

# Butterfly assemblages from Amazonian flooded forests are not more species-poor than from unflooded forests

Rafael M. Rabelo<sup>1,2\*</sup> and William E. Magnusson<sup>1,3</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Programa de Pós-Graduação em Ecologia, Instituto Nacional de Pesquisas da Amazônia

<sup>2</sup>Grupo de Pesquisa em Ecologia de Vertebrados Terrestres, Instituto de Desenvolvimento Sustentável Mamirauá

<sup>3</sup>Coordenação de Biodiversidade, Instituto Nacional de Pesquisas da Amazônia

## Abstract

The Amazonian flooded and upland forests harbour distinct assemblages of most taxonomic groups. These differences can be mainly attributed to flooding, which may affect directly or indirectly the persistence of species. Here, we compare the density, richness and composition of butterfly assemblages in *várzea* and *terra firme* forests, and evaluate whether terrain elevation and flooding can be used to predict the assemblage structure. We found that the total abundance and number of species per plot is higher in *várzea* than in *terra firme* forests. *Várzea* assemblages showed a higher dominance of abundant species than *terra firme* assemblages, in which low-flying Haeterini butterflies had higher abundance. After standardizing species richness by sample size and/or coverage, species richness estimates for *várzea* and *terra firme* forests were similar. There was strong turnover in species composition across *várzea* and *terra firme* forests associated with terrain elevation, most likely due to differences in the duration of flooding. Despite a smaller total area, less defined vegetation strata, more frequent disturbances and the younger geological age of floodplain forests, Nymphalid butterfly assemblages are not more species poor there than in unflooded forests.

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\* [rmrabelo@gmail.com](mailto:rmrabelo@gmail.com)

## 1 Introduction

2 The number and composition of species at a given site is a small subset of the regional  
3 species pool because environmental and biotic factors act together or separately to filter  
4 species from the regional pool and select the species composition at local scales [1].

5 Vegetation type is the biotic feature most often used to represent the spatial distribution of  
6 forest-dwelling species, and several forests types can be found in Amazonian landscapes.

7 Upland *terra firme* forests account for approximately 83% of the Amazon basin [2]  
8 and are located above the maximum seasonal flood levels of rivers, lakes and large streams.  
9 Floodplain *várzea* forests, on the other hand, are seasonally flooded by nutrient-rich white-  
10 water rivers for 6 to 8 months, and water-level fluctuations can reach up to 14 m [3]. It is  
11 estimated that *várzea* forests account for ~ 400,000 km<sup>2</sup> in the Amazon basin [2].

12 *Várzea* and *terra firme* forests harbour distinct assemblages of trees [4], terrestrial  
13 mammals [5], bats [6], birds [7] and litter frogs [8]. These differences in species composition  
14 are mainly attributed to flooding, which provides a significant barrier to the persistence of  
15 all ground-dwelling and understorey species during the high-water season [9], and even for  
16 flying species [6,7]. It has been proposed that *terra firme* has higher species richness than  
17 *várzea* forest because it offers more niches associated with the understorey vegetation [10].  
18 It is expected that upland forests should contain more speciose assemblages of species  
19 groups that can persist in flooded and unflooded forests, since they cover a much larger  
20 area [11], have more stratified vegetation [12], suffer less frequent disturbances [13] and  
21 have greater geological age [14] than flooded forests. On the other hand, floodplain forests  
22 tend to have higher species abundance/biomass [10,15] due to the high forest primary  
23 productivity, as the white-water seasonal flooding fertilizes *várzea* soils [16].

24 Butterflies are strongly associated with specific habitats at all life stages [17]. They  
25 are relatively sedentary in the larval stage, but are highly vagile in the adult phase and can  
26 have seasonal adaptations (phenological or migratory) to environmental changes.

27 Vegetation gradients represent changes in the availability of food resources and physical  
28 conditions of the environment, which directly affect the spatial distribution of Amazonian  
29 fruit-feeding butterflies [18–20]. Therefore, environmental changes, such as seasonal  
30 flooding, may also filter species from the regional pool, affecting local species richness and  
31 composition, although no study has been conducted to test that hypothesis.

32 This study compares the butterfly assemblages of *várzea* and *terra firme* forests in a  
33 location in Central Amazonia. Specifically, we aim (i) to test whether the density, richness  
34 and composition of butterflies differs between *várzea* and *terra firme* forests; (ii) to  
35 compare the species-abundance distribution between the two forest types; and (iii) to  
36 evaluate whether the assemblage-structure pattern is associated with terrain elevation and  
37 flooding. We expected to find a higher butterfly density in *várzea* forests because they  
38 have higher forest primary productivity, which represents higher availability of food

39 resources, than *terra firme*. On the other hand, given that *terra firme* forests represent a  
40 more stable environment and cover a larger area, we expected higher species richness in  
41 this forest type. Similarly, we predicted that the butterfly assemblage from *várzea* forests  
42 would have higher dominance of abundant species, and that the species-abundance  
43 distribution would be evenner in *terra firme* forests. We also expected to find strong  
44 turnover in species composition associated with terrain elevation and flooding.

45

## 46 **Materials and Methods**

### 47 **Study area**

48 Sampling was undertaken near the confluence of Juruá and Andirá rivers, in  
49 Amazonas State, Northern Brazil (S1 Fig). The interfluvium of the junction of these rivers is  
50 protected by the Baixo Juruá Extractive Reserve [21]. The Juruá river channel comprises a  
51 large floodplain of *várzea* forests, which are adjacent to unflooded (*terra firme*) forests.  
52 During the high-water season, *várzea* forests are flooded by nutrient-rich white-water  
53 rivers, with an average annual water-level range of 15 m. Highest river levels occur around  
54 May and minima in October [21]. Mean annual temperature and precipitation are around  
55 26 °C and 2255 mm, respectively, with mean precipitation around 60 mm during the dry  
56 season [21].

### 57 **Sampling design and data collection**

58 Sampling was done in five plots located in *várzea* and nine in *terra firme* forests (S1  
59 Fig) at the beginning of the low-water season (July 2018). The sampling design followed the  
60 RAPELD method as part of a long-term ecological project that aims to compare the  
61 distributions of multiple taxa [22]. Plots (sample units) had 250-m long center lines and  
62 were uniformly distributed in the landscape, following the elevation contour to minimize  
63 variation in soil conditions and its correlates within the transects [23]. Most plots were  
64 separated by at least 1 km from one another, but some *terra firme* plots were separated by  
65 only 500 m due to logistical constraints (S1 Fig).

66 Butterfly surveys were conducted via active and passive sampling. We placed six  
67 equally-spaced butterfly baited traps along the center line of each plot. Traps were hung  
68 from tree branches in the forest understorey (1.5–2 m high). We baited the traps with a  
69 mixture of sugar-cane juice and bananas fermented for 48 h [24] and visited them every 24  
70 h to check for captures and replace the bait. We left the traps active for five consecutive  
71 days in each plot. This sampling effort is based on [25], which suggested that it is sufficient  
72 to identify ecological responses of understorey fruit-feeding butterfly assemblages.

73 We also used insect nets to sample low-flying Haeterini species and other Nymphalid  
74 species. On each visit to the plots, two researchers with standard 37-cm diameter insect nets  
75 actively searched for butterflies during 30 min. All captured individuals were collected for

76 species identification and the specimens were deposited in the Entomological Collection of  
77 the Mamirauá Institute for Sustainable Development, Tefé, Brazil.

78 We obtained the elevation data from the digital elevation model (DEM) in the  
79 HYDRO1k database developed by the US Geological Survey  
80 (<http://lta.cr.usgs.gov/HYDRO1K>; S1 Fig). We obtained terrain-flooding data from the  
81 Synthetic Aperture Radar of the Japanese Earth Resources Satellite – JERS-1 SAR  
82 (<http://earth.esa.int>). JERS-1/SAR images are radar images which, in the Amazon, indicate  
83 flooded forests areas by brighter pixels, closed-canopy forests by median brightness, and  
84 open water as darker pixels (S1 Fig).

## 85 **Data analysis**

86 We compared the total abundance and observed number of species per plot between  
87 *várzea* and *terra firme* forests with a Kruskal-Wallis test, as the data had a non-normal  
88 distribution. We used rarefaction and extrapolation of standardized number of species in  
89 order to compare species richness in the two forest types. We standardized the number of  
90 species by both number of sampled individuals and sampling coverage, following the  
91 recommendations of Chao et al. [26]. Rarefaction and extrapolation were based on  
92 sampling coverage in addition to sample size, because standardizing samples by number of  
93 individuals usually underestimates species richness of assemblages with more species [27].  
94 We also used the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test to compare the species-abundance curves from  
95 the two forest types and sampling methods.

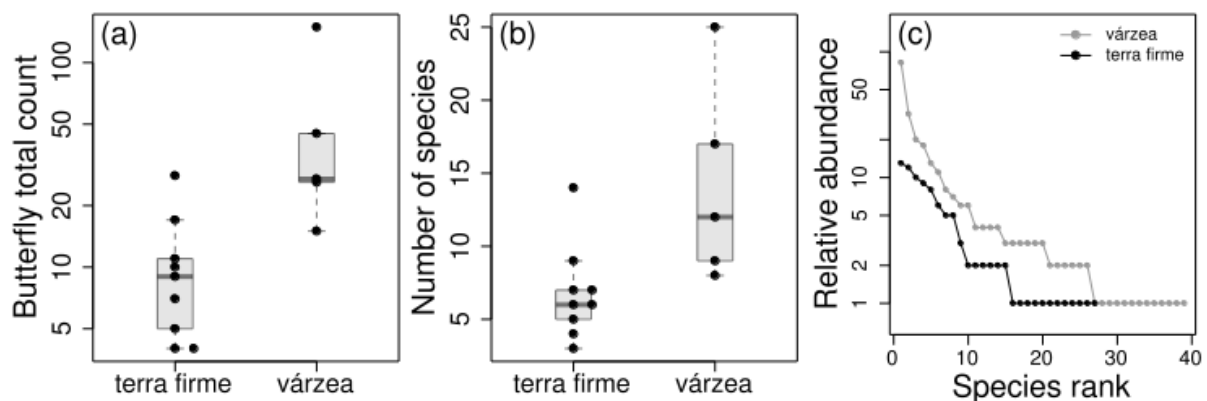
96 We built a species by site matrix, recording each species (columns) abundance per plot  
97 (rows). We standardized the abundances by dividing the number in each matrix cell by the  
98 total abundance in the matrix row (plots) to reduce the discrepancy between sites with  
99 different numbers of individuals captured. We summarized butterfly species composition  
100 by a principal coordinates analysis (PCoA) ordination, based on the Bray-Curtis  
101 dissimilarity index. The scores from the first axis derived from this ordination were used to  
102 represent the butterfly species composition in each plot. We used a permutational  
103 multivariate analysis of variance (PERMANOVA) to evaluate whether the species  
104 composition differed between the two forest types. Terrain elevation and flooding were  
105 highly correlated (Pearson correlation:  $r = -0.96$ ,  $p < 0.01$ , S1 Fig). Thus we conducted an  
106 analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) to evaluate the effect of elevation on the pattern of  
107 assemblage structure, which was represented by first PCoA axis, in each forest type  
108 (factor). All analyses were undertaken in the vegan 2.4-4 [28] and iNEXT [29] packages of  
109 the R 3.4.4 statistical software [30].

## 111 Results

112 We captured 357 individuals belonging to 56 butterfly species (S1 Table). The most  
113 abundant species in *várzea* forests was *Pseudodebis marpessa*, and *Euptychia mollina* was  
114 the most abundant in *terra firme*. Singletons and doubletons were represented by 19 species  
115 (~49%) in *várzea* forests and 18 (~67%) in *terra firme*.

116 The median number of butterflies counted per plot in *várzea* forests was 27 (first  
117 quartile (Q1) and third quartile (Q3) were 26 and 45, respectively), and was significantly  
118 higher than the medium number of butterflies counted in *terra firme* plots (Q1 = 5; median  
119 = 9; Q3 = 11; Kruskal-Wallis,  $H = 6.10$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ; Fig 1a). The abundance distribution of  
120 species also differed between the two forest types (Kolmogorov-Smirnov, baited traps:  $D =$   
121  $0.96$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ; insect nets:  $D = 0.67$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ; both methods:  $D = 0.79$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ; Figs 1c and  
122 S2). The *várzea* assemblage had higher dominance of abundant species (8% of the species  
123 made up 50% of all individuals, S3 Fig) than the *terra firme* assemblage, which had an  
124 even distribution of species abundance (19% of the species made up 50% of individuals, S3  
125 Fig).

126



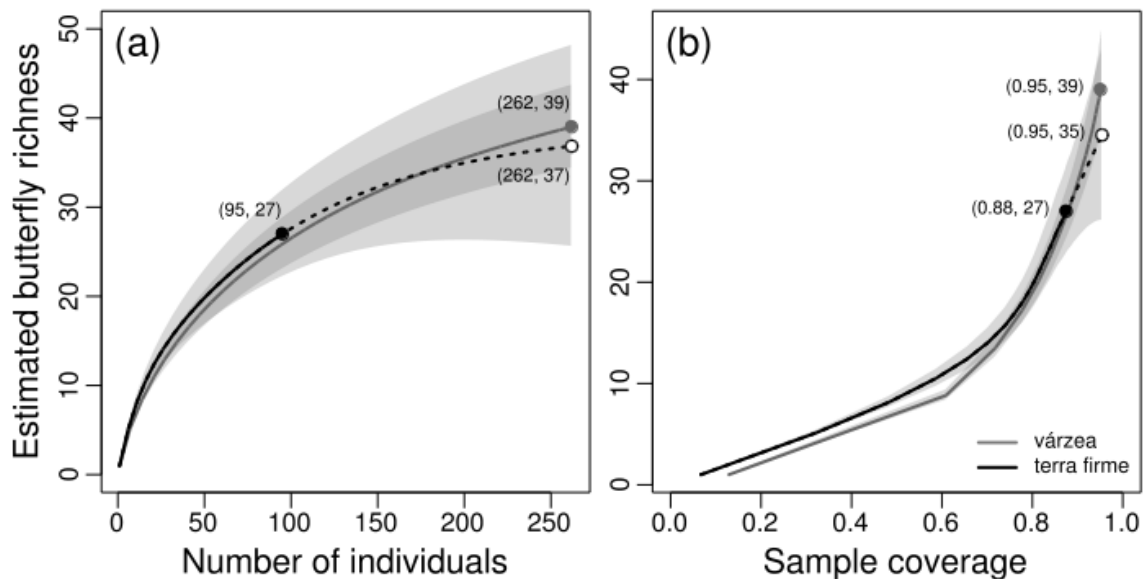
127 **Fig 1.** Butterfly counts and number of species in *várzea* and *terra firme* forest  
128 plots. Difference in butterfly counts (a) and number of species (b) per plot  
129 between the two forest types. (c) Assemblage rank-abundance distribution from  
130 the two forest types.

131

132 The observed number of species per plot was also higher in *várzea* than in *terra firme*  
133 forests (Kruskal-Wallis,  $H = 5.80$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ; Fig 1b), with a median number of 12 species per  
134 plot in flooded forests (Q1 = 9; Q3 = 17) and 6 (Q1 = 5; Q3 = 7) species per plot in upland  
135 forests. However, when the species richness estimate was standardized by sample size and  
136 coverage, *várzea* and *terra firme* forests showed similar species-richness estimates (Fig 2).  
137 Although the *terra firme* assemblage had a lower estimated sampling completeness (88%)

138 than *várzea* (95%; S4 Fig), the rarefaction and extrapolation of species-richness estimates as  
139 a function of sample size or coverage showed similar curves (Fig 2).

140



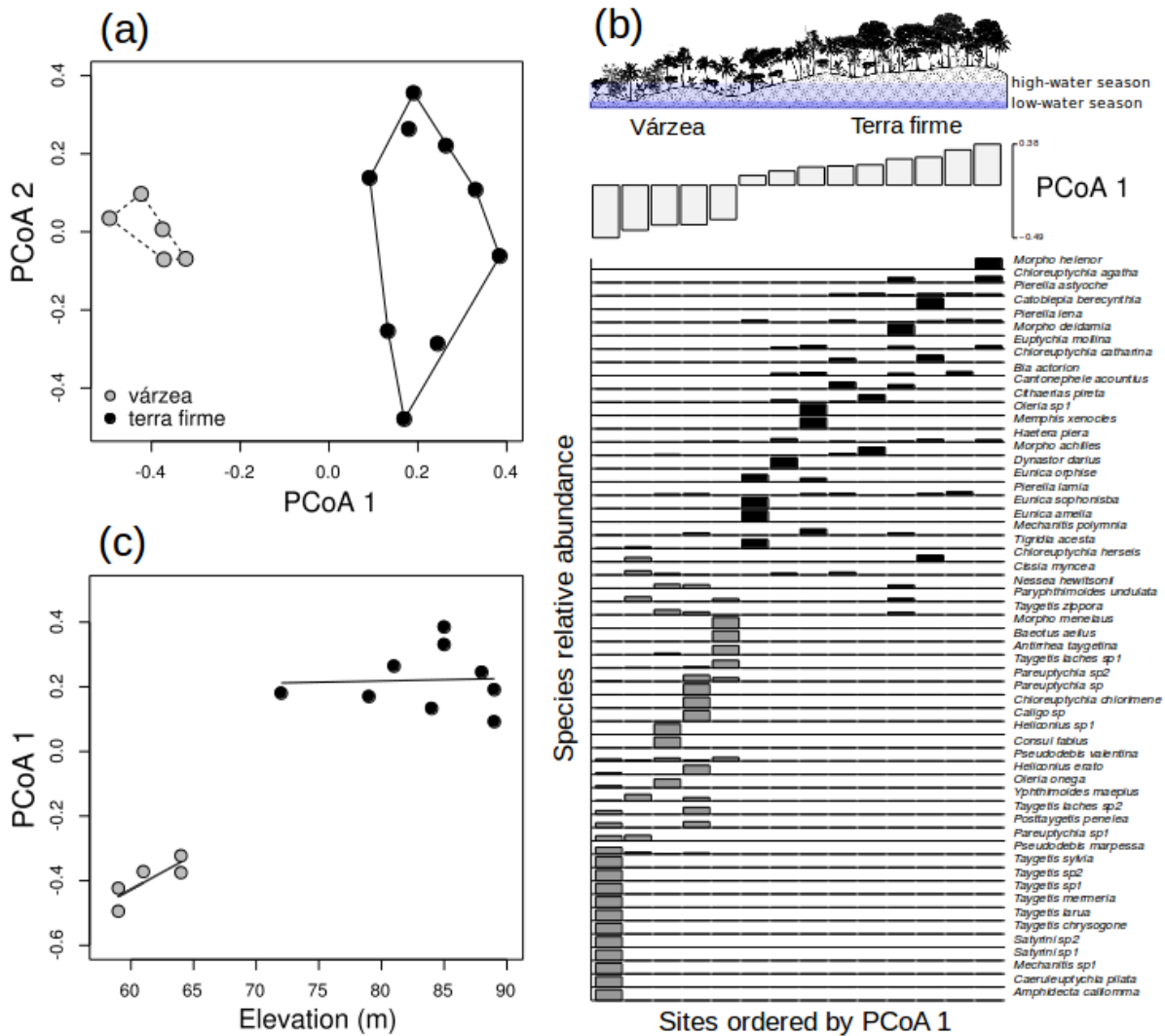
141 **Fig 2.** Butterfly richness estimated by rarefaction (solid curves) and  
142 extrapolation (dashed curves) based on sample size (a) and completeness (b), with  
143 corresponding 95% confidence intervals (shaded areas). Solid circles indicate the  
144 observed species richness and open circles indicate the extrapolated richness in  
145 *terra firme* assemblages based on number of individuals (a) or sample coverage  
146 (b). Numbers within parentheses indicate the coordinates of points in both  
147 graphs. Although estimated richness in *várzea* seemed to be slightly higher than  
148 *terra firme* at its maximum sample size (262 individuals in “a”) or completeness  
149 (0.95 of coverage in “b”), the confidence intervals overlap and indicate there  
150 is no statistically significant difference in richness between the two forest types.

151

152 The PCoA ordination of plots along the two first axes explained 42% of the variation  
153 in species composition. There was a marked difference between butterfly composition of  
154 *várzea* and *terra firme* forests (PERMANOVA,  $F = 4.23$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ), captured mainly by the  
155 first axis (Fig 3a) due to the strong turnover of species composition between forest types  
156 (Fig 3b). The *várzea* species composition was not a nested subset of the *terra firme*  
157 assemblage. The change in species composition was associated with forest types ( $F = 19.22$ ;  
158  $p < 0.01$ ), but without effect of terrain elevation within each forest type ( $F = 1.27$ ;  $p = 0.29$ ;  
159 Fig 3c).

160





161 **Fig 3.** Changes in species composition between *várzea* and *terra firme* forests. (a)  
 162 Similarity in butterfly species composition of plots represented by the distances  
 163 formed in the two axes derived from the PCoA ordination. Each point in the  
 164 graph represent a plot located in *várzea* or *terra firme* forest and the distance  
 165 between points represents the similarity of plot in terms of species composition.  
 166 (b) Distribution of butterflies across sample sites. Sample sites are ordered by the  
 167 first PCoA axis and bar heights show the relative abundance of butterfly species  
 168 across *várzea* (gray) and *terra firme* (black) plots. (c) Change in species  
 169 composition (PCoA 1) with elevation within each forest type.

## 171 Discussion

172 We found higher butterfly total density in *várzea* than in *terra firme* forests, which is  
173 the same pattern reported in studies of bats [10] and primates [15]. The higher density of  
174 herbivorous, frugivorous and nectarivorous species (such as butterflies, primates and  
175 frugivorous bats) in *várzea* forests is probably due to the higher availability of food  
176 resources for these species. Seasonal flooding by white-water rivers provides an extra input  
177 of nutrients in *várzea* soils, which increases forest primary productivity [16]. Bobrowiec et  
178 al. [6] found that the abundance of frugivorous bats in *várzea* forests is even higher during  
179 the high-water season. However, for Amazonian fruit-feeding butterflies, adults tend to be  
180 more abundant during the early and mid dry season, and less abundant during the wet  
181 season [31], when they probably occur in other life stages, such as herbivorous caterpillars.

182 We found that *várzea* forests had a higher number of species per plot (i.e., higher  
183 species density) than *terra firme*. This apparent difference in the number of butterfly  
184 species between the two forest types occurs because we sampled a much higher number of  
185 individuals per plot in *várzea* forest. Therefore, the difference in the amount of nutrients  
186 between the two forest types [16] may also explain the difference in the species density  
187 between *várzea* and *terra firme* forests. However, the higher number of species per plot  
188 found in *várzea* forests did not result in a higher total butterfly richness in the flooded  
189 forest.

190 The *terra firme* assemblages had a lower sampling completeness than *várzea* forest,  
191 despite the larger survey effort (nine surveyed plots), and a higher proportion of rare  
192 species (singletons and doubletons). When extrapolating the *terra firme* species richness to  
193 the same size/coverage as the *várzea*'s sample, we found that both assemblages showed  
194 similar rarefaction and extrapolation curves (Fig 2), indicating that they have similar  
195 overall richness.

196 Poorer assemblages in *várzea* have been consistently documented for several animal  
197 groups [5,6,15], and seasonal inundation is the potential explanation for the lower number  
198 of terrestrial and understorey species. However, few studies have attempted to estimate  
199 species richness by standardizing the number of species by sample size/coverage prior to  
200 undertaking such comparisons (but see [10]). A comparison of bat assemblages between  
201 these two forest types, found a higher bat richness in *terra firme* than in *várzea*, and the  
202 authors suggested that the higher richness occurs because upland forests contain more  
203 niches associated with the understorey vegetation [10]. The higher complexity in the *terra*  
204 *firme* forest structure [16] may also increase the diversity of niches to be occupied by  
205 butterflies, explaining the similarity in species richness between the two forest types,  
206 despite the lower abundance in the upland forest.

207 Three butterfly species made up 50% of all individuals from the *várzea* assemblages:  
208 *Pseudodebis marpessa*, *Oleria onega* and *P. valentina* (S3 Fig). Oviposition of *Pseudodebis*



209 species generally occurs in May–June and its life cycle lasts around 50 days [32], which may  
210 explain the high abundance we found during our survey (July). Additionally, *Pseudodebis*  
211 species feed on the bamboo *Guadua angustifolia* [32], locally known as “*taboca*”, which was  
212 highly abundant the *várzea* plot where we surveyed most *Pseudodebis* butterflies (R.  
213 Rabelo, person. obs.). *Oleria* are Ithomiinae butterflies that are known to feed on alkaloid-  
214 rich host plants, which make the adults unpalatable to predators and all species are  
215 engaged in mimicry [33,34]. Although adults are unpalatable, it has been suggested that  
216 their eggs may be subject to predation or removed from leaves by *Ectatomma* ants, which  
217 are often found on *Solanum* species [35]. As *Ectatomma* ants are weak swimmers [36] and  
218 do not normally occur in Amazonian seasonally-flooded forests [37], we hypothesize that  
219 their absence may favor the high abundance of *Oleria* in *várzea* forests.

220 The rank-abundance distribution was slightly evenner in the *terra firme* assemblage,  
221 with five species (19%) summing more than 50% of all individuals from the upland  
222 assemblage (S3 Fig). *Euptychia molina* was the most abundant species in *terra firme*  
223 assemblage, followed by three species from the Haeterini tribe. *Euptychia* butterflies are  
224 known for their strong relationship with their host plants, which are among the oldest  
225 plant lineages: Selaginellaceae (Lycopsidophyta) and Neckeraceae (Bryophyta) [38,39].  
226 These plant lineages are often obligate terrestrial (*Selaginella*) and do not occur in  
227 floodplain forests [40,41], which may be the reason why *E. molina* was abundant and  
228 restricted to *terra firme*.

229 The evenner rank-abundance distribution in *terra firme* forests was mainly caused by  
230 the Haeterini butterflies, which tended to be more abundant in this forest type (S1 Table).  
231 Three of five Haeterini species were restricted to this forest type (*Cithaerias pireta*, *Pierella*  
232 *astyoche* and *P. lena*, Fig 2b). Haeterini butterflies are low-flying ground-dwelling species  
233 that feed mainly on rotting fruits and other decaying material on the forest floor [42], and  
234 adults can be abundant throughout the year [43]. The host plants for these species are  
235 *Spathiphyllum* sp. for *Haetera* butterflies [44], *Philodendron* sp. for *Cithaerias* butterflies  
236 [45] and mainly species from Heliconiaceae and Maranthaceae for *Pierella* butterflies [38].  
237 *Spathiphyllum* and *Philodendron* species do not occur in *várzea* forests, and terrestrial  
238 species of Heliconiaceae and Maranthaceae may occur in inundated forests, although they  
239 are not usually common [40]. Therefore, the seasonal flooding of *várzea* forests may  
240 explain the higher abundance and constrained distribution of Haterini butterflies and their  
241 host plants to *terra firme* forests.

242 We found a pronounced difference in butterfly species composition between *várzea*  
243 and *terra firme* forests. The strong turnover of species across forest types was captured by  
244 the first PCoA axis. We have discussed some examples of how *várzea* flooding can affect  
245 butterflies and their host plants distribution through increased soil fertility and,  
246 consequently, forest primary productivity [16], which results in differences in resources  
247 availability – soil nutrients that are resources for host plants, which in turn are resources

248 for butterflies. Also biotic constraints due to interaction with predators (e.g., *Ectatomma*  
249 ants that prey upon *Oleria* eggs and their host plants [35]); and flooding *per se*, which  
250 constrains the distribution of low-flying Haeterini butterflies (and several host plant  
251 species) to *terra firme* forests. Therefore, the results of this study suggest that  
252 environmental and biotic filters override the effects of vegetation stratification and effects  
253 of source area on differences in the composition of butterfly assemblages in flooded and  
254 unflooded Amazonian sites at local scales.

255

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267

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## 384 Supporting Information

385 **S1 Fig.** Distribution of sample plots in *várzea* and *terra firme* forests. (a) Terrain elevation  
386 and (b) flooded areas. (c) Correlation between elevation and flooding at sample plot  
387 locations.

388

389 **S1 Table.** Abundance of Nymphalidae butterflies collected in 14 plots (five in *várzea* and  
390 nine in *terra firme* forests) in Baixo-Juruá Extractive Reserve, Amazonas State, Brazil.

391

392 **S2 Fig.** Species-abundance distribution of butterfly species in *várzea* and *terra firme*  
393 forests sampled with baited traps (left) and insect nets (right). In both sampling methods,  
394 the rank-abundance curves of species for different habitats were found to come from  
395 different distributions (Kolmogorov-Smirnov, baited traps:  $D = 0.96$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ; insect nets:  
396  $D = 0.67$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ).

397

398 **S3 Fig.** Rank-abundance distribution of butterfly species in *várzea* and *terra firme* forests.

399

400 **S4 Fig.** Plot of sample coverage for rarefied samples (solid line) and extrapolated samples  
401 (dashed line) as a function of sample size for butterfly samples from *várzea* and *terra firme*  
402 forests, with 95% confidence intervals (shaded areas). Observed samples are denoted by  
403 filled circles. Each of the two curves was extrapolated up to double its observed sample size.  
404 The numbers in parentheses are the sample size and the estimated sample coverage for  
405 each reference sample. Unfilled circles represent the number of individuals to be sampled  
406 from each assemblage when sample coverage is 0.954 (i.e., the sample coverage at double  
407 the observed sample size for the *terra firme* assemblages).