Anuran Life Histories Remain Consistent Across Contrasting Precipitation Regimes in Northeastern Brazilian Forests

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- 1 Anuran life histories remain consistent across contrasting precipitation regimes in
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Abstract. Amphibians are inherently dependent on water, and many species characteristics are 26 27 influenced by this resource, particularly in ecoregions with contrasting precipitation regimes, such as the dry Caatinga and the moist Atlantic Forests of Northeastern Brazil. We compared 28 these environments and hypothesized that anurans, regardless of the species, would be smaller 29 30 in the Caatinga due to unpredictable duration of the rainy season, which accelerates metamorphosis, and the resulting fluctuations of resources, which limits energy reserves for 31 growth. Furthermore, we anticipated that female reproductive strategies in the Caatinga would 32 be more focused on quality rather than quantity, with small clutches and large oocytes. To test 33 these hypotheses, we sampled areas of Caatinga and Atlantic Forest (two of each) in 34 35 northeastern Brazil through 15-day consecutive campaigns conducted during the dry and rainy 36 seasons. We combined active searches and pitfall traps to collect the anurans. We performed intraspecific comparisons using morphometric measurements and number and volume of 37 oocytes. Contrary to our expectations, body size did not differ between forests for either sex. In 38 moist environments, the extended reproductive period and the associated energetic demands 39 may constrain growth, imposing costs similar to those in the semiarid environment, resulting in 40 comparable body sizes. Similarly, few differences were observed in oocyte numbers and 41 volumes. Leptodactylus macrosternum and Rhinella diptycha showed fewer and smaller 42 43 oocytes, respectively, in the Caatinga. Biological factors such as lifespan and body size, and environmental factors such as the duration of the hydroperiod, predation, and insolation can 44 influence oocyte size and numbers in different conditions. However, they likely interact in 45 46 minimizing energy expenditure, resulting in similar reproductive strategies in contrasting environments. 47

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49 Keywords. Frogs, Local adaptation, abiotic conditions, selective pressures, Ecophysiology, life
50 history, precipitation seasonality

INTRODUCTION

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Understanding how abiotic factors shape species' life histories is a central question in ecology (Blaustein et al., 1999; Saenz et al., 2006; Pavón-Vázquez et al., 2022). This issue is particularly relevant for amphibians, given their critical dependence on water for essential biological functions (Pough et al., 1983; Dayton and Fitzgerald, 2006; Brandão et al., 2020). Consequently, life history of these organisms can be directly affected by hydrological dynamics fluctuating and precipitation regimes (Sullivan and Fernandez, 1999; Navas et al., 2004; Li et al., 2023).

External morphology evolves under selective pressures tied to specific ecological 59 demands, such as increased efficiency in competitive interactions or survival in environments 60 with fluctuating resource availability (Demetrius, 2000; Schäuble, 2004). Consequently, 61 marked morphological variations may arise across species' populations subject to the selective 62 pressures of different environments. These modifications in life history traits, e.g. body size, 63 clutch size etc..., can result from phenotypic plasticity or local evolutionary adaptation (Pfennig 64 and Murphy, 2002; García et al., 2021; Tiar-Saadi et al., 2022). Howard (1981) suggested that 65 adult body size in amphibians is directly related to reproductive effort, responding to ecological 66 constraints that influence development trajectories of each sex. 67

In stable environments, with limited resource fluctuations, body size of both sexes increases with the rise in resource acquisition, and sexual selection favors larger individuals, even though dimorphism is preserved (Howard, 1981). Additionally, physiological performance during the larval phase directly influences adult body size (Werner, 1986). Conversely, in unstable environments with high resource fluctuations, anurans encounter sharp increases in prey availability, mainly invertebrates, during the brief and irregular rainy season (Bento et al., 2016; Silva et al., 2021). As a result, post-metamorphic individuals may endure extended periods of reduced resources availability, limiting energy intake for growth andultimately leading to smaller adult body sizes.

Harsh environments can also compromise reproductive output, affecting reproductive 77 investment by imposing significant losses on clutches due to high temperature, solar radiation 78 rates or irregular water availability (Blaustein et al., 1995; Neckel-Oliveira, 2004; Kissel et al., 79 2019). Life history theory posit that in unstable environments, investing in larger oocytes 80 reduces clutch sizes but increases chances of survival of both reproductive females and 81 juveniles (Roff, 1992; Roff, 2002). For example, clutch size in Bufo andrewsi increases with 82 female body size in seasons that favor growth, making them more enduring (Liao et al., 2016). 83 84 Meanwhile, oocyte size increases during shorter, less favorable periods for resource acquisition 85 regardless of body size (Liao et al., 2016).

In the Neotropical realm, the dry Caatinga and the moist Atlantic Forest of Brazil are 86 ecoregions with contrasting abiotic conditions. While the former experiences an extended dry 87 season, semiarid climate, reduced and irregular precipitation regimes, and predominance of 88 temporary aquatic environments (Nimer, 1989; Ab'Saber, 1999; Silva et al., 2017), the latter 89 has a humid tropical climate with high and evenly distributed precipitation throughout the year 90 91 and greater predominance of permanent aquatic environments, thanks to its proximity to the 92 coast (Ab'Saber, 1977; Tonhasca-Júnior, 2005; Joly et al., 2014). Anurans occurring in these contrasting environments exhibit a shorter reproductive period in the Caatinga, as a result of 93 the reduced spatial and temporal availability of water (Caldas et al., 2016; Caldas et al., 2019). 94 95 Given the contrasting conditions occupied by these quite different environments, we hypothesized that: 1 - Anuran males and females are smaller in the Caatinga compared to the 96 Atlantic Forest, as water irregularity and the predominance of temporary aquatic environments 97 would accelerate metamorphosis, and marked seasonal fluctuations in resources availability in 98 the post-metamorphic period would reduce the energy stock necessary for growth. 2 – Females 99

in the Caatinga are expected to prioritize reproductive quality over quantity, producing fewer
but larger oocytes compared to their counterparts in the Atlantic Forest. These strategies could
ensure higher chances of survival for larvae in harsh and unstable environments.

To test the hypotheses, we measured morphometric traits of reproductive males and 103 females of species with coincident occurrence in Caatinga and Atlantic Forest and counted the 104 mature oocytes of females from both ecoregions. Four species were selected for the 105 morphometric analysis: Boana raniceps (Chaco tree frog), Leptodactylus vastus (Northeastern 106 Pepper Frog), Scinax x-signatus (Venezuela snouted treefrog), and Leptodactylus troglodytes 107 (Pernambuco white-lipped frog). Three species were selected for the reproductive analysis [B. 108 raniceps, Leptodactylus macrosternum (Miranda's White-lipped Frog) and Rhinella diptycha 109 110 (cururu toad)]. All the mentioned species have aquatic reproductive modes and the entire larval period develops in water (Nunes-de-Almeida et al., 2021) making them interesting models for 111 investigation in both compared conditions. 112

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MATERIAL AND METHODS

115 *Study areas*

The study was conducted with anuran specimens from four protected areas in the 116 Northeast region of Brazil: the Benjamin Maranhão Botanical Garden Permanent Preservation 117 Area, the Seridó and Aiuaba Ecological Stations and the Guaribas Biological Reserve (Fig. 1). 118 119 The Seridó and Aiuaba Ecological Stations are situated in the Northern Sertaneja Depression located in the Caatinga ecoregion, part of the biome "Tropical & Subtropical Dry Broadleaf 120 Forests" (Dinerstein et al., 2017). The climate is hot and semi-arid, and the average precipitation 121 is below 800 mm (Velloso et al., 2002). The Guaribas Biological Reserve and the Benjamin 122 Maranhão Botanical Garden are located in the Atlantic Forest ecoregion, part of the biome 123 "Tropical & Subtropical Moist Broadleaf Forests" (Dinerstein et al., 2017) with a tropical rainy 124

climate and a short dry season (Köppen type Am) and have average precipitation above 1500mm (Nimer, 1979).

The Seridó Ecological Station (Fig. 1) is located in the state of Rio Grande do Norte 127 (06°35' to 06°40'S, 37°20' to 37°39'W), in the municipality of Serra Negra do Norte, totaling an 128 area of approximately 1,166 ha, mainly composed of herbs and shrubs, predominating genus 129 such as Amburana (Fabaceae), Mimosa (Fabaceae), among others, and an endemic species, 130 Gossypium mustelinum (Malvaceae) (Velloso et al., 2002). The Aiuaba Ecological Station (Fig. 131 1) located in the state of Ceará (06°36'01" to 06°44'35" S and 40°07'15" to 40°19'19" W), in the 132 municipality of Aiuaba, totaling an area of 11,525 ha (Velloso et al., 2002). It includes an 133 arboreal Caatinga remnant with predominantly open vegetation formations with Cnidoscolus-134 Bursera-Caesalpinia (Andrade-Lima, 1981). 135

The Guaribas Biological Reserve and Benjamin Maranhão Botanical Garden (Fig. 1) are 136 located in Paraíba state. The former is located in the municipalities of Mamanguape (91.59%) 137 and Rio Tinto (8.41%), encompassing areas termed SEMA 01, 02, and 03. We sampled SEMA 138 2 (06°40'40" a 06°44'59" S e 41°12'47" a 41°07'11" O) which has an area of approximately 139 3,378 ha (Barbosa et al., 2011). This protected area is highly heterogeneous, comprising tree 140 formations, typical coastal restingas savannas, and an arboreal formation of semi-deciduous 141 142 seasonal forest (Oliveira-Filho and Carvalho, 1993). In turn, the Botanic Garden is a remnant of forest located in the urban area of the municipality of João Pessoa (07°06'S and 34°52'W). 143 The area is divided by the BR-230 highway, resulting in a larger continuous portion of 471 ha 144 145 (sampling site) and 11 small fragments located within Campus I of the Federal University of Paraíba. This environment is typical of the Northeast coastal moist forest, featuring secondary 146 growth and a flora of trees, shrubs, and herbaceous plants, with a low sub-canopy layer and few 147 lianas (Dias et al., 2006). 148

Sampling for this study was conducted in 2013 across the four protected areas. We 151 conducted surveys during the dry season in January (Guaribas), September (Aiuaba), and 152 December (Seridó), while rainy season surveys were made in May (Seridó), April (Aiuaba), 153 and June (Guaribas). For the Benjamin Maranhão Botanical Garden, sampling took place 154 between 2011 and 2012. These data were obtained using the same collection methods as the 155 other sites over a period of 12 months. Since it was possible to filter data covering a similar 156 range of days as the other areas in a seasonal approach, no inconsistencies were caused in the 157 sampling. We selected May, June and July (three of the rainiest months) and October, 158 November, and December (three of the driest months). These intervals showed rainfall averages 159 similar to those of the Guaribas REBIO in 2013 (see National Institute of Meteorology, INMET, 160 2012). These months were chosen based on seasonal definitions established by Lima and 161 Heckendorff (1985), Aguiar and Martins (2002) and Velloso et al. (2002): in the Benjamim 162 Maranhão Botanic Garden, the period of highest rainfall concentration typically occurs between 163 March and August, in the Guaribas Biological Reserve between April and October, and in the 164 Northern Sertaneja Depression, rainfall occurs from October to April. These patterns have been 165 corroborated by 2013 monthly precipitation averages for each site (data from the Brazilian 166 167 National Institute of Meteorology, INMET, 2012; INMET, 2013).

Each survey site was sampled for 15 consecutive days per season, resulting in 30 sampling days per site and a total of 90 days across sites. Two methodologies were used for field sampling. The main survey approach involved systematic visual and auditory inspection of the environments for anurans following standard methods (Crump and Scott, 1994), conducted between 18:00 and 22:00 hours. The active search has always been performed by two scientists, totaling 360 hours per person, and after being located, the specimens were manually collected. We tried to survey as many aquatic environments of aquatic environments

based on the availability of each site: Guaribas Biological Reserve-five temporary ponds, one 175 perennial stream and one perennial lake; Benjamim Maranhão Botanic Garden- a dammed 176 section of the Jaguaribe River (7°08'42' 'S and 34°51'54" W); Seridó Ecological Station-three 177 temporary ponds, one intermittent stream, and one perennial lake; Aiuaba Ecological Station-178 four temporary ponds and one perennial lake. We believe the surveyed environments were 179 adequate to record the species used in the comparisons. Their structural variation among sites 180 was not considered problematic, as the species do not have riparian habits, and all but one 181 (Corythomantis greeningi) reproduce in lentic habitats (Arzabe, 1999; Vieira et al., 2007; 182 Santana et al., 2008). 183

The complementary survey approach involved the use of pitfall traps. We selected two aquatic environments with distinct conditions (temporary and perennial) in each survey site and install three trapping systems at the margins of each (except at the Botanical Garden, where two areas on the banks of the Jaguaribe River were used). The system consisted of four 30-L buckets buried in the ground and connected by 5-m plastic drift fences arranged in a Y pattern (Cechin and Martins, 2000; Enge, 2001). The traps were checked twice daily for 15 days to prevent animal mortality.

191 Morphometry

We selected four anuran species, B. raniceps, L. vastus, S. x-signatus, and L. troglodytes. 192 193 The collected specimens were transported to the laboratory, euthanized with 2% lidocaine, fixed in 10% formalin, and then preserved in 70% alcohol (Caldas et al., 2016; Caldas et al., 2019), 194 with each specimen assigned an identification number. After fixation, we measured 11 195 196 morphometric traits for each individual using a digital caliper (precision of 0.01 mm): snoutvent length (SVL), head length, head width, inter-eye distance, eye-nostril distance, inter-nostril 197 distance, thigh length, tibia length, foot length, eye diameter, and inter-orbital distance (Napoli 198 and Pimenta, 2009). 199

Next, we dissected the sampled individuals to determine their sex through direct observation of the gonads. The reproductive condition was assessed by examining the reproductive organs in females and the vocal sacs in males. Females were considered reproductive and suitable for comparison if they had highly convoluted oviducts and developed ovaries, while males were considered reproductive if they displayed fully evident vocal sacs (Mesquita et al., 2004). Individuals lacking these characteristics were classified as nonreproductive and excluded from the analyses.

207 *Reproduction*

We selected three species for these analyses: B. raniceps, L. macrosternum, and R. 208 diptycha. They were the only ones that had females with oocytes and occurred in both of the 209 210 compared ecoregions. We obtained large samples for each species (B. raniceps, n = 73; L. *macrosternum*, n = 210; *R. diptycha*, n = 86). However, the proportions of females were low 211 [B. raniceps = 25 (34%); L. macrosternum = 81 (39%); R. diptycha = 24 (28%)], a situation 212 that commonly occur in some anurans (Braun and Braun, 1977; Wiens et al., 2011). Few of 213 these cataloged females contained oocytes (B. raniceps, n = 8 (32%); L. macrosternum, n = 31 214 (38%); R. diptycha, n = 9 (37%). Due to the smaller number of females and the occasional 215 presence of oocytes in them, it was not possible to obtain information for the last two species 216 at one of the Atlantic Forest sites (APP JBBM). In the laboratory, we dissected the specimens 217 218 and removed the mature ovarian oocytes (post-vitellogenic) from females. These oocytes were identified by their well-differentiated hemispheres, with the animal pole displaying a dark 219 brown coloration and the vegetative pole appearing milky and ivory in color (Melchiors et al., 220 2004). The material was then preserved in 70% alcohol. 221

We counted oocytes using a graduated cylinder filled with water up to a fixed measurement (properly recorded). Subsequently, we submerged the entire mass of oocytes into the container and recorded the displacement of the water column. We removed the water and reintroduced only enough to displace 1.5 mm³. Next, the oocytes present in this small mass were dissociated by immersing them in a 10% sodium hypochlorite solution for 20 minutes (Melchiors et al., 2004). The dissociation allowed for the individual counting of the oocytes using a stereoscopic magnifying glass. With the total volume of the oocyte mass and the number of oocytes present in 1.5 mm³, it was possible to estimate each oocyte's total number and average volume through a simple proportion. After completing the procedures, we layed all specimens and oocytes in the Coleção Herpetológica da Universidade Federal da Paraíba.

232 Data analysis

We initially assessed the normality of the data using the Shapiro-Wilk test to determine 233 234 whether parametric or nonparametric analyses would be appropriate. Body size was treated as an isometric variable (Rohlf and Bookstein, 1987), following the protocol described by Somers 235 (1986). An isometric eigenvector was calculated with predefined values of p-0.5, where "p" 236 represents the number of variables (Jolicoeur, 1963). The scores for this eigenvector, referred 237 to as "composite body size," were obtained by multiplying the n x p matrix of log10-238 transformed data, where "n" is the number of observations. To evaluate differences in 239 composite body size between individuals of the same species across ecoregions, we conducted 240 separate analyses of variance (ANOVA) for males and females. 241

For the oocyte masses, we calculated the average number of oocytes for species from both the Caatinga and Atlantic Forests. To test whether the total number and average individual volume of oocytes differed significantly between specimens from the two ecoregions, we performed an analysis of variance (ANOVA) (Shapiro-Wilk, p > 0,05) or Mann-Whitney test (Shapiro-Wilk, p < 0,05), depending on the normality of the data. All analyses were conducted using the R program for Windows (R Development Core Team, 2018): package Rcmdr version 2.9-5 for Shapiro-Wilk, ANOVA, and Mann-Whitney (Fox et al., 2020).

RESULTS

We did not find significant differences in body size in the four species between the two 251 ecoregions, regardless of sex. Males and females exhibit similar body sizes in both forests: 252 253 males of *B. raniceps* (ANOVA, $F_{1,46}$: 0.60; P = 0.44), females of *B. raniceps* (ANOVA, $F_{1,23}$: 0.01; P = 0.91), and other males: S. x-signatus (ANOVA, $F_{1,47}$: 0.41; P = 0.52), L. vastus 254 (ANOVA, $F_{1,33}$: 2.70; P = 0.11), and L. troglodytes (ANOVA, $F_{1,18}$: 2.10; P = 0.16) (Table 1). 255 Similarly, the number of oocytes did not differ between ecoregions for B. raniceps and 256 R. diptycha (Table 2). However, we observed differences in the number of oocytes for L. 257 *macrosternum*, which was lower in the Caatinga (mean = $2,877 \pm 1,723$) and higher in the 258 Atlantic Forest (mean = $5,255 \pm 2,051$); (ANOVA, F_{1,29}: 11.41; p = 0.02) (Table 2). The other 259 species did not show variations: B. raniceps (ANOVA, $F_{1,6}$: 0.15; p = 0.70) and R. diptycha 260 (Mann-Whitney, $U_{1.7}$: 0.97; p = 0.32) (Table 2). 261

The average volume of each oocyte did not differ for *B. raniceps* (Table 2). However, we observed differences for *R. diptycha*, which had significantly smaller oocytes in the Caatinga (mean = $0.0015 \pm 0.0008 \text{ mm}^3$) compared to the Atlantic Forest (mean = $0.0036 \pm 0.0013 \text{ mm}^3$); (ANOVA, F_{1,7}: 7.76; p = 0.03) (Table 2). The other species did not show variations: *B. raniceps* (ANOVA, F_{1,6}: 3.55; p = 0.11) and *L. macrosternum* (ANOVA, F_{1,29}: 0.20; p = 0.66) (Table 2).

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DISCUSSION

Contrary to our expectations, neither males nor females differed in size between Caatinga and Atlantic Forest. Similarly, reproductive efforts in the Caatinga did not differ significantly from the Atlantic Forest, except for *L. macrosternum* and *R. diptycha*, which showed a lower number and a smaller size of oocytes, respectively. Adult frogs were not smaller in environments with irregular precipitation regimes and reduced resources availability during the extended dry season (Caatinga), suggesting that hydroperiod and prey availability may not be limiting factors for growth. Possibly to avoid compromising growth due to resource limitations,
other strategies to minimize energy loss in the dry season seem to have been selected in
amphibians from Caatinga, such as aestivation and use of subterranean shelters in periods of
reduced activity (Varjão and Ribeiro, 2018; Jared et al., 2019; Moreira et al., 2021).

In the Caatinga, lower precipitation and shorter hydroperiods can hypothetically 279 accelerate metamorphosis and restrict resource availability for adults. Conversely, in the 280 Atlantic Forest the hydrological stability can allow extended reproductive activity, but at the 281 cost of expending more energy in vocalization, territory defense, partner encounter, courtship, 282 and investment in oocytes (Arzabe et al., 1998; Afonso and Eterovick, 2007; Caldas et al., 283 2016). In both cases, energy deprivation would impact body size, as predicted by life history 284 theory. Given limitations and finite resources, reproduction can incur costs that would 285 ultimately reduce the growth rate (Bradshaw and McMahon, 2008). In other words, body size 286 patterns in the two ecoregions would be similar because growth would not be the main focus of 287 energy investment, and thus, selective pressures would not promote an increase in size. In the 288 Caatinga, the limited availability of trophic resources during the short rainy season would 289 provide just enough energy for a rapid reproductive event. In the Atlantic Forest, the greater 290 availability of trophic resources, ensured by annual water stability, would support a prolonged 291 reproductive event. In both cases, the primary objective would be reproduction, and energy 292 investment would be prioritized for this activity. 293

The expected patterns for hostile environments (Caatinga) and stable environments (Atlantic Forest) were not corroborated for most of the species' reproductive investment. The number of oocytes did not change in *B. raniceps*. In contrast, the volume of oocytes in *R. diptycha* was smaller in the Caatinga, contrary to some expectations for their sizes of under harsh conditions (Morrison and Hero, 2003; Liao et al., 2016). Alternatively, harsh environments with short seasons for resource acquisition can result in low annual growth rates. Thus, smaller oocytes or clutches would be compensated by more reproductive periods and greater longevity (Sinsch et al., 2015), a pattern common for large-size species (Stark and Meiri, 2018), like *Rana temporaria* (Sinsch et al., 2015). Indeed, *R. diptycha* is a large species (Sousa et al., 2022), and longevity has already been indicated as a key factor for the persistence of some bufonids in arid environments (Tevis Jr, 1966). Therefore, slow growth rates and higher longevity resulting in more reproductive events in the Caatinga in *R. diptycha* may account for its smaller oocytes.

Leptodactylus macrosternum presented a lower number of oocytes in the Caatinga. 307 However, contrary to what would be expected if the species in both regions allocated the same 308 309 amount of energy for reproduction, these oocytes were not larger than those in the Atlantic 310 Forest. Although it is not clear what drives this difference among areas, other factors can be driving egg number and size in this species (see Horato et al., 2024). The eggs of L. 311 macrosternum are layed in the water (Heyer, 1969), and harsh insolation in arid environments 312 can more severely affect eggs layed outside of water (Caldas et al., 2016). Similarly, there is 313 less predation pressure in temporary aquatic environments subject to prolonged droughts 314 (Woodward, 1983; Dayton and Fitzgerald, 2001; Schiwitz et al., 2020). The combination of 315 such factors could prevent natural selection from favoring an increase in oocyte volume, 316 317 resistance, and larval size. Thus, the qualitative nature of L. macrosternum reproduction would prevail. This hypothesis needs to be tested for the cause-and-effect relationships we discussed 318 to be confirmed. 319

Studies focusing on the possible effects of environmental variables on life history traits in amphibian species from the Brazilian Forests remain scarce. Despite our moderate sample sizes, our data suggest that the differences between precipitation regimes are probably insufficient to promote significant reproductive and morphological adjustments in species that can thrive in both Caatinga and Atlantic forest. However, the observed patterns require further investigation to be completely understood. In particular, future research should focus on otherenvironmental factors and taxa, as well as increasing the number of samples analyzed.

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535	Table 1. Descriptive statistics and body size comparisons for amphibians from the Caatinga (visuality)	within parentheses) and the Atlantic Forest. NS = not
536	significant.	

536 significant.	ınt.	signifi	536
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Variables	<i>B. raniceps</i> n = 24 (49)		S. x-signatus	L. vastus	L. troglodytes	
			n = 22 (27)	n = 15 (20)	n = 6 (15)	
	males	females	males	males	males	
	n = 15 (33)	n = 9 (16)	n = 22 (27)	n = 15 (20)	n = 6 (15)	
SVL	68.66 ± 3.42	72.57 ± 11.15	34.89 ± 2.78	135.25 ± 31.87	48.33 ± 1.59	
	(63.00 ± 10.35)	(68.91 ± 7.82)	(33.19 ± 4.12)	(153.30 ± 20.37)	(43.42 ± 6.74)	
Composite Body Size	4.15 ± 0.08	4.23 ± 0.30	3.07 ± 0.17	5.11 ± 0.61	3.65 ± 0.09	
	(4.08 ± 0.30)	(4.24 ± 0.14)	(3.10 ± 0.16)	(5.34 ± 0.14)	(3.55 ± 0.15)	
	$F_{1,46} = 0.60^{NS}$	$F_{1,23} = 0.01^{NS}$	$F_{1,47}\!=\!0.41~^{\rm NS}$	$F_{1,33} = 2.70$ NS	$F_{1,18} = 2.10$ NS	

538	Table 2. Descriptive statistics and comparisons of reproductive traits for amphibians	from the Caatinga (within parentheses) and the Atlantic
539	Forest. *P < 0.05; NS = not significant.	

B. raniceps	L. macrosternum	R. diptycha	
n = 4 (4)	n = 10 (21)	n = 4(5)	
4,765 ± 4,634	$5,255 \pm 2,051$	24,818 ± 10,013	
(3,728 ± 2,487)		$(18,024 \pm 17,440)$	
$F_{1,6} = 0.15^{NS}$		$U_{1,7}{=}0.97^{NS}$	
$0.0029 \pm 0.0017 \text{ mm}^3$	$0.0018 \pm 0.0005 \ mm^3$	$0.0036 \pm 0.0013 \ mm^3$	
$(0.0013 \pm 0.0002 \text{ mm}^3)$	$(0.0019 \pm 0.0010 \text{ mm}^3)$	$(0.0015 \pm 0.0008 \text{ mm}^3)$	
$F_{1,6} = 3.55^{NS}$	$F_{1,29:} = 0.20^{NS}$	$F_{1,7} = 7.77*$	
	B. raniceps n = 4 (4) $4,765 \pm 4,634$ $(3,728 \pm 2,487)$ $F_{1,6} = 0.15^{NS}$ $0.0029 \pm 0.0017 \text{ mm}^3$ $(0.0013 \pm 0.0002 \text{ mm}^3)$ $F_{1,6} = 3.55^{NS}$	B. raniceps L. macrosternum $n = 4 (4)$ $n = 10 (21)$ $4,765 \pm 4,634$ $5,255 \pm 2,051$ $(3,728 \pm 2,487)$ $F_{1,6} = 0.15^{NS}$ $0.0029 \pm 0.0017 \text{ mm}^3$ $0.0018 \pm 0.0005 \text{ mm}^3$ $(0.0013 \pm 0.0002 \text{ mm}^3)$ $(0.0019 \pm 0.0010 \text{ mm}^3)$ $F_{1,6} = 3.55^{NS}$ $F_{1,29:} = 0.20^{NS}$	

539	Forest.	*P <	0.05;	NS =	not significant.
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Fig. 1. Study areas: Aiuaba Ecological Station – CE (A), Seridó Ecological Station – RN (B), Guaribas Biological Reserve – PB (C), and
Benjamin Maranhão Botanical Garden– PB (D). Caatinga are filled with lines, and Atlantic Forest areas are without lines.