myrtaceae)	PD		F	D	Whole fruit
	<i>Cecropia pachystachya</i> Trécul (Urticaceae)	PD		S	R/D	Pulp/Seeds
	<i>Copaifera langsdorffii</i> Desf. (Fabaceae)	PD		S	D	Seeds/Aril
	<i>Lasiacis ligulata</i> Hitchc. & Chase (Poaceae)	PD		F	D	Whole fruit
	<i>Miconia macrothyrsa</i> Benth. (Melastomataceae)	PD		F	D	Whole fruit
	<i>Miconia staminea</i> (Desr.) DC. (Melastomataceae)	PD		F	D	Whole fruit
	<i>Myrcia tomentosa</i> (Aubl.) DC. (Myrtaceae)	PD		S	R	Whole fruit
	Indeterminada 2	PD		F	D	Whole fruit
	<i>Rudgea viburnoides</i> (Cham.) Benth (Rubiaceae)	PD		F	D	Whole fruit
	<i>Schefflera morototoni</i> (Aubl.) Maguire et al. (Araliaceae)	PD		F	D	Whole fruit
	<i>Xylopia aromatica</i> (Lam.) Mart. (Annonaceae)	PD		F	D	Seeds
	<i>Xylopia sericea</i> A.St.-Hil. (Annonaceae)	PD		F	D	Seeds
	<i>Zanthoxylum rhoifolium</i> Lam. (Rutaceae)	PD		F	D	Seeds
<i>Turdus amaurochalinus</i> Cabanis, 1850	<i>Copaifera langsdorffii</i> Desf. (Fabaceae)	PD	Omn	S	D	Seeds/Aril
	<i>Schefflera morototoni</i> (Aubl.) Maguire et al. (Araliaceae)	PD		F	D	Whole fruit
<i>Turdus subalaris</i> (Seeböhm, 1887)	<i>Cupania vernalis</i> Cambess. (Sapindaceae)	PD	Omn	F	D	Seeds/Aril
	<i>Dilodendron bipinnatum</i> Radlk. (Sapindaceae)	ND		F	D	Aril
	<i>Schefflera morototoni</i> (Aubl.) Maguire et al. (Araliaceae)	PD		F	D	Whole fruit
<i>Turdus albicollis</i> Vieillot, 1818	<i>Myrsine umbellata</i> Mart. (Primulaceae)	PD	Omn	F	D	Whole fruit
	<i>Rudgea viburnoides</i> (Cham.) Benth (Rubiaceae)	PD		F	D	Whole fruit

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Table 1. Continued.

Birds	Plants	DP ¹	D ²	VF ³	S ⁴	Portion consumed
Mimidae						
<i>Minus saturninus</i> (Lichtenstein, 1823)	<i>Schefflera morototoni</i> (Aubl.) Maguire <i>et al.</i> (Araliaceae)	PD		F	D	Whole fruit
Passerellidae						
<i>Zonotrichia capensis</i> (Statius Muller, 1776)	<i>Copaifera langsdorffii</i> Desf. (Fabaceae)	PD	Omn	S	D	Seeds/Aril
Icteridae						
<i>Icterus pyrrhopterus</i> (Vieillot, 1819)	<i>Curatella americana</i> L. (Dilleniaceae)	ND	Gra	S	D	Unripe fruit
<i>Gnorimopsar chopi</i> (Vieillot, 1819)	<i>Cecropia pachystachya</i> Trécul (Urticaceae)	PD	Omn	S	D	Pulp/Seeds
Thraupidae	<i>Curatella americana</i> L. (Dilleniaceae)	ND	Oni	S	D	Aril
<i>Coereba flaveola</i> (Linnaeus, 1758)	<i>Cecropia pachystachya</i> Trécul (Urticaceae)	PD	Nec	S	D	Pulp/Seeds
<i>Salpator maximus</i> (Statius Muller, 1776)	<i>Byrsonima sericea</i> DC. (Malpighiaceae)	PD	Omn	F	R	Whole fruit
	<i>Cecropia pachystachya</i> Trécul (Urticaceae)	PD		F	D	Pulp/Seeds
	<i>Dilodendron bipinnatum</i> Radlk. (Sapindaceae)	ND		F	D	Aril
	<i>Lastactis ligulata</i> Hitchc. & Chase (Poaceae)	PD		F	D	Whole fruit
	<i>Miconia staminea</i> (Desr.) DC. (Melastomataceae)	PD		F	D	Whole fruit
	<i>Pterodon pubescens</i> (Benth.) Benth. (Fabaceae)	PD		F	D	Seeds
	<i>Rudgea viburnoides</i> (Cham.) Benth (Rubiaceae)	PD		F	D	Whole fruit
	<i>Schefflera morototoni</i> (Aubl.) Maguire <i>et al.</i> (Araliaceae)	PD		F	D	Whole fruit
<i>Salpator similis</i> d'Orbigny & Lafresnaye, 1837	<i>Cupania vernalis</i> Cambess. (Sapindaceae)	PD	Omn	F	D	Seeds/Aril
	<i>Miconia staminea</i> (Desr.) DC. (Melastomataceae)	PD		F	D	Whole fruit
	<i>Zanthoxylum rhoifolium</i> Lam. (Rutaceae)	PD		F	D	Seeds
<i>Nemosia pileata</i> (Boddaert, 1783)	<i>Copaifera langsdorffii</i> Desf. (Fabaceae)	ND	Omn	F	D	Aril
	<i>Davilla elliptica</i> A.St.-Hil. (Dilleniaceae)	ND		S	D	Aril
	<i>Dilodendron bipinnatum</i> Radlk. (Sapindaceae)	ND		F	D	Aril
<i>Tachyphonus rufus</i> (Boddaert, 1783)	<i>Byrsonima pachyphylla</i> A.Juss. (Malpighiaceae)	PD	Omn	S	D	Whole fruit
	<i>Cecropia pachystachya</i> Trécul (Urticaceae)	PD		S	D	Pulp/Seeds
	<i>Dilodendron bipinnatum</i> Radlk. (Sapindaceae)	ND		F	D	Aril
	<i>Miconia staminea</i> (Desr.) DC. (Melastomataceae)	PD		F	D	Whole fruit
	<i>Rudgea viburnoides</i> (Cham.) Benth (Rubiaceae)	PD		F	D	Whole fruit
<i>Ramphocelus carbo</i> (Pallas, 1764)	<i>Cupania vernalis</i> Cambess. (Sapindaceae)	ND	Omn	F	D	Aril
	<i>Miconia staminea</i> (Desr.) DC. (Melastomataceae)	PD		F	D	Whole fruit
	<i>Xylopia aromatica</i> (Lam.) Mart. (Annonaceae)	PD		F	D	Seeds
<i>Lanio cristatus</i> (Linnaeus, 1766)	<i>Miconia staminea</i> (Desr.) DC. (Melastomataceae)	PD	Omn	F	D	Whole fruit
<i>Lanio penicillatus</i> (Spix, 1825)	<i>Byrsonima sericea</i> DC. (Malpighiaceae)	PD	Fru	F	R	Whole fruit
	<i>Cupania vernalis</i> Cambess. (Sapindaceae)	ND		F	D	Aril
	<i>Dilodendron bipinnatum</i> Radlk. (Sapindaceae)	ND		F	D	Aril
<i>Tangara sayaca</i> (Linnaeus, 1766)	<i>Miconia staminea</i> (Desr.) DC. (Melastomataceae)	PD		F	D	Whole fruit
	<i>Brosimum gaudichaudii</i> Trécul (Moraceae)	ND	Omn	S	D	Pulp
	<i>Cecropia pachystachya</i> Trécul (Urticaceae)	PD		S	D	Pulp/Seeds
	<i>Copaifera langsdorffii</i> Desf. (Fabaceae)	ND		S	D	Aril

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Table 1. Continued.

Birds	Plants	DP ¹	D ²	VF ³	S ⁴	Portion consumed
<i>Volatinia jacarina</i> (Linnaeus, 1766)	<i>Mezilaureus crassiramea</i> (Meisn.) Taub. ex Mez (Lauraceae)	ND		S	R	Unripe fruit
	<i>Miconia staminea</i> (Desr.) DC. (Melastomataceae)	PD		F	D	Whole fruit
	<i>Xylopia sericea</i> A.St.-Hil. (Annonaceae)	PD		F	D	Seeds
	<i>Brachiaria</i> sp. (Poaceae)	PD	Gra	S	R	Seeds
	<i>Curatella americana</i> L. (Dilleniaceae)	ND		S	R/D	Aril
	<i>Miconia albicans</i> (Sw.) Triana (Melastomataceae)	PD		S	R	Whole fruit
Cardinalidae <i>Piranga flava</i> (Vieillot, 1822)	<i>Cecropia pachystachya</i> Trécul (Urticaceae)	PD	Omn	S	D	Pulp/Seeds
	<i>Curatella americana</i> L. (Dilleniaceae)	PD		S	R	Seeds/Aril
Fringillidae <i>Euphonia chlorotica</i> (Linnaeus, 1766)	<i>Cecropia pachystachya</i> Trécul (Urticaceae)	PD	Omn	S	D	Pulp/Seeds
	<i>Norantea guianensis</i> Aubl. (Maregraviaceae)	PD		S	R	Pulp/Seeds

tanagers stand out especially in the dispersal of seeds from plants with small fruit (< 0.4 cm). In the case of larger fruits, seed dispersal is compromised because the seeds fall under the parent plants (Levey 1987, Sick 1997, Francisco & Galetti 2002). Despite the importance of tanagers as potential seed dispersers in this study, we observed that in the case of larger seeds (> 0.5 cm, personal observation), the potential for seed dispersal was really compromised, confirming the findings of Francisco & Galetti (2002). Tanagers also were less efficient in the dispersal of arilled seeds (Table 1). According to Sick (1997), species of this group commonly eat only the aril and discard the seeds under the plant.

On the other hand, tyrant flycatchers, which are known for their predominantly insectivorous diet, include many species that feed on a mixed diet of insects and fruits (Sick 1997). Some studies have shown that species that supplement their diet with fruits, as in the case of this family, have stood out as major seed dispersers in forest (Melo et al. 2003, Pascotto 2006, 2007) and savanna formations (Faustino & Machado 2006, Pascotto et al. 2012, Maruyama et al. 2013) in the Cerrado. Generally, bird species with non-specialized diets also lack habitat specificity, making them important in seed dispersal among different environments (Melo et al. 2003). Thus, in environments characterized by a mosaic of vegetation types, such as the Cerrado (Silva & Bates 2002), opportunistic frugivores are extremely important from the standpoint of seed dispersal potential, at least with regard to plants that are little specialized and to the quantitative component (Schupp 1993). However, it is worth investigating how seeds are treated after being ingested by these birds.

Miconia staminea and *Cecropia pachystachya* stood out as the most important plants. These species are characterized by their abundant production of small fruits and seeds (Kuhlmann 2012). Like most of the plant species observed here, they belong in the low investment model (Howe & Smallwood 1982). In this model, plants produce copious amounts of fruits which are not very nutritious and small seeds, attracting a large variety of opportunistic birds willing to take advantage of a super-abundant resource, but of little nutritional value. Based on the bird species observed consuming fruits (Table 1), we suggest that our results strongly fit this model, since most of the interactions were performed by opportunistic frugivores.

We found that 82% of the frugivorous bird species were considered potential seed dispersers. This was expected, since ornithochory is the main seed dispersal syndrome of tree species in the Brazilian Cerrado, in both forest and savanna environments (Gottsberger & Silberbauer-Gottsberger 1983, Pinheiro & Ribeiro 2001). Species of the Psittacidae family, widely known as predators of seeds, which are usually shredded when ingested, stood out among the bird species that did not act as seed dispersers (Sick 1997). Plants with larger fruits (> 2.5 cm), such as *Buchenavia tomentosa* and *Diospyros brasiliensis*, were only visited by pulp-eaters or seed predators (Table 1).

An analysis of the records of feeding events, number of interactions and composition of frugivorous bird species indicated that higher numbers were recorded in forested areas, confirming our hypotheses. A recent study by Kuhlmann (2012) in the central portion of the Cerrado, involving 150 plant species with fruit attractive to fauna, revealed that about 80% were dispersed by birds and about 60% occurred in forested areas. Seed dispersal by animals in forest environments is more advantageous for plants than dispersal by abiotic processes,

since animals, particularly birds, are more likely to disperse seeds over longer distances (Hovestadt et al. 1999).

Kuhlmann (2012) states that the majority of fruiting plants of the Cerrado ripen predominantly in the rainy season. Oliveira & De Paula (2001) reported a similar finding, stating that the fruit of most zoochorous plant species of gallery forests in central Brazil ripen in the rainy season. The same phenomenon has been observed in savanna formations (Silberbauer-Gottsberger 2001, Lenza & Klink 2006, Pirani et al. 2009, Camargo et al. 2013). Based on this information about fruiting phenology, we expected to record more numerous feeding events and interactions during the rainy season since, according to the above cited authors, more fruits ripen during this period. However, our assumption was not confirmed.

We believe that the large number of records of feeding events and of interactions during the dry season stems from the high production of fruits by species such as *Rudgea viburnoides*, *Schefflera morototoni* and *Miconia staminea*. According to Snow (1981), species of these three genera are very important in the diet of frugivorous birds in the Neotropics, because their fruits are eaten by specialist and generalist frugivores. Firstly, the three species have small fruits (< 1 cm), which enables them to be eaten by frugivores of all sizes. *Rudgea viburnoides* and *Miconia staminea* belong to the two most important families of plants for tropical frugivorous birds (Rubiaceae and Melastomataceae, respectively) and, because their fruits are succulent, they are appreciated by a variety of frugivorous birds, especially the small ones that feed in the lower strata of the vegetation (Snow 1981, Maruyama et al. 2013). On the other hand, the fruit of *Schefflera morototoni* is rich in lipids and proteins (Snow 1971), and therefore also attracts a wide variety of frugivores ranging from the smallest to the largest (Saracco et al. 2005, Parrini et al. 2013).

It should also be noted that highly abundant species such as *Turdus leucomelas*, which alone accounted for 25% of the recorded feeding events, may have influenced the high number of feeding events recorded in the forests during the dry season, which may explain the fact that we found no difference in the qualitative matrix of interactions. Thus, we emphasize that it is important to consider the abundance of frugivores, as well as the number of recorded feeding events, and not only the presence/absence of interactions. During the dry season, for example, the number of feeding events recorded for *Turdus leucomelas* in forest areas was about 90% higher than in the rainy season. Most of the species recorded in forests also showed a remarkable increase in recorded feeding events in the dry season. This may be due to temporal and spatial variations in food resources, such as lower abundance of invertebrates and ripe fruits in open areas in the dry season (Macedo 2002). These factors are extremely important and can influence the movement of birds between forest and savanna habitats.

We observed that the composition of frugivorous birds differs between savanna and forest formations. This contradicted our hypothesis since, according to Bagno & Marinho-Filho (2001), most bird species in the Cerrado occur in both savanna and forest formations. However, this does not seem to apply when only frugivorous birds are involved (Vieira et al. 2013), probably due to the dependence of mandatory frugivores [e.g., *Ramphastos vitellinus* Lichtenstein, 1823 and *Antilophia galeata* (Lichtenstein, 1823)] on forest environments.

Based on the composition of avian frugivores (Table 1), it was found that the diet of approximately 80% of the recorded

bird species is not based on fruits, but that they simply complement their diet with this type of resource. Thus, we believe that during the dry season, when there is a scarcity of other food items [such as small arthropods (Macedo 2002, Manhães 2003)], there is an increase in fruit consumption. Moreover, in situations of water deficit, consuming fruit is one of the main ways to obtain water (Argel-de-Oliveira 1998). Thus, species that do not usually consume fruits begin to use this resource in the dry season, which may explain the increase in the records of feeding events and bird-plant interactions during this period.

Our findings suggest that there is a shift of frugivorous bird species and particularly of individuals between savanna and forest formations in response to fluctuations in food resources, which are influenced by the strong climate seasonality of the Cerrado (Macedo 2002, Manhães 2003). Future studies to evaluate temporal and spatial fluctuations in the composition and abundance of bird species in the different vegetation formations of the Cerrado, as well as the availability of food resources, may complement and strengthen our findings. However, we already have strong evidence that forests represent important foraging areas for frugivorous birds during the dry season. Thus, the conservation of forest areas in predominantly savanna-like ecosystems such as the Cerrado is extremely important for frugivorous birds, thus ensuring the preservation of frugivore-plant interactions.

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Coloration of the testicular peritoneal sheath as a synapomorphy of triatomines (Hemiptera, Reduviidae)

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ALEVI, K.C.C., OLIVEIRA, J., ROSA, J.A., AZEREDO-OLIVEIRA, M.T.V. **Coloration of the testicular peritoneal sheath as a synapomorphy of triatomines (Hemiptera, Reduviidae)**. Biota Neotropica. 14(4): e20140099. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1590/1676-06032014009914>

Abstract: Recently, were described some morphological characteristics of 18 species of terrestrial hemipteran grouped in the Alydidae, Coreidae, Corimelaenidae, Lygaeidae, Rhopalidae, Scutelleridae, Tingidae and Reduviidae family that presented found variation in coloration of testicular peritoneal sheath (Reddish, Orange, Yellowish or Transparent). Thus, this study aims to analyzed the coloration of the peritoneal sheath in 44 species of triatomines grouped in nine different genera, with the aim of analyze whether the insects of the Triatominae subfamily also show variations in coloration. By means of analysis of the sheath was possible to observe that members of this subfamily have no interspecific differences, because all species have a transparent sheath. Thus, this paper describes the coloring of the peritoneal sheath in 44 species of the subfamily Triatominae and mainly suggests that the transparent color is one synapomorphy of this important group of insect vectors.

Keywords: testicle, Heteroptera, Triatominae subfamily.

ALEVI, K.C.C., OLIVEIRA, J., ROSA, J.A., AZEREDO-OLIVEIRA, M.T.V. **Coloração da bainha peritoneal testicular como uma sinapomorfia dos triatômíneos (Hemiptera, Reduviidae)**. Biota Neotropica. 14(4): e20140099. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1590/1676-06032014009914>

Resumo: Recentemente, foram descritas algumas características morfológicas de 18 espécies de hemípteros terrestres agrupados nas famílias Alydidae, Coreidae, Corimelaenidae, Lygaeidae, Rhopalidae, Scutelleridae, Tingidae e Reduviidae que apresentaram grandes variações na coloração da bainha peritoneal testicular (avermelhada, alaranjada, amarelada ou transparente). Assim, este estudo teve como objetivo analisar a coloração da bainha peritoneal em 44 espécies de triatômíneos agrupadas em nove gêneros diferentes, com o intuito de analisar se os insetos da subfamília Triatominae também apresentam variações na coloração da bainha. Por meio da análise da bainha, foi possível observar que os membros desta subfamília não apresentaram diferenças interespecíficas, pois todas as espécies analisadas possuem bainha transparente. Assim, o presente trabalho descreve a coloração da bainha peritoneal em 44 espécies da subfamília Triatominae e, principalmente, sugere que a cor transparente é uma sinapomorfia deste importante grupo de insetos vetores.

Palavras-chave: testículo, Heteroptera, subfamília Triatominae.

Introduction

Triatomines are hematophagous insects of medico-sanitary importance because they are considered as the main vector of Chagas disease in the human population. These vectors are included in the Hemiptera order, Heteroptera suborder, Reduviidae family and Triatominae subfamily (Lent & Wygodzinsky 1979).

The knowledge of the biology of these vectors is of great importance to public health, because the main way to minimize

the incidence of Chagas disease is by controlling populations (Dias & Schofield 1998, Alevi et al. 2012a). The reproductive biology of hemipterans was extensively studied by many aspects, such as anatomical (Barth 1956, Freitas et al. 2008), morphological (Gomes et al. 2013, Rosa et al. 2014), structural (Freitas et al. 2010, Silistino-Souza et al. 2012), ultrastructural (Morielle-Souza et al. 2010, Freitas et al. 2010, Silistino-Souza et al. 2012) and cytogenetic (Alevi et al. 2012a, b, 2013a, b, c, d, 2014a, b).

Recently, Gomes et al. (2013) described some morphological traits of 18 species of terrestrial hemipteran grouped in the

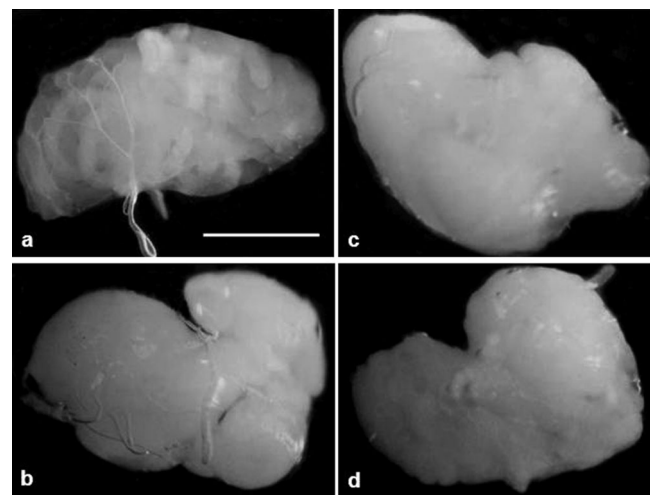
Table 1. Genus and species of Triatominae who had the peritoneal sheath analyzed.

Genus	Species
<i>Cavernicola</i>	<i>C. pilosa</i>
<i>Psammolestes</i>	<i>P. tertius</i>
<i>Rhodnius</i>	<i>R. brethesi</i> , <i>R. colombiensis</i> , <i>R. domesticus</i> , <i>R. montenegrensis</i> , <i>R. nasutus</i> , <i>R. neglectus</i> , <i>R. neivai</i> , <i>R. palescens</i> , <i>R. pictipes</i> , <i>R. prolixus</i> , <i>R. robustus</i>
<i>Dipetalogaster</i>	<i>D. maximus</i>
<i>Eratyrus</i>	<i>E. cuspidatus</i>
<i>Meccus</i>	<i>M. pallidipennis</i> , <i>M. longipennis</i>
<i>Mepraia</i>	<i>M. spinolai</i>
<i>Panstrongylus</i>	<i>P. lignarius</i> (= <i>P. herrerii</i>), <i>P. megistus</i>
<i>Triatoma</i>	<i>T. baratai</i> , <i>T. brasiliensis</i> , <i>T. b. macromelasoma</i> , <i>T. carcavalloii</i> , <i>T. costalimai</i> , <i>T. infestans</i> , <i>T. guazu</i> , <i>T. juazeirensis</i> , <i>T. klugi</i> , <i>T. lectularia</i> , <i>T. lenti</i> , <i>T. maculata</i> , <i>T. melanica</i> , <i>T. melanocephala</i> , <i>T. platensis</i> , <i>T. protracta</i> , <i>T. pseudomaculata</i> , <i>T. rubrovaria</i> , <i>T. rubrofasciata</i> , <i>T. sordida</i> , <i>T. tibiamaculata</i> , <i>T. vanda</i> , <i>T. vitticeps</i> , <i>T. williami</i>

Alydidae, Coreidae, Corimelaenidae, Lygaeidae, Rhopalidae, Scutelleridae, Tingidae and Reduviidae family. Among the characteristics, the color of the peritoneal sheath covering the seminiferous tubules was analyzed. The authors found variation in coloration of sheath (Reddish, Orange, Yellowish or Transparent). Thus, this study aims to analyze the peritoneal sheath in 44 species of triatomines grouped in nine different genera (Table 1), with the aim of analyze whether the insects of the Triatominae subfamily also show variations in coloration.

Material and Methods

Exemplars males of 44 species (Table 1) were provided by "Triatominae Insectarium" within the Department of

**Figure 1.** Peritoneal sheath of different genus of the subfamily Triatominae analyzed. Note that in all genus the sheath is transparent. (a) *T. infestans*. (b) *M. pallidipennis*. (c) *P. megistus*. (d) *D. maximus*. Bar: 10 mm.

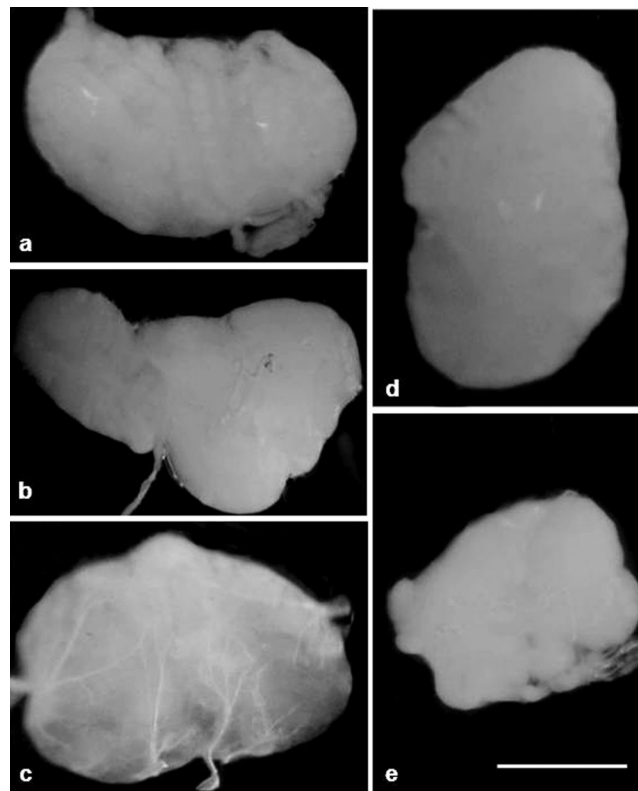
Biological Sciences, in the College of Pharmaceutical Sciences, at Sao Paulo State University's Araraquara campus, Brazil (FCFAR/UNESP). The testicles were removed and photographed according to the methodology of Gomes et al. (2013).

Results and Discussion

The analysis of the peritoneal sheath of 44 species possible to observe that members of Triatominae subfamily have no interspecific differences, as described by Gomes et al (2013) for phytophagous hemipterans, because all species have a transparent sheath. Like all species of nine genera analyzed show the same coloring, we represent with image the testicle of one species of each genus (Figures 1 and 2).

The insects of the subfamily Triatominae share synapomorphies related to reproductive biology, such as the presence of chromosomes holocentric (Panzera et al. 1996), inverted meiosis for sex chromosomes (Gómez-Palacio et al. 2008), the phenomenon of nucleolar persistence during meiosis (Tartarotti & Azeredo-Oliveira 1999, Alevi et al. 2014c), nucleolar inactivation during spermiogenesis (Alevi et al. 2014b), presence seven testicular follicles (Schreiber et al. 1968) and testicular peritoneal sheath transparent (this paper), demonstrating that during the evolution and speciation of the triatomines, the reproductive aspects undergone few modifications.

Thus, this paper describes the coloring of the peritoneal sheath in 44 species of the subfamily Triatominae and mainly suggests that the transparent color is one synapomorphy of this important group of insect vectors.

**Figure 2.** Peritoneal sheath of different genus of the subfamily Triatominae analyzed. Note that in all genus the sheath is transparent. (a) *M. spinolai*. (b) *E. cuspidatus*. (c) *P. tertius*. (d) *R. montenegrensis*. (e) *C. pilosa*. Bar: 10 mm.

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Bony fishes (Teleostei) caught by small-scale fisheries off central to south coast of São Paulo State, Southeastern Brazil

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MOTTA, F.S., ROSA, M.R., NAMORA, R.C., GADIG, O.B.F. **Bony fishes (Teleostei) caught by small-scale fisheries off central to south coast of São Paulo State, Southeastern Brazil.** Biota Neotropica. 14(4): e20140007. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1590/1676-06032014000714>

Abstract: Small-scale fisheries have a great socioeconomic importance in Brazil. Different regional characteristics along the coast, mostly related to landing sites, equipment used, and targeted species, renders its assessment and monitoring difficult. The aim of this paper is to present a list of species of bony fishes (Teleostei) caught by artisanal fisheries along the São Paulo coast, southeastern Brazil and to provide comments on the relative abundance and conservation status of those species. A total of 315 fishing fleet landings were surveyed, and 106 species distributed among 38 families were recorded. Sciaenidae and Carangidae were the most frequent families in species number. The southern king weakfish, *Macrodon atricauda*, was the most abundant species, representing 28.03% of the total number of specimens caught. Eleven of the most abundant species are classified as Overexploited in the country or as Near Threatened in the state of São Paulo. These findings reinforce the relevance of assessing and managing artisanal fisheries.

Keywords: artisanal fisheries, ichthyofauna, species list, western Atlantic.

MOTTA, F.S., ROSA, M.R., NAMORA, R.C., GADIG, O.B.F. **Peixes ósseos (Teleostei) capturados pela pesca de pequena escala na costa centro-sul de São Paulo, Sudeste do Brasil.** Biota Neotropica. 14(4): e20140007. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1590/1676-06032014000714>

Resumo: A pesca de pequena escala tem uma grande importância socioeconômica no Brasil. Diferenças regionais ao longo da costa, relacionadas principalmente aos locais de desembarque, artes de pesca e espécies- alvo tornam a sua avaliação e monitoramento difíceis. O objetivo do presente estudo foi apresentar uma lista das espécies de peixes ósseos capturadas pela pesca artesanal na costa de São Paulo, sudeste do Brasil, com comentários sobre a sua abundância relativa e estado de conservação. Foram monitorados 315 desembarques da frota pesqueira, registrando 106 espécies, distribuídas em 38 famílias. As famílias Sciaenidae e Carangidae foram as mais representativas em número de espécies. A pescada amarela, *Macrodon atricauda*, foi a espécie mais abundante, correspondendo a 28,03% do número total de peixes capturados. Onze das espécies mais abundantes são classificadas como Sobre-explotadas no país ou Próximo de Ameaça de Extinção no estado de São Paulo. Esses resultados reforçam a relevância de avaliar e manejar as pescarias artesanais.

Palavras-chave: pesca artesanal, ictiofauna, lista de espécies, Atlântico Ocidental.

Introduction

Despite a lack of government support, small-scale fisheries still have high socioeconomic relevance along the Brazilian coast, with about one million people involved in this activity (Vasconcellos et al. 2011). Even in the southeast region, where industrial fisheries account for most landings, the artisanal sector is still responsible for almost 40% of production (Vasconcellos et al. 2007). This situation reinforces the importance of understanding, assessing and effectively

managing coastal fisheries (Salas et al. 2011). However, statistical data and basic information, including the species richness of fishes caught, are both still scarce and incomplete (Alves et al. 2009, Salas et al. 2011).

In São Paulo state, southern Brazil, most of the fish species inventories conducted have occurred along the northern and central coasts (Braga & Goitein 1984, Lopes et al. 1993, Giannini & Paiva-Filho 1995, Muto et al. 2000, Gibran & Moura 2012). Few surveys have focused on the southern to central portion of the São Paulo coast (e.g. Zani-Teixeira &

Paiva-Filho 1981). All of the studies cited were also based on scientific collecting and are therefore not adequate for evaluating the interaction between artisanal fisheries and coastal fish assemblages. This paper provides a checklist of the species of bony fishes (Actinopterygii: Teleostei) caught by small-scale fisheries along the central to south coast of São Paulo state. Comments on the relative abundance and conservation status of the species recorded are also included.

Materials and Methods

This report is associated with a long-term research on the fishery biology of coastal elasmobranchs off southeastern Brazil (PROJETO CAÇÃO), started in 1996 (Gadig et al. 2002). Species were recorded based on weekly sampling from artisanal fisheries that operate along the central to south coast of São Paulo state. The samplings were taken from landings on

the “Praia dos Pescadores” (Fishermen’s Beach), city of Itanhaém (24°11’S; 46°48’W).

The fishing operations in question cover an area of approximately 600 km², with the cities of Mongaguá and Peruibe making up the northern and southern limits, respectively (Figure 1). This region lies within the inner continental shelf, with a mean water temperature of 24°C and an average salinity of 34.5 (Freitas & Muelbert, 2004). The substrate is largely composed of fine sand, with less than 30% calcium carbonate (Figueiredo & Tessler, 2004). Primary productivity in the region is mainly driven by seasonal upwellings of nutrient-rich, cold subtropical waters caused by alongshore winds and by cyclonic vortices that come from the Brazil Current (Bakun & Parrish 1990, Matsuura 1995, Vasconcellos & Gasalla 2001).

This fishery fleet consists of approximately 28 small-motorized boats (4-10 m long), which fish mainly with gillnets and single shrimp otter trawl nets. Gillnets are made of nylon

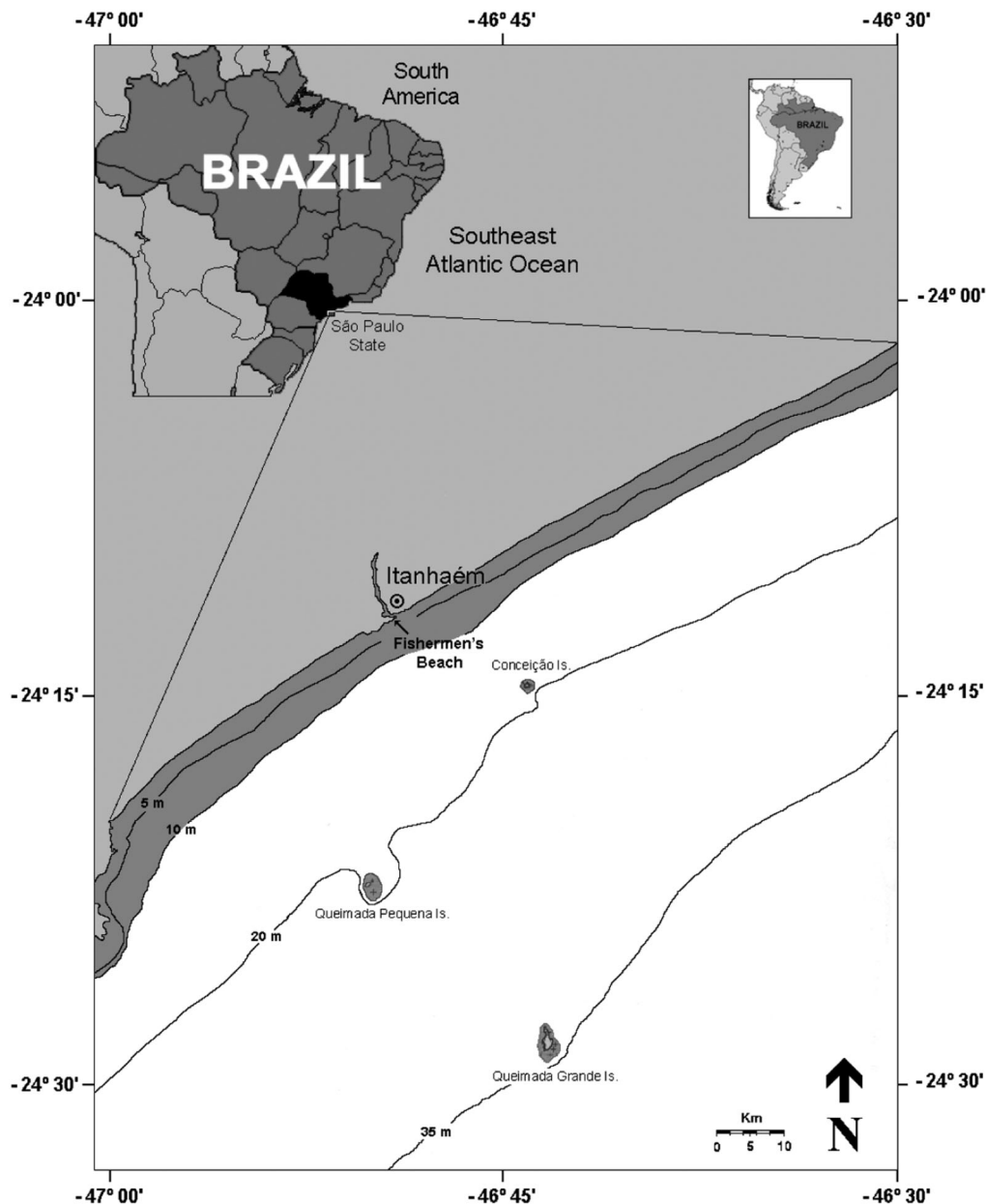


Figure 1. Map of study area, indicating the landing point of the small-scale fishery fleet in Itanhaém, southeastern Brazil.

Table 1. Checklist of species of the Teleostei captured by small-scale fisheries in the central to south coast of São Paulo State, Southeastern Brazil. Conservation status according to different level assessments: Needing Management Actions (NMA), Overexploited (OE), Data-Deficient (DD), Least-Concern (LC), Near-Threatened (NT), Vulnerable (VU); Endangered (EN), not evaluated species (-).

Order	Family	Species	State	Brazil	IUCN
Elopiformes	Elopidae	<i>Elops smith</i> McBride, Rocha, Ruiz-Carus & Bowen 2010	---	---	LC
Anguilliformes	Ophichthidae	<i>Myrophis punctatus</i> Lütken, 1852	---	---	---
Clupeiformes	Clupeidae	<i>Brevoortia aurea</i> (Spix & Agassiz, 1829)	---	---	---
		<i>Brevoortia pectinata</i> (Jenyns, 1842)	---	---	---
		<i>Harengula clupeola</i> (Cuvier, 1829)	DD	---	---
		<i>Opisthonema oglinum</i> (Lesueur, 1818)	NT	---	---
		<i>Pellona harroweri</i> (Fowler, 1917)	--	--	--
	Engraulidae	<i>Anchoa spinifer</i> (Valenciennes, 1848)	DD	---	---
		<i>Anchoviella lepidentostole</i> (Fowler, 1911)	NT	---	---
		<i>Lycengraulis grossidens</i> (Spix & Agassiz, 1829)	--	--	--
Siluriformes	Ariidae	<i>Bagre bagre</i> (Linnaeus, 1766)	DD	---	---
		<i>Bagre marinus</i> (Mitchill, 1815)	NT	---	---
		<i>Cathorops spixii</i> (Agassiz, 1829)	--	--	--
		<i>Genidens barbatus</i> (Lacepede, 1803)	NMA	OE	---
		<i>Genidens genidens</i> (Cuvier, 1829)	DD	---	LC
		<i>Notarius grandicassis</i> (Valenciennes, 1840)	DD	---	---
Aulopiformes	Synodontidae	<i>Synodus foetens</i> (Linnaeus, 1766)	---	---	---
Gadiformes	Phycidae	<i>Urophycis brasiliensis</i> (Kaup, 1858)	NMA	---	---
Batrachoidiformes	Batrachoididae	<i>Porichthys porosissimus</i> (Cuvier, 1829)	NT	---	---
Syngnathiformes	Fistulariidae	<i>Fistularia petimba</i> Lacepède, 1803	---	---	---
		<i>Fistularia tabacaria</i> Linnaeus, 1758	---	---	---
	Dactylopteridae	<i>Dactylopterus volitans</i> (Linnaeus, 1758)	---	---	---
Scombriformes	Pomatomidae	<i>Pomatomus saltatrix</i> (Linnaeus, 1766)	NT	OE	---
	Scombridae	<i>Auxis thazard</i> (Lacepède, 1800)	DD	---	LC
		<i>Scomberomorus brasiliensis</i> Collette, Russo & Zavala-Camin, 1978	DD	---	LC
		<i>Scomberomorus cavalla</i> (Cuvier, 1829)	---	---	LC
	Stromateidae	<i>Peprilus paru</i> (Linnaeus, 1758)	DD	---	LC
	Trichiuridae	<i>Trichiurus lepturus</i> Linnaeus, 1758	---	---	---
Carangaria	Centropomidae				

Continued on next page

Table 1. Continued.

Order	Family	Species	State	Brazil	IUCN
Carangiformes	Polynemidae	<i>Centropomus parallelus</i> Poey, 1860	NT	---	---
		<i>Centropomus undecimalis</i> (Bloch, 1792)	NT	---	---
		<i>Polydactylus virginicus</i> (Linnaeus, 1758)	--	--	--
	Sphyraenidae	<i>Sphyraena barracuda</i> (Edwards, 1771)	DD	---	---
		<i>Sphyraena guachancho</i> Cuvier, 1829	DD	---	---
	Carangidae	<i>Carangoides bartholomaei</i> (Cuvier, 1833)	---	---	---
		<i>Caranx crysos</i> (Mitchill, 1815)	---	---	LC
		<i>Caranx hippos</i> (Linnaeus, 1766)	---	---	---
		<i>Caranx latus</i> Agassiz, 1831	---	---	---
		<i>Chloroscombrus chrysurus</i> (Linnaeus, 1766)	--	--	--
		<i>Hemicaranx amblyrhynchus</i> (Cuvier, 1833)	--	--	--
		<i>Oligoplites palometa</i> (Cuvier, 1832)	--	--	--
		<i>Oligoplites saliens</i> (Bloch, 1793)	--	--	--
		<i>Oligoplites saurus</i> (Bloch & Schneider, 1801)	--	--	--
		<i>Parona signata</i> (Jenyns, 1841)	--	--	--
		<i>Selene setapinnis</i> (Mitchill, 1815)	NT	--	--
		<i>Selene vomer</i> (Linnaeus, 1758)	NT	--	--
		<i>Trachinotus carolinus</i> (Linnaeus, 1766)	--	--	--
		<i>Trachinotus falcatus</i> (Linnaeus, 1758)	--	--	--
		<i>Trachinotus goodei</i> Jordan & Evermann, 1896	--	--	LC
		<i>Trachinotus marginatus</i> Cuvier, 1832	--	--	--
	Coryphaenidae	<i>Coryphaena hippurus</i> Linnaeus, 1758	DD	--	LC
	Rachycentridae	<i>Rachycentron canadum</i> (Linnaeus, 1766)		--	--
Pleuronectiformes	Achiridae	<i>Trinectes microphthalmus</i> (Chabanaud, 1928)	DD	--	--
		<i>Trinectes paulistanus</i> (Miranda Ribeiro, 1915)	DD	--	--
	Cynoglossidae	<i>Symphurus tessellatus</i> (Quoy & Gaimard, 1824)	--	--	--
	Paralichthyidae	<i>Citharichthys spilopterus</i> Günther, 1862	DD	--	--
		<i>Syacium papillosum</i> (Linnaeus, 1758)	DD	--	--
		<i>Paralichthys brasiliensis</i> (Ranzani, 1842)	NT	--	--
		<i>Paralichthys patagonicus</i> Jordan, 1889	NT	--	--
Mugiliformes	Mugilidae	<i>Mugil lisa</i> Valenciennes, 1836	NMA	--	--
		<i>Mugil curema</i> Valenciennes, 1836	DD	--	--
Eupercaria	Gerreidae	<i>Diapterus rhombeus</i> (Cuvier, 1829)	--	--	--
		<i>Eucinostomus argenteus</i> Baird & Girard, 1855	--	--	--
		<i>Eugerres brasiliensis</i> (Cuvier, 1830)	DD	--	--
	Haemulidae	<i>Anisotremus surinamensis</i> (Bloch, 1791)	--	--	--
		<i>Anisotremus virginicus</i> (Linnaeus, 1758)	--	--	--
		<i>Boridia grossidens</i> Cuvier, 1830	DD	--	--
		<i>Conodon nobilis</i> (Linnaeus, 1758)	DD	--	--
		<i>Haemulon steindachneri</i> (Jordan & Gilbert, 1882)	--	--	LC
		<i>Orthopristis ruber</i> (Cuvier, 1830)	NT	--	--
		<i>Pomadasys corvinaeformis</i> (Steindachner, 1868)	--	--	--

Continued on next page

Table 1. Continued.

Order	Family	Species	State	Brazil	IUCN
	Lutjanidae	<i>Lutjanus analis</i> (Cuvier, 1828)	NMA	OE	VU
		<i>Lutjanus synagris</i> (Linnaeus, 1758)	--	--	--
	Sciaenidae	<i>Bairdiella ronchus</i> (Cuvier, 1830)	DD	--	--
		<i>Cynoscion acoupa</i> (Lacepède, 1801)	DD	--	LC
		<i>Cynoscion guatucupa</i> (Cuvier, 1830)	NMA	OE	--
		<i>Cynoscion jamaicensis</i> (Vaillant & Bocourt, 1883)	NT	--	--
		<i>Cynoscion leiarchus</i> (Cuvier, 1830)	DD	--	--
		<i>Cynoscion microlepidotus</i> (Cuvier, 1830)	DD	--	--
		<i>Cynoscion virescens</i> (Cuvier, 1830)	NT	--	--
		<i>Isopisthus parvipinnis</i> (Cuvier, 1830)	--	--	--
		<i>Larimus breviceps</i> Cuvier, 1830	--	--	--
		<i>Macrodon atricauda</i> (Günther, 1880)	NMA	OE	--
		<i>Menticirrhus americanus</i> (Linnaeus, 1758)	NT	--	--
		<i>Menticirrhus littoralis</i> (Holbrook, 1847)	NT	--	--
		<i>Micropogonias furnieri</i> (Desmarest, 1823)	NMA	OE	--
		<i>Nebris microps</i> Cuvier, 1830	DD	--	--
		<i>Paralonchurus brasiliensis</i> (Steindachner, 1875)	NT	--	--
		<i>Stellifer brasiliensis</i> (Schultz, 1945)	--	--	--
		<i>Stellifer rastrifer</i> (Jordan, 1889)	--	--	--
		<i>Stellifer stellifer</i> (Bloch, 1790)	DD	--	--
		<i>Umbrina coroides</i> Cuvier, 1830	--	--	--
Lobotiformes	Lobotidae	<i>Lobotes surinamensis</i> (Bloch, 1790)	DD	--	--
Ephippiformes	Ephippidae	<i>Chaetodipterus faber</i> (Broussonet, 1782)	--	--	--
Spariformes	Sparidae	<i>Diplodus argenteus</i> (Valenciennes, 1830)	--	--	--
Lophiiformes	Ogcocephalidae	<i>Ogcocephalus vespertilio</i> (Linnaeus, 1758)	--	--	--
Tetraodontiformes	Diodontidae	<i>Chilomycterus reticulatus</i> (Linnaeus, 1758)	--	--	--
	Tetraodontidae	<i>Lagocephalus laevigatus</i> (Linnaeus, 1766)	--	--	--
		<i>Sphoeroides testudineus</i> (Linnaeus, 1758)	DD	--	--
	Balistidae	<i>Balistes capriscus</i> Gmelin, 1789	NMA	--	--
		<i>Stephanolepis hispidus</i> (Linnaeus, 1766)	--	--	--
Perciformes	Serranidae	<i>Epinephelus marginatus</i> (Lowe, 1834)	NMA	OE	EN
		<i>Hyporthodus niveatus</i> (Valenciennes, 1828)	NMA	OE	VU
		<i>Mycteroperca acutirostris</i> (Valenciennes, 1828)	--	--	LC
		<i>Diplectrum radiale</i> (Quoy & Gaimard, 1824)	--	--	--
	Scorpaenidae	<i>Scorpaena isthmensis</i> Meek & Hildebrand, 1928	--	--	--
	Triglidae	<i>Prionotus punctatus</i> (Bloch, 1793)	--	--	--

Vouchers used as reference: *Rachycentron canadum* AZUSC 165, *Hyporthodus niveatus* AZUSC 424, *Synodus foetens* AZUSC 431, *Stephanolepis hispidus* AZUSC 898, *Parona signata* AZUSC 3654

monofilament with 1500 m in length and stretched mesh sizes varying between 7 and 14 cm. The height of the nets varies between 1.7 and 3.5 m. Nets were set up between 12 to 24 hours, within an area of 0.5 to 12 nautical miles from the shore, in waters between 5 and 35 m deep. Other fishing gear used seasonally include driftnet, trammel nets and large-sized gillnets. More detailed descriptions of those fisheries are presented by Namora et al. (2009). There are two marine protected areas in the region, the “Tupiniquins” Ecological Station (corresponding to IUCN Category Ia), created in 1986, with an area of 20 km², and the “Litoral Centro” Environmental Protected Area (corresponding to IUCN Category V), established in 2008 and comprising an area of 4,531 km².

This checklist was based on 315 fishery fleet landings monitored between July 1996 and March 2007. To evaluate the relative abundance of species, 33 field campaigns were carried out in order to count the specimens landed between April 2004 and October 2006. The orders and families were listed in phylogenetic order according to Betancur-R et al. (2014), and the species were organized within each family in alphabetical order. The conservation status of the species were based on global (IUCN 2013), national (Machado et al. 2005), and regional (São Paulo State 2014) levels. Voucher specimens of the some species collected during the study were deposited in the ichthyology collection of the “Acervo Zoológico da Unisanta” (AZUSC), in the city of Santos, São Paulo.

Results and Discussion

A total of 106 species, distributed among 78 genera, 38 families and 20 orders of the Teleostei were recorded (Table 1) over 10 years. The most speciose family recorded was Sciaenidae (19 species = 17.9%), followed by Carangidae (16 = 15.1%), Haemulidae (7 = 6.6%), Ariidae (6 = 5.7%), Clupeidae (5 = 4.7%), and Serranidae (4 = 3.8%).

The number of species recorded is higher than the amounts recorded during previous experimental studies conducted with beach or otter trawl nets in other regions off the coast of São Paulo state. Braga & Goitein (1984), for instance, recorded 57 species, whereas Lopes et al. (1993), Giannini & Paiva-Filho (1995) and Muto et al. (2000) recorded 78, 98 species, and 83 species, respectively. When compared to monitoring of fishing activities in adjacent areas, the number of species recorded in this study is approximately 2.5 times higher than that of Bertozzi & Zerbini (2002), which recorded 42 species off the city of “Praia Grande”. The difference in terms of number of recorded species in this study is likely related to several factors, including the total area of operation of the fleet surveyed, the fishing gear selectivity, the magnitude of both sampling and fishing effort, and the spatial and temporal distribution of species. In the current study, for instance the fishing operation area and the magnitude of sampling and fishing effort were higher than those previous studies.

Between April 2004 and October 2006, 11,443 fish specimens of 74 species, 59 genera and 31 families were recorded. The southern king weakfish, *Macrodon atricauda* (Günther, 1880), and the gulf kingcroaker, *Menticirrhus littoralis* (Holbrook, 1847), were the most abundant species, representing 28.03% and 12.48% of the total number of specimens recorded, respectively (Table 2). Among the 20 most abundant species, 10 (50%) belonged to Sciaenidae. This finding highlight the abundance of the group in the coastal waters and its relevance

Table 2. Relative abundance (> 0.5% of the total catch) of species caught by small-scale fisheries in the central to south coast of São Paulo State, Southeastern Brazil, between April 2004 and October 2006. Number of specimens (N); Percentage of the total catch (%).

Species	N	%
<i>Macrodon atricauda</i>	3208	28.03
<i>Menticirrhus littoralis</i>	1428	12.48
<i>Larimus breviceps</i>	781	6.83
<i>Bagre bagre</i>	701	6.13
<i>Oligoplites saliens</i>	673	5.88
<i>Stellifer rastrifer</i>	670	5.86
<i>Micropogonias furnieri</i>	621	5.43
<i>Nebris microps</i>	351	3.07
<i>Trichiurus lepturus</i>	262	2.29
<i>Scomberomorus brasiliensis</i>	252	2.20
<i>Genidens barbatus</i>	249	2.18
<i>Bagre marinus</i>	226	1.98
<i>Notarius grandicassis</i>	221	1.93
<i>Paralichthys brasiliensis</i>	182	1.59
<i>Chloroscombrus chrysurus</i>	156	1.36
<i>Menticirrhus americanus</i>	139	1.21
<i>Cynoscion virescens</i>	127	1.11
<i>Stellifer brasiliensis</i>	122	1.07
<i>Peprilus paru</i>	119	1.04
<i>Genidens genidens</i>	104	0.91
<i>Cynoscion jamaicensis</i>	92	0.80
<i>Isopisthus parvipinnis</i>	72	0.63
<i>Selene setapinnis</i>	67	0.59
<i>Centropomus undecimalis</i>	60	0.52

to artisanal fisheries. Previous studies conducted off the coast of São Paulo state also reported a relative dominance of Sciaenidae species (Braga & Goitein 1984, Lopes et al. 1993, Giannini & Paiva-Filho 1995, Muto et al. 2000).

Out of the total number of species recorded, 59 (55.6%) have had their conservation statuses assessed on at least one geographic scale. At the global level, one species was evaluated as Endangered (*Epinephelus marginatus*), two species were considered Vulnerable (*Hyporhamphus niveatus* and *Lutjanus analis*) and 12 were considered to be of Least Concern (Table 1). Regional and national assessments have adopted other categories in addition to those provided by the IUCN. At the national level (on the Brazilian list), eight species were considered Overexploited (Table 1), whereas in the São Paulo state list, ten species were evaluated as Needing Management Actions, 17 were considered to be Near Threatened, and 27 were categorized as Data Deficient (Table 1). There is particular concern over the fact that 11 of the most frequently captured species are considered “Overexploited” (*Macrodon atricauda*, *Micropogonias furnieri*, *Genidens barbatus*) or “Near Threatened” (*Bagre marinus*, *Paralichthys brasiliensis*, *Cynoscion virescens*, *Cynoscion jamaicensis*, *Paralichthys brasiliensis*, *Menticirrhus americanus*, *Menticirrhus littoralis*, *Paralichthys brasiliensis*), reinforcing the importance of assessment programs and management actions for these fisheries.

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