

MICHELLE HELENA NERVO

**PADRÕES DE DIVERSIDADE DE SAMAMBAIAS E
LICÓFITAS EM UM GRADIENTE ALTITUDINAL NA
FLORESTA ATLÂNTICA NO SUL DO
BRASIL**

Porto Alegre – RS

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UNIVERSIDADE FEDERAL DO RIO GRANDE DO SUL
DEPARTAMENTO DE BOTÂNICA
PROGRAMA DE PÓS-GRADUAÇÃO EM BOTÂNICA

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MICHELLE HELENA NERVO

Tese apresentada ao Programa de Pós-Graduação
em Botânica da Universidade Federal do Rio
Grande do Sul, como parte dos requisitos para a
obtenção do título de Doutor em Botânica.

ORIENTAÇÃO: PROF. DR. GERHARD ERNST OVERBECK
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PORTO ALEGRE – RS
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BANCA EXAMINADORA

ORIENTADOR

Prof. Dr. Gerhard Ernst Overbeck

Universidade Federal do Rio Grande do Sul

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Universidade do Vale do Rio dos Sinos

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Universidade Federal do Rio Grande do Sul

SUPLENTE

Profa. Dra. Vanilde Citadini Zanette

Universidade Federal de Santa Catarina

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*“A mente que se abre a uma nova ideia
jamais voltará ao seu tamanho original.”*

Albert Einsteinr

SUMÁRIO

RESUMO	viii
ABSTRACT	x
INTRODUÇÃO GERAL	1
CAPÍTULO 1	
Fern and lycophyte communities at contrasting altitudes in Brazil's subtropical Atlantic Rain Forest	12
<i>Michelle Helena Nervo, Frederico Velho da Silva Coelho, Paulo Günter Windisch e Gerhard Ernst Overbeck</i>	
CAPÍTULO 2	
Space and abiotic factors are drivers of ferns and lycophytes diversity patterns along an elevational gradient in Southern Brazil.....	32
<i>Michelle Helena Nervo, Bianca Ott Andrade, Carlos Gustavo Tornquist, Paulo Günter Windisch e Gerhard Ernst Overbeck</i>	
CAPÍTULO 3	
First record of the genus Stigmatopteris (Dryopteridaceae) for the State of Rio Grande do Sul, Brazil	58
<i>Michelle Helena Nervo, Paulo Günter Windisch e Gerhard Ernst Overbeck</i>	

CONSIDERAÇÕES FINAIS	69
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ANEXOS.....	72
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LISTA DE TABELAS

CAPÍTULO 1

Tabela 1. Species richness at twenty sites in different altitudinal belts in the Atlantic Rain Forest, in northeastern Rio Grande do Sul state, Brazil. The second through fifth columns show recorded species richness at each study elevation for each substrate type and all species combined. Interpolated richness is the richness at each site under the assumption of continuous elevation ranges. Rarefaction estimates represent the expected number of species at 2,192 occurrences per site. Chao2 and Bootstrap are nonparametric estimates of total species richness, including undetected species. Percentage collected values were computed as (total species/ mean of Chao2 and Bootstrap) X 100. LO – lowlands, SU – submontane, MO – montane, UP – upper montane 16

Tabela 2. Mean diversity and richness ($\pm SD$) of fern and lycophytes specie in four forest formations situated at different altitudinal belts in the Atlantic Rain Forest in northeastern Rio Grande do Sul state, Brazil. Different letters in the same line indicate statistically significant differences at 5 % probability..... 18

Tabela 3. Floristic similarity of ferns and lycophytes in four formations situated in different altitudinal belts in the Atlantic Rain Forest in northeastern Rio Grande do Sul state, Brazil, indicated by the Sørensen index. LO – lowland, SU – submontane, MO – montane, UP – upper montane, IHM – internal heterogeneity measure (= Sørensen index calculated for all pairs of areas within one formation)..... 19

Tabela 4. Species with highest Importance Values (IV) in four formations situated at different altitudinal belts in the Atlantic Rain Forest in northeastern Rio Grande do Sul state, Brazil,

separately for epiphytic, terrestrial and rupicolous categories. The total corresponds to the sum of the IVs of the five most important species, for each formation 21

CAPÍTULO 2

Tabela 1. Environmental variables (climatic and edaphic) evaluated as possible predictors of plant community composition in forest types in elevational gradient of Atlantic Forest in southern Brazil. For edaphic variables, method for analysis is indicated 53

Tabela 2. Environmental and spatial variables selected with forward selection as predictors of community composition of all species in elevational gradient of Atlantic Forest in southern Brazil. Axes of RDA were selected after 999 permutations, with the following criteria: $R^2 > 0.5$, and not exceeding alpha = 0.1. ***P < 0.001; **P < 0.01; *P < 0.05 54

Tabela 3. Environmental and spatial variables selected with forward selection as predictors of epiphytic and terrestrial species abundance in elevational gradient of Atlantic Forest in southern Brazil. Axes of RDA were selected after 999 permutations, with the following criteria: $R^2 > 0.5$, and not exceeding alpha = 0.1. ***P < 0.001; **P < 0.01; *P < 0.05 55

LISTA DE FIGURAS

CAPÍTULO 1

Figura 1. Venn diagram showing proportions of shared species among the ferns and lycophytes in distinct forest formations in the Atlantic Rain Forest in northeastern Rio Grande do Sul state, Brazil 17

Figura. 2 Pooled sample-based rarefaction curve (solid line) with 95% confidence intervals (dashed line) for all fern species recorded at twenty sites (16 to 1001 m a.s.l.) in four different altitudinal belts in the Atlantic Rain Forest in northeastern Rio Grande do Sul state, Brazil .. 18

Figura 3. Schematic profile of the altitudinal gradient in southern Atlantic Rain Forest in northeastern Rio Grande do Sul state, Brazil, with values of total and average richness of ferns and lycophytes per altitudinal belt, as found in this study. Rt – total richness, Rh – total richness of epiphytes (green), terrestrial (brown) and rupicolous (blue). Note that one species may occur in more than one group (see text); Rm – mean richness per plot for epiphytes (green), terrestrial (brown) and rupicolous (blue). For each species group, the species with highest IV is depicted. Dick sell – *Dicksonia sellowiana*, Hym poly – *Hymenophyllum polyanthos*, Asp gast – *Asplenium gastonis*, Mic squa – *Microgramma squamulosa*, Did trun – *Didymochlaena truncatula*, Asp bras – *Asplenium brasiliense*, Mic vac – *Microgramma vaccinifolia*, Poly cyl – *Polybotria cylindrica*, Van radi – *Vandenboschia radicans*. Schematic profile modified from Brack (2009) 19

Figura 4. PCoA of forest areas of ferns and lycophytes communities in four forest formations situated at different altitudinal belts in the Atlantic Rain Forest in northeastern Rio Grande do

Sul state, Brazil: lowland (circles), submontane (rhombus), montane (triangles) and upper montane forests (squares). **a** – all species (including terrestrial, epiphytic and rupicolous species), described by presence/absence data. Explanation of axis 1 = 26% ($p < 0.05$) and of axis 2 = 9%; **b** – epiphytic ferns and lycophytes, described by abundance (relative frequency date). Explanation of axis 1 = 48% ($p < 0.05$) and of axis 2 = 18%; **c** – rupicolous ferns and lycophytes, described by abundance. Explanation of axis 1 = 31% ($p < 0.05$) and of axis 2 = 14%; **d** – terrestrial ferns and lycophytes, described by abundance. Explanation of axis 1 = 44% ($p > 0.05$) and of axis 2 = 13%. Species with higher correlation coefficients are shown in the diagrams; ab – *Asplenium brasiliense*, ac – *Asplenium clausenii*, ae – *Asplenium sellowianianum*, ag – *Asplenium gastonis*, ap – *Aplenium pseudonitidum*, ar – *Adiantum raddianum*, as – *Asplenium scandiscinum*, ba – *Blechnum auriculatum*, bb – *Blechnum acutum*, ca – *Campyloneurum acrocarpum*, cf – *Ctenitis fasciculate*, cg – *Campyloneurum aglaolepis*, cn – *Campyloneurum nitidum*, cr – *Campyloneurum rigidum*, cu – *Campyloneurum austrobrasiliatum*, dc – *Diplazium cristatum*, dd – *Dennstaedtia dissecta*, de – *Deparia petersenii*, dl – *Diplazium plantaginifolium*, do – *Diplazium rostratum*, ds – *Dicksonia sellowiana*, dt – *Didymochlaena truncatula*, ea – *Elaphoglossum auricomum*, el – *Eupodium kaulfussii*, es – *Elaphoglossum sellowianum*, eu – *Elaphoglossum luridum*, ev – *Elaphoglossum vagans*, he – *Hymenophyllum peltatum*, hi – *Histiopteris incisa*, hp: *Hymenophyllum polyanthos*, hu – *Hymenophyllum pulchellum*, lo – *Leucotrichum organense*, lq – *Lindsaea quadrangularis*, lv – *Lygodium volubile*, mc – *Megalastrum connexum*, mg – *Mickelia guianensis*, ms – *Microgramma squamulosa*, mt – *Macrothelypteris torresiana*, mv – *Microgramma vaccinifolia*, nr – *Niphidium rufosquamatum*, pb – *Pteris brasiliense*, pc – *Polybotrya cylindrica*, pd – *Pteris deflexa*, pf – *Pleopeltis pleopeltifolia*, ph – *Pleopeltis hirsutissima*, pi – *Pecluma sicca*, pl – *Polytaenium lineatum*, pn – *Psilotum nudum*, po – *Pecluma* sp., pr – *Pecluma robusta*, sm – *Serpocaulon meniscifolium*, su – *Selaginella muscosa*, ta – *Thelypteris amambayensis*, td – *Thelypteris dentate*, tn – *Trichomanes anadromum*, to – *Trichomanes polypodioides*, tp – *Tectaria pilosa*, tr – *Thelypteris rivularoides*, ts – *Thelypteris conspersa*, vr – *Vandenboschia radicans* 20

CAPÍTULO 2

Figura 1. Relative contribution of environmental (X_{Env}), space ($X_{MEMbroad}$), climate (X_{Clim}) and soil (X_{Soil}) to the variation in elevational gradient in ferns and lycophytes composition

and abundance. A-B: all species (Y_{all}); C-D: epiphytic (Y_{epi}); E-D: Terrestrial species (Y_{ter}).
 ***P < 0.001; **P < 0.01; *P < 0.05..... 49

Figura 2. Canonical correspondence analysis, showing the relationship between environmental variables (climate and soil) with the composition of ferns and lycophytes along the altitudinal gradient of the Atlantic Forest in southern Brazil under different forest formations. The environmental variables on the axis 1 explains 48% (CCA1) of variation. LO: Lowland, SU: submontane, MO: montane and UP: upper montane. Al: aluminum, Depth: depth soil, Hum: relative humidity of air, Insol: solar insolation, O.M.: soil organic matter, ph: soil acidity, Prec: precipitation, Wind: wind speed..... 50

Figura 3. Canonical correspondence analysis, showing the relationship between environmental variables (climate and soil) with the epiphytic abundance of ferns and lycophytes along the altitudinal gradient of the Atlantic Forest in southern Brazil under different forest formations. The environmental variables on the axis 1 explains 50% (CCA1) of variation. LO: Lowland, SU: submontane, MO: montane, UP: upper montane, Al: aluminum, Ca: calcium, Hum: relative humidity of air, Insol: solar insolation, ph: soil acidity, Tmin: minimum temperature, Wind: wind speed..... 51

Figure 4. Canonical correspondence analysis, showing the relationship between environmental variables (climate and soil) with the terrestrial abundance of ferns and lycophytes along the altitudinal gradient of the Atlantic Forest in Southern Brazil under different forest formations. The environmental variables on the axis 1 explains 54% (CCA1) of the variation. LO: Lowland, SU: submontane, MO: montane, UP: upper montane, Al: aluminum, Ca: calcium, Hum: relative humidity of air, Insol: solar insolation, ph: soil acidity, Tmin: minimum temperature, Wind: wind speed..... 52

CAPÍTULO 3

Figura 1. Morphological details of the *Stigmatopteris heterocarpa*. A: Habit; B–D: Pinnae detail, venation and sori. Scale bar: A–C (15 cm) and D (1 cm)..... 67

Figura 2. Distribution of *Stigmatopteris heterocarpa* in Brazil (based on records shown by speciesLink Project; CRIA 2014). The red circle represents the new record (Morrinhos do Sul–Rio Grande do Sul)..... 68

LISTA DE MATERIAL SUPLEMENTAR

CAPÍTULO 1

Material suplementar 1. Characteristics of the different study sites in Atlantic Rain Forest in northeastern Rio Grande do Sul state, Brazil, in four forest formations: Lowland (LO), Submontane (SU), Montane (MO), Upper montane (UP). Information on soil type from IBGE (2002); information on climatic conditions from Alvares et al. (2013) 26

Material suplementar 2. Fern and lycophyte species occurring in four different altitudinal belts in the Atlantic Rain Forest in northeastern Rio Grande do Sul state, Brazil. Threat categories (TC): en = endangered; vu = vulnerable. Substrate types (ST): e = epiphytic; r = rupicolous; t = terrestrial; LO: Lowland; SU: Submontane; MO: Montane; UP: Upper montane 28

CAPÍTULO 2

Material suplementar 1. NMDS ordination analysis. A: Ordination of study sites based on fern and lycophyte community composition. B: Ordination of study sites based on the physicochemical characteristics of the soil. C: Ordination of study sites based on climatic characteristics (average values of climate variables in each forest formation). 56

Material suplementar 2. Species richness and environmental variables analysed, and their mean and range in forest formations along an elevational gradient in the Atlantic Forest in southern Brazil..... 57

RESUMO

Padrões de diversidade de samambaias e licófitas em um gradiente altitudinal na Floresta Atlântica no Sul do Brasil

Michelle Helena Nervo
Gerhard Ernst Overbeck
Paulo Günter Windisch

Dados e análises de gradientes altitudinais em diversidade têm sido fundamentais para o desenvolvimento e avaliação de uma série de teorias gerais da biodiversidade. Esta proposta pretende contribuir para uma melhor compreensão dos padrões de diversidade das samambaias e licófitas ao longo de um gradiente de altitude no Sul do Brasil, abrangendo desde as formações florestais da planície, composta pela floresta de Terras Baixas, Submontana, como por formações florestais de altitude superiores, florestas Montana e Altomontana, e considerando a influência de fatores climáticos e de solo sobre as comunidades de plantas deste grupo. Assim, os objetivos deste estudo são: 1) verificar se a composição e riqueza de espécies varia ao longo do gradiente altitudinal; 2) se caso afirmativo, descrever em qual altitude podemos encontrar a maior diversidade; 3) analisar se existem diferenças ao longo do gradiente nos padrões de distribuição entre comunidade epífita, terrícola e rupícola; 4) estabelecer quais são os fatores ambientais e de espaço que governam a distribuição das espécies de samambaias e licófitas, sua riqueza e sua cobertura na floresta brasileira ao sul do Atlântico; 5) investigar se espécies epífitas e terrestres respondem igualmente aos condutores ambientais. Os resultados de um estudo detalhado, bem como de análises morfológicas, ecológicas, pedológicas e geográficas são: 1) a composição e riqueza de espécies variou significativamente ao longo do gradiente altitudinal; 2) riqueza e

diversidade foram maiores nas formações superiores (Montana e Altomontana); 3) comunidades ecológicas distintas (epifítica, terrícola e rupícola) diferiram quanto ao padrão de distribuição observado ao longo do gradiente; 4) os fatores ambientais (tais como: insolação solar, precipitação, velocidade do vento, umidade relativa do ar relacionados ao clima e, concentração de matéria orgânica, alumínio, pH e profundidade, relacionados ao solo) apresentam maior importância na variação da distribuição de espécies ao longo do gradiente; 5) a variação da distribuição de espécies epífitas demonstrou ser mais relacionada aos condutores ambientais relacionados aos fatores climáticos enquanto que as espécies terrestres, aos fatores edáficos. Processos de nicho (teoria de nicho) são os responsáveis por modular a distribuição e a abundância das espécies de samambaias e licófitas ao longo do gradiente altitudinal da Floresta Atlântica Sul Brasileira. Adicionalmente, é descrito novo registro de *Stigmatopteris* no Estado do Rio Grande do Sul, Brasil.

Palavras-chave: distribuição, espécies epífíticas, florística, geófitas, litófitas, Neotropical, parcionamento de variância, pteridófitas, variáveis edáficas, variáveis climáticas.

ABSTRACT

Diversity patterns of ferns and lycophytes in an elevational gradient in the Atlantic Forest in southern Brazil

Michelle Helena Nervo
Gerhard Ernst Overbeck
Paulo Günter Windisch

Data and analyses of elevational gradients in diversity have been central to the development and evaluation of a range of biodiversity general theories. This proposal seeks to contribute to a better understanding of the ferns and lycophytes diversity patterns along an elevation gradient in Southern Brazil, spanning from Lowland and Submontane to Montane and Upper Montane forest formations, and considering the influence of climatic factors and soil on communities of this group plants. The objectives of this study are: 1) to verify the composition and species richness varies along the altitudinal gradient; 2) if so, describe at what altitude we find the greatest diversity; 3) to analyze if there are differences along the gradient in the distribution patterns of epiphytic community, terrestrial and rupicolous; 4) establish what are the environmental and spatial factors that govern ferns and wealth lycophyte species and its coverage in the Brazilian forest at the South of the Atlantic; 5) investigate if epiphytic and terrestrial species also respond to environmental drivers. The results of a detailed study, as well as morphological, ecological, soil and geographical study are: 1) the composition and species richness varied significantly along the altitudinal gradient; 2) richness and diversity were higher in the Montane and Upper Montane formations; 3) distinct ecological communities (epiphytic, terrestrial and rupicolous) to differ on the

distribution pattern observed along the gradient; 4) the environmental factors (such as solar insolation, precipitation, wind speed, relative humidity related to the climate, and concentration of organic matter, aluminum, pH and depth, related to soil) have greater importance in the variation species distribution along the gradient; 5) the variation of the distribution of epiphytes demonstrated to be more related to environmental drivers that are related to climatic factors, while terrestrial species are related to the soil factors. Niche processes (niche theory) are responsible for modulate distribution patterns and species abundance along elevational gradient in the Southern Brazilian Atlantic Forest. In addition, we present the new registration *Stigmatopteris* in the State of Rio Grande do Sul, Brazil.

Keywords: climatic variables, edaphic variables, environmental, epiphytes species, floristics, distribution, geophytes, lithophytes, Neotropical, pteridophytes, variance partitioning.



INTRODUÇÃO GERAL

INTRODUÇÃO GERAL

Os organismos estão sujeitos aos gradientes ambientais temporais e espaciais que podem limitar a sua distribuição de acordo com a capacidade de ajuste fisiológico (Janzen 1967, Navas 2003, Kessler 2001). O entendimento desses padrões de mudança na riqueza, na composição e na abundância das espécies ao longo desses gradientes tem sido o foco de muitos estudos de ecologia há mais de meio século (Whittaker 1965, Janzen 1967, Terborgh 1971, Qian et al. 2007).

Em escala global, diversos fatores afetam a distribuição espacial de espécies, como a altitude, visto que uma ampla gama de parâmetros varia ao longo destes gradientes, tais como precipitação pluviométrica, umidade, temperatura, interações interespecíficas, história evolutiva e grau de interferência antrópica no meio ambiente (Begon et al. 2007, Lieberman et al. 1996, Lomolino 2001, Rahbek 2005, Grytness & McCain 2007, Paciencia 2008, Kessler et al. 2011, entre outros).

A distribuição de espécies ao longo de gradientes altitudinais pode apresentar três padrões de variação na diversidade: 1) padrão unimodal-parabólico ou *hump-shaped*, distribuição em corcova, com a maior diversidade em altitudes intermediárias; 2) padrão monotônico-decrescente com a elevação da altitude, ou seja, a diversidade diminui gradativamente com o aumento da altitude; 3) padrão constante-decrescente, com a diversidade constante em baixas altitudes e decrescendo bruscamente em altas altitudes (Jansen et al. 1976, Wolda 1987, McCoy 1990, Stevens 1992, Olson 1994, Abrams 1995, Rahbek 1995, Fisher 1998, Ward 2000, Pyrcz & Wojtusiak 2002, Sanders et al. 2003, Rahbek 2005, Grytnes & McCain 2007). O primeiro padrão (unimodal-parabólico) é o mais frequentemente encontrado na distribuição da biodiversidade ao longo de gradientes altitudinais, encontrado em muitos estudos realizados com diversos grupos taxonômicos de

plantas (Kessler 2001b, Grytnes 2003) e animais (Oslon 1994, Rahbek 1997, McCain 2004, Rahbek et al. 2007).

O padrão de variação na riqueza de espécies em gradientes ambientais pode diferir entre táxons (Owen 1990), e até em um mesmo grupo taxonômico (por exemplo, samambaias ou licófitas) sob diferentes tipos de substrato (epífitas de tronco, epífitas de dossel e terrestres, Watkins et al. 2006). Estes autores, ao pesquisarem a distribuição de plantas vasculares sem sementes, epífitas e terrestres, ao longo de um gradiente altitudinal na Costa Rica, constataram que este padrão clássico de “picos” em elevações intermediárias não foi observado nas espécies nos diferentes tipos de substrato estudados, ocorrendo apenas nas epífitas, tanto de tronco, como de dossel.

Algumas hipóteses têm sido propostas para explicar a relação entre riqueza de espécies e a altitude, como a concentração de espécies em altitudes intermediárias (= efeito do domínio médio; *mid-domain effect*, Colwell & Lees 2000): maior produtividade primária, o efeito da área disponível para ocupação, limitações ambientais sobre a distribuição das populações, mudanças abruptas do habitat (ecótonos), redução da disponibilidade de alimento e competição (ex. Randall 1982, Navarro 1991, Stevens 1992, Almeida-Neto et al. 2006). No entanto, nenhum fator único é responsável por todos os padrões de riqueza observados (Romdal & Grytnes 2007).

Para samambaias e licófitas, as explicações ecológicas fornecidas para a variação da riqueza de espécies em gradientes ambientais são baseadas na dispersão aleatória proposta pela teoria neutra (Hubbell 2001) e na heterogeneidade ambiental proposta pela teoria de nicho (Tuomisto et al. 2003). Segundo a primeira teoria, as espécies são competitivamente idênticas e, desta forma, diferenças florísticas ao longo de gradientes ambientais são criadas ao acaso, limitadas somente pela capacidade de dispersão das espécies. Assim, a similaridade decai com o aumento do logaritmo da distância geográfica.

Já na segunda teoria, atributos ambientais que existem na área de ocorrência das espécies (composição química e estrutura física do solo, microclima, etc.) proporcionam a seleção daquelas capazes de habitar as localidades dominadas por tal atributo (Tuomisto et al. 2003). Por esta forma, a similaridade decai com o aumento da distância ambiental.

De um ponto de vista biogeográfico (considerando caracteres morfológicos e fisiológicos), samambaias e licófitas se distinguem das plantas com flores por sua dispersão de esporos e suas gerações gametofíticas e esporofíticas separados. Assim, elas são

independentes de vetores de polinização e distribuição biótica (com poucas exceções, como samambaias aquáticas transportadas por aves aquáticas), eliminando dois aspectos que influenciam fortemente a biogeografia de plantas floríferas, e como resultado, apresentam uma relação biogeográfica mais influenciada pelo clima e pelo substrato (Kessler 2011). Um exemplo dessa influência são os resultados encontrados por Kessler (2000), em florestas andinas, onde observou mudanças na comunidade de criptógamas em faixas altitudinais distintas.

Estudos realizados em florestas tropicais ao longo de gradientes altitudinais (Hemp 2002, Klunge et al. 2008) mostram que as diferenças na riqueza de espécies e na composição florística nas diferentes elevações são causadas, principalmente, em função da mudança gradual de fatores climáticos. A riqueza máxima tem sido associada a uma combinação de alta umidade, alta precipitação e temperaturas moderadas em elevações intermediárias. Este padrão observado em florestas tropicais se deve ao fato de que o crescimento de samambaias e licófitas é limitado por baixas temperaturas e, especialmente, por geadas (Bhattarai et al. 2004, Klunge et al. 2006, Kessler et al. 2011).

As variações na comunidade não estão somente relacionadas aos fatores globais e regionais, como fatores climáticos, pois as mudanças na vegetação também são respostas às diferentes condições ambientais de fatores locais. Um exemplo que mostra o efeito de fatores locais são os resultados encontrados por Tuomisto & Ruokolainen (1994), ao abordarem a distribuição de samambaias, licófitas e Melastomataceae em um gradiente edáfico na Amazônia Peruana. Estes autores verificaram a influência dos diferentes substratos e da drenagem do solo sob variações da distribuição de grupos de plantas (principalmente com samambaias e licófitas). Os fatores edáficos são considerados importantes na estratificação de ambientes (Tuomisto & Poulsen 1996, Tuomisto et al. 2002), de maneira que muitas espécies – sobretudo no grupo das terrestres - são consideradas boas indicadoras de condições edáficas.

A heterogeneidade ambiental geralmente influencia a distribuição de espécies de samambaias (Parris 1985, Palmer et al. 2002). Estudos recentes (Tuomisto et al. 2014) têm confirmado que as samambaias podem ter a dispersão limitada pela ocupação exclusiva de nichos locais mais adequados. Considerando a importância relativa da dispersão aleatória e da heterogeneidade ambiental, Jones et al. (2006) na Costa Rica e Zuquim et al. (2012) na Amazônia, verificaram que as diferenças ambientais tiveram maior influência do que as distâncias geográficas na previsão da composição de samambaias e licófitas.

A investigação da importância relativa de processos estocásticos e determinísticos na estruturação das comunidades de plantas é útil para indicar quais destas perspectivas teóricas não são mutuamente exclusivas (ver também, Karst et al. 2005), como também faz parte dos esforços para compreender efeitos no ecossistema para a biodiversidade e conservação da biodiversidade (Tilman e Downing, 1994; Grytnes e Vetaas 2002). No entanto, este tipo de estudo ainda é raro na abordagem de espécies de samambaias em gradientes ambientais brasileiros (Paciencia 2008, Gasper et al. 2013).

Tryon (1972) estimou que cerca de 10% da flora de samambaias e licófitas do mundo está representada no Brasil. O mesmo autor destaca as regiões do Sudeste e Sul do Brasil como um dos três principais centros de endemismo para samambaias na América Tropical. Uma extensão considerável destas regiões é coberta pela Mata Atlântica, um dos *hotspots* mais importantes para a conservação biológica (Myers et al. 2000, Laurance 2009).

A Mata Atlântica (*sensu stricto*, Oliveira-Filho & Fontes 2005) representa um ambiente especialmente apropriado para testar hipóteses sobre os fatores que determinam padrões de distribuição de espécies ao longo de gradientes altitudinais (por ex., Bergamin et al. 2012), pois é o bioma brasileiro com a maior riqueza específica de samambaias, associadas principalmente às áreas montanhosas da Floresta Ombrófila Densa. Esta grande riqueza de espécies, associada ao fato das espécies apresentarem, de forma geral, uma baixa adaptabilidade fisiológica (Kessler et al. 2011) que torna samambaias e licófitas um grupo interessante como modelo para estudos sobre padrões de distribuição ao longo de gradientes ambientais na Floresta Atlântica. No Rio Grande do Sul, local de realização do presente estudo, não se sabe ao certo o número de espécies de samambaias e licófitas na Mata Atlântica, mas a julgar pelas estimativas de cunho mais geral, lançadas para aferir o total de samambaias e licófitas existentes na porção Sul do Brasil, acredita-se que cerca de 300 a 550 espécies componham a flora regional.

Apesar da elevada importância de conservação da Mata Atlântica, as variações florísticas de samambaias e os fatores relacionados ao longo de gradientes altitudinais ainda são pouco conhecidos, especialmente no setor sul. Estudos que abordem a importância relativa das variações espaciais e ambientais determinantes na estruturação das comunidades de samambaias e licófitas ao longo de gradiente altitudinal no Brasil na Mata Atlântica são escassos; sendo dos poucos trabalhos existentes, metade remete apenas à variação florística (Nóbrega 2013, Damasceno 2010, Condack & Sylvestre 2008), enquanto que o restante se relaciona às variáveis espaciais e ambientais (Nóbrega 2013, Pacienza 2008), dos quais as

variáveis climáticas nunca foram testadas. Acreditamos que as variáveis ambientais climáticas devam atuar fortemente na distribuição de espécies de samambaias e licófitas ao longo de gradientes altitudinais no Sul do Brasil.

A grande maioria dos trabalhos descreve ou avalia padrões de riqueza ou de diversidade (Athayde-Filho & Windisch 2006, Santos & Windisch 2008, Becker et al. 2013) considerando o grupo de samambaias e licófitas em geral, sem diferenciar entre grupos ecológicos distintos, tais como as terrícolas, rupícolas e epífíticas. Espera-se que estes grupos tenham diferido em suas respostas aos gradientes ambientais, já que as corticícolas não são diretamente influenciadas pelo solo e por suas características. Desta forma, estudos que abordam espécies terrícolas, rupícolas e epífíticas são necessários para compreender com mais clareza às respostas ao gradiente altitudinal.

A presente tese busca contribuir para um melhor conhecimento sobre os padrões de diversidade em comunidades de samambaias e licófitas ao longo de um gradiente de altitude no Sul do Brasil, considerando a influência de fatores climáticos e edáficos. Além de contribuírem para uma melhor compreensão da estrutura das comunidades vegetais na Mata Atlântica, os resultados gerados auxiliarão na conservação das espécies do grupo estudado e dos seus habitats. Pretendemos trabalhar, pela primeira vez no Sul do Brasil, em uma escala regional, e, ainda, complementar com uma abordagem baseada na composição e abundância das espécies.

OBJETIVOS

Objetivo geral: analisar padrões de diversidade em comunidades de samambaias e licófitas ao longo de um gradiente climático na Floresta Atlântica no Sul do Brasil.

Objetivos específicos:

- a) analisar a composição florística e a estrutura comunitária de samambaias e licófitas ao longo de um gradiente altitudinal na Floresta Atlântica no Rio Grande do Sul, Brasil;
- b) avaliar o efeito de fatores climáticos e edáficos em comunidades de samambaias e licófitas no Rio Grande do Sul, considerando diferentes grupos ecológicos e comparando os padrões encontrados com outros grupos vegetais.

Hipotetizamos que:

- (1) as diferentes formações florestais ao longo do gradiente altitudinal irão diferir quanto à composição de samambaias e licófitas, bem como quanto à riqueza, e deverão ser máxima na Floresta Ombrófila Densa Montana;
- (2) grupos ecológicos distintos (por ex. terrestres, rupestres e epífitos) responderão de forma distinta ao longo do gradiente altitudinal (ex. riqueza maior de epíticos nas áreas com maior altitude e de terrícolas nas áreas com menor altitude);
- (3) a variação na composição de espécies ao longo do gradiente altitudinal estará relacionada pelo compartilhamento de efeitos de variáveis espaciais e ambientais;
- (4) na estratificação ambiental, fatores climáticos influenciam a densidade de espécies epífitas enquanto que fatores edáficos influenciam a densidade de espécies terrestres.

APRESENTAÇÃO DA TESE

Com o objetivo de organizar e estruturar diferentes abordagens, esta tese está dividida em 3 capítulos, nas quais os capítulos são apresentados em forma de artigos estruturados nos respectivos formatos dos periódicos que foram e/ou serão submetidos.

O primeiro capítulo apresenta a variação da composição de espécies e riqueza de comunidade como um todo de samambaias e licófitas sob diferentes altitudes na Mata Atlântica do Sul do Brasil, bem como a abundância e diversidade das comunidades epífitas, rupícolas e terrestres.

O segundo capítulo, realizado com base nos dados gerados pelo primeiro capítulo e, adicionado à coleta de variáveis ambientais e espaciais, aborda o efeito dos fatores espaciais e ambientais como direcionadores da composição de espécies e diversidade de samambaias e licófitas ao longo do gradiente altitudinal da Mata Atlântica no Sul do Brasil.

O terceiro capítulo, realizado com base nos dados gerados pelo primeiro capítulo, aborda o novo registro do gênero *Stigmatopteris* (Dryopteridaceae) no estado do Rio Grande do Sul, Brazil.

Por fim, no item Anexos, é apresentada a publicação de atividades adicionais produzidas durante o período da tese.

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Capítulo 1

FERN AND LYCOPHYTE COMMUNITIES AT CONTRASTING ALTITUDES IN BRAZIL'S SUBTROPICAL ATLANTIC RAIN FOREST

Michelle Helena Nervo, Frederico Velho da Silva Coelho, Paulo Günter Windisch e Gerhard Ernst Overbeck

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4 Fern and lycophyte communities at contrasting altitudes 5 in Brazil's subtropical Atlantic Rain Forest

23/Q¹⁰ Michelle Helena Nervo ·
8 Frederico Velho da Silva Coelho ·
9 Paulo Günter Windisch · Gerhard Ernst Overbeck
11

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14
15 **Abstract** Ferns and lycophytes are a species-rich group
16 in Brazil's Atlantic Rain Forest, but studies on richness
17 and diversity patterns on a regional scope are scarce. We
18 investigated communities at different altitudinal belts in
19 the Atlantic Rain Forest in southern Brazil, spanning
20 from lowland and submontane to montane and upper
21 montane forest formations. We tested the hypotheses
22 that each forest formation differed in its fern and
23 lycophyte community composition and that species
24 richness peaked in montane forests. Species composi-
25 tion, from the ground level to the phorophyte canopy,
26 was studied at five sites per belt (together 120 plots of 10
27 × 10 m). Species were according to substrate types
28 (epiphytic, rupicolous and terrestrial species). Analyses
29 were conducted for the entire species set, and for the

epiphytic, terrestrial and rupicolous component sepa- 30
rately. We found a total of 139 species of ferns and 31
lycophytes, of which Polypodiaceae was the family with 32
the highest species number. Overall composition dif- 33
fered among altitudes and for the three substrate types. 34
Richness was highest in the montane and upper montane 35
formations. The study indicated the presence both of 36
species with high habitat specificity and of species with 37
broad ecological amplitude along the gradient. Alto- 38
gether, our study reduces the lack of information ferns 39
and lycophytes communities at a regional scale and 40
confirms the high diversity of this group for biodiversity 41
in the Brazil's Atlantic Forest. 42

Keywords epiphytes · floristics · geophytes · 43
lithophytes · neotropical · pteridophytes 44

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Q4 M. H. Nervo (✉) · P. G. Windisch · G. E. Overbeck
Programa de Pós-graduação em Botânica, Universidade Federal
do Rio Grande do Sul, Av. Bento Gonçalves 9500,
91501-970 Porto Alegre, Rio Grande do Sul, Brazil
e-mail: mhnero@gmail.com

F. V. da Silva Coelho
Curso de Ciências Biológicas, Universidade Federal do Rio
Grande do Sul, Av. Bento Gonçalves 9500, 91501-970 Porto
Alegre, Rio Grande do Sul, Brazil

G. E. Overbeck
Departamento de Botânica, Universidade Federal do Rio Grande
do Sul, Av. Bento Gonçalves 9500, 91501-970 Porto Alegre, Rio
Grande do Sul, Brazil

Introduction 45

The relationship between patterns of species richness 46
and abundance in time and space along gradients is one 47
of the classic topics of ecological research (MacArthur 48
1972; Rosenzweig 1992; Pausas and Austin 2001). 49
Work that focused on large-scale, cross-continental pat- 50
terns was pioneered by botanists such as de Candolle 51
(1874) and Copeland (1939). Subsequently, interest has 52
focused on plant distribution along latitudinal and 53
elevational gradients and the processes that control these 54
patterns (Scheiner and Reybenayas 1994; Boyle 1996; 55
Vetaas and Grytnes 2002; Colwell et al. 2004b; among 56
others). Our better understanding of the diversity and 57

58 distribution patterns of species along altitudinal gradients contributes to advances in ecological theory and to
 59 knowledge on the potential mechanisms driving these
 60 patterns (e.g. Colwell and Hurtt 1994; Colwell and Lees
 61 2000) and also provides an important basis for the
 62 conservation of natural resources at local and regional
 63 scales (e.g. Speziale et al. 2010).

64 Studies on elevation gradients have identified three
 65 main patterns of species richness: (a) a monotonic de-
 66 crease in species richness as altitude increases (Gentry
 67 1995), (b) a decline in species richness related to the
 68 decline in area with increasing altitude (Rahbek 1995,
 69 2005), (c) a peak in diversity at intermediate elevations.
 70 There are several hypothesis for these patterns, includ-
 71 ing geometric constraints (Mid-Domain Effect; Colwell
 72 and Lees 2000). Other hypotheses include high rainfall
 73 or productivity at mid-elevations and higher habitat
 74 heterogeneity at mid elevations (Rahbek 1995;
 75 Lomolino 2001).

76 Variation of richness patterns of structurally complex
 77 tropical forests have especially been in the focus of research
 78 in the past decades, and these studies have
 79 considered different functional groups such as trees,
 80 vines, shrubs, and herbs (Gentry 1982, 1988; Condit
 81 et al. 1996; Kessler 2001b; Watkins et al. 2006, among
 82 others). However, few studies on elevational gradients
 83 have focused on epiphytes, and fewer still have consid-
 84 ered both epiphytic and terrestrial species (Kessler
 85 2001a,b; Watkins et al. 2006). Ferns and lycophytes
 86 include both life forms, which adds complexity to bio-
 87 geographical studies of a fascinating group of plants that
 88 combine wind-dispersed spores and free-living gameto-
 89 phytes and that occupy a wide range of environments,
 90 from the equator to the circumpolar temperate regions,
 91 from semi-desert regions to the coastline (including man-
 92 groves and rocky shores of the tidal zone), both at low
 93 and at high altitudes (Page 1979; Tryon and Tryon 1982).

94 Ferns and lycophytes, a paraphyletic group
 95 denominated, until recently, as 'pteridophytes' in a
 96 broader sense, constitutes about 5 % of species richness
 97 of Neotropical forests (Poulsen and Nielsen 1995). For
 98 ferns and lycophytes in the neotropics, the pattern of
 99 higher richness at intermediate elevations (1,300–2,300
 100 m a.s.l.) has been linked to a combination of high
 101 humidity and moderate temperatures (Kessler 2001a;
 102 Kluge et al. 2006), while low temperatures (especially
 103 frost) are limiting factors for species of this group
 104 (Bhattarai et al. 2004; Schmitt and Windisch 2005;
 105 Kluge et al. 2006).

106 In such a diverse group of plants, not all species
 107 should respond equally to environmental variation.
 108 The group contains vines, epiphytes, hemiepiphytes,
 109 rupicolous species, xerophytes, halophytes, hydro-
 110 phytes (floating or rooting) or sub-arborescent species
 111 (Page 1979; Tryon 1989). In some species, it is possible
 112 to observe more than one structural types or habit,
 113 depending on the environment in which it lives
 114 (Moran 1987; Watkins et al. 2006; Windisch et al.
 115 2008; Nervo 2012). However, biogeographical studies
 116 that consider different characteristics of the plants are
 117 still scarce despite the high importance of these traits for
 118 the interpretation of environmental filters and thus for a
 119 better understanding of the organization of communities
 120 (in general: Keddy 1992; for ferns: Karst and Lechowicz
 121 2007).

122 Brazil's Atlantic Rain Forest *sensu stricto* (Oliveira-
 123 Filho and Fontes 2000) represents an especially inter-
 124 esting environment to study distribution patterns along
 125 altitudinal gradients (e.g. Bergamin et al. 2012). The
 126 high diversity of species in the Atlantic Rain Forest is
 127 the result of an extensive latitudinal range (3° S to 30° S)
 128 and a substantial altitudinal variation (from sea level to
 129 1,920 m a.s.l.), over a short distance in space, creating
 130 conditions for the development and establishment of a
 131 diverse complex of plant formations. The Atlantic For-
 132 est is the Brazilian biome with the highest ferns and
 133 lycophytes species richness (Windisch 2002; Prado and
 134 Sylvestre 2013). Richness of the group is estimated to be
 135 of approximately 840 species, which correspond to 69
 136 % of pteridophytes species in Brazil (Prado and
 137 Sylvestre 2013, continuously updated). The highest
 138 richness of ferns and lycophytes in Brazil is found in
 139 mountainous areas (800–1,400 m a.s.l.; Paciencia 2008;
 140 Damasceno 2010; Nóbrega et al. 2011; Nóbrega 2013)
 141 of the Atlantic Rain forest (631 species), and 81 % of
 142 ferns and lycophytes are endemic to the Atlantic Rain
 143 Forest (Stehmann et al. 2009). The southern part of the
 144 Atlantic Forest (located in the Brazilian states of Paraná,
 145 Santa Catarina and Rio Grande do Sul) contains about
 146 546 species of ferns and lycophytes (Windisch 1996;
 147 Prado and Sylvestre 2013), 47 (9.5 %) of which restrict-
 148 ed to this region (Salino and Almeida 2009).

149 Despite considerable advances regarding floristics of
 150 ferns and lycophytes from southern Brazil (Rosenstock
 151 1906; Sehnem 1967a,b; Schmitt and Windisch 2005;
 152 Athayde Filho and Windisch 2006; Schmitt and
 153 Windisch 2007; Nervo et al. 2010; among many
 154 others), there is still a large gap concerning our
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Fern and lycophyte communities at contrasting altitudes in Brazil

156 understanding of the relationship between altitude and
 157 the occurrence of ferns and lycophytes in forest ecosystems
 158 (Dittrich et al. 2005; Paciencia 2008). With this
 159 study, we intend to contribute to knowledge on diversity
 160 patterns of fern and lycophyte communities among four
 161 different altitudinal belts in the Atlantic Rain Forest in
 162 southern Brazil. We distinguish between different eco-
 163 logical groups in relation to substrate type, namely
 164 epiphytic, rupicolous and terrestrial species. We ask
 165 the following questions: (1) Do composition and species
 166 richness of ferns and lycophytes vary among altitudinal
 167 belts? (2) If so, at what altitude can we find the greatest
 168 richness of the group? (3) Which differences in distri-
 169 bution patterns can be observed among epiphytic,
 170 rupicolous and terrestrial species as groups?

171 **Material and methods**

172 **Study region**

173 The study was conducted along an altitudinal gradient in
 174 the Atlantic Rain Forest sensu stricto (ARF; Floresta
 175 Ombrófila Densa in Portuguese) in north-eastern Rio
 176 Grande do Sul (RS), Brazil. In southern Brazil (24 to
 177 32°S), the ARF can be divided into four altitudinal
 178 zones that comprise distinct forest physiognomies
 179 (Veloso and Góes-Filho 1982; see also Teixeira et al.
 180 1986 and Brack 2009): (1) Lowland (LO), 5–50 m
 181 altitude; (2) Submontane (SU), at the base of the Serra
 182 do Mar mountains, with an altitude between 50 and 400
 183 m; (3) Montane (MO), covering the slopes of the Serra
 184 do Mar, at altitudes ranging from 400 to 1,000 m; and
 185 (4) Upper montane (UP), at altitudes ranging between
 186 1,000 and 1,400 m (see Supplementary material
 187 Table 1).

188 **Sampling design**

189 Species composition and abundance was studied in the
 190 four forest formations that comprise this altitudinal gra-
 191 dient (lowland, submontane, montane and upper mon-
 192 tane). In each altitudinal belt, we sampled ferns and
 193 lycophytes at five sites (replicates), with six plots of 10
 194 × 10 m per site (400 m² per site), totalling 120 plots Our
 195 sampling effort thus exceeded the minimum value per
 196 site indicated by Kessler and Bach (1999) as necessary
 197 for studies aiming at comparing communities of ferns
 198 and lycophytes in tropical forest (400 m²). Most study

199 areas were situated in protected areas in reasonable good
 200 state of conservation (Table 1). The distance between
 201 sites (replicates) within an altitudinal zone was at least 1
 202 km. Fieldwork was conducted from March 2012 to
 203 March 2015.

204 In each plot, cover of all fern and lycophyte species
 205 was estimated, and species were classified into one of
 206 three habits, based on the occupied substrate: epiphytic
 207 (species that grow on tree trunks or branches, i.e.
 208 corticolous plants), rupicolous (species that grow on
 209 rocks) and terrestrial (species with rooting in the
 210 ground). Species that grew in more than one habit were
 211 included in the respective categories in each sample
 212 unit, with cover estimated separately for each category.
 213 Species cover was estimated using a modified Braun-
 214 Blanquet (1964) scale, using seven categories: 1 (spe-
 215 cies with cover smaller 1 %), 2 (2 to 5 %), 3 (6 to 10 %),
 216 4 (11 to 25 %), 5 (26 to 50 %), 6 (51 to 75 %) and 7 (76
 217 to 100 %). For terrestrial and rupicolous species, cover
 218 was estimated at the ground level, using four subplots (5
 219 × 5 m) whose data was then pooled to the total plot area.
 220 For sampling of corticolous individuals, phorophytes
 221 were used as natural sampling units. For this, we includ-
 222 ed all trees with diameter at breast height (DBH) of at
 223 least 10 cm, and recorded species presence per height
 224 interval (trunk base: the first 130 cm near the soil;
 225 medium trunk: portion between base and high trunk;
 226 high trunk: last 130 cm of the trunk before crown;
 227 internal crown: internal half of the crown; external
 228 crown: external half of the crown). We did not estimate
 229 cover values for epiphytes, due to the complex structure
 230 of trees and their over branches. The presence of the
 231 corticolous species on each phorophyte was recorded
 232 using binoculars, digital high resolution images, and
 233 when necessary, by climbing of the phorophyte. Plants
 234 were collected when necessary to confirm the
 235 identification.

236 Species were identified by help of literature, consul-
 237 tation of experts, and comparison with material of the
 238 main herbaria of the Rio Grande do Sul State (ICN,
 239 HAS and PACA, acronyms follow Thiers 2011). Fam-
 240 ilies and genera were classified in accordance to Smith
 241 et al. (2006). The collected material was herborized
 242 following usual techniques for vascular plants
 243 (Windisch 1992) and incorporated into the ICN Herbar-
 244 ium. Citation of authorities for plant names follows
 245 Pichi-Sermolli (1996), and for names created after
 246 1996, we follow the List of Species of the Flora of Brazil
 247 (Prado and Sylvestre 2013).

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M.H. Nervo et al.

t1.1 **Table 1** Species richness at twenty sites in different altitudinal belts in the Atlantic Rain Forest, in northeastern Rio Grande do Sul state, Brazil. The second through fifth columns show recorded species richness at each study elevation for each substrate type and all species combined. Interpolated richness is the richness at each site under the assumption of continuous elevation ranges.

t1.2	Forest formation	Species richness				Interpolated richness	Rarefaction estimate	Chao2	Bootstrap	Percentage collected
		Epiphytic	Rupicolous	Terrestrial	All recorded species					
t1.4	LO	38	19	41	66	66	60	74	73	90
t1.5	SU	55	23	45	84	86	76	100	94	87
t1.6	MO	60	19	35	87	90	76	135	100	74
t1.7	UP	54	8	37	85	85	74	100	91	89
t1.8	All sites pooled	93	40	81	139	139	134	141	148	96

248 Data analysis

249 All analyses were performed for the whole community
250 and separately for the terrestrial, corticolous
251 (epiphytic) and rupicolous components. For the analysis
252 of community structure of terrestrial and rupicolous
253 species, we used the indicator value based on the com-
254 bination of relative cover and relative frequency (after
255 Mueller-Dombois and Ellenberg (1974)). The impor-
256 tance value for epiphytic plants was calculated from
257 the average amount of frequencies relative to
258 phorophytes and height intervals, based on Waechter
259 (1998) and Kersten and Waechter (2010).

260 For each sampling unit, we calculated the Simpson
261 index as diversity measure. We present common and
262 unique species in the different altitudinal zones (ARF
263 forest types: LO, SU, MO and UM) in the form of a
264 Venn diagram (Oliveros 2007).

265 We applied two distinct approaches to reduce the
266 effects of undersampling on richness estimates. In the
267 first approach, we compared richness, based on the
268 rarefaction curves, at a uniform number of occurrences
269 (Chazdon et al. 1998; Colwell et al. 2004a). In the
270 second, we used nonparametric methods to estimate true
271 species richness using two incidence-based estimators,
272 Chao2 and Bootstrap (Chazdon et al. 1998). In the third
273 method, we assumed that the elevational range of each
274 species was continuous, at the scale of our sampling.
275 This assumption yields what we will refer to as the
276 ‘interpolated’ species richness for each sampling site
277 (Grytnes and Vetaas 2002), which includes each species

Rarefaction estimates represent the expected number of species at 2,192 occurrences per site. Chao2 and Bootstrap are nonpara-
metric estimates of total species richness, including undetected species. Percentage collected values were computed as (total spe-
cies / mean of Chao2 and Bootstrap) × 100. LO – lowlands, SU –
submontane, MO – montane, UP – upper montane.

actually recorded from that site, plus any additional
species recorded from at least one site above and at least
one site below that site. These analyses were performed
in EstimateS software v. 9.1.0 (Colwell 2013).

Values of richness and cover of the three different
substrate types were compared between altitudinal
zones by analysis of variance (ANOVA) with permuta-
tion testing (Pillar and Orlóci 1996). Values of diversity
indices were compared using the software PAST
(Hammer et al. 2008). For these analyses, we used the
mean value of the six sample units of each area. Differ-
ences in species composition of communities were test-
ed with Manova and visualized by principal coordinates
analysis (PCoA). For the analyses with all species, we
used presence-absence data and the Sorensen index, and
for the different ecological categories (epiphytic,
rupicolous and terrestrial species) abundance values
and Bray-Curtis distance. Analyses were performed in
MULTIV (Pillar 1997) and on the R platform (The R
Development Core Team 2010).

Results

General floristic composition

At the twenty study sites in the South Brazilian Atlantic
Rain forest, we registered 139 species of ferns and
lycophytes, representing 55 genera and 21 families, of
which 34 species (25 %) are endemic to the Brazilian
Atlantic Forest (Table 2 in the Electronic Supplementary

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Fern and lycophyte communities at contrasting altitudes in Brazil

Materia, see Prado et al. 2015). Polypodiaceae was the most representative family, with 30 species, followed by Aspleniaceae (17), Dryopteridaceae (16) and Hymenophyllaceae (15). These four families together comprised about 56 % of the sampled species. Thirteen species are included in the list of threatened species for State of Rio Grande do Sul (Assembléia Legislativa do Estado do Rio Grande do Sul 2015), two of them as 'critically endangered' (Table S2 in the Electronic Supplementary Material). Additionally, we observed *Anemia mandiocana* Raddi outside the sampling units in one of the study areas (submontane forest), a new record for RS (Nervo et al. in prep.).

Twenty-five species (18 % of the total) were found in all forest types (Fig. 1) and 32 species (23 %) only occurred in one forest type. Montane and upper montane forests shared 31 species, and lowland and submontane forests, 19 species (Fig. 1). The formations at the extremes of the gradient, upper montane and lowland forest, shared only one specie. The species accumulation curve (sample-based rarefaction curve, Fig. 2) for all sites and species combined failed to saturate, as expected for very species-rich local floras; nonetheless, 96 % of the expected species were recorded (Table 1). Efficiency of sampling was lowest for MO, according to all indices.

Eighty-one species of ferns and lycophytes were terrestrial (see Table 1), followed by epiphytes (93 species on 1,223 phorophytes), and rupicolous species (40). This indicates considerable overlap in terms of substrate type: only 79 species (57 %) occurred as only one of substrate type. Other 60 species (43 %) were found in two or three type of substrate, of which in two type of substrate, 45 sp. div. (32 %) and 15 sp. div. (11 %) in three types. The highest overlap was observed occurs in

between epiphytic and terrestrial species (22 sp. div., 16 %) followed epiphytic and rupicolous species (20 sp. div., 14 %), and rupicolous and terrestrial species (three species, 2 %).

The number of species restricted to any of the four forest formations was rather low (less than 10 % for all formations, Fig. 1 and Supplementary material Table 2). Nonetheless, multivariate analyses of the complete data set revealed that there was significant variation in species composition among all forest formations ($P < 0.05$, Table 2). The Sørensen index calculated between areas clearly indicated the high similarity between lowland and submontane forests, and between montane and upper montane forests, with a clear decrease in floristic similarity with higher distance along the gradient (Table 3). Areas of the upper montane forests were more similar in terms of floristic composition than areas of the other formations, as evidenced by the mean value of the Sørensen index calculated for all pairs of areas.

Richness and diversity

The highest total species richness was observed in the montane forest, with 87 species in all study plots, followed by upper montane forest (85), submontane forest (84) and lowland forest (66), see Fig. 3.

Mean species richness per plot varied significantly between elevations ($P < 0.01$; Table 2). On the plot level, total richness was very similar for montane (23 species) and upper montane forest (21) and significantly lower in the lowland forests (13) (Table 2). Submontane forest presented intermediate values (Table 2). Patterns were divergent for substrate types. For epiphytes, the two upper formations (MO and UP) had significantly higher values for mean species richness per plot than the two lowland forests (Fig. 3, Table 2). The opposite was observed for rupicolous species, with the two lowest formations presenting the highest values and montane and upper montane forest significantly lower values, even though based on a very low mean species number per plot. Terrestrial component had high average species richness in submontane, montane and upper montane forests, while values for lowland were significantly lower (Fig. 3, Table 2).

Community composition

The principal coordinates analysis (PCoA, Fig. 4) using total composition indicated a clear separation between

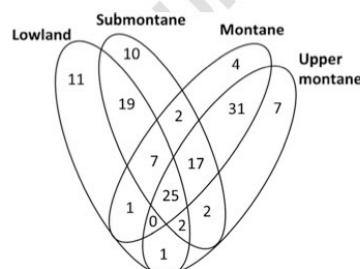
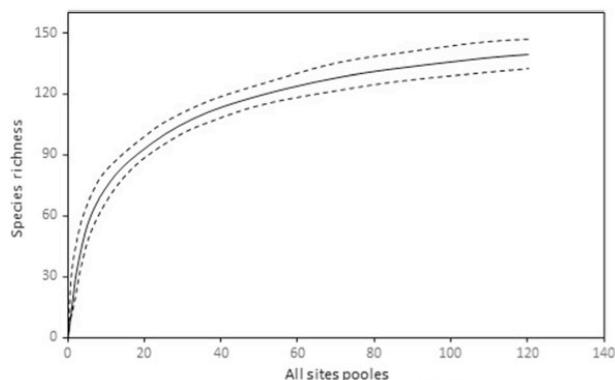


Fig. 1 Venn diagram showing proportions of shared species among the ferns and lycophytes in distinct forest formations in the Atlantic Rain Forest in northeastern Rio Grande do Sul state, Brazil.

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Fig. 2 Pooled sample-based rarefaction curve (solid line) with 95 % confidence intervals (dashed line) for all fern species recorded at twenty sites (16 to 1,001 m a.s.l.) in four different altitudinal belts in the Atlantic Rain Forest in northeastern Rio Grande do Sul state, Brazil.



384	lowland and submontane formations on the left side of	Community structure	401
385	the diagram and montane and upper montane formations		
386	on the right side, along axis 1 (explanation: 26 %).		
387	<i>Elaphoglossum sellowianum</i> and <i>Hymenophyllum</i>		
388	<i>polyanthos</i> (both with a correlation coefficient of 0.98		
389	to the first axis) were associated to montane and upper		
390	montane forests, while <i>Didymochlaena truncatula</i> and		
391	<i>Megalastrum connexum</i> characterized lowland and		
392	submontane forests (Fig. 4).		
393	Similar patterns were found analysing different com-	Considerable differences existed between altitudinal	402
394	ponents separately (based on substrate types), using	zones regarding most important species in terms of im-	403
395	abundance (rupicolous and terrestrial community) and	portance value (IV; Table 4, Fig. 3). In the epiphyte	404
396	relative frequency (epiphytic community; Fig. 4). The	communities (based on substrate types), <i>Microgramma</i>	405
397	greater similarity of the communities of terrestrial ferns	<i>vaccinifolia</i> was the species with the highest importance	406
398	and lycophytes in Montane and Upper montane forma-	value in lowland (IV = 40.50) and submontane forests	407
399	tions was evidenced by low dispersion in the ordination	(IV = 16.99; Table 4, Fig. 3), while in upper montane and	408
400	diagram (Fig. 4).	montane forest, the most important species was	409
		<i>Hymenophyllum polyanthos</i> (IV = 20.90 and 16.99, re-	410
		spectively). In lowland forest, this was <i>Microgramma</i>	411
		<i>vaccinifolia</i> , followed by <i>Pleopeltis pleopeltifolia</i> (IV =	412
		15.5); <i>Mickelia guianensis</i> (IV = 7.63), <i>Campyloneurum</i>	413
		<i>nitidum</i> (IV = 4.68) and <i>Serpocaulon catharine</i> (IV =	414
		4.26), together amounting for 72.6 % of all epiphytic	415
		species observed in lowland areas (see Table 4).	416

t2.1 **Table 2** Mean diversity and richness ($\pm SD$) of fern and lycophytes species in four forest formations situated at different altitudinal belts in the Atlantic Rain Forest in northeastern Rio Grande do Sul state, Brazil. Different letters in the same line indicate statistically significant differences at 5 % probability.

t2.2	Richness	Lowland	Submontane	Montane	Upper montane	Q	P
t2.3	Epiphytes	6 ± 1 a	8 ± 3 a	16 ± 3 b	15 ± 3 b	353.8	0.001
t2.4	Rupicolous	2 ± 1 ab	3 ± 0.6 a	1 ± 0.8 b	1 ± 0.3 b	32.9	0.010
t2.5	Terrestrial	5 ± 1 a	8 ± 2 b	7 ± 1 b	7 ± 1 b	21.2	0.001
t2.6	Total	13 ± 2 a	16 ± 4 ab	23 ± 3 b	21 ± 4 b	281.7	0.001
t2.7	Diversity (Simpson)						
t2.8	Epiphytes	0.861 ± 0.08 a	0.895 ± 0.11 b	0.935 ± 0.03 c	0.927 ± 0.05 d	105.23	0.001
t2.9	Rupicolous	0.387 ± 0.21 a	0.538 ± 0.08 a	0.254 ± 0.18 a	0.309 ± 0.16 a	0.227	0.087
t2.10	Terrestrial	0.936 ± 0.02 a	0.943 ± 0.02 b	0.900 ± 0.01 c	0.899 ± 0.01 d	137.45	0.001

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/Q1

Fern and lycophyte communities at contrasting altitudes in Brazil

t3.1

Table 3 Floristic similarity of ferns and lycophytes in four formations situated in different altitudinal belts in the Atlantic Rain Forest in northeastern Rio Grande do Sul state, Brazil, indicated by the Sørensen index. LO – lowland, SU – submontane, MO – montane, UP – upper montane, IHM – internal heterogeneity measure (= Sørensen index calculated for all pairs of areas within one formation).

t3.2	*IHM	LO	SU	MO	UP
t3.3	LO	0.527	1	0.752	0.461
t3.4	SU	0.612	0.752	1	0.550
t3.5	MO	0.688	0.461	0.550	1
t3.6	UP	0.815	0.342	0.424	0.728

417 In terrestrial communities, the arborescent fern
 418 *Dicksonia sellowiana* had the highest importance value
 419 of all species in upper montane (IV = 11.79) and mon-
 420 tane forests (IV = 10.82; Table 4, Fig. 3). In submontane
 421 forest, the species with highest importance value was
 422 *Didymochlaena truncatula* (IV = 8.85), while in low-
 423 land forest, *Polybotrya cylindrica* (IV = 8.93).

424 In Upper montane forests the highest importance
 425 value (IV = 24.36) the rupicolous community was ob-
 426 served for *Hymenophyllum polyanthos*, while in low-
 427 land forest, *Vandenboschia radicans* (IV = 20.95). In

submontane *Asplenium brasiliense* (IV = 17.41), and in
 428 montane forest, *Asplenium gastonis* (IV = 16.29). 429

Discussion

430

General floristic composition

431

This study is the first on communities of ferns and lycophytes in subtropical southern Brazil with a regional scope. The total number of 139 species found in the 1,2 hectares sampled in the four altitudinal belts corresponds to about 40 % of all registered ferns and lycophytes for Rio Grande do Sul state (RS) (Prado and Sylvestre 2013; Windisch 1996), indicating the high concentration of species of this group in a small region of the Atlantic Rain Forest. The importance of the region for biodiversity and conservation specifically of ferns and lycophytes also becomes obvious from the high number of threatened species (13 species, 20 % to all of threatened ferns and lycophytes species for RS), as well as from one new citation of *Anemia mandiocana* for the state. The prevalence the families Polypodiaceae, Aspleniaceae, Dryopteridaceae s.l. e 447

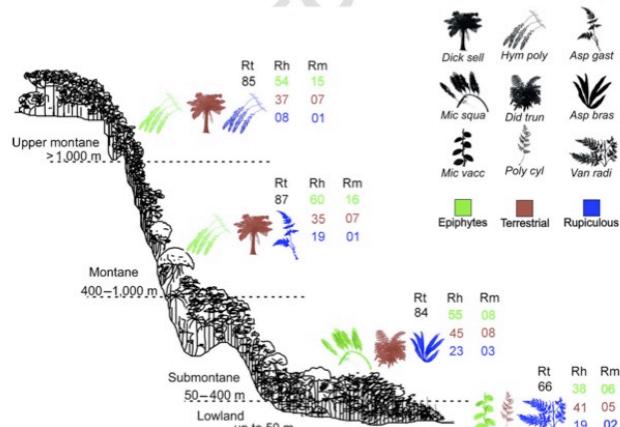


Fig. 3 Schematic profile of the altitudinal gradient in southern Atlantic Rain Forest in northeastern Rio Grande do Sul state, Brazil, with values of total and average richness of ferns and lycophytes per altitudinal belt, as found in this study. Rt – total richness; Rh – total richness of epiphytes (green), terrestrial (brown) and rupicolous (blue). Note that one species may occur in more than one group (see text); Rm – mean richness per plot for epiphytes (green), terrestrial (brown) and rupicolous (blue). For

each species group, the species with highest IV is depicted. Dick sell – *Dicksonia sellowiana*, Hym poly – *Hymenophyllum polyanthos*, Asp gast – *Asplenium gastonis*, Mic squa – *Microgramma squamulosa*, Did trun – *Didymochlaena truncatula*, Asp bras – *Asplenium brasiliense*, Mic vacc – *Microgramma vaccinifolia*, Poly cyl – *Polybotrya cylindrica*, Van radi – *Vandenboschia radicans*. Schematic profile modified from Brack (2009).

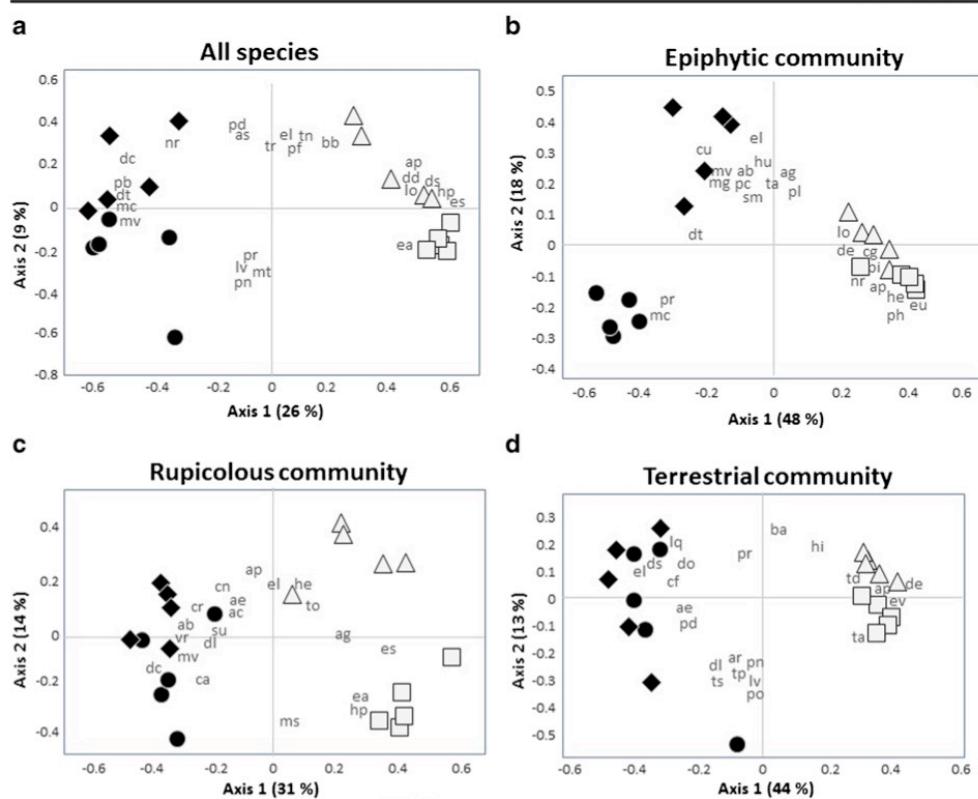


Fig. 4 PCoA of forest areas of ferns and lycophytes communities in four forest formations situated at different altitudinal belts in the Atlantic Rain Forest in northeastern Rio Grande do Sul state, Brazil: lowland (circles), submontane (rhombus), montane (triangles) and upper montane forests (squares). **a** – all species (including terrestrial, epiphytic and rupicolous species), described by presence/absence data. Explanation of axis 1 = 26 % ($P < 0.05$) and of axis 2 = 9 %; **b** – epiphytic ferns and lycophytes, described by abundance (relative frequency date), explanation of axis 1 = 48 % ($P < 0.05$) and of axis 2 = 18 %; **c** – rupicolous ferns and lycophytes, described by abundance, explanation of axis 1 = 31 % ($P < 0.05$) and of axis 2 = 14 %; **d** – terrestrial ferns and lycophytes, described by abundance, explanation of axis 1 = 44 % ($P > 0.05$) and of axis 2 = 13 %. Species with higher correlation coefficients are shown in the diagrams; ab – *Asplenium brasiliense*, ac – *Asplenium clausenii*, ae – *Asplenium sellowianum*, ag – *Asplenium gastonis*, ap – *Aplenium pseudonitidum*, ar – *Adiantum raddianum*, as – *Asplenium scandicinum*, ba – *Blechnum auriculatum*, bb – *Blechnum acutum*, ca – *Campyloneurum acrocarpum*, cf – *Ctenitis fasciculata*, cg – *Campyloneurum aglaolepis*, cn – *Campyloneurum nitidum*, cr – *Campyloneurum rigidum*, cu –

Campyloneurum austrobrasiliatum, dc – *Diplazium cristatum*, dd – *Dennstaedtia dissecta*, de – *Deparia petersenii*, dl – *Diplazium plantaginifolium*, do – *Diplazium rostratum*, ds – *Dicksonia sellowiana*, dt – *Didymochlaena truncatula*, ea – *Elaphoglossum auricolum*, el – *Eupodium kaulfussii*, es – *Elaphoglossum sellowianum*, eu – *Elaphoglossum luridum*, ev – *Elaphoglossum vagans*, he – *Hymenophyllum peltatum*, hi – *Histiopteris incisa*, hp – *Hymenophyllum polyanthos*, hu – *Hymenophyllum pulchellum*, lo – *Leucotrichium organense*, lq – *Lindsaea quadrangularis*, lv – *Lygodium volubile*, mc – *Megalastrum connexum*, mg – *Mickelia guianensis*, ms – *Microgramma squamulosa*, mt – *Macrothelypteris torresiana*, mv – *Microgramma vaccinifolia*, nr – *Nephidium rufosquamatum*, pb – *Pteris brasiliense*, pc – *Polybotrya cylindrica*, pd – *Pteris deflexa*, pf – *Pleopeltis pleopeltifolia*, ph – *Pleopeltis hirsutissima*, pi – *Pecluma sicca*, pl – *Polytaenium lineatum*, pn – *Psilotum nudum*, po – *Pecluma* sp., pr – *Pecluma robusta*, sm – *Serpocaulon menisciifolium*, su – *Selaginella muscosa*, ta – *Thelypteris amambayensis*, td – *Thelypteris dentata*, tn – *Trichomanes anadromum*, to – *Trichomanes polypodioides*, tp – *Tectaria pilosa*, tr – *Thelypteris rivularoides*, ts – *Thelypteris conspersa*, vr – *Vandenboschia radicans*.

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Fern and lycophyte communities at contrasting altitudes in Brazil

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Q7 t4.1 **Table 4** Species with highest Importance Values (IV) in four formations situated at different altitudinal belts in the Atlantic Rain Forest in northeast Rio Grande do Sul state, Brazil, separately for epiphytic, terrestrial and rupicolous categories. The total corresponds to the sum of the IVs of the five most important species, for each formation.

	Community	#	LOWLANDS	IV	SUBMONTANE	IV	MONTANE	IV	UPPER MONTANE	IV
t4.2										
t4.3	Epiphytes	1°	<i>Microgramma vaccinijifolia</i>	40.50	<i>Microgramma vaccinijifolia</i>	16.99	<i>Hymenophyllum polyanthos</i>	16.17	<i>Hymenophyllum polyanthos</i>	20.90
t4.4		2°	<i>Pleopeltis pleopeltifolia</i>	15.57	<i>Microgramma squamulosa</i>	13.52	<i>Microgramma squamulosa</i>	11.23	<i>Pleopeltis pleopeltidis</i>	17.75
t4.5		3°	<i>Mickelia guianensis</i>	7.63	<i>Campyloneurum nitidum</i>	10.04	<i>Pleopeltis pleopeltidis</i>	10.28	<i>Elaphoglossum sellowianum</i>	12.02
t4.6		4°	<i>Campyloneurum nitidum</i>	4.68	<i>Pleopeltis pleopeltifolia</i>	8.22	<i>Pleopeltis hirsutissima</i>	7.90	<i>Pleopeltis hirsutissima</i>	7.43
t4.7		5°	<i>Serpocaulon cathariniae</i>	4.26	<i>Mickelia guianensis</i>	6.08	<i>Elaphoglossum sellowianum</i>	7.23	<i>Pectuna paradiseae</i>	5.59
t4.8		Total		72.64	Total	54.85	Total	52.81	Total	63.69
t4.9	Terrestrial	1°	<i>Polybotrya cylindrica</i>	8.93	<i>Didymochlaena truncatula</i>	8.85	<i>Dicksonia sellowiana</i>	10.82	<i>Dicksonia sellowiana</i>	11.81
t4.10		2°	<i>Diplazium cristatum</i>	6.35	<i>Alsophila setosa</i>	7.89	<i>Lastreopsis amplissima</i>	9.50	<i>Asplenium pseudolitidum</i>	7.61
t4.11		3°	<i>Mickelia guianensis</i>	6.21	<i>Megalastrum connexum</i>	6.02	<i>Dennstaedtia dissecta</i>	7.07	<i>Elaphoglossum sellowianum</i>	5.96
t4.12		4°	<i>Megalastrum connexum</i>	6.07	<i>Diplazium cristatum</i>	4.67	<i>Blechnum acutum</i>	6.14	<i>Pleopeltis pleopeltidis</i>	5.60
t4.13		5°	<i>Tectaria incisa</i>	5.86	<i>Mickelia guianensis</i>	4.24	<i>Asplenium pseudolitidum</i>	5.29	<i>Pectuna paradiseae</i>	5.51
t4.14		Total		66.86	Total	63.34	Total	77.62	Total	72.77
t4.15	Rupicolous	1°	<i>Vandenboschia radicans</i>	20.95	<i>Asplenium brasiliense</i>	17.41	<i>Asplenium gastonis</i>	16.29	<i>Hymenophyllum polyanthos</i>	24.36
t4.16		2°	<i>Diplazium cristatum</i>	8.57	<i>Vandenboschia radicans</i>	15.43	<i>Elaphoglossum sellowianum</i>	11.63	<i>Microgramma squamulosa</i>	16.24
t4.17		3°	<i>Microgramma vaccinijifolia</i>	8.2	<i>Campyloneurum rigidum</i>	12.07	<i>Dichmaglossum hymenoides</i>	9.31	<i>Elaphoglossum auricomum</i>	16.90
t4.18		4°	<i>Mickelia guianensis</i>	7.54	<i>Diplazium cristatum</i>	6.58	<i>Vandenboschia radicans</i>	8.12	<i>Asplenium gastonis</i>	12.18
t4.19		5°	<i>Campyloneurum rigidum</i>	6.09	<i>Mickelia guianensis</i>	5.98	<i>Asplenium pseudolitidum</i>	6.98	<i>Elaphoglossum sellowianum</i>	12.04
t4.20		Total		51.35	Total	57.47	Total	52.33	Total	81.72

448	Hymenophyllaceae, in terms of species number and	495
449	abundance corroborates with other studies from Atlantic	496
450	Forest and tropical forests in general, (e.g. Watkins et al.	497
451	2006; Paciencia 2008; Damasceno 2010; Nóbrega et al.	498
452	2011; Nóbrega 2013). The total species accumulation	499
453	(sample-based rarefaction) curve failed to saturate, sug-	500
454	gesting that the actual species number should be even	501
455	higher (Fig. 2). Nonetheless, our species richness indi-	502
456	cators showed expected overall richness values rather	503
457	close to the observed value, i.e. posing no limitations to	504
458	interpretation of our data. The richness values found by	505
459	us are similar to those found along other altitudinal	506Q8
460	gradients in tropical parts of Brazil, e.g. in the studies	507
461	by Paciencia (2008: 166 species in 30 plots of 600 m ²	508
462	along a gradient of 1,500 m, in the Atlantic Forest in	509
463	Paraná state), Nobrega (2013: 90 species in 49 plots	510
464	along a gradient of 1,000 m in the Atlantic Forest in	511
465	São Paulo state) and Damasceno (2010: 115 ferns in 180	512
466	plots of 25 m ² each along a gradient from 1,000 to 1,800	513
467	m a.s.l.).	514
468	Some species presented a restricted distribution along	515
469	the gradient, e.g. were only observed in montane forest	516
470	(4 species, Fig. 1), while the majority of species showed	517
471	a greater ecological amplitude, with wide distribution	518
472	and occurring in more than one type of forest (18 %	519
473	were found in all forest types). The common presence in	520
474	all formations of <i>Adiantum raddianum</i> , <i>Blechnum</i>	521
475	<i>acutum</i> , <i>Blechnum brasiliense</i> , <i>Microgramma</i>	522
476	<i>vaccinifolia</i> and <i>Selaginella muscosa</i> conforms the wide	523
477	distribution of these species, both in the continent and in	524
478	RS (Nervo et al. 2010), and demonstrates high adapt-	525
479	ability of these species to a variety of environments. In	526
480	contrast, the presence of locally abundant species in	
481	only one formation, such as <i>Lindsaea quadrangularis</i>	
482	(observed exclusively in lowland formations),	
483	<i>Blechnum lehmannii</i> (submontane), <i>Histiopteris incisa</i>	
484	and <i>Tryonia myriophylla</i> (upper montane), could be	
485	indicative of their specificity to the specific climatic	
486	conditions at the respective altitudinal range.	
487	Richness and diversity	527
488	The composition and richness of fern and lycophyte	528
489	communities differed among the altitudinal belts of the	529
490	Atlantic Rain Forest, with similar total richness values	530
491	for submontane montane and upper montane forest, but	531
492	considerably higher values for montane and upper mon-	532
493	tane forest at the plot level (Table 1, Table 2, Fig. 3).	533
494	Overall, the montane and upper montane forests showed	534
	quite similar patterns: higher richness of epiphytic spe-	535
	cies in comparison to the two lower formations (even	536
	though differences to the submontane forest were not	537
	always significant). The environmental characteristics	538
	of higher altitudes, such as lower temperatures (in our	539
	case, an absolute difference of about 10°C to between	540
	lowland and upper montane), associated to low rates of	541
	decomposition, nitrogen accumulation in the soil and	
	the frequent presence of fog through stationary clouds	
	have been shown to be main factors that affect the	
	occurrence and distribution patterns of species of ferns	
	and lycophytes (Kessler 2001a; Bhattacharai and Vetaas	
	2003; Kluge et al. 2006; Paciencia 2008; Vieira et al.	
	2011).	
	Distinct ecological groups (epiphytic species vs ter-	
	restrial and rupicolous species) showed distinct patterns	
	in terms of species richness across altitudes. Epiphytic	
	species responding slightly clearer to the altitudinal	
	differences than terrestrial species (Table 2 and Fig. 4),	
	as evidenced by the significant differences in epiphytic	
	richness of the two higher forest formations when com-	
	pared to the two lower formations. For terrestrial spe-	
	cies, submontane forests presented the highest diversity	
	and species richness, and lowland forest differed signifi-	
	cantly from all other formations. For rupicolous spe-	
	cies, the opposite result was observed, a monotonic	
	decrease in species richness with elevation increase,	
	with greater diversity and species richness in	
	Submontane forest (Table 2, Fig. 4). Total species rich-	
	ness all substrate types combined maintained a relative-	
	ly steady richness after an initial increase significative at	
	lower elevations (Table 3, Fig. 4).	
	Community composition	527
	The PCoA calculated for the total data set and for	528
	specific groups showed the same general pattern of a	529
	clear distinction of communities into the two lower and	530
	two higher forest types, with considerable overlap with-	531
	in each of these groups, i.e. between Lowland and	532
	Submontane Forests and between Montane and Upper	533
	montane areas. This distinction is also supported by the	534
	values of the Sørensen index, even though we do rec-	535
	ognize that the high similarity between the two upper	536
	formations may have some influence from the fact that	537
	the montane sites were all situated in the upper range of	538
	the formation, due to lack of available study sites at the	539
	lower part of the distribution of this range. Within com-	540
	munity variation increased with altitude, indicating	541

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Fern and lycophyte communities at contrasting altitudes in Brazil

542 stronger environmental filtering in the higher altitudinal
543 belts.

544 Adequate conditions for the development of epiphytic
545 plants in mountain regions has been documented in
546 the literature (Benzing 1990; Moran 2008). The overlap
547 of substrate types (epiphytic, rupicolous and terrestrial)
548 for pteridophytes in Neotropical forests has been reported
549 by several authors, but in these studies, species with
550 more than one type of substrate (or habit) hardly exceed
551 20–30 % of the total species number (Kornás 1977;
552 Dittrich et al. 2005; Watkins et al. 2006; Paciencia
553 2008). Among the different types of overlap reported,
554 species that show both a terrestrial and epiphytic habit
555 usually they are the most frequent, but their percentage
556 of the total community does not exceed 12 % (Kornás
557 1977; Dittrich et al. 2005; Watkins et al. 2006; Paciencia
558 2008). Interestingly, in our study, we found 45 % of
559 species that colonize more than one type of substrate and
560 18 % of overlap specifically between terrestrial and
561 epiphytes species. This low habitat specificity regarding
562 substrate type can be considered indicative for the rather
563 high adaptability of some species to environmental varia-
564 tions, in particular along an altitudinal gradient. An-
565 other factor that may have contributed to our results is
566 that some species (10 %) occur quite close to the base of
567 phorophytes, especially at very humid sites where hu-
568 mus may accumulate. These species belong to genera or
569 families, which are usually not cited to occur in this
570 habit or condition.

571 Final considerations

572 Following Rahbek (1995, 2005), species richness and
573 altitude show complex relationships that vary according
574 to the taxonomic group and the gradient considered. In
575 our study, even though we recorded clear difference of
576 composition and richness of fern and lycophyte com-
577 munities, and considerably lower richness in the low-
578 land forest, the variation of overall richness did not
579 follow any pattern already established for altitudinal
580 gradients, such as a mid-altitudinal peak or a decline in
581 richness with altitude. Possibly, this is because condi-
582 tions at the higher end of our gradient are not severe
583 enough to cause a decline in species number. Data of
584 communities with different substrate types, especially
585 epiphytic and rupicolous species, showed opposing ten-
586 dencies: while epiphytes tended to occupy the highest
587 formations gradient (montane and upper montane for-
588 est), rupicolous species tended to occupy the lower

589 portions (submontane forest). This indicates that envi-
590 ronmental filters that change along the gradient act
591 differently on different ecological groups, which should
592 be explored further, e.g. by including functional traits of
593 species.

594 The high floristic richness of ferns and lycophtes
595 observed in the study areas shows the importance of
596 remaining Atlantic rain forest patches for this plant
597 group in Rio Grande do Sul. In this study, we described
598 patterns of composition, species richness and diversity
599 of ferns and lycophtes along an altitudinal gradient.
600 Further studies should address the relative importance of
601 different spatial and environmental variables, thus in-
602 creasing our understanding of the drivers of community
603 assembly of the species group in question.

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Fern and lycophyte communities at contrasting altitudes in Brazil	/Q1
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Fern and lycophyte communities at contrasting altitudes in Brazil's subtropical Atlantic Rain Forest

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Michelle Helena Nervol, Frederico Velho da Silva Coelho², Paulo Günther Windisch¹, Gerhard Ernst Overbeck¹,
¹*Universidade Federal do Rio Grande do Sul, Programa de Pós-graduação em Botânica, Av. Bento Gonçalves 9500, 91501-970, Porto Alegre, Rio Grande do Sul, Brazil; e-mail: mhnmervo@gmail.com*
²*Universidade Federal do Rio Grande do Sul, Curso de Ciências Biológicas, Av. Bento Gonçalves 9500, 91501-970, Porto Alegre, Rio Grande do Sul, Brazil*
³*Universidade Federal do Rio Grande do Sul, Departamento de Botânica, Av. Bento Gonçalves 9500, 91501-970, Porto Alegre, Rio Grande do Sul, Brazil*

Supplementary Material Table 1 Characteristics of the different study sites in Atlantic Rain Forest in northeastern Rio Grande do Sul state, Brazil, in four forest formations: Lowland (LO), Submontane (SU), Montane (MO), Upper montane (UP). Information on soil type from IBGE (2002); information on climatic conditions from Alvares et al. (2013).

Forest formation	Municipality	No. area	Coordinates	Mean Altitude (m)	Soil type*	Climate type (Koeppen-Geiger) **	Mean annual precipitation (mm) ***	Mean annual temperature (Celsius)***
LO	Dom Pedro de Alcântara	1	29°19'29.47"S 49°50'29.47"O	26	Red Alfisol	Cfa	1600-1900	18-20
LO	Mampituba	2	29°13'41.55"S 49°54'46.74"O	29	Haplic Gleysol	Cfa	1600-1900	18-20
LO	Morrinhos do Sul	3	29°19'08.17"S 49°55'27.55"O	20	Haplic Cambissol	Cfa	1600-1900	18-20
LO	Morrinhos do Sul	4	29°17'18.42"S 49°53'50.91"O	42	Haplic Cambissol	Cfa	1600-1900	18-20
LO	Torres	5	29°17'25.43"S 49°55'00.78"O	16	Cambissol Haplic	Cfa	1600-1900	18-20
SU	Morrinhos do Sul	6	29°26'21.24"S 49°58'33.96"O	398	Red Alfisol	Cfa	1600-1900	18-20
SU	Morrinhos do Sul	7	29°25'46.10"S 49°59'11.72"O	384	Red Alfisol	Cfa	1600-1900	18-20
SU	Morrinhos do Sul	8	29°22'57.59"S	435	Red Alfisol	Cfa	1600-1900	18-20

SU	Terra de Areia	9	49°59'57.56"S 29°20'54.14"S	397	Red Alfisol	Cfa	1600-1900	18-20
SU	Terra de Areia	10	49°58'24.55"O 29°16'58.17"S	487	Red Alfisol	Cfa	1600-1900	18-20
MO	Cambará do Sul	11	49°56'59.70"O 29°09'44.10"S	961	Humic Cambissol	Cfb	1900-2200	12-14
MO	Cambará do Sul	12	50°06'02.56"O 29°03'32.80"S	964	Humic Cambissol	Cfb	1900-2200	12-14
MO	Cambará do Sul	13	50°05'56.30"O 29°11'05.74"S	969	Humic Cambissol	Cfb	1900-2200	12-14
MO	Cambará do Sul	14	50°05'51.26"O 29°09'44.88"S	967	Humic Cambissol	Cfb	1900-2200	12-14
MO	Cambará do Sul	15	50°04'20.52"O 29°10'34.64"S	988	Humic Cambissol	Cfb	1900-2200	12-14
UP	Cambará do Sul	16	50°04'21.73"O 29°04'10.88"S	1045	Humic Cambissol	Cfb	1900-2200	12-14
UP	Cambará do Sul	17	49°57'40.73"O 29°04'22.47"S	1051	Humic Cambissol	Cfb	1900-2200	12-14
UP	Cambará do Sul	18	49°59'38.77"O 29°02'17.27"S	1101	Humic Cambissol	Cfb	1900-2200	12-14
UP	Cambará do Sul	19	49°58'22.65"O 29°01'30.13"S	1071	Humic Cambissol	Cfb	1900-2200	12-14
UP	Cambará do Sul	20	49°56'58.03"O 29°02'00.43"S	1089	Humic Cambissol	Cfb	1900-2200	12-14

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Supplementary Material Table 2 Fern and lycophyte species occurring in four different altitudinal belts in the Atlantic Rain Forest in northeastern Rio Grande do Sul state, Brazil. Threat categories (TC): en = endangered; vu = vulnerable. Substrate types (ST): e = epiphytic; r = rupicolous; t = terrestrial; LO: Lowland; SU: Submontane; MO: Montane; UP: Upper montane.

FAMILY/Species	TC	ST	LO	SU	MO	UP
ANEMIACEAE						
<i>Anemia phyllitidis</i> (L.) Sw.		e/t	X	X		
ASPLENIACEAE						
<i>Asplenium brasiliense</i> Sw.		e/r/t	X	X		
<i>Asplenium clausenii</i> Hieron.		e/r/t		X	X	X
<i>Asplenium gastonis</i> Féé		e/r		X	X	X
<i>Asplenium harpeodes</i> Kunze		e/t		X	X	X
<i>Asplenium inaequilaterale</i> Willd.		e/t	X	X		
<i>Asplenium incurvatum</i> Féé		e			X	X
<i>Asplenium kunzeanum</i> Klotzsch ex Rosenst.		e/r/t	X	X	X	
<i>Asplenium mucronatum</i> C.Presl	vu	e	X	X		X
<i>Asplenium pseudonitidum</i> Raddi		e/r/t		X	X	X
<i>Asplenium scandicinum</i> Kaulf.		e		X	X	X
<i>Asplenium sellowianum</i> (Hieron.) Hieron.		e/r/t		X	X	X
<i>Asplenium serra</i> Langsd. & Fisch.		t	X			
<i>Asplenium</i> sp1		t	X	X		
<i>Asplenium</i> sp2		t				X
<i>Asplenium</i> sp3		t		X		
<i>Asplenium uniseriale</i> Raddi		t	X	X		
<i>Hymenasplenium triquetrum</i> (N.Murak. & R.C.Moran) L.Regalado & Prada		t	X			
ATHYRIACEAE						
<i>Athyrium dombeyi</i> Desv.	en	t			X	X
<i>Deparia petersenii</i> (Kunze) M.Kato		e/t		X	X	X
<i>Diplazium cristatum</i> (Desr.) Alston		e/r/t	X	X	X	
<i>Diplazium plantaginifolium</i> (L.) Urb.		e/r/t	X	X		
<i>Diplazium rostratum</i> Féé		t		X		
BLECHNACEAE						
<i>Blechnum acutum</i> (Desv.) Mett.		e/t	X	X	X	X
<i>Blechnum auriculatum</i> Cav.		t		X	X	X
<i>Blechnum brasiliense</i> Desv.		e/t	X	X	X	X
<i>Blechnum cordatum</i> (Desv.) Hieron.		t				X
<i>Blechnum lehmannii</i> Hieron.		t		X		

<i>Blechnum occidentale</i> L.		t		X		X
<i>Blechnum schomburgkii</i> (Klotzsch) C.Chr.		t			X	X
<i>Blechnum serrulatum</i> Rich.		t			X	X
<i>Blechnum spannagelii</i> Rosenst.		t				X
CYATHEACEAE						
<i>Alsophila setosa</i> Kaulf.		t	X	X	X	X
<i>Cyathea atrovirens</i> (Langsd. & Fisch) Domin.		t	X	X	X	X
<i>Cyathea corcovadensis</i> (Raddi) Domin.	vu	t	X			
<i>Cyathea delgadii</i> Sternb.		t			X	X
<i>Cyathea phalerata</i> Mart.		t			X	X
DENNSTAEDTIACEAE						
<i>Dennstaedtia dissecta</i> T.Moore		e/t		X	X	X
<i>Dennstaedtia globulifera</i> (Poir.) Hieron.		t		X		
<i>Dennstaedtia obtusifolia</i> (Willd.) T.Moore		t		X		
<i>Histiopteris incisa</i> (Thunb.) J.Sm.		t				X
DICKSONIACEAE						
<i>Dicksonia sellowiana</i> Hook.	vu	e/t	X	X	X	X
DRYOPTERIDACEAE						
<i>Ctenitis falciculata</i> (Raddi) Ching		t	X	X		
<i>Ctenitis submarginalis</i> (Langsd. & Fisch.) Ching		t	X	X		
<i>Didymochlaena truncatula</i> (Sw.) J.Sm.		e/t	X	X		
<i>Elaphoglossum auricomum</i> (Kunze) T.Moore		r/t			X	X
<i>Elaphoglossum edwallii</i> Rosenst.		t			X	X
<i>Elaphoglossum langsdorffii</i> (Hook. & Grev.) T.Moore		r		X		
<i>Elaphoglossum luridum</i> (Fée) Christ		e/r/t	X	X	X	
<i>Elaphoglossum macrophyllum</i> (Mett. ex Kuhn) Christ	en	e/t	X			X
<i>Elaphoglossum sellowianum</i> (Klotzsch. ex Kuhn) T.Moore		e/r			X	X
<i>Elaphoglossum vagans</i> (Mett.) Hieron.		e/r/t			X	X
<i>Lastreopsis amplissima</i> (C.Presl) Tindale		e/t	X	X	X	X
<i>Mickelia guianensis</i> (Aubl.) R.C.Moran <i>et al.</i>		e/r/t	X	X		
<i>Megalastrum connexum</i> (Kaulf.) A.R.Sm. & R.C.Moran		e/t	X	X		
<i>Polybotrya cylindrica</i> Kaulf.		e/t	X	X	X	X
<i>Polystichum montevidense</i> (Spreng.) Rosenst.		e/t			X	X
<i>Rumohra adiantiformis</i> (G.Forst.) Ching		e/r/t	X	X	X	X
HYMENOPHYLLACEAE						
<i>Didymoglossum hymenoides</i> (Hedw.) Desv.		e/r	X	X	X	X
<i>Didymoglossum reptans</i> (Sw.) C.Presl		e/r		X		
<i>Hymenophyllum asplenoides</i> (Sw.) Sw.		e			X	X
<i>Hymenophyllum caudiculatum</i> Mart.		e/r	X	X	X	
<i>Hymenophyllum magellanicum</i> Willd. ex Kunze	vu	e		X		
<i>Hymenophyllum peltatum</i> (Poir.) Lam.	vu	e/r			X	X
<i>Hymenophyllum polyanthos</i> (Sw.) Sw.		e/r	X	X	X	X
<i>Hymenophyllum pulchellum</i> Schltdl. & Cham.		e			X	X
<i>Hymenophyllum rufum</i> Fée		e			X	X
<i>Hymenophyllum vestitum</i> (C.Presl) V.D.Bosch		e		X		X
<i>Polyphlebium angustatum</i> (Carmich.) Ebihara & Dubuisson		e		X	X	X

<i>Trichomanes anadromum</i> Rosenst.	e		X	X	X
<i>Trichomanes polypodioides</i> Raddi	e/r	X		X	
<i>Vandenboschia radicans</i> (Sw.) Copel.	e/r	X	X	X	X
<i>Vandenboschia rupestris</i> (Raddi) Ebihara & K.Iwats.	r		X		
LINDSAEACEAE					
<i>Lindsaea botrychiodes</i> A.St.-Hil.	e/t			X	X
<i>Lindsaea quadrangularis</i> Raddi	t	X			
LOMARIOPSISIDACEAE					
<i>Lomariopsis marginata</i> (Schrad.) Kuhn	e	X			
LYCOPODIACEAE					
<i>Phlegmariurus acerosus</i> (Sw.) B.Øllg.	e			X	X
<i>Phlegmariurus flexibilis</i> (Fée) B.Øllg.	e			X	X
<i>Phlegmariurus heterocarpon</i> (Fée) B.Øllg.	e			X	X
<i>Phlegmariurus hexastichus</i> (B.Øllg. & P.G.Windisch) B.Øllg.	e			X	X
<i>Phlegmariurus loefgrenianus</i> (Silveira) B.Øllg.	e			X	X
<i>Phlegmariurus mandiocanus</i> (Raddi) B.Øllg.	e	X	X	X	X
<i>Phlegmariurus quadrifariatus</i> (Bory) B.Øllg.	e			X	X
LYGODIACEAE					
<i>Lygodium volubile</i> Sw.	vu	t	X		
MARATTIACEAE					
<i>Eupodium kaulfussii</i> (J.Sm.) J.Sm.		e/r/t		X	X
OPHIOGLOSSACEAE					
<i>Botrypus virginianus</i> (L.) Michx.	vu	t			X
POLYPODIACEAE					
<i>Campyloneurum acrocarpon</i> Fée	e/r	X	X		
<i>Campyloneurum aglaolepis</i> (Alston) de la Sota	e			X	X
<i>Campyloneurum austrobrasiliandum</i> (Alston) de la Sota	e		X	X	X
<i>Campyloneurum nitidum</i> (Kaulf.) C.Presl.	e/r	X	X	X	X
<i>Campyloneurum rigidum</i> Sm.	e/r	X	X		
<i>Campyloneurum</i> sp	e		X	X	
<i>Ceradenia albidula</i> (Baker) L.E.Bishop	en	e/r		X	X
<i>Cochlidium punctatum</i> (Raddi) L.E.Bishop	e			X	X
<i>Leucotrichum organense</i> (Gardner) Labiak	e			X	X
<i>Leucotrichum schenckii</i> (Hieron.) Labiak	e			X	X
<i>Microgramma vacciniifolia</i> (Langsd. & Fisch.) Copel	e/r	X	X	X	
<i>Microgramma squamulosa</i> (Kaulf.) de la Sota	e/r	X	X	X	X
<i>Niphidium rufosquamatum</i> Lellinger	e/r	X	X	X	X
<i>Pecluma cf. recurvata</i> (Kaulf.) M.G.Price	e			X	X
<i>Pecluma chnoophora</i> (Kunze) Salino & Costa Assis	e	X			
<i>Pecluma paradiseae</i> (Langsd. & Fisch.) M.G.Price	e/t		X	X	X
<i>Pecluma pectinatiformis</i> (Lindm.) M.G.Price	e	X	X	X	X
<i>Pecluma robusta</i> (Fée) M.Kessler & A.R.Sm.	r/t	X			
<i>Pecluma sicca</i> (Lindm.) M.G.Price	e/r	X	X	X	X
<i>Pecluma</i> sp	t			X	
<i>Pleopeltis hirsutissima</i> (Raddi) de la Sota	e	X	X	X	X

<i>Pleopeltis macrocarpa</i> (Bory ex Willd.) Kaulf.	e		X	X	X
<i>Pleopeltis pleopeltidis</i> (Fée) de la Sota	e		X	X	X
<i>Pleopeltis pleopeltifolia</i> (Raddi) Alston	e/r	X	X	X	X
<i>Pleopeltis polypodioides</i> (L.) Andrews & Windham	e		X	X	X
<i>Serpocaulon catharinae</i> (Langsd. & Fisch.) A.R.Smith	e/r	X	X	X	X
<i>Serpocaulon laetum</i> (C.Presl) Schwartsb. & A.R.Sm.	e	X	X	X	X
<i>Serpocaulon latipes</i> (Langsd. & Fisch.) A.R.Sm.	e				X
<i>Serpocaulon menisciifolium</i> (Langsd. & Fisch.) A.R.Sm.	e	X	X	X	
<i>Zygophlebia longipilosa</i> (C.Chr.) L.E.Bishop	e			X	X
PSILOTACEAE					
<i>Psilotum nudum</i> (L.) P.Beauv.	t		X		
PTERIDACEAE					
<i>Adiantopsis regularis</i> Kunze	t				X
<i>Adiantum pentadactylon</i> Langsd. & Fisch.	e/t	X	X		
<i>Adiantum raddianum</i> C.Presl	e/r/t	X	X	X	X
<i>Doryopteris pentagona</i> Pic.Serm.	e/t	X	X		
<i>Pityrogramma chaerophylla</i> (Desv.) Domin	t			X	
<i>Polytaenium lineatum</i> (Sw.) J.Sm.	en	r/t		X	
<i>Pteris altissima</i> Poir.	t	X	X		
<i>Pteris brasiliensis</i> Sw.	t	X	X		
<i>Pteris deflexa</i> Link	e/r/t		X	X	X
<i>Pteris</i> sp	e		X		
<i>Tryonia myriophylla</i> (Sw.) Schuettp., J.Prado & A.T.Cochran	t				X
<i>Vittaria lineata</i> (L.) Sm.	e/r	X	X	X	X
SELAGINELLACEAE					
<i>Selaginella muscosa</i> Spring	e/r/t	X	X	X	X
TECTARIACEAE					
<i>Tectaria incisa</i> Cav.	e/t	X	X		
<i>Tectaria pilosa</i> (Fée) R.C.Moran	t	X	X		
THELYPTERIDACEAE					
<i>Macrothelypteris torresiana</i> (Gaudich.) Ching	t	X			
<i>Thelypteris amambayensis</i> Ponce	e/t			X	X
<i>Thelypteris conspersa</i> (Schrad.) A.R.Sm.	t	X	X		X
<i>Thelypteris dentata</i> (Forssk.) E.P.St.John	e/t			X	X
<i>Thelypteris hispidula</i> (Decne.) C.F.Reed	e/t	X	X	X	X
<i>Thelypteris opposita</i> (Vahl) Ching	t				X
<i>Thelypteris rivularioides</i> (Fée) Abbiatti	t	X	X	X	



Capítulo 2

SPACE AND ABIOTIC FACTORS ARE DRIVERS OF FERNS AND LYCOPHYTES DIVERSITY PATTERNS ALONG AN ELEVATIONAL GRADIENT IN SOUTHERN BRAZIL

Michelle Helena Nervo, Bianca Ott Andrade, Carlos Gustavo Tornquist, Paulo Günter Windisch e Gerhard Ernst Overbeck

Journal Vegetation Science (a submeter)

Space and abiotic factors are drivers of ferns and lycophytes diversity patterns along an elevational gradient in Southern Brazil

Michelle Helena Nervo¹, Bianca Ott Andrade¹, Carlos Gustavo Tornquist³, Paulo Günter Windisch¹, Gerhard Ernst Overbeck^{1,2}

¹*Universidade Federal do Rio Grande do Sul, Programa de Pós-graduação em Botânica, Av. Bento Gonçalves 9500, 91501–970, Porto Alegre, Rio Grande do Sul, Brasil; e-mail: mhnero@gmail.com*

²*Universidade Federal do Rio Grande do Sul, Departamento de Botânica. Av. Bento Gonçalves 9500, 91501–970, Porto Alegre, Rio Grande do Sul, Brasil*

³*Universidade Federal do Rio Grande do Sul, Programa de Pós-graduação em Ciências do Solo, Departamento de Solos. Av. Bento Gonçalves 9500, 91501–970, Porto Alegre, Rio Grande do Sul, Brasil*

Abstract

Questions: What are the drivers that govern fern and lycophyte community composition in the South Brazilian Atlantic Forest? Does explanatory power of the models increase when we consider substrate-based life-forms separately? Do terrestrial and epiphytic species respond equally to the environmental drivers?

Location: Four distinct altitudinal zones of the Atlantic Rain Forest *sensu stricto* in Northeastern Rio Grande do Sul, Brazil.

Method: We used variation partitioning procedures to ascertain the relative influence of climatic, edaphic and spatial processes on variation in species composition at different spatial scales, considering the entire community and subsets with only epiphytic species and terrestrial species.

Results: Our results suggest that environmental variables were the most responsible for shaping the fern and lycophyte community composition at the broad scale, while edaphic filters showed higher importance at the terrestrial community and climatic filters for epiphytic species. Clearly, considering epiphytic and terrestrial species separately increased the explanatory power of the models.

Conclusions: We observed the shared evidence of neutral and niche-based processes in community structure. However, our results indicate that the niche processes are primarily responsible for modulating patterns of species distribution and abundance along the elevational gradient in the Southern Brazilian Atlantic Forest.

Keywords Pteridophytes; Environmental; Climatic Variables; Edaphic Variables; Atlantic Forest; Species Distribution; Variance Partitioning.

Introduction

The relative importance of stochastic and deterministic processes in structuring rain forest plant communities has long been a subject of debate (e.g. Fedorov 1966; Ashton 1969; Hubbell & Foster 1986), with the corresponding extreme views of community structuring now often being termed dispersal assembly (Hubbell 2001) and niche assembly (Hutchinson 1957, Chesson 2000). Under dispersal assembly, the species are considered functionally identical. This means that floristic differences are created by chance, limited only by the dispersion capacity of the species over different sites. Thus, similarity decays with increasing geographical distance. For niche assembly, in contrast, environmental variation (such as physical and chemical soil features, microclimate, etc.) acts as selective force of those species able to reach the sites characterized by specific conditions. This means that the similarity decays with increasing environmental distances. Both processes exist in nature: in a study with ferns and lycophtyes species composition in the Amazonian Rain Forest, Tuomisto et al. (2002; 2003 b) demonstrated the importance of geographical distance, i.e. neutral processes, for community assembly. In contrast, Guo et al. (2003) study demonstrated the importance of suitable habitat availability, i.e. nicho process, for community assembly of ferns and lycophtyes in Japan. Other studies show how both processes can act simultaneously (Tuomisto et al. 2003 b; Jones et al. 2011).

Along elevational gradients in tropical mountain systems, diversity and richness species have been shown to be maximized at situation with high humidity and moderate temperatures, often leading to highest values at intermediate elevations (Bhattarai et al. 2004; Kessler 2001a; Kluge et al. 2006). At the local scale, soil factors are additionally important to stratify the environment (Resende & Rao 1983, Tuomisto et al. 2003 a, Jones et al. 2008). An example is the study by Tuomisto & Ruokolainen (1994) that demonstrates that the distribution of ferns, lycophtyes and Melastomataceae in a soil gradient in the Peruvian Amazon is driven by different substrates and soil drainage. Hence, at least may terrestrial species are considered to be good indicators of soil conditions.

Plants with similar life-forms are expected to exhibit similar responses to environmental variations and have similar effects on the dominant ecosystem processes

(Walker 1992; Noble & Gitay 1996; Pausas & Austin 2001). Where contrasting life-forms cooccur, patterns of species richness along an environmental gradient might be easier to interpret when we consider not only total species richness, but also richness of life-forms separately. This is because the relative importance of specific environmental factors may differ between different life forms (Cardelús et al. 2006). One ecologically meaningful way to group ferns and lycophytes is a classification into substrate types. Substrate types (hereafter we use the term "life-forms") can vary in abundance and diversity along environmental gradients, such as with altitude (Watkins et al. 2006). This phenomenon has been known for at least forty years for ferns, when Tryon (1964) proposed a plant community classification based on the proportion of different life forms of these plants. Since then, several studies have considered the relationship between altitude and the occurrence of different forms of ferns and lycophytes life in forest systems (Lieberman et al. 2001; Hemp 2001; Kessler 2001; Wang et al. 2002; Watkins 2006), but few studies are available in Brazil (Paciencia 2008; Nervo et al. *in press*).

For our study site in the Atlantic Forest in Southern Brazil, the elevational gradient effects on species composition, richness and diversity has been demonstrated for ferns and lycophytes (Nervo et al. *in press*). Total species richness and diversity of different species groups (substrate types: terrestrial, rupicolous and epiphytic species) presented different patterns in distinct elevational zones. However, the drivers behind these patterns - specifically the role of geographical distances and of environmental effects in structuring communities – still have not been investigated in South Brazilian forests. The only existing study (Paciencia 2008) confirms the mid-domain effect (MDE): authors argue that, at macro-scales, the gradient in richness spatial patterns is geometrically constrained (ref. for Mid-Domain effect), with additional effects of a number of environmental factors. However, these authors did not distinguish between life-forms.

In the present paper, we analyse the relationship between distribution patterns of ferns and lycophytes and environmental variables along an altitudinal gradient, in the Atlantic Rain Forest in Southern Brazil, based on the following questions:

1. Relative importance of environment and space for community composition.

What are the environmental and spacial drivers that govern ferns and lycophytes species composition at the Southern Brazilian Atlantic Forest? To answer this question we discriminated environmental variables into climatic

and edaphic factors. Spatial factors were considered at the broad and fine scale. Due to the general high dispersal capacity of ferns and lycophytes, we expected a higher influence of environmental factors in comparison to the spatial component.

2. Differences between groups of epiphytic and terrestrial species. Do terrestrial and epiphytic species respond equally to the environmental drivers? We hypothesized that for epiphytic species, climatic variables would be of higher importance than soil factors in determining community composition variation along the gradient.

Material and Methods

Study region— The study region comprises an elevational gradient in the Atlantic Rain Forest *sensu stricto* (ARF; Floresta Ombrófila Densa in Portuguese) in the Northeastern part of the Rio Grande do Sul State, at the Southern limit of the Brazilian Atlantic Forest, a biodiversity hotspot (Mittermeier et al. 2004). The vegetation of the ARF at this latitude is commonly classified into four main forest types (Veloso & Góes-Filho 1982; see also Teixeira et al. 1986 and Brack 2009): 1) Lowland (LO), 5–50 m altitude; 2) Submontane (SU), at the base of the Serra do Mar mountains, with an altitude between 50–400 m; 3) Montane (MO), covering the slopes of the Serra do Mar, at altitudes ranging from 400–1,000 m; and 4) Upper montane (UP), at altitudes ranging between 1,000–1,400 m. Soils are highly variable, from sandy textured to very clayey textured soils (EMBRAPA 2004), with the predominance of Cambisols, Gleysols and Nitisols (IBGE 2002; EMBRAPA 2006). Climate in the region corresponds to Cfa (temperate humid with hot summers and temperature of the hottest month $> 22^{\circ}\text{C}$) and Cfb (warm summers with hottest month temperature $< 22^{\circ}\text{C}$) (Peel et al., 2007). Cfa predominates at lower elevations, while Cfb occurs at higher altitudes in the highlands and in the Northwestern part of the state. Mean annual temperature is 13–19 °C and ranges from 18–22 °C in summer to 11–15 °C in winter, where frosts are common and snowfall may occur in the highest areas (Nimer 1989). The precipitation is evenly distributed throughout the year, ranging from 1300 mm to 2000 mm.

Study design— Five study sites (replicates) were sampled for each altitudinal belt (LO, SU, MO and UM), totalling 20 study sites. At each site, we allocated six sample plots measuring 10 × 10 m, (with a minimum distance of 30 m between plots), parallel to the forest edge (with a minimum distance of 100 to 250 m from the border),

totalling 600 m² each site. The distance between sites (replicates) within an altitudinal zone was at least of 1 km. Most of the study areas were situated in protected areas in a good state of conservation. Fieldwork was conducted from March 2012 to March 2015.

Vegetation data— Fern and lycophyte communities are described in detail in Nervo et al. (*in press*), also considering abundance of epiphytic and terrestrial species. The complete species composition per site composed the response matrix Y, which was Hellinger transformed (Y_{all}) (Legendre & Gallagher 2001) for all subsequent analyses. In addition to using the full Yall matrix, we built matrices with the average cover of epiphytic and terrestrial species (Y_{epi} and Y_{ter}), considered as different ecological groups (life forms / substrate types). These matrices, Y_{epi} and Y_{ter}, also were Hellinger transformed.

Environmental variables— We compiled 27 environmental variables that described climate and soil features (Table 1). Climate data were obtained from the network of INMET weather stations between the period 1960-1990 (Inmet 2015), where 14 variables were extracted (Table 1). Soil variables (13 variables) where obtained by chemical and of soil samples analysis. For this, we collected soil samples in different depths (in intervals of 0–10 cm, 10–20 cm, 20–30 cm and 30–50 cm). From these measurements we obtained the weighted mean of the experimental values in order to get the value of the mean for chemical analysis to layer 0–50 cm, following methods described in EMBRAPA (1997). The evaluation of the soil drainage effect along elevational gradient was defined to the authors by help of the analyses of the soil depth, declivity and stoniness (IBGE 2007). Soil depth was measured with the aid of a Dutch Auger. Soil declivity was taken in the field with the help of a clinometer (degrees lecture) and stoniness was estimated in field.

Spatial variables— We recorded the geographical coordinates for the centroid of each site. Moran's Eigenvector Maps (MEM; Borcard et al. 2011) were used to generate the spatial variables. In summary, the MEM method compares geographical co-ordinates pair-to-pair using Euclidean distance. This Euclidean distance matrix was truncated at the smallest distance that keeps all points connected in a single network. Then, a principal coordinate analysis (PCoA) was performed, and the eigenvectors associated with positive eigenvalues were retained as spatial variables. Spatial axes obtained through the MEM method are well known for their capability to capture spatial trends at different range of scales (Borcard & Legendre 2002; Dray et al. 2006). This way, the first axes resultants from MEM (MEM 1–7 axes) represent a broad scale

spatial variance (matrix $X_{MEMbroad}$), while the last eigenvectors (MEM 8–14 axes) capture spatial variance at the fine scale ($X_{MEMfine}$).

Selection of explanatory variables— We ran forward selection procedures (Blanchet et al. 2008) on explanatory variables (environmental and spatial axes). The forward selection searches for explanatory variables is the one that better explains the variation in the species composition matrix (in our case Y_{all}) and variation in the species abundance matrix (in our case Y_{epi} and Y_{ter} , previously mentioned). By ‘better’ we can understand that the variable explains the greatest portion of the variance in the response data (higher R^2) and is also significant at a given significance level (tested by permutation).

The forward proceeding selection adds explanatory variables in the model considering two stopping criteria, alpha (given significance level) and R^2 . For all proceedings we adopted the criteria alpha = 0.1, while the adopted R^2 varied according to the R^2 of the global model (i.e., model with all explanatory variables). R^2 thresholds used for each response matrix were: $Y_{all} = 0.53$, $Y_{epi} = 0.52$ and $Y_{ter} = 0.50$. Forward selection is stopped when no additional variable added to the model has a P value smaller than or equal to alpha, or if it brings the R^2 of the current model over the value of the R^2 of the global model.

The selected environmental variables were used to compose the final explanatory matrices X_{Soil} and X_{Clim} , which together composed the complete environmental matrix (X_{Env}). The spatial variables selected here through forward selection (X_{MEM}) were separated into the three first MEMs (1, 2, 3) representing the spatial variation in broad scale ($X_{MEMbroad}$). No vector that captured the spatial variation on a fine scale was selected ($X_{MEMfine}$). Significant differences of soil and climatic variables along the elevational gradient, described by NMDS, were evaluated by ANOSIM (Claire & Warwick 1994), which is based on a R statistics, variable from 0 to 1 (Appendix 1).

Analytical procedures— We used variation partitioning procedures (Legendre & Legendre 2012) to verify the influence of explanatory variables (climate, soil or spatial distance) on response variables (species composition of sites). Specific subsets of explanatory and response variables were applied to answer each of our initial questions (see end of Introduction).

Three analyses were conducted on each of the three species matrices (Y_{all} , Y_{epi} and Y_{ter}): first to discern between the influence of environment (X_{Env}) and space

(X_{MEM}); second to specify the influence of discriminated environmental variables (X_{Clim} and X_{Soil}); and last to specify the influence of broad-scale ($X_{MEMbroad}$) and fine-scale ($X_{MEMfine}$) spatial variables. Canonical correspondence analysis (CCA - ter Braak 1986) was used to illustrate the influence of environmental variables in the structure of ferns and lycophytes communities (all species, epiphytic community and terrestrial community) along the altitudinal gradient in the Southern Brazilian Atlantic Forest. The NMDS, ANOSIM, CCA, MEM analysis and Variation partitioning analyses were performed in R platform (R Core Team 2013), using the ‘vegan’ package (Oksanen et al. 2012) and the ‘packfor’ package (Blanchet et al. 2008) was used to perform the forward selection.

Results

Two spatial and eight environmental variables (four climatic and four edaphic) were selected as predictor of the community composition of all species along the entire elevational gradient (Table 2). The selected spatial vectors 1 and 3 (Mem 1, 3) composed the matrix of broad-scale space (i.e., full gradient spatial variance), and no vector was selected that captured the spatial variation on a fine scale.

Most of the explained variation in the overall species composition matrix, i.e., including terrestrial species and epiphytes (Y_{all}), was related to the shared effect of environment and space (Fig. 1A). The percentage of variation explained by environmental factors alone was higher than that explained by space alone. The total environmental fraction, when discriminated between climate (X_{Clim}) and soil (X_{Soil}), showed that the biggest part of the species variation was related to the shared effect of climate and soil (Fig. 1B).

Precipitation, solar insolation and wind speed were variables that significantly increased along the elevational gradient (Appendix 2). Relative humidity showed similar values along the elevation gradient (see details of climatic variables in Appendix 2). Regarding edaphic variables, Aluminum content, soil depth and percentage of organic matter in soil increased along the elevational gradient, while pH decreased (see details in Appendix 2).

The CCA for the composition of all species explained 65% (axes 1 and 2) of the total data variation (Fig. 2). Axis 1 explained 48% of the total variation data and was positively related to high concentrations of aluminium and organic matter, high rainfall, high humidity of the air, deep soils , high wind intensity and high insolation, associated

to Montane and Upper Montane forests. In contrast, pH was negatively associated to this axis, with high values associated to Lowland and Submontane formations.

Different explanatory variables were selected through forward selection for Y_{Epi} and Y_{Ter} (Table 3). Most axes had already been seen in the selection for the full species matrix (see Table 2), but variation in soil calcium content and variation of minimum temperature of the coldest quarter along the gradient were exclusively related to the Epiphytic matrix, while the spatial variable MEM 2, cation exchange capacity and variation in soil potassium content were exclusively related to the Terrestrial matrix (Table 3).

The major part of variation in either epiphytic and terrestrial species abundance was once again explained by the shared effect of environment and space (32% and 36%; respectively Fig. 1C and E), followed by the pure environmental effect, explaining 17% and 13%. Considering the environmental variables, when discriminating between climate (X_{Clim}) and soil (X_{Soil}), we found that the biggest part of the variation was related to the shared effect of climate and soil (Fig. 1D and F),, followed by the pure climatic effect in the case of epiphytic species, explaining 11% and by the pure edaphic effects in the case of terrestrial species, explaining 8%.

The abundance of epiphytes species explained 65% (axes 1 and 2) of the total data variation in the CCA (Fig. 3). Axis 1 explained 50% of the total variation data and was positively related to high concentrations of aluminum and humidity air, solar insolation and high wind intensity concentrations, which were associated with the Montane and Upper Montane forest. In contrast, high values of minimum temperature, high concentrations of calcium and soil acidity (pH) were negatively related to axis 1 and associated with to Lowland and Submontane forest formations.

For terrestrial species, the canonical correspondence analysis (CCA) explained 88% (axes 1 and 2) of the total data variation (Fig. 4). Axis 1 was positively related to high concentrations of aluminum, cation exchange capacity and humidity air, solar insolation and wind intensity concentrations, which were associated to Montane and Upper montane forest. High potassium concentrations and soil acidity was associated to Lowlands and Submontane formations.

Discussion

Species diversity can be used as an indicator of ecological gradients and the environmental quality of an ecosystem (Alard et al. 1994; Alard & Poudevigne 2000),

and in another study (Nervo et al. *in press*) we showed that terrestrial and epiphytic species showed distinct patterns of community variation among elevation zones. Epiphytes species showed peaks of richness in Montane forest, whereas the terrestrial ferns showed more variable numbers with a less pronounced peak in the Submontane forest. With the presented study, we are now able to understand which factors are driving the variation in composition. Both spacial and environmental (climatic and edaphic) variables were predictors of fern and lycophytes community composition along our elevational gradient in the Southern Brazilian Atlantic Rain Forest and environmental variation was clearly structured in space (Table 2). Interestingly, the percentage of explanation of the variance partitioning procedure almost doubled when we considered ephiphytes and terrestrials separately underlines the need to consider both groups separately in ecological studies, as they apparently react in distinct ways to environmental variables. Lumping the groups together masks this and decreases overall explanation and in particular the percentage explained by environmental features, possibly leading to falls interpretations.

Climatic variables, such as precipitation and, consequently, humidity, have been indicated by several authors as the most relevant predictors of species composition of fern communities (Greer et al. 1997; Kessler et al. 2001; Aldasoro et al. 2004; Kessler et al. 2011; Salazar et al. 2013), and the same was shown in our study, both for terrestrial and epiphytic species. Air humidity on average was close to saturation at all elevations, which is not surprising for the mountain ecosystems in Atlantic Rain Forest with no marked ‘dry’ season (Köppen 1931). Nonetheless, we found significant differences between altitudes that proved to be important in shaping community composition (Appendix 2). The greatest diversity of epiphytes along elevational gradient is commonly attributed to climatic conditions such as relative humidity (Gentry & Dodson 1987; Benzing 1990), and this was also true in our study (see Nervo et al. *in press*, for details on composition): we observe the greatest diversity of epiphyte species in the altitude formations (Montane and Upper montane forest, Appendix 2), and humidity was shown to be an important drivers of the variance of epiphytic community abundance, together with other climatic variables (Fig. 1 and 3). However, our models also selected edaphic factors as drivers of epiphytic species community variation. While edaphic factors are known to influence the diversity and distribution of ferns (i.e., Young & Leon 1989; Pousen & Baslev 1991; Zuquim et al. 2007), the relation

obviously should be indirect and might require studying changes in phorophytes and their relation to the environmental factors.

With regard to edaphic variables, the variance in species composition of the entire community was related to different levels of soil Aluminum, soil depth, percentage of organic matter and pH. Paciencia (2008) found similar results for soil pH. In our study, the highest Aluminium values and the most acid soils ($\text{pH} < 4$) and highest Aluminum concentrations occurred in the higher altitude formations (montane and upper-montane forest, Appendix 2, Fig. 1). Most of the environmental variables selected in the model with all species were also selected using only epiphytic or only terrestrial species. But some environmental variables showed exclusivity for only one of these components, such as concentrations of potassium and cation exchange capacity, both relevant for community variation of terrestrial species, but not for epiphytes. Terrestrial ferns occur on soils that span a large gradient in terms of nutrient availability (i.e., fertility), with many species exhibiting clear affinities to soil of a particular fertility (i.e., Tuomisto & Poulsen, 1996). In our study, at a local scale, the richness of terrestrial ferns appears to be greatest on sites with high fertility (in Lowland and Submontane forest, where potassium concentrations and cation exchange capacity of soils are higher (see also Tuomisto et al. 2002).

The predominance of niche processes has previously been pointed out for the assembly of fern and lycophyte communities (Hemp 2002; Klunge et al. 2008; Kessler 2000; among others). However, most studies using this approach have been conducted in tropical forest vegetation and few studies have measured the relative influence of environment and space on the forest assembly in subtropical environments (see also Paciencia 2008). In our study we found substantial evidence for the role of both environmental and spatial effects on species richness along the distribution of the elevation gradient. While pure environmental aspects contributed much more to explanation, they were, to a large proportion, structured in space. Spatial factors themselves explained very little, supporting the importance of niche-based processes in species assembly. Given the importance of niche-based processes and the improvement of the models by dividing the species into basic functional groups based on substrate type, we suggest that future ecological studies on ferns and lycophytes should go further

towards functional approaches, i.e. by incorporating larger sets of traits, in order to better understand the relation of plants with their environment.

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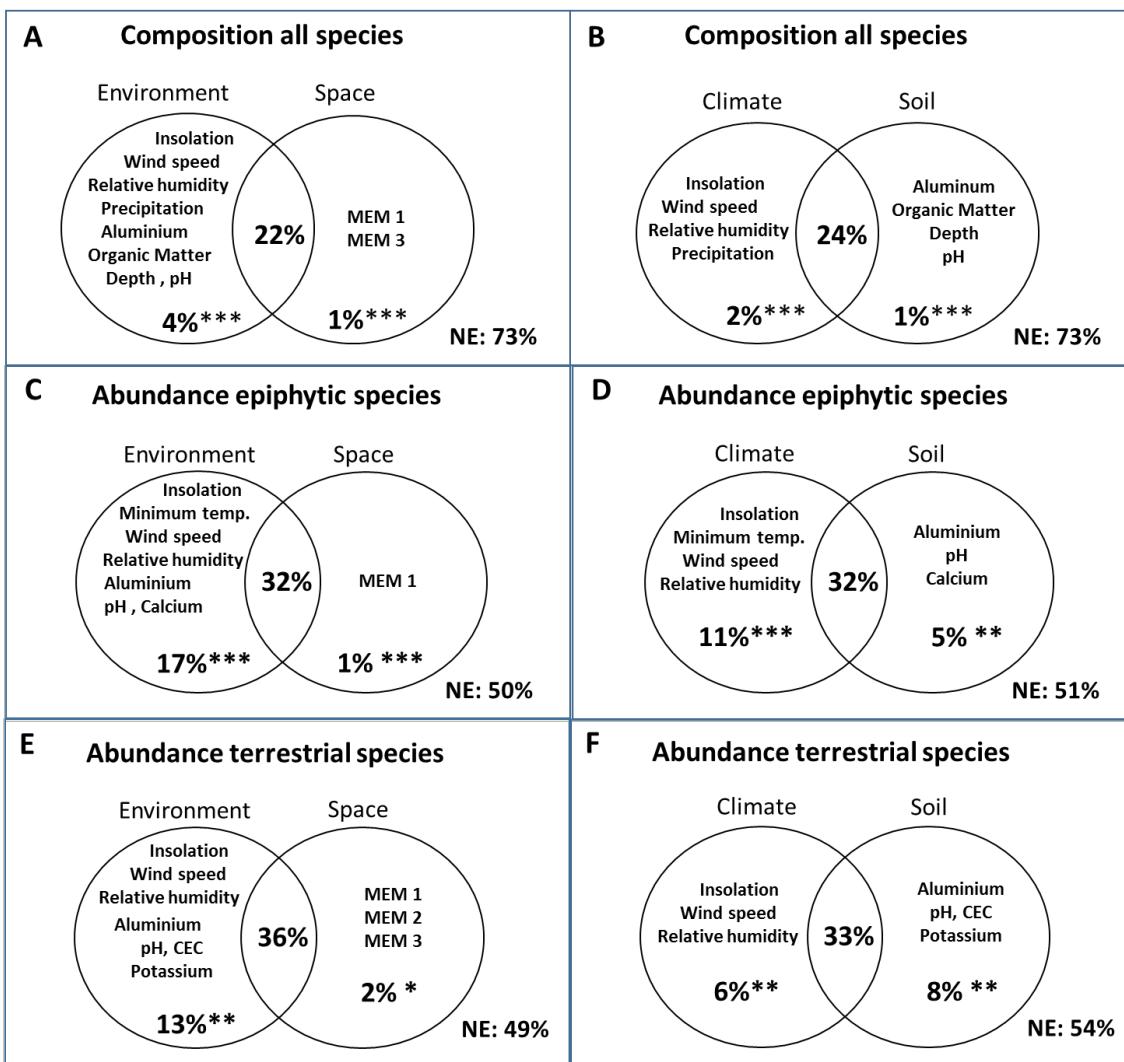
LEGENDS

Figure 1. Relative contribution of environmental (X_{Env}), space ($X_{MEMbroad}$), climate (X_{Clim}) and soil (X_{Soil}) to the variation in elevational gradient in ferns and lycophytes composition and abundance. A-B: all species (Y_{all}); C-D: epiphytic (Y_{epi}); E-D: Terrestrial species (Y_{ter}). ***P < 0.001; **P < 0.01; *P < 0.05.

Figure 2. Canonical correspondence analysis, showing the relationship between environmental variables (climate and soil) with the ferns and lycophytes composition along the altitudinal gradient of the Atlantic Forest in Southern Brazil under different forest formations. The environmental variables on the axis 1 explains 48% (CCA1) of the variation. LO: Lowland, SU: submontane, MO: montane and UP: upper montane. Al: aluminum, Depth: depth soil, Hum: relative humidity of air, Insol: solar insolation, O.M.: soil organic matter, ph: soil acidity, Prec: precipitation, Wind: wind speed.

Figure 3. Canonical correspondence analysis, showing the relationship between environmental variables (climate and soil) with the terrestrial abundance of ferns and lycophytes along the altitudinal gradient of the Atlantic Forest in Southern Brazil under different forest formations. The environmental variables on the axis 1 explains 64% (CCA1) of the variation. LO: Lowland, SU: submontane, MO: montane, UP: upper montane, Al: aluminum, CEC: cation exchange capacity, Hum: relative humidity of air, Insol: solar insolation, K: potassium, ph: soil acidity, Wind: wind speed.

Figure 4. Canonical correspondence analysis, showing the relationship between environmental variables (climate and soil) with the terrestrial abundance of ferns and lycophytes along the altitudinal gradient of the Atlantic Forest in Southern Brazil under different forest formations. The environmental variables on the axis 1 explains 54% (CCA1) of the variation. LO: Lowland, SU: submontane, MO: montane, UP: upper montane, Al: aluminum, Ca: calcium, Hum: relative humidity of air, Insol: solar insolation, ph: soil acidity, Tmin: minimum temperature, Wind: wind speed.

**Figure 1**

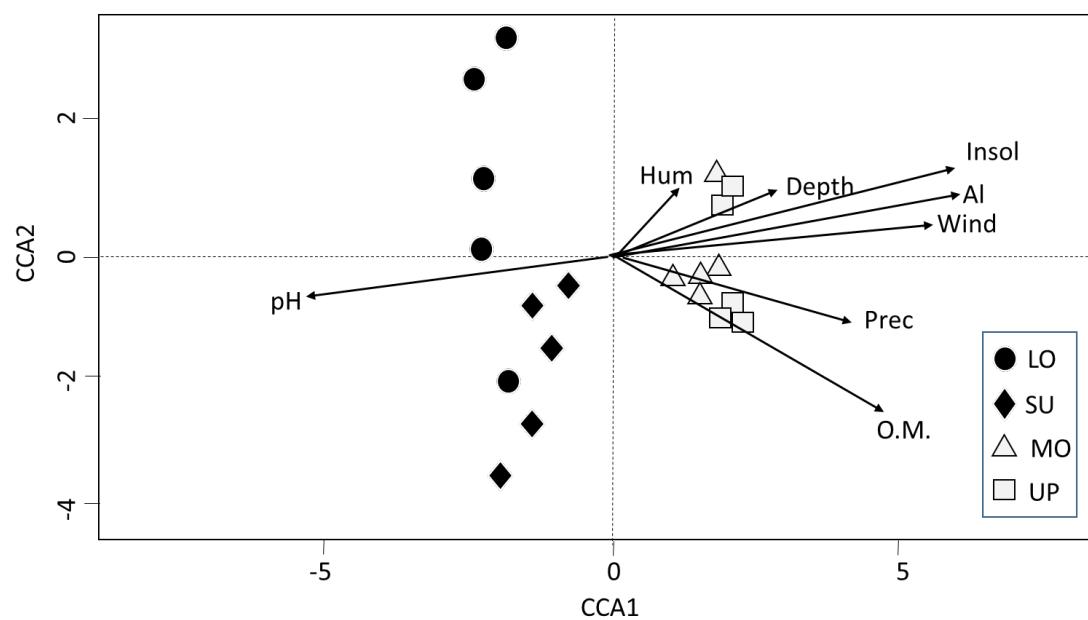


Figure 2

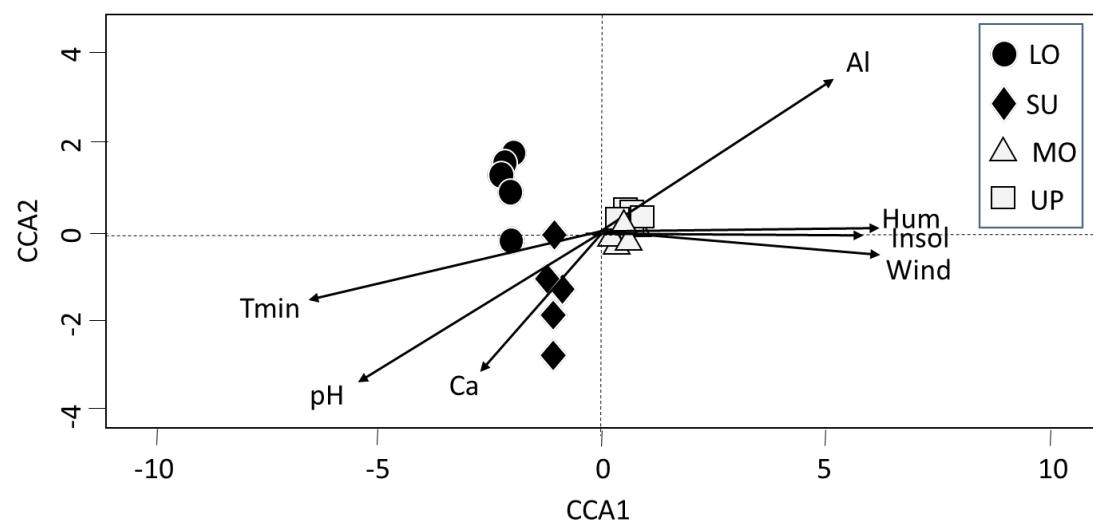


Figure 3

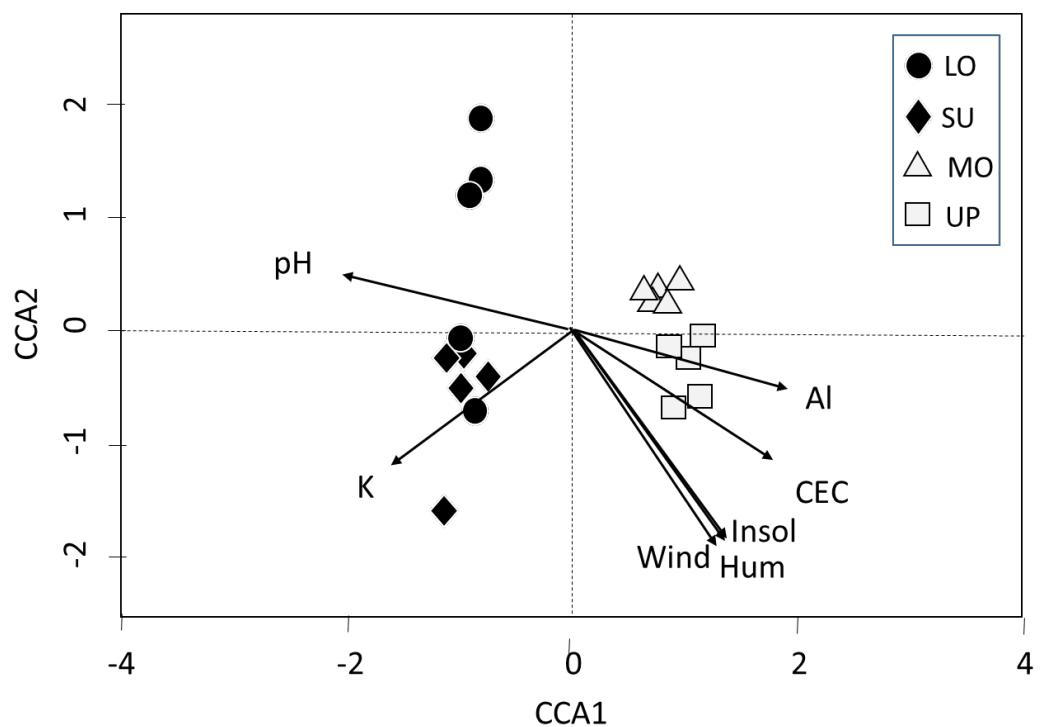


Figure 4

Table 1. Environmental variables (climatic and edaphic) evaluated as possible predictors of plant community composition in forest types in elevational gradient of the Atlantic Forest in Southern Brazil. For edaphic variables, the method for analysis is indicated.

Climatic variables	Edaphic variables
Insolation (hours)	Soil chemistry
Evapotranspiration	Organic matter (%): wet digestion
Mean of the coldest quarter (mm)	pH: in water
Mean of the hottest quarter (mm)	P (mg/dm ⁻³): Mehlich I method
Precipitation (mm)	K (mg/dm ⁻³): same as P
Relative humidity	Ca (cmol _c /dm ⁻³): same as Na
Mean of the coldest quarter (%)	Mg (cmol _c /dm ⁻³): same as Na
Mean of the hottest quarter (%)	Al (cmol _c /dm ⁻³): same as Na
Temperature	Cation exchange capacity (CEC) (cmol _c /dm ⁻³): extracted with ammonium acetate
Mean of the coldest quarter (°C)	Base saturation (%): amount of bases in CEC
Mean of the hottest quarter (°C)	Al saturation (%): amount of Al in the CEC
Maximum of the coldest quarter (°C)	
Maximum of the hottest quarter (°C)	
Minimum of the coldest quarter (°C)	
Minimum of the hottest quarter (°C)	
Wind intensity	Drainage soil
Mean of the coldest quarter (s m ⁻¹)	Depth (meters): used a dutch auger in field
Mean of the hottest quarter (s m ⁻¹)	Declivity (degrees): used a clinometer in field
	Stoniness (%): were estimated in field

Table 2. Environmental and spatial variables selected with forward selection as predictors of community composition for all species in elevational gradient of the Atlantic Forest in Southern Brazil.

Selected variables	Adjusted R ²
Solar insolation	0.22 ***
Wind intensity of the coldest quarter	0.24 **
Relative humidity of the coldest quarter	0.26 **
Precipitation	0.22 *
Alumminium	0.22 ***
Organic matter	0.23 **
pH	0.25 **
Depth soil	0.04 *
MEM 1 (broad scale)	0.22 **
MEM 3 (broad scale)	0.23 *

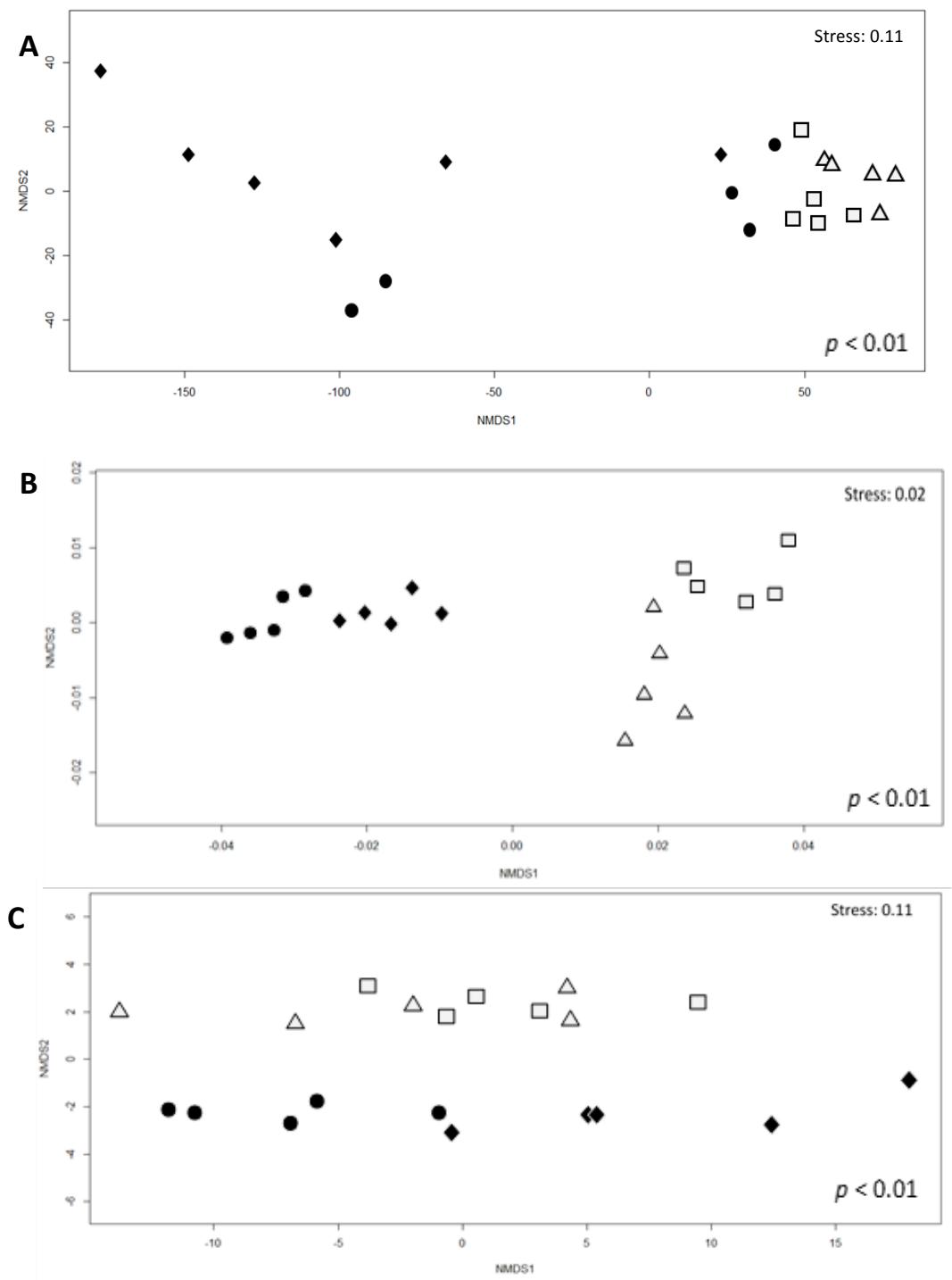
Axes of RDA were selected after 999 permutations, with the following criteria: R² > 0.5, and not exceeding alpha = 0.1

***P < 0.001; **P < 0.01; *P < 0.05.

Table 3. Environmental and spatial variables selected with forward selection as predictors of epiphytic and terrestrial species abundance in elevational gradient of the Atlantic Forest in Southern Brazil.

Epiphytic community		Terrestrial community	
Selected variables	Adjusted R ²	Selected variables	Adjusted R ²
Solar insolation	0.38***	Solar insolation	0.22***
Minimum temperature	0.41**	Wind intensity of the coldest quarter	0.24**
Wind intensity of the coldest quarter	0.43*	Relative humidity of the coldest quarter	0.26*
Relative humidity of the coldest quarter	0.45*	Alumminium	0.31***
Alumminium	0.36***	pH	0.33*
pH	0.38*	CEC	0.34**
Calcium	0.41**	K	0.37**
MEM 1 (broad scale)	0.37***	MEM 1 (broad scale)	0.22***
		MEM 2 (broad scale)	0.23*
		MEM 3 (broad scale)	0.25*

Axes of RDA were selected after 999 permutations, with the following criteria: R² > 0.5, and not exceeding alpha = 0.1. ***P < 0.001; **P < 0.01; *P < 0.05.



Appendix 1. NMDS ordination analysis. A: Ordination of study sites based on fern and lycophyte community composition. B: Ordination of study sites based on the physicochemical characteristics of the soil. C: Ordination of study sites based on climatic characteristics (average values of climate variables in each forest formation).

Appendix 2. Species richness and environmental variables analysed, and their mean and range in forest formations along an elevational gradient in the Atlantic Forest in southern Brazil.

Category	Variable	Lowland Mean(range)	Submontane Mean(range)	Montane Mean(range)	Upper-montane Mean(range)	Q	P
Richness	All species	13±2 a	16±4 ab	23±3 b	21±4 b	281.7	0.001
	Epiphytic species	6±1 a	8±3 a	16±3 b	15±3 b	353.8	0.001
	Terrestrial species	5±1 a	8±2 b	7±1 b	7±1 b	21.2	0.001
Diversity	Epiphytic species	0.861 ± 0.08 a	0.895 ± 0.11 b	0.935 ± 0.03 c	0.927 ± 0.05 c	105.23	0.001
	Terrestrial species	0.936 ± 0.02 a	0.943 ± 0.02 b	0.900 ± 0.01 c	0.899 ± 0.01 d	137.45	0.001
Soils	Al (mg./dm ³)	0.8 (±0.8) a	0.8 (±0.6) a	4.9 (±2.7) b	8.2 (±0.9) b	242.6	0.001
	Ca (mg./dm ³)	4.8 (±3.1) a	6.7 (±2.1) a	2.2 (±0.2) b	0.5 (±0.8) b	167.1	0.004
	CEC (mg _c /dm ³)	14 (±2.2) a	18 (±3.7) a	24 (±4.5) b	40 (±5.8) c	2482	0.001
	K (mg/dm ³)	148 (±57) a	201 (±88) b	95 (±49) c	80 (±12) d	861.6	0.003
	Organic mater (%)	4.1 (±1.4) a	5.4 (±1.8) ab	6.6 (±1.6) bc	9.2 (±0.6) c	80.3	0.001
	pH (in KCL)	5.2 (±0.5) a	5.0 (±0.3) a	3.9 (±0.1) b	3.8 (±0.1) b	7.93	0.001
	Soil depth (cm)	53 (±23)	63 (±19)	77 (±68-86)	76 (±64-93)	1671	0.21
	Insolation (hours)	1969 (±18) a	1997 (±5) b	2182 (±11) c	2242 (±29) d	27339	0.001
	Min. Temperature of the hottest quarter (°C)	19.3 (±0.2) a	17.6 (±0.3) b	16.2 (±0.2) c	15.1 (±0.3) d	49.38	0.001
	Precipitation (mm)	1402 (±10) a	1428 (±33) a	1648 (±10) b	1719 (±38) c	14064	0.001
Climatic	Relative humidity of the coldest quarter (%)	80.0 (±0.2) a	80.9 (±0.2) b	81.7 (±0.2) c	82.5 (±0.2) d	17.65	0.001
	Wind speed of the coldest quarter (s m ⁻¹)	1.5 (±0.09) a	2.0 (±0.09) a	2.7 (±0.1) b	3.0 (±0.1) c	4.37	0.001

Significant differences between altitudinal zones by analysis of the variance of (ANOVA) with permutation testing (by Pillar and Orióci 1996).



Capítulo 3

FIRST RECORD OF THE GENUS STIGMATOPTERIS (DRYOPTERIDACEAE) FOR THE STATE OF RIO GRANDE DO SUL, BRAZIL

Michelle Helena Nervo, Paulo Günter Windisch e Gerhard Ernst Overbeck

Acta Botanica Brasilica – Short Communication (a submeter)

1 Short Communication

2

3 **First record of the genus *Stigmatopteris* (Dryopteridaceae) for the State of Rio Grande
4 do Sul, Brazil**

5

6 Michelle Helena Nervo¹, Gerhard Ernst Overbeck^{1,2} and Paulo Günter Windisch¹

7 ¹*Universidade Federal do Rio Grande do Sul, Programa de Pós-graduação em Botânica, Av.
8 Bento Gonçalves 9500, 91501–970, Porto Alegre, Rio Grande do Sul, Brazil*

9 ²*Universidade Federal do Rio Grande do Sul, Departamento de Botânica. Av. Bento
10 Gonçalves 9500, 91501–970, Porto Alegre, Rio Grande do Sul, Brazil*

11 * Corresponding author: mhnero@hotmai.com

12

13 **Abstract:** *Stigmatopteris heterocarpa* (Feeé) Rosenst. is reported for the first time in the State
14 of Rio Grande do Sul, thus extending the distribution range into the southernmost part of the
15 Brazilian Atlantic Forest. We provide information on taxonomy and distribution of the
16 species and comment on implications for conservation.

17 **Key words:** Atlantic Forest, ferns, distribution, conservation, *Stigmatopteris heterocarpa*.

18

19 *Stigmatopteris* C.Chr. (Dryopteridaceae) *sensu* Smith et al. (2006; 2008) includes a
20 total of 23 neotropical species (Moran & Labiak 2016) that occur primarily in montane
21 regions, from the Antilles and Southern Mexico to Southern Brazil (Moran 1991; Prado *et al.*
22 2015). The genus comprises medium to large-sized terrestrial ferns, and is characterized by

1 several synapomorphies such as 1–pinnate-pinnatifid laminae, visible punctate glands in the
2 mesophyll, the presence of hydathodes, uniseriate cilia on scale margins and indusial loss
3 (Moran & Labiak 2016).

4 The Andes are the diversity center for *Stigmatopteris*, with 11 species, two of which
5 are endemic (Moran 1991). Southeastern Brazil appears to be a secondary center of diversity
6 for the genus, containing six endemic species: *Stigmatopteris brevinervis* (Fée) R.C.Moran, *S.*
7 *caudata* (Raddi) C.Chr., *S. heterocarpa* (Fée) Rosenst., *S. prionites* (Kunze) C.Chr., *S.*
8 *tyucana* (Raddi) C.Chr. and *S. ulei* (Christ.) Sehnem. All these six species grow on shaded
9 ground in moist forests, preferentially in mountainous areas from 200–2.000 m a.s.l. (Sehnem
10 1979). These species form a subclade within one of the two main clades recently identified
11 through phylogenetic analysis of the monophyletic genus *Stigmatopteris* (Moran & Labiak
12 2016). Although widespread in Brazil, there are no records of the genus for the Central-
13 Western Region and for the southernmost State of Rio Grande do Sul.

14 During a recent study of the fern flora in Atlantic Forest remnants in Southern Brazil
15 (Nervo et al. *in press*), a new record of *S. heterocarpa* (Fée) Rosenst. was registered in the
16 municipality of Morrinhos do Sul, State of Rio Grande do Sul. A voucher-specimen was
17 deposited in the Herbarium of the Botany Department of the Federal University of Rio
18 Grande do Sul (ICN).

19 This species has been cited under different combinations and synonyms, for Brazil, as
20 follows:

21

22 ***Stigmatopteris heterocarpa* (Fée) Rosenst.**, Repert. Spec. Nov. Regni Veg. 21: 347. 1925.
23 *Phegopteris heterocarpa* Fée, Crypt. Vasc. Brésil 1: 100, t. 30, fig. 2. 1869. Type: Brazil, Rio

1 de Janeiro, Rio de Janeiro, A.F.M. Glaziou 2401 (holotype, P00630797! [photo]; isotype, K!
2 [photo], P! [photo], S! [photo]).

3 *Polypodium carrii* Baker, Fl. Bras. 1(2): 597. 1870. *Dryopteris carrii* (Baker) C.Chr., Index
4 Filic. 257. 1905. *Stigmatopteris carrii* (Baker) C.Chr., Bot. Tidsskr. 29: 298. 1909. Type:
5 Brazil, Rio de Janeiro, Rio de Janeiro, Carr s.n. (holotype, K not seen).

6 *Stigmatopteris heterocarpa* var. *basilaris* Rosenst., Repert. Spec. Nov. Regni Veg. 21: 347.
7 1925. Type: Brazil, São Paulo, Iguape, Morro das Pedras, A.C Brade 8231 (holotype, S not
8 seen; isotype, US! [photo]).

9 Fig. 1

10 Description: Christensen (1909) and Moran (1991).

11

12 Illustration: Figure 1A–D.

13

14 Notes: *Stigmatopteris heterocarpa* can be distinguished from the other *Stigmatopteris* species
15 in South Brazil by the presence of pinnae that are entirely lobed to lobed less than $\frac{1}{4}$ of the
16 costa. *Stigmatopteris heterocarpa* is morphologically similar to *S. tyucana*, but the pinnae of
17 *S. tyucana* are more deeply cut and generally broader than those of *S. heterocarpa*.
18 *Stigmatopteris caudata* presents pinnae most deeply incised, and its serrate segments are
19 separated by broad, U-shaped sinuses (see more details in Moran 1991). *S. brevinervis* closely
20 resembles *S. tyucana*; differing by the degree of incision at the sinuses. In *S. tyucana*, the
21 pinnae are cut $\frac{1}{4}$ – $\frac{1}{2}$ to the costa; in *S. brevinervis*, the pinnae are larger and occur in greater
22 number. Moran (1991) commented that the two species are very similar and that perhaps
23 future studies will show that they are conspecific. *S. ulei* resembles *S. brevinervis*, from which

1 it differs by having narrow V-shaped sinuses. In *S. brevinervis*, the sinuses are broad, and U-
2 shaped. *S. prionites* can be distinguished from all other *Stigmatopteris* in Brazil by the
3 combination of narrow (1.1–2.2 cm) pinnae with wide incisions reaching halfway to the
4 costa, the lobes broader, obtuse, few (3–5) veins per lobe, and with inframedial sori.

5

6 Voucher specimen: **BRAZIL. Rio Grande do Sul:** Morrinhos do Sul, 29°22'54.98" N,
7 049°59'59.22" W, M.H. Nervo 1200, 6/I/2014 (ICN).

8

9 Distribution: *Stigmatopteris heterocarpa* is endemic to Brazil and occurs in several states of
10 the Atlantic Forest biome, namely Alagoas, São Paulo, Rio de Janeiro, Paraná, Santa Catarina
11 and extending into Rio Grande do Sul. It can be found from the sea level to up to 900 m a.s.l.
12 (based on information the speciesLink system, CRIA 2014, Gasper & Salino 2015, Mazziero
13 et al. 2015, Prado et al. 2015). The species thus is rather widely distributed in the
14 Southern/Southeastern part of the Atlantic Forest Atlantic, with disjunct populations in the
15 Northeastern Atlantic Forest (Fig. 2).

16

17 Habitat: Moist and shady sites in the forest interior.

18

19 Comments: The presented record for the State of Rio Grande do Sul is from the municipally
20 of Morrinhos do Sul, 155 km farther south than the previously known southern limit of the
21 genus and species in Santa Catarina, while Alagoas is the limit to the North. The absence of
22 records of this species in the Atlantic Forest in the Northeast (States of Sergipe and Bahia)
23 and Southeast (State of Espírito Santo) may be related to habitat loss or to lack of sampling.

With this new record in the South of Brazil, we increase the number of species considered as the “Atlantic Forest elements” in the State of Rio Grande do Sul and the number of fern and lycophyte species in the region to 139 (Nervo et al. in press). We observed *Stigmatopteris heterocarpa* dwelling in the Atlantic rain forest *sensu stricto*, growing close to watercourses at the altitude of approximately 480 m a.s.l., i.e., in a Submontane Forest formation (Veloso & Góes-Filho 1982; see also Brack 2009). Approximately 12 adult individuals were observed in an area of less than one hectare.

More studies are needed to evaluate the conservation state and endangerment status of this species. Considering its possible inclusion in threatened species listing for the State of Rio Grande do Sul. Forest degradation and alterations in springs and watercourses caused by human activities must be considered as the main threats for the species. This species rich locality is currently not included in a protection area, increasing the need of conservation efforts.

14

Additional specimens examined: **BRAZIL. Paraná:** Morretes, 24/VIII/2010, *M. Verdi et al.* 5492 (FURB! [photo]); 15/II/1970, *Hatschbach* 24376 (PACA!); 16/XII/1964, *Dombrowski & Saito* 1245 (PACA!); Guaraqueçara, 9/VIII/1967, *Hatschbach* 16912 (PACA!); Marumbi, *Saito* 11 (PACA!); Porto de Cima, *P.K.H. Dusén* 10244 (K! [photo]); *P.K.H. Dusén* 1480 (F! [photo], K! [photo]). **Rio de Janeiro:** Rio de Janeiro, 10/VI/1976, *Carauta* 2074 (PACA!); Rodeio, 1869, *Lieul s.n.* (K590514! [photo]); s.loc., 1867, *Cunningham s.n.* (K957032! [photo]). **Santa Catarina:** Blumenau, 15/I/2007, *A. Stival-Santos & M. Verdi* 65 (FURB! [photo]); 18/I/2001, *Rosane s.n.* (PACA!); 20/IX/2012, *L.A. Funez* 939 (FURB! [photo]); 17/IX/2014, *F. Bittencourt & M.R. Schmitt* 199 (FURB! [photo]); Corupá, Poço d’Anta, 4/II/2010, *S. Dreveck & F.E. Carneiro* 1739 (FURB! [photo]); Florianópolis, Morro do Antão, 22/I/1948, *Sehnem* 3086 (PACA!); 07/X/1979, *Sehnem* 9466 (PACA!); 18/IV/1948,

1 *Rohr* 1006 (PACA!); Imaruí, Forquilha da Aratingaúba, Parque Estadual da Serra do
2 Tabuleiro, 4/I/2010, *M. Verdi et al.* 4045 (FURB! [photo]); *F.E. Carneiro* 1739 (FURB!
3 [photo]); Joinville, XII/1904, *Schmalz s.n.* [Rosenstock, Filices autobrasili. exsic. no. 106]
4 (K! [photo]); s.loc., VII/1868, *F. Mueller* 34 (K! [photo]). **São Paulo:** Itapecirica, VII/1901,
5 *Wettstein et al. s.n.* (K957035! [photo]); Juquiá, *A. Salino et al.* 163114 (UEC! [photo]); São
6 Sebastião, Parque Estadual da Serra do Mar, 19/IV/2000, *A. Salino* 5307 (BHCB! [photo]);
7 Ubatuba, 3/VI/2008, *G.A. Nóbrega* 442 (UEC! [photo]).

8

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13

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10 Geobotánica.
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1 **Legend**

2 **Figure 1.** Morphological details of the *Stigmatopteris heterocarpa*. A: Habit; B–D: Pinnae
3 detail, venation and sori. Scale bar: A–C (15 cm) and D (1 cm).

4 **Figure 2.** Distribution of *Stigmatopteris heterocarpa* in Brazil (based on records shown by
5 speciesLink Project; CRIA 2014). The red circle represents the new record (Morrinhos do
6 Sul–Rio Grande do Sul).

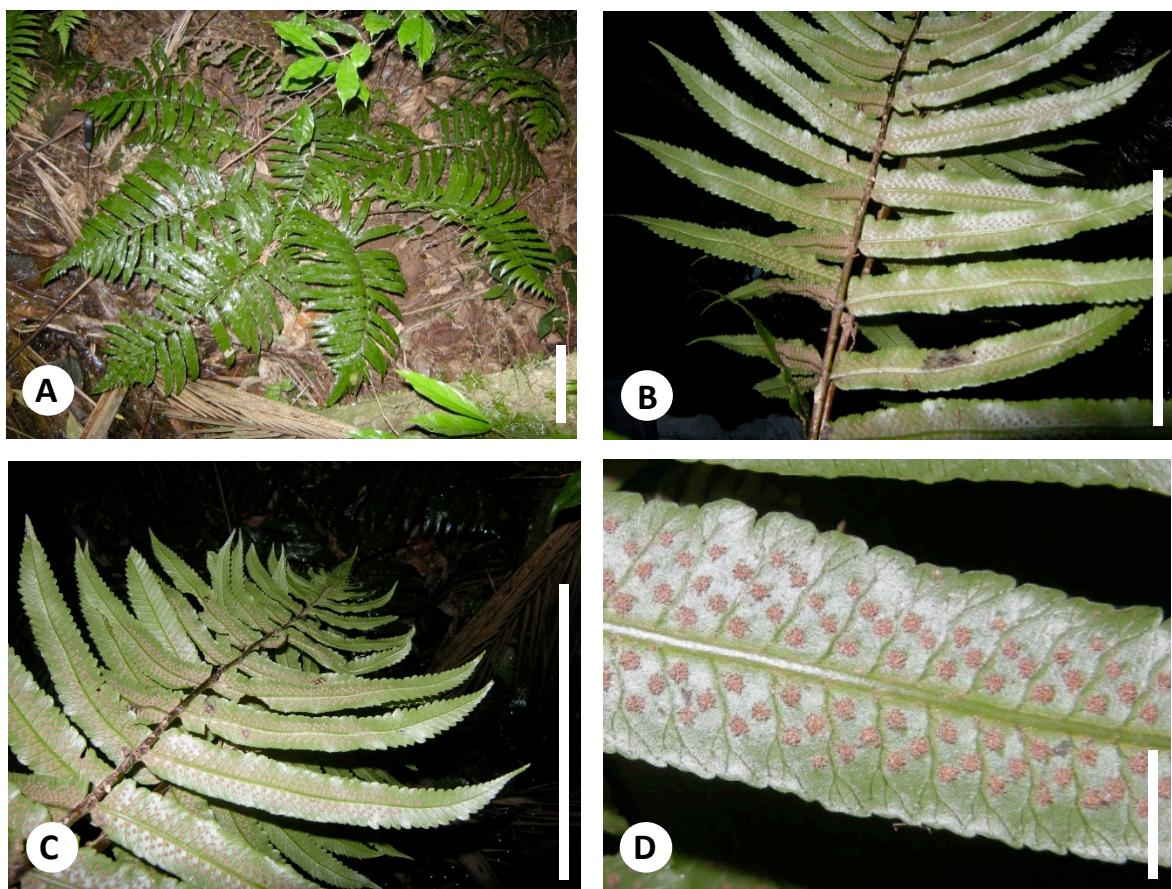


Figure 1

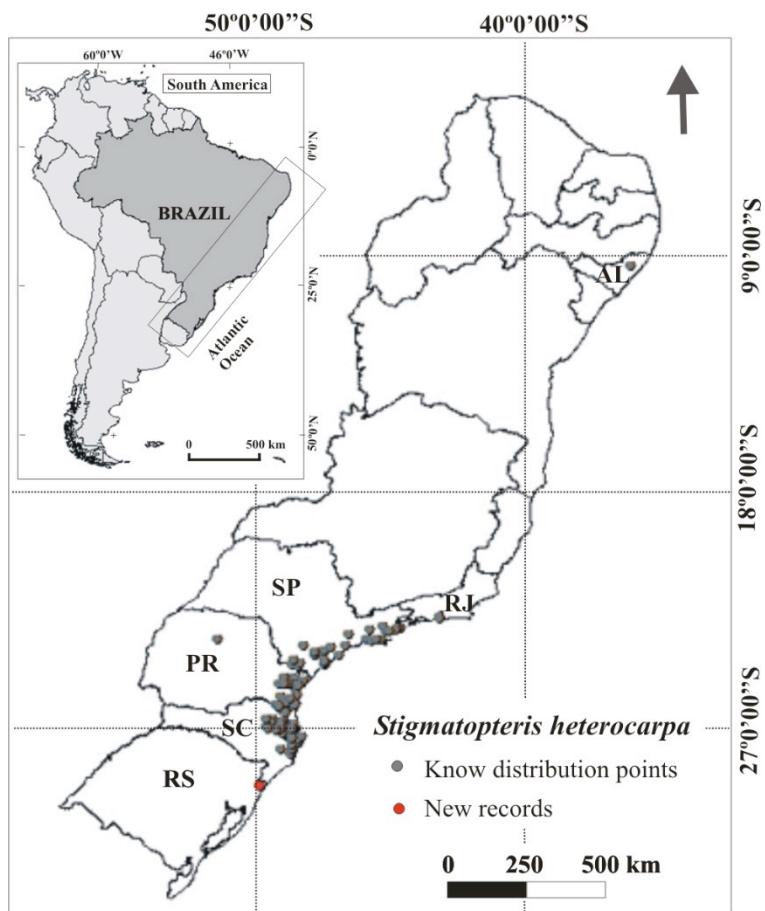


Figure 2



CONSIDERAÇÕES FINAIS

CONSIDERAÇÕES FINAIS

A riqueza média de espécies por parcela variou significativamente nas diferentes formações florestais, com maior riqueza observada na formação Floresta Montana, como o previsto. A variação da riqueza entre as altitudes não obedeceu nenhum padrão já estabelecido para o gradiente de altitude. Conforme Rahbek (1997), a riqueza de espécies e a altitude podem apresentar relações complexas que variam conforme o grupo taxonômico e o gradiente considerado. Padrões divergentes foram observados na abundância das espécies nos diferentes tipos de substrato. Maior diversidade de epífitos esteve presente em formações de maior altitude (Montana e Altomontana), enquanto que a maior diversidade de terrestres e rupícolas esteve relacionada às formações de menor altitude (Terras Baixas e Submontana).

Diante dos resultados apresentados, acreditamos que tenham sido encontradas evidências substanciais dos efeitos ambientais e espaciais da riqueza de espécies ao longo da distribuição do gradiente de elevação. Aqui, tanto a hipótese da dispersão aleatória quanto a diferenciação de nicho podem explicar a composição e a estruturação das comunidades de samambaias e licófitas ao longo do gradiente na Mata Atlântica no Sul do Brasil. É bem verdade, contudo, que a única premissa do modelo neutro (Hubbell 2001) que foi observada nos dados do presente estudo, diz respeito à variação espacial em escala ampla. Já no modelo da heterogeneidade ambiental, tanto as variações edáficas quanto as climáticas podem explicar a composição de samambaias e licófitas, sendo até mesmo estas as premissas que mais contribuem na composição de todas as espécies, bem como na abundância das espécies epífitas e terrestres. Assim, a hipótese que melhor suporta os dados presentes é a diferenciação de nichos ao longo do gradiente de altitude.

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ANEXOS

PAULO GÜNTER WINDISCH^{1*}, MARIA LUISA LORSCHETTER¹ & MICHELLE HELENA NERVO²

***Isoetes naipiana* (*Isoetaceae*), a new species from southern Brazil**

Abstract

Windisch P. G., Lorscheitter M. L. & Nervo M. H.: *Isoetes naipiana* (*Isoetaceae*), a new species from southern Brazil. – Willdenowia 44: 393–398. 2014. – Version of record first published online on 10 November 2014 ahead of inclusion in December 2014 issue; ISSN 1868-6397; © 2014 BGBM Berlin-Dahlem.

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Isoetes naipiana (*Isoetaceae*), a new species from southern Brazil, is described, illustrated and compared to similar species. So far it is known only from the original locality in the open grasslands of the upper highlands in the NE region of the State of Rio Grande do Sul (Brazil). It is characterized by megaspores with an irregular reticulum on the surface, presenting deposition of thin parallel silica strands; laevigate microspores; and arcuate microphylls with shortly alate bases, forming a compact rosette around the erect bilobate corm.

Additional key words: aquatic lycophytes, quillworts, floristics, conservation

Introduction

Worldwide the genus of *Isoetes* L. (*Isoetaceae*) is represented by c. 350 aquatic to terrestrial species, from temperate to tropical climates (Hickey & al. 2003). For South America, Fuchs-Eckert (1986) listed 75 species, while Hickey (1986) suggested 47. The diversity in Brazil is still far from being known in appropriate detail, due to poor collecting, difficulties in the preservation of samples, lack of fixed material for morphological and anatomical analysis, samples restricted to type material for many species, apparently narrow distributions, lack of easily observable characters, hybridization and polyploidy. Progress is being made due to a rising interest in the group. Prado & Sylvestre (2010) recorded 14 species (12 endemic) for Brazil, but that number was soon increased to 21 (Prado & al. 2012); most of these species occur in coastal moun-

tain ranges in the S and SE regions. The relationships of the species occurring in Brazil still need further research.

A study of the genus for southern Brazil in the “Flora Ilustrada Catarinense” by Fuchs-Eckert (1986) included six species for the states of Paraná, Santa Catarina and Rio Grande do Sul. Lorscheitter & al. (1998, 2009) presented a detailed palynological study including distributions, habitats and short descriptions of eight species from the state of Rio Grande do Sul, two listed as “species ineditae”. One of these was described as *Isoetes maxima* Hickey, Macluf & Link-Pérez (Hickey & al. 2009), and the second as *I. mourabaptistae* J. B. S. Pereira, P. G. Windisch, Lorscheitt. & Labiak (Pereira & al. 2012). Pereira (2012) presented a dissertation on *Isoetes* for southern and southeastern Brazil, with 15 species, including palynology (SEM and LM) and cytology (ploidy levels correlated with spore sizes).

1 Universidade Federal do Rio Grande do Sul, Instituto de Biociências, Departamento de Botânica, Campus do Vale, 91501-970 Porto Alegre, Brazil (CNPq research fellowships: 304833/209-6 and 302114/2012-2); *e-mail pteridos@gmail.com (author for correspondence).

2 Programa de Pós-Graduação em Botânica, Universidade Federal do Rio Grande do Sul, 91501-970 Porto Alegre, Brazil (CAPES doctoral fellowship and FAPERGS research grant).

Extensive field work in the grassland formations in the upper highlands of the NE region of the state of Rio Grande do Sul revealed an interesting and distinctive species here described along with comments on the remaining species of the local flora.

Material and methods

Morpho-anatomical analyses — Material was collected and pressed in the traditional method for herbarium vouchers, and some samples were fixed in 70% ethanol for morphological and anatomical analyses. Structural terms follow Lellinger (2002).

Spore analyses — The Scanning Electron Microscopy (SEM) images were generated by transferring the spores to aluminium stubs coated with an asphalt adhesive. The stubs were then coated with gold palladium and photographed with a Zeiss EVO MA-10 electron microscope. A light microscope (DIAPLAN Leitz) was used for the measurement of acetolysed microspores. Spore size descriptions include the variation and the arithmetic average of 25 measurements, the first value corresponding to the polar axis and the second to the equatorial axis. The terminology used to classify the spore surface follows that of Hickey (1986) and Tryon & Lugardon (1990).

Results and Discussion

***Isoetes naipiana* P. G. Windisch, Lorscheitt. & Nervo, sp. nov.** — Fig. 1–3.

Holotype: Brazil, state of Rio Grande do Sul, municipality of Jaquirana, Tainhas river drainage, 900–950 m, submersed aquatic in rock crevices, high-altitude grasslands, 14 Jan 2014, Windisch & Nervo 11063 (ICN; isotypes: B, ICN, RB, US).

Diagnosis — The general morphology of the plants differs markedly from the other species occurring in the region by the small size of the microphylls (up to 2.2 cm long) in mature plants, while at least twice as long in the remaining species. Furthermore, the microphylls are rigid in the living material, arched and disposed forming a flat rosette (2–3 cm in diam.), half-terete with a complanate adaxial surface (basal ⅓), distally terete and tapering to a pointed apex (Fig. 1A). The microphylls present short (3–4 mm long) abruptly ending lateral alae at the base, not extending along the margins as in *Isoetes mourabaptistae* (up to the basal ¼). In *I. weberi* Herter, these alae may extend beyond the middle of the microphyll. In *I. fuscomarginata* H. P. Fuchs, *I. ramboi* Herter, *I. sehnemii* H. P. Fuchs, *I. smithii* H. P. Fuchs, *I. spannagelii* H. P. Fuchs (from a locality in the neighbouring state of Santa Catarina, Lages municipality) and *I. weberi* the alae usually taper off gradually.

The reticulate megaspores of *Isoetes naipiana* have an equatorial diameter greater than 600 µm, which is similar to *I. fuscomarginata*, *I. mourabaptistae*, *I. ramboi* and *I. smithii* in size. It differs from those species by having thin, dense, transversely oriented and parallel silica strands forming the muri of the reticulum, this parallel disposition being more pronounced in the deeper lumina. The muri of the megaspores are a good distinctive character as they frequently cross over the trilete arms. The reticulate species occurring in Rio Grande do Sul have smaller megaspores (*I. brasiliensis* H. P. Fuchs, *I. sehnemii*), or are verrucate (*I. weberi* and *I. maxima*).

Four species of *Isoetes* from Rio Grande do Sul have megaspores with equatorial diameters greater than 600 µm, but only *I. naipiana* has smooth to slightly undulate microspores (SEM, especially the proximal face). *Isoetes mourabaptistae* has microechinate microspores. The microspores (SEM) are laevigate-granulate in *I. fuscomarginata* and *I. smithii*, and micropapillate-granulate in *I. ramboi*. The structure of the parallel silica strands forming the muri of the megaspores is quite distinctive in *I. naipiana*.

Description — Plants aquatic, submerged, growing in rock crevices in current. Corm erect, bilobed, up to 10 mm long, 3–4 mm in diam. Roots conspicuous, dichotomous. Microphylls 20–35, 1–2.2 cm long, 0.4–0.6 mm wide at middle, 0.7–1 mm wide at base above sporangium (fixed material); 0.8–1.8 cm long, 0.2–0.4 mm wide at middle, 0.4–0.8 mm wide at base above sporangium, 1.2–1.4 mm wide at sporangium (dried material), rigid in living material, arched and disposed forming a flat rosette (2–3 cm in diam.), half-terete with a complanate adaxial surface (basal ⅓), distally terete and tapering to a pointed apex. Alae only at base, wings membranous, hyaline, 3–4 mm long, clasping at widened base (0.6–0.9 mm wide on each side), reduced to 0.4–0.6 mm (middle), ending abruptly shortly beyond sporangium. Ligule deltate, c. 0.7 mm long, up to 0.6 mm wide, frequently eroded, base weakly auriculate on either side. Velum cover c. ½ or more with an oval opening at base. Labium not clearly visualized, a short projection observed in some cases. Sporangium roundish-elliptic, c. 1.8 mm long, c. 1.2 mm broad, covered by velum. Microspores (18–)20(–26) × (24–)27(–34) µm (including perispore/paraexospore), (15–)16(–18) × (21–)23(–27) µm (excluding perispore/paraexospore), reniform, monolete, laesura extending more than ¾ of microspore length; paraexospore detached from exospore, laevigate perispore (in SEM sometimes with irregular, slightly undulating surface, especially on proximal face). Megasporangia with 4 or 8 megaspores. Megaspores (500–)550(–590) × (620–)655(–690) µm, spheroidal, equatorial limb subtriangular-convex, trilete, arms equalling radius, equatorial view with largely convex proximal and distal faces and a distinct equatorial flange, curved between arms; reticulate with large irregular reticulum distributed on entire surface.

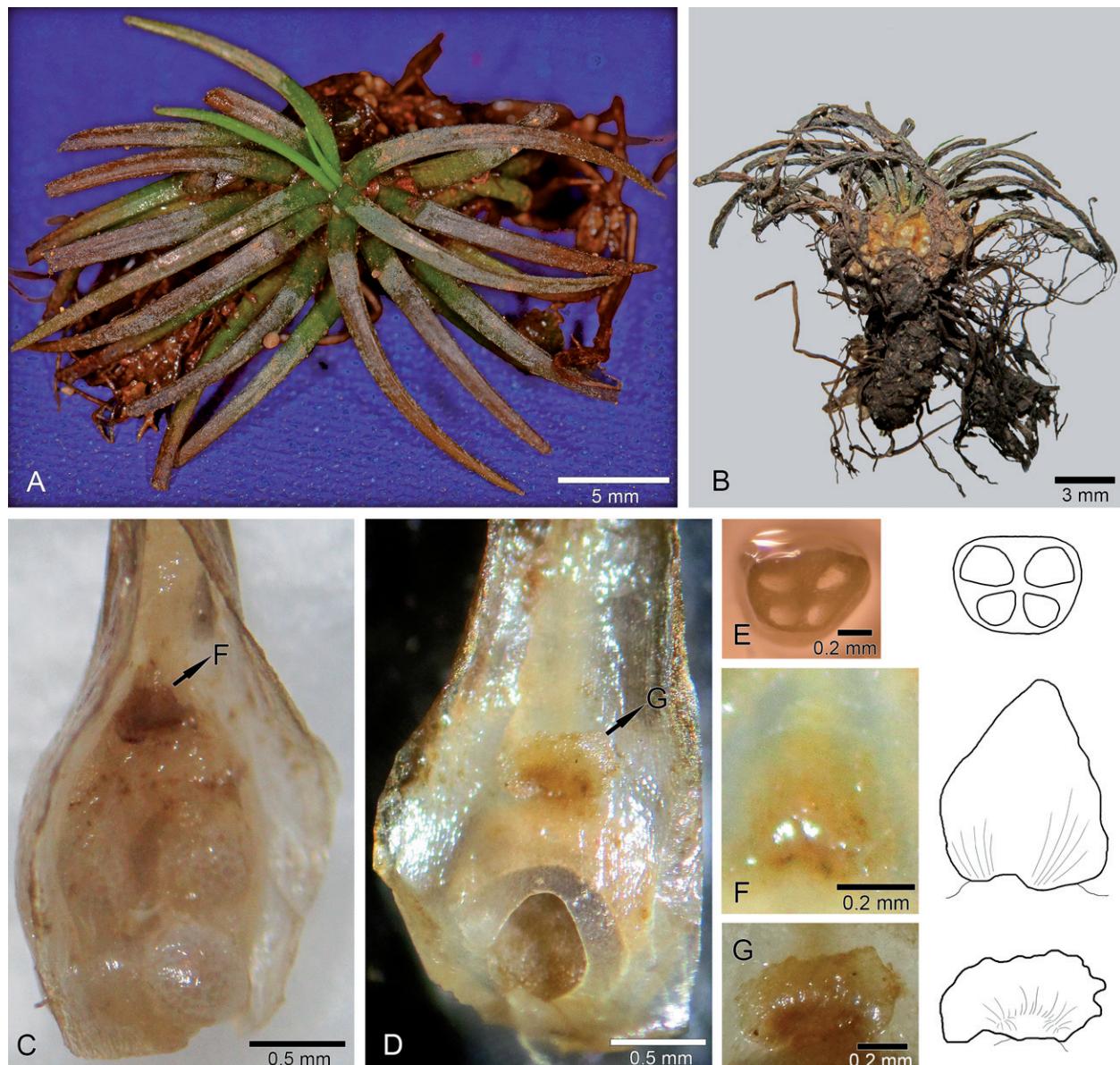


Fig. 1. *Isoetes naipiana* – A & B: habit; C: adaxial view of base of megasporophyll with megaspores; D: adaxial view of base of microphylls with velum covering more than $\frac{1}{2}$ of sporangial surface; E: microsporophyll in transverse section, with accompanying illustration; F: deltate ligule, with accompanying illustration; G: deltate eroded ligule, base weakly auriculate, with accompanying illustration. – All from Windisch & Nervo 11063.

Distribution and ecology — *Isoetes naipiana* is currently known only from the original locality, in high-altitude grassland formations, at c. 950 m, where it grows in the rapid moving stream current, at 20 to 30 cm depth (dry season) in basaltic rock crevices.

Conservation status — The inclusion of *Isoetes naipiana* in the threatened species listings as Vulnerable VU D1+2 (IUCN 2012) is proposed here based on small population size with restricted occupancy, with two known locations in an area prone to the effects of human occupancy. The environmental changes due to the current use of the high-altitude grasslands for extensive forestry and agricultural activities require urgent action.

Etymology — The original inhabitants of the NE highlands of Rio Grande do Sul were the Kaingang, a widespread ethnic group of southern to southeastern Brazil. In their mythology, Naipi, the extremely beautiful daughter of a chief, was to be consecrated to the divinity M'boi (son of the highest divinity Tupã) who reigned in the depths of rivers in the form of a giant serpent. Just before her consecration, she escaped in a canoe with her beloved one. M'boi became furious, the canoe was destroyed in a waterfall and Naipi transformed into a rock, to be eternally battered by the running water, like this species of *Isoetes*.

Additional remarks — The size of the megaspores of *Isoetes naipiana* is quite remarkable for such diminutive

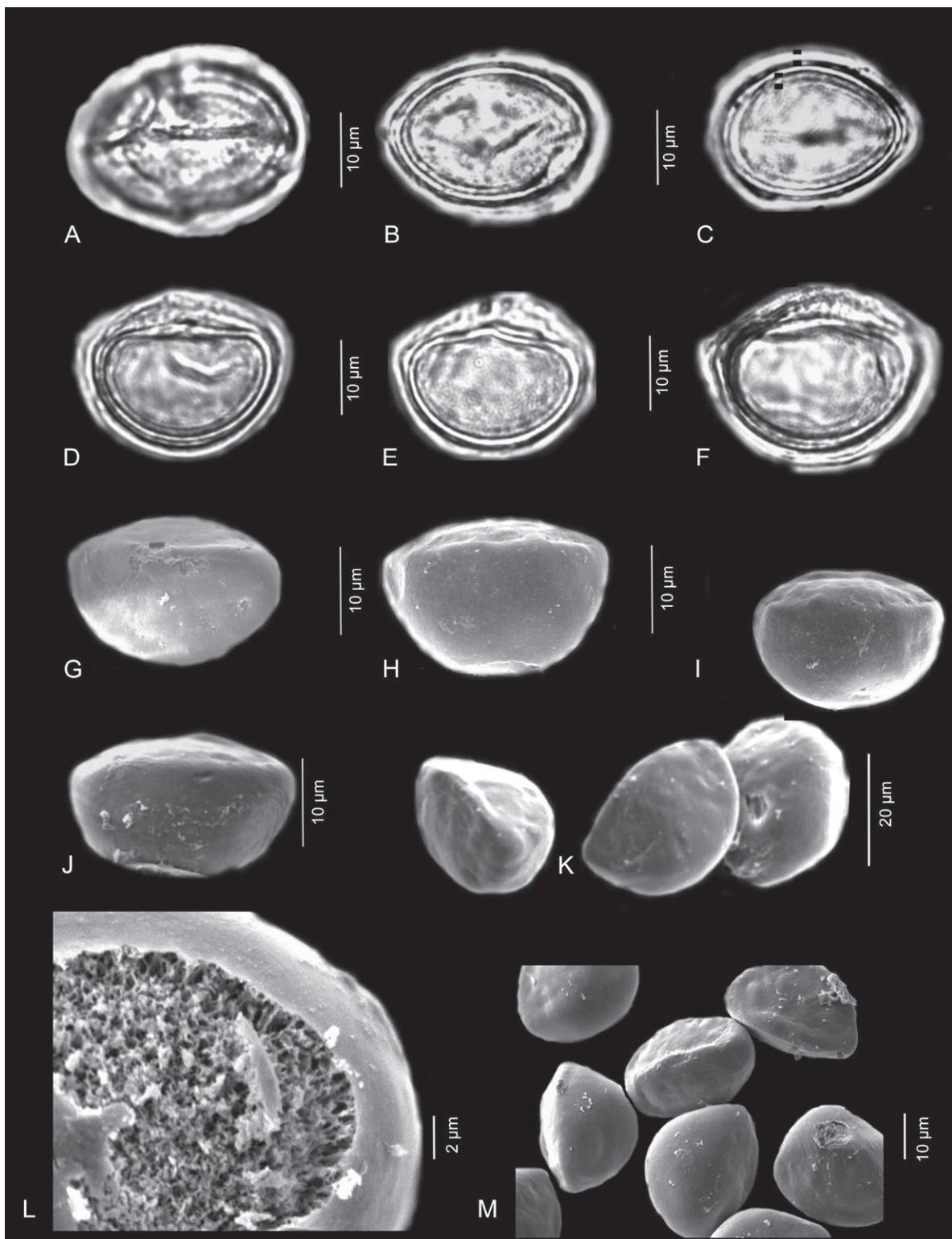


Fig. 2. *Isoetes naipiana*, microspores – A–F: LM images of paraexospore detached from exospore; A: proximal face; B & C: distal face; D–F: equatorial view; G–M: SEM images of laevigate perispore surface; G: proximal face; H–J: equatorial view; K: grains in distinct positions; L: detail of eroded surface, irregular fused strands of inner perispore/paraexospore; M: general view of microspores. – All from Windisch & Nervo 11063.

plants; the total length of the microphylls corresponds to 35–40 times the diameter of the megaspores. The megaspores are quite characteristic, showing an irregular

reticulum, with fine, parallel fused strands, in a transverse orientation, forming the high muri with alveolar content and denser strands in the bottoms of the areolae. Gener-

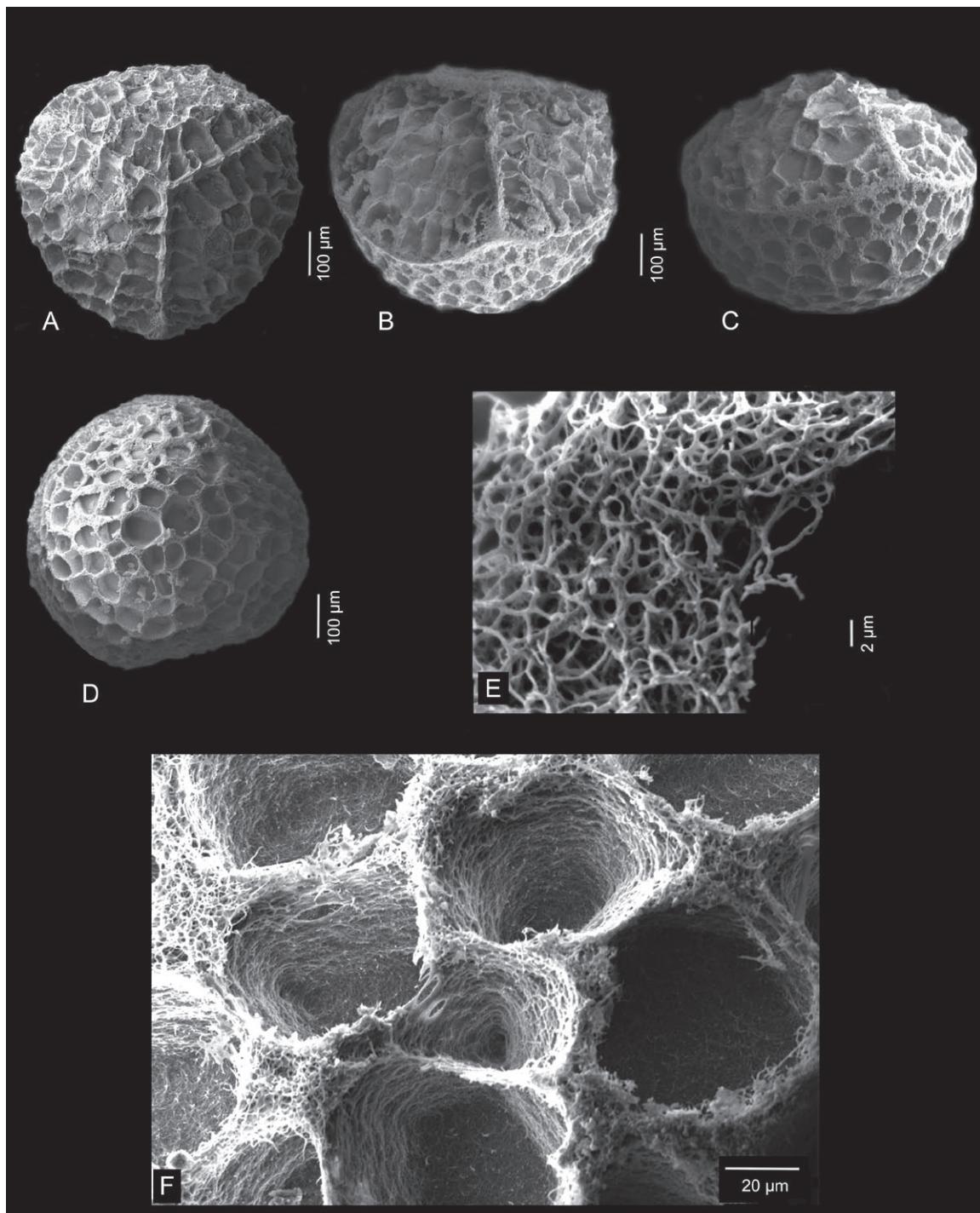


Fig 3. *Isoetes naipiana*, SEM images of megaspores – A: proximal face, longer areolae close to arms, muri crossing over trilete arms; B & C: oblique and equatorial views showing distinct equatorial flange; D: distal face; E: magnified detail of reticulum surface with alveolar strands; F: magnified view of reticulum showing fine fused strands deposited in transverse and parallel fashion forming high muri and denser disposition of strands in bottoms of areolae. – All from Windisch & Nervo 11063.

ally longer areolae can be observed close to the arms, the muri frequently crossing over the trilete arms.

The structure of the ligule and labium (vestigial or as a short projection) was variable, as observed by Budke & al. (2005) in a detailed study of *Isoetes tennesseensis* Luebke & Budke.

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VARIAÇÃO DA RIQUEZA DE FILICÍNEAS E LICÓFITAS EM REMANESCENTES DA FLORESTA ATLÂNTICA NO SUL DO BRASIL, EM DIFERENTES ALTITUDES

Michelle H. Nervo¹, Frederico V. S. Coelho², Paulo G. Windisch² e Gerhard E. Overbeck²

1. Universidade Federal do Rio Grande do Sul, Departamento de Botânica, Programa de Pós-Graduação em Botânica, Rio Grande do Sul, Brasil.
2. Instituto UFGS-RUFLA, Universidade Federal do Rio Grande do Sul.

Endereço para correspondência: mnervo@gmail.com

INTRODUÇÃO

A riqueza e diversidade de organismos são influenciadas por diferentes fatores ambientais, e na escala regional, são determinadas principalmente por variáveis climáticas que exercem um papel importante na delimitação de padrões, com especial destaque para temperatura e precipitação.

O presente estudo busca investigar a variação da riqueza de filicíneas e licófitas ao longo de um gradiente altitudinal em remanescentes da Floresta Atlântica sensu stricto no estado do Rio Grande do Sul.

MATERIAL E MÉTODOS

As áreas estudadas no estudo foram: Floresta Ombrofíla Densa de Terras Baixas (FOOTB), a 30m de altitude; Floresta Ombrofíla Densa Submontana (FODSU), a 400m; Floresta Ombrofíla Densa Montana (FOOMO), a 950m e Floresta Ombrofíla Densa Aatomontana (FODAL), a 1.050m (Fig. 1).

Foram delimitadas 18 parcelas de 0,01 ha (10×10 m) por área. Em cada parcela foram inventariadas todas as licófitas e filicíneas. Para espécies epífitas foram amostradas os florófitos com DAP > 10 cm.

A média da riqueza de espécies nas parcelas foi comparada entre as diferentes altitudes, através de Análises de Variância (ANOVA) com teste de randomização, em nível de significância de 5%.

RESULTADOS E DISCUSSÃO

Ao total, foram registradas 73 espécies distribuídas em 41 gêneros e 18 famílias. Filicíneas formam o grupo predominante com 71 espécies.

A composição de espécies nas diferentes altitudes indicou uma alta heterogeneidade florística entre as formações florestais (Fig. 2), com 30% das espécies exclusivas a um tipo de formação e apenas 11% comuns a todas.

A riqueza média (Fig. 3) apresentou-se significativamente ($G=137$; $gl=3$; $p<0,001$) maior em parcelas a 1050 m (FODAL) do que em parcelas a 30 m (FOOTB) e 400 m (FODSU).

Com relação aos números máximos de espécies observadas nas parcelas (Fig. 4) foram registradas 43 espécies de filicíneas e licófitas no FOOMO, seguido de 36 espécies em FODAL, 38 na FODSU e 28 em FOOTB.

Apesar do aumento gradativo da riqueza média das espécies com o aumento da altitude (Fig. 3), não foi registrado aumento da riqueza total nas áreas (Fig. 4). As menores riquezas totais por área encontram-se nas extremidades do gradiente (30 e 1050m).

Essa configuração evidencia o efeito do domínio médio (mid-domain effect) de distribuição no qual se refere à riqueza de espécies ao longo do gradiente altitudinal. Esse paternidade indica que as espécies da comunidade das filicíneas e licófitas possivelmente apresentam distribuição limitada pelo próprio gradiente.

Os resultados encontrados nesta análise prévia servirão como bases de dados para uma análise mais detalhada de distribuição das comunidades no gradiente altitudinal.



Figura 1. Área de estudo.

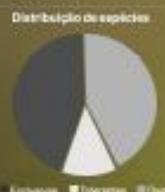


Figura 2. Distribuição das espécies do Floresta e licófitas no gradiente altitudinal.



Figura 3. Riqueza média de filicíneas e licófitas registradas em diferentes altitudes da Floresta Ombrofíla Densa.



Figura 4. Riqueza total de filicíneas e licófitas registradas em diferentes altitudes da Floresta Ombrofíla Densa.

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Frederico V. Coelho¹, Michelle H. Nervo², Paulo G. Windisch³ & Gerhard E. Overbeck³

¹ Graduando em Ciências Biológicas, UFRGS; ² Discente PPG Botânica, UFRGS; ³ Departamento de Botânica, UFRGS.

INTRODUÇÃO

A riqueza de organismos é influenciada por variáveis ambientais que determinam os padrões de distribuição. Desta forma espera-se que hajam diferenças nos padrões de distribuição e riqueza das famílias Dryopteridaceae (predominantemente terrícola) e Polypodiaceae (epífita) ao longo de um gradiente de altitude na Floresta Ombrófila Densa (FOD) no Rio Grande do Sul.

METODOLOGIA

Foram delimitadas 20 áreas de estudo divididas em 4 tipos de formações florestais (Fig. 1, TB, SU, MO, AL). Em cada área 6 parcelas (10×10 m) foram implementadas, onde as espécies foram inventariadas. As médias de riqueza das comunidades em diferentes altitudes foram comparadas através de Análises de Variância com teste de randomização. Utilizou-se Análises de Coordenadas Principais (PCoA) para a visualização dos padrões das comunidades.

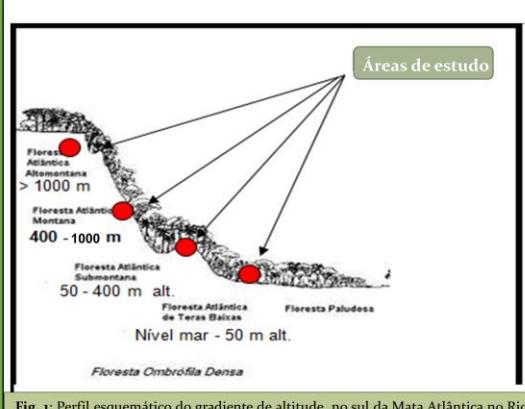


Fig. 1: Perfil esquemático do gradiente de altitude, no sul da Mata Atlântica no Rio Grande do Sul. * adaptado, Brack et al. 2009.

RESULTADOS

Foram registradas 39 espécies (Tab. 1), sendo: 11 (Dryopteridadae) e 29 (Polypodiaceae). A riqueza de espécies epífiticas (da família Polypodiaceae) aumentou significativamente com a altitude. A formação Altomontana (FODAL) apresentou o valor mais alto de riqueza média de espécies epífiticas (8 espécies) enquanto que FODTB foi o mais baixo (5). Já a categoria terrícola (Dryopteridaceae) teve distribuição similar ao longo do gradiente, com a maior riqueza média de espécies em FODSU (3 espécies). O PCoA indicou uma separação entre as formações da planície (TB e SU) e Montana (MO e AL) (Fig. 4). *Microgramma vaccinifolia* e *Pleopeltis pleopeltifolia* estão associados à planície e *Elaphoglossum sellowianum* e *Pleopeltis pleopeltidis* as formações Altas.

The image consists of four separate vertical panels, each showing a different fern species. The top panel shows a fern with long, narrow, lanceolate leaves. The second panel shows a fern with small, heart-shaped leaves. The third panel shows a fern with large, deeply lobed leaves. The bottom panel shows a fern with large, deeply lobed leaves, similar to the third panel but possibly a different variety or stage of growth.

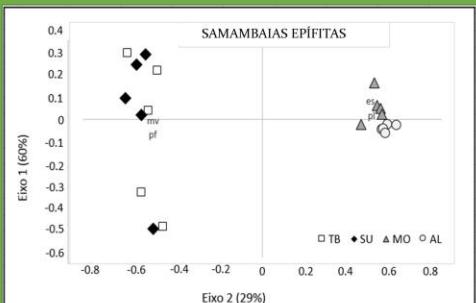


Fig. 4: PCoA de áreas florestais descritas por dados de presença / ausência das comunidades samambaias nas Terras Baixas (MB - quadrados), Submontana (SU - losango), Montana (MO - triângulos) e florestas de montanha (AL - círculos). Explicação do eixo 1 = 60% e do eixo 2 = 29%. Espécie, es: *Elaphoglossum sellowianum*; mv: *Microgramma vaccinifolia*; pf: *Pleopeltis pleopeltifolia*; pl: *Pleopeltis polypodioides*.

CONCLUSÃO

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Os padrões de riqueza e distribuição nas famílias verificados neste estudo parecem relacionadas à hipótese da heterogeneidade ambiental ao longo do gradiente. Estudos mais aprofundados para identificar a ação dos efeitos da distribuição causada pela altitude estão sendo realizadas pelos autores.

Estado de conservação de espécies do gênero *Isoetes* (Lycopsida, Isoetaceae) no Estado do Rio Grande do Sul.



Michelle H. Nervo¹ & Paulo G. Windisch²

¹ Programa de Pós-Graduação, UFRGS (mhnervo@gmail.com); ² Departamento de Botânica, UFRGS.



Introdução

Identificar as espécies que estão em risco de extinção e os fatores que as ameaçam são importantes para a adoção de estratégias conservacionistas, em programas de proteção da biodiversidade.

Isoetes naipiana, *I. mourabaptistae* e *I. maxima* ocorrem apenas em localidades próximas às populações que originaram os tipos nomenclaturais.

Indicativo →

Forte endemismo nas bacias hidrográficas

Neste trabalho foram analisadas espécies de *Isoetes* no Rio Grande do Sul.

Material e métodos

- Revisão principais Herbários
- Bibliografias
- Expedições em campo

Áreas espécies Tipo

Áreas adjacentes

- São Francisco de Paula
- São José dos Ausentes
- Cambará do Sul



Isoetes maxima Hickey et al.

Resultados e discussão

Três espécies:



Isoetes naipiana Windisch et al.



Isoetes mourabaptistae J.B.S.Pereira et al.



Sugestão de inclusão

Isoetes naipiana

Lista da Flora Gaúcha Ameaçada de Extinção

&
Lista da Flora Brasileira Ameaçada de Extinção

(Bbii; D2)



