

Forest cover and environmental type shape functional diversity of insectivorous birds within the Atlantic Forest

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March 18, 2023

Abstract

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

E. C. M. thank the National Council for Scientific and Technological Development – CNPq (130483/2021-4) for providing financial support, and the Post-graduate Program in Ecology and Natural Resources (PPGERN) at the Universidade Federal de São Carlos (UFSCar) for technical support. We thank Research Support Foundation of the State of São Paulo - FAPESP, for the support given to the project "Biodiversidade no Antropoceno: uma síntese dos efeitos da expansão da agricultura no Cerrado e na Mata Atlântica" (22/10760-1). We sincerely appreciate all comments and suggestions provided by colleagues at the Laboratory of Ecology and Conservation - LECO. MCR thanks to FAPESP (processes #2013/50421-2; #2020/01779-5; #2021/08534-0; #2021/10195-0; #2022/10760-1) and National Council for Scientific and Technological Development - CNPq (processes #442147/2020-1; #402765/2021-4; #313016/2021-6; #440145/2022-8) for their financial support.

CONFLICT OF INTEREST

The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

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KEYWORDS:

Beta functional diversity, Forest cover, Functional diversity, Insectivorous birds, Landscape change.

INTRODUCTION

Agroecosystems, urban sprawl, and human needs for natural resources have converted pristine ecosystems into fragmented and anthropogenic landscapes (Johnson et al. 2017). In the Atlantic Forest the predominant commodity crops are sugarcane (~5.2 Mha), eucalyptus (~5.8 Mha) and soy, corn, and coffee (~14.4 Mha together). Their recent expansion over pastures may have shifted these activities to steeper regions, eagerly for deforestation as well (Rosa et al. 2023). Indeed, one of the main components driving forest loss across the globe is deforestation for commodity extraction, silviculture, shifting agriculture (i.e., conversion of forest lands to agriculture, that may later be abandoned followed by subsequent forest regrowth) and forest fires (Curtis et al. 2018; Diniz et al. 2022).

These environmental changes have led to a reduction in the size and connectivity of native vegetation, boosting edge effects and isolation between patches (Fahrig 2003). As a result, they catalyze both decline in populations and local extinctions, mainly for the most sensitive species, leading to biodiversity losses, environmental homogenization (Tilman et al. 2001; Green et al. 2005; Chace and Walsh 2006), depletion in the maintenance and integrity of ecological functions (Tylianakis et al. 2007; Grimm et al. 2008; Ulrich et al. 2016) and the provision of ecosystem services (de Coster et al. 2015; Duarte et al. 2018).

The landscape mosaics are composed mainly by anthropogenic matrix (i.e., pasture, agriculture, planted forest, etc.) and native forest remnants, which can be unique refuges for biodiversity (Şekercioglu et al. 2002). The shape, size, and location of these native habitats, and the structure and composition of the surrounding land cover (Haila 2002; Kupfer et al. 2006), are central for defining the structure and composition of biological composition. Studies on how habitat reduction and fragmentation have been affecting the arrangement of biological communities (ecological drift) and species responses (environmental filtering) have become increasingly common (Morante-Filho et al. 2015; Boesing et al. 2017; Pardini et al. 2017; Adorno et al. 2021). However, the role of anthropogenic landscape matrix as a modifying agent of community assemblies still unclear, and the results of habitat loss in communities composition, ecological functions, and ecosystem services provision are barely known (Kupfer et al. 2006; Pardini et al. 2017; Medeiros et al. 2019; Barros et al. 2019a; Larissa Boesing et al. 2022). A landscape perspective is required to understand the effects of agriculture land use on the biodiversity and ecological processes (e.g., arthropod predation (Tscharntke et al. 2005; Turner et al. 2013; de Souza Leite et al. 2022).

Intensification of agricultural practices has led to the homogenization of the landscapes (Dudley and Alexander 2017), and it is assigned as one of the main factors leading to the decline of arthropods (Sánchez-Bayo and Wyckhuys 2019). This is a result derived from the loss of natural habitats and/or use of toxic pesticides (defined as the concentrations of polyunsaturated fatty acids) that modify the abundance, availability, and quality of aerial insects (Attwood et al. 2008; Paquette et al. 2013; Bellavance et al. 2018; Twining et al. 2018; Génier et al. 2021). The decline in the availability of nutritious aquatic insects can negatively affect both birds' nestling growth, and fledging success (Twining et al. 2016, 2018). Bird communities are highly susceptible to modifications in agroecosystems (Berg 2002; Catarino et al. 2016; Herrera et al. 2016). This results in either turnovers in species composition (Sirami et al. 2007), or in nestedness differences (i.e., loss or gain of species, creating a subgroup of the original community; Baselga et al. 2015; Pollock et al. 2020).

Another ecosystem globally degraded by agriculture are wetlands (Reis et al. 2017; Ramsar Convention on Wetlands 2018). These environments perform central functions such as regulating water flows and dampening floods; modifying and controlling water quality, controlling erosion and siltation; supplying of food and breeding sites for aquatic fauna, and refuge for terrestrial fauna (Salati 2000; Reis et al. 2017). More than half of wetlands had been affected in the last 60 years due to agricultural soil drainage and other processes (Dahl 2014; Watmough et al., 2017) in the USA. A critically endangered Neotropical bird species (IUCN 2022), the São Paulo Antwren (*Formicivora paludicola*), had severe feeding restrictions caused by the loss of quality of flooded environments, its exclusive habitats. The rapid-growth of the invasive species *Hedychium coronarium* interrupted the natural flow of water and, consequently, the maintenance of the swamps (Del-Rio et al. 2017). Landscape modifications usually tend to result in changes in ecological assemblages, modifying the composition of communities (Newbold et al. 2015) leading to homogenization at any level of organization, whether genetic, taxonomic, or functional (Olden and Rooney 2006), as species diversity is reduced and replaced by widespread species (Clavero and Brotons 2010; Gámez-Virués et al. 2015). Bird diversity is shaped by a range of human activities; however, the effect of changes in land use (e.g., decline in native forest cover) is arguably one of the more effective (Fuller et al. 2012). Studies at the landscape scale have found evidence for a threshold of forest cover; below this level, the response of communities and species changes dramatically (Betts et al. 2007; Swift and Hannon 2010; Maron et al. 2012; Morante-Filho et al. 2015; 2018). Determining the impacts of shifts in forest cover is important because certain regions are home to many endemic species or species of high conservation interest (Corkery et al. 2020).

Native forests are responsible for the provision of several ecosystem services (e.g., pest control, pollination, and seed dispersal) (Wenny et al. 2011; Duarte et al. 2018), and the reduction of these vegetation can be critical within agroecosystems (Tscharntke et al. 2016). Indeed, vegetation fitness is strongly dependent on the arthropod control provided by insectivorous vertebrates (e.g., birds and bats) due to the cascade effects (Mäntylä et al. 2011; Karp and Daily 2014). Nearly 8-15% of world production of wheat, rice, potatoes, soybeans, cotton, and maize is damaged by arthropods, which would range from 9-37% without any biological control and pesticides (Oerke 2006). There are estimates that the consumption of foliage-gleaning arthropods breaks ~13% of all potential crop production in the US (~US\$ 33 billion; Pimentel et al. 2005). Without the

ecosystem services provided by native species that prey on these arthropods, the estimated damage would reach ~US\$ 4.5 billion higher (Losey 2009).

The decline in species richness has been widely observed (Jiguet et al. 2010; Correll et al. 2019) and is often related with changes in land cover. Until the 1990s, ecological theory investigated which processes determined species abundance and richness in space and time (Silva et al. 2022). However, species richness alone could not reveal the whole story about the biodiversity of an area; actually, this only provides an estimate of the species number (Han et al. 2021). The more explicit use of species traits (i.e., morphological, physiological, and phenological characteristics, that may affect fitness, rates of growth, reproduction and survival; Violle et al. 2007) as a central idea to explain their distribution and how they would affect the ecosystems, only started in the 2000s (Díaz and Cabido 2001; McGill et al. 2006); this shift in the focus of ecology became known as the "biodiversity revolution" (Cernansky 2017). From then on, diversity measures started to be represented not only by differences in species number and quantity, yet also by differences and similarities of functional traits. Thus, the difference in the degree of expression of these functional traits across populations, communities, or ecosystems, is defined as functional diversity (Garnier et al. 2016). Therefore, the trait-based approach assumes that changes in functional trait composition across different landscapes are more predictable than using species composition alone (Fukami et al. 2005).

Studies that combine the relationships between traits and the environment have been related to environmental or habitat filters (Bello et al. 2021). This idea is based on "filtering" species from a regional pool into local communities according to their traits (MacArthur and Wilson 1967; Keddy 1992; Díaz et al. 1998). In short, within a geographically defined space (i.e., either communities or assemblages), a series of hierarchical filters determine the traits that provide the best performance within the specific ecological conditions; therefore, which species are most likely to coexist within that space. Focusing only on taxonomic and phylogenetic diversity may pose a risk to biodiversity conservation, since these strategies may not ensure high functionality (Mazel et al. 2018).

Distinct patterns of taxonomic and functional diversity had been described in response to environmental changes (Prescott et al. 2016). Although many studies focus on the effects of anthropogenic changes on biodiversity, they are still limited to patterns found on either species richness (Gibson et al. 2011) or taxonomic diversity metrics (Naeem et al. 2012). Because the structuring of bird guilds and their species composition varies spatially (Holmes et al. 1979; Holmes and Recher 1986), as they prefer to live in heterogeneous landscapes to better suit nesting, roosting, and foraging (Berg 2002; Aggarwal et al. 2008; Veech et al. 2011). Knowledge related to the habitat preferences of avian species is vital for analyzing their responses to habitat changes and their conservation policies (Lawton et al. 1998; Sekercioglu 2006). Furthermore, the association of birds with environmental heterogeneity helps to decipher the influence of biotic interactions on the distribution of bird species (Jankowski et al. 2013) and functional traits (Spake et al. 2020).

In this paper, we tested the effects of landscape on the functional diversity of insectivorous birds within the Brazilian Atlantic Forest. We investigate whether there would be a correlation between the environmental variables of the type of environments (i.e., pasture, native forest, and marsh) and forest cover and the indices of bird functional diversity and species composition. We hypothesize that the environment type and native forest cover gradient filter the functional traits and - thereby - the functional diversity of insectivorous birds in the context of the Atlantic Forest. We predict that (1) species composition and functional diversity are shaped by species turnover and nestedness across different types of environments. Environments under the influence of human disturbance as pasturelands, dominance of generalist species having increased dispersion ability, and greater nestedness effect are expected, arising in a reduced biodiversity due to homogenized landscape mosaics (Karp et al., 2012). The species turnover effect would be more associated with heterogeneous environment characteristics with different successional backgrounds (Arroyo-Rodríguez et al. 2013). We also predict that (2) the gradient of percentage of relict native vegetation cover has significant and positive effects on the composition of insectivorous bird assemblages and on functional diversity. Areas having higher forest cover would support greater functional diversity, which may also be related to a greater complexity of the forest habitats (e.g., vertical structure) (Morelli et al. 2018).

METHODS

Study site

The study was conducted in the ecological corridor of Cantareira-Mantiqueira (Fig. 1), which is located ~50 km far from the metropolitan region of São Paulo, and where long-term ecological research (LTER CCM) has been conducted since 2014. The Corridor of Cantareira-Mantiqueira is in the southeastern of the Atlantic Forest (dense rain rainforest), in an area of ~700,000 ha, with elevation ranging from 700 to 1,700 m. a.s.l., connecting two large forest blocks, the Cantareira State Park and the Serra da Mantiqueira (Boscolo et al. 2017). The Atlantic Forest has key interest for biological conservation and is considered as a biodiversity hotspot mainly for birds, due to the high species richness and endemic species (620 species; Myers et al. 2000).

The region comprises landscape mosaics having a wide gradient of forest losses and large heterogeneity of land use, and most of the forest remnants are small (i.e., <100 ha) and isolated fragments, composed by second-growth forests in early to medium stages of succession (Ribeiro et al. 2009; Metzger et al. 2009). These forest remnants are surrounded by multiple land use systems, including several agroecosystems, such as pasture, small scale agriculture, forestry, regenerating forests, and urban areas (Barros et al. 2019b). Köppen climate classification for this region is Cwa, that is, humid subtropical with dry winters and hot summers (Alcarde Alvares et al. 2013).

Selection of landscapes

We used data derived from 22 landscapes sites that were selected in the LTER CCM region (Fig. 1). Forest cover data for each landscape consisted of buffers at scales of 100m, 200m, 500m, 1km and 2km radius, arbitrarily chosen based on the theory of sound transmission in different environments (Farina et al. 2011; Scarpelli et al. 2021). For this study, we used only data from the 2 km radius scale, relying on previous evidence from multiscale analysis of bird responses to landscape structure (Barros et al. 2019a; Adorno et al. 2021). These landscapes represent a gradient of forest cover varying between 1% and 97%, in a radius of 1 km around the centroid of each landscape.

Within each landscape, three different types of habitats were sampled: forests, pastures, and marshes. The pastures were mostly for raising cattle, and marshes were typical lower portions of the relief (Gaspar 2021). The position of the forest sampling points were at least 50 meters away from any forest edge. The total time of data sampling was 90 days, being 30 days for each type of environment. Habitats were sampled between October 2016 and January 2017, starting with forest sites, sampled from October to November; then marshes, between November and December, and finally pastures, sampled between December and January. The breeding season for most birds in the southern hemisphere occurs during this time of year (Develey and Peres 2000).

Sound records and bird data

Sound data were collected in three environments per landscape (66 sampling points) in each of the 22 landscapes sites. Data were collected using a Song Meter Digital Field Recorders (SM3; Wildlife Acoustics. Inc. Massachusetts) equipment. They were attached to tree trunks 1.5 m above the ground. The recorders were equipped with two omnidirectional microphones (frequencies between 20 Hz and 20 kHz) and were configured for a sampling rate of 44.1 kHz, 16 bits and mono mode to save space and equipment battery (Gaspar 2021).

We used a subset of the recordings that was organized by Gaspar (2021). In order to organize this subset, four steps were followed: (1) five 25-minutes files were selected in the periods of greater bird activity (5:00 a.m. - 08:00 a.m.) per day (9,151 files with 228,775 minutes); (2) two minutes were randomly extracted from each file, thus totaling 18,594 minutes; (3) these minutes were grouped into nine random packages of 300 minutes each (2,700 minutes total), with 100 minutes for each landscape (forest, marsh and pasture) per package; (4) the nine packets were sent to bird experts, and the occurrence of species was cataloged every minute. Finally, 10,437 bird vocalizations were classified, 9,437 at the species level, 192 at the genus level

and 808 unidentified (distant or doubtful calls), which were excluded. Each species was cataloged only once per minute, regardless of the number of times it vocalized in the recording.

Bird selection and traits

Bird species were classified according to seven traits (diet, biomass, bill and wing length, foraging environmental strata, migratory status, and habitat preference). Only bird species whose diet consisted mainly of invertebrates ([?]60%) were considered in this paper, according to the classification proposed by Wilman et al. (2014). The wing length (mm) and bill size (mm) were extracted from Tobias et al (2022). Migratory status and habitat preference were based on a nationwide reference (Somenzari et al. 2018; IUCN 2022).

The total wing length is related to movement capacity and tolerance to habitat loss and fragmentation, foraging, seed dispersion, and nutrient cycling (Rodrigues et al. 2019). The ability to perform long-distance movements and, consequently, the potential to colonize isolated habitats (Barbosa et al. 2020) is associated with the trait of migratory strategies (Somenzari et al. 2018). Diet composition and foraging strata provide a deep understanding of how species occupy specific niches, retrieve food resources (Petchey and Gaston 2006), and the ecosystem functions they perform; in this case, arthropod population control (Sekercioglu 2012). Preference for a specific habitat is related to the bird's sensitivity and the liability of persisting in specific habitats, where the resource supply is adequate. The ability of these birds to capture their food and the use of habitats and microhabitats (Luck et al. 2012) are also related to beak length (Rodrigues et al. 2019). All traits can be checked on TABLE 1 and Supporting Information 1.

Beta diversity and functional diversity indexes

To calculate the functional diversity indexes, we perform the following steps (Laliberte and Legendre 2010; Melo et al. 2021). First, the functional distance between each pair of species was continuous, according to their trait values using the method of Pavoine et al (2009), as we use functional traits with different natures (i.e., categorical, quantitative, and fuzzy variables). The generated distance matrix was then subjected to a Principal Coordinate Analysis (aka PCoA) to obtain a subset of PCoA axes, later used as new "traits" (Paradis and Schliep 2019). Finally, the new traits were used to calculate the functional diversity indices (richness, evenness, and functional divergence) using the 'dbFD' function of the FD package (Laliberte and Legendre 2010; Laliberte et al. 2014).

Values of functional richness (FRic) represent the volume of multidimensional space occupied by biological communities within the functional space and the number of unique traits; low indices indicate that several resources may not be used, while high indices suggest greater use of the available environmental resources (Villegger et al. 2008). The functional divergence (FDiv) is a measurement of divergence in the distribution of species abundance in the volume of functional traits. It represents the degree of niche variation in biological communities, which increases as more species with unique functional traits emerge (i.e., specialized species). Finally, functional evenness (FEve), represents how regularly the abundance of functional traits is distributed within the multidimensional niche space (Villegger et al. 2008). FEve values decrease when abundance is less evenly distributed or if functional distances between species are less regular (Villegger et al. 2008). FDis is a multivariate measure of the dispersion of species in multidimensional niche space and reflects both the volume of occupied functional space and the distribution of species abundances within this space (Laliberte and Legendre 2010). It represents the mean distance of individual species to the centroid of all species. Higher values of FDis show a greater potential for functional complementarity.

Beta functional diversity was also considered in the analysis. It represents a measure of comparison of composition and variation of species functional traits between two or more sites (Silva et al. 2022). Therefore, we calculate (1) the total beta diversity of the functional traits and their partitions into (2) turnover, a measure of species and trait replacement between sites, and (3) nestedness, representing the loss of species and traits between sites along a gradient (Baselga 2010; Villegger et al. 2013) (Supporting Information 3). For this purpose, the functions "functional.beta.pair" and "functional.beta.multi" were used, available in the betapart package of R software (Baselga and Orme 2012; R Core Team 2022) (Supporting Information 5).

2.6. Data analysis

To test the effect of the forest gradient on the components of functional diversity, we first calculated the Functional Divergence (FDiv), Functional Evenness (FEve) and Functional Richness (FRic) matrices. Then we created the linear models to compare the effect of forest cover gradient on the matrices, as shown in the Appendix 1. Finally, we performed their diagnosis through an Analysis of Variance (ANOVA).

Then for our model analysis, we initially tested whether there was spatial autocorrelation within the components of functional diversity, to incorporate spatial components in the effects on response variables (Fortin and Dale 2005). For this, we used the function that computes the Moran's I autocorrelation index, available in the "ape" package. Posteriorly, we performed a Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) test to check for collinearity in our explanatory variables, available using the "usdm" package. After these steps we construct the candidate models.

The generalized mixed models (GLMM; Zuur et al. 2009) used the landscape ID as random factors. The response variables were the functional richness, functional divergence and functional evenness. The explanatory variables were forest cover (%) and type of environment (forest, pasture or marshes). We also used a model selection approach, with competing models (Appendix 2; Supporting Information 4).

We start by testing the spatial correlation of the global model residuals with a latitude and longitude framework in those models with spatial autocorrelation (Brooks et al. 2017). Next, we repeated Moran's I tests for the global models, followed by an ANOVA to verify the similarity between the models; when similar ($p > 0.05$), we proceeded with the analyzes using the residuals.

Then, a list of competing models was evaluated for the explanatory variable (i.e., different Generalized Linear Mixed Models; GLMM) to explain the variation in functional diversity using the Akaike Information Criterion (AICc). A total of 12 models were composed to evaluate the random effect with the isolated effect of forest cover and environment type, and also the combined effect of forest cover with environment type. Models with $\Delta AICc < 2.0$ were considered equally plausible to explain the patterns (Burnham and Anderson 2004); however, the model average was calculated among all models assigned as equally plausible to determine which, among them, was the best. The weight of evidence (wAICc) for each competing model, which is the sum of the weights of the models in which the variable appears (Burnham and Anderson 2004; Barbosa et al. 2017), was also calculated. All analyzes were performed using the software RStudio (RStudio Team, 2022) (Supporting Information 6).

RESULTS

Bird species and habitats

A total of 201 bird species were recorded within the landscapes, and 108 met our criteria and were assigned as arthropod-consuming species; they represent 34 families and 11 orders. Some species were found exclusively in each landscape (16 exclusives to pasture sites, 10 in forest, and 9 in marsh areas (Appendix 3; Supporting Information 2).

β -Functional diversity

The PCoA revealed for groups. The first one grouped mostly species that use marsh sites; the second one is related to more generalist species, regarding the use of the environment; the last two clusters include forest- and non-forest species (Fig. 2). The results of the partition analysis (`fun.beta.multi()`) indicate that 54.6% (0.063 / 0.116) of the variation in beta diversity is explained by the substitution component, while 45.39% (0.052 / 0.116) by the nestedness component. The distance matrices from the pairwise analysis (`fun.beta.pair()`) stress the relationship between environmental gradients and functional beta diversity (Fig. 3).

Linear models and GLMM

The analyzes of the relationship between the functional composition and the forest cover gradient, adjusted

by linear models with their diagnoses (Fig. 4), indicate that the forest cover gradient has no effect on the divergence and functional evenness ($F_{MOD1} = 0.1075$, $p_{MOD1} = 0.7441$; TABLE 2; $F_{MOD2} = 0.2503$, $p_{MOD2} = 0.6186$). However, forest cover has negatively affected the functional richness and functional dispersion ($F_{MOD3} = 8.0265$, $p_{MOD3} = 0.006184$; $F_{MOD4} = 8.9582$, $p_{MOD4} = 0.003942$). The forest cover gradient has a negative effect on functional richness and dispersion ($p_{MOD3} = 0.00618$; $p_{MOD4} = 0.003942$; TABLE 2).

The selection of models and the inference of multi models suggest that the forest cover (M1) is the predictor variable that best explains the values found for functional richness ($\Delta AIC = 0.00$; $wAIC = 0.35$; $AIC = -64.7$; TABLE 3a). However, the Forest Cover + Environment Type (M3) and Environment Type (M2) models were also insightful as plausible to explain the patterns ($\Delta AIC = 0.2$, $wAIC = 0.32$; $\Delta AIC = 1.3$, $wAIC = 0.18$; TABLE 3a; respectively). In this last case, when performing the full model average, forest cover percentage is the only variable to explain nonrandom variation of functional richness, with a negative relation ($p_{M1} = 0.046087$; TABLE 4a; Fig. 5).

The best model suggested by the GLMM for functional dispersion was the combined effects of forest cover and type of environment ($\Delta AIC = 0.0$, $wAIC = 0.67$; TABLE 3d). On the other hand, the selection of models for them pointed to null (M0) and forest cover (M1) as plausible explanations for both functional evenness (for the M0, $\Delta AIC = 0.0$, $wAIC = 0.495$; for the M1 $\Delta AIC = 1.5$, $wAIC = 0.238$; TABLE 3b) and functional divergence (for the M0, $\Delta AIC = 0.0$, $wAIC = 0.583$; for the M1, $\Delta AIC = 2$, $wAIC = 0.215$; TABLE 3c). However, when performing the model average, referring to functional divergence and evenness, no significant variable was found to explain the data ($p > 0.05$; TABLE 4b and 4c). Finally, the best model for functional dispersion and functional richness were plotted and can be visualized in Fig. 5.

DISCUSSION

Our findings reveal an effect of the forest cover gradient on the components of functional diversity, although not related to the type of environment. Specifically, the GLMM showed that there was a marginal effect of forest cover on functional richness (TABLE 4a); however, contrary to our hypothesis, we found no effect of forest cover on functional divergence and functional evenness (TABLE 4b; TABLE 4c). Our data also support both turnover and nested effects on the sampled bird communities (Fig. 3). Ultimately, contrary to what we had predicted, the percentage of forest cover had a negative effect on the functional richness (Fig. 4, Fig. 5, TABLE 4a).

Species configuration in the landscape - What does forest cover gradient tell us about functional diversity?

Functional traits represent environmental tolerance; thus, lower values of functional richness indicate that some specialists would be missing under specific conditions (i.e., habitat limitation for species with restrictive fundamental niche (Mason et al. 2005). This may lead to a decrease in the communities' tolerance levels to environmental fluctuations (Tilman 1996), affecting resistance to biological invasions, by creating gaps in the niche volume to be exploited by other species (Dukes 2001).

The functional richness represents the volume of the multidimensional space occupied by a biological community within the functional space (Villéger et al. 2008). Therefore, low values of functional richness indicate that part of the resources available to the community in each environment is wasted (Mason et al. 2005). This would lead to a loss of productivity (Petchey and Gaston 2006). The relationship between the reduction in functional richness and the increase in forest cover (Fig. 4, Fig. 5) was previously reported (Matuoka et al. 2020; (Morante-Filho et al. 2015; 2018). This is associated with the pattern of species composition; forest and non-forest species tend to respond differently to anthropogenic disturbances (Bregman et al. 2016) because they present different response patterns, distinct traits, and therefore, sensitivity to human disturbances (Gardner et al. 2009; Clavel et al. 2011). These patterns may be linked with a lower quality of resources available in second-growth forests in early to medium stages of succession, as our study area (Ribeiro et al. 2009; Metzger et al. 2009). The nearby presence of cattle may also increase the proliferation of non-forest species (Morante-Filho et al. 2016).

As previously mentioned, functional dispersion measures the dispersion of species in multidimensional niche

space, which may represent the functional space occupied and the distribution of abundance within this space (Laliberté and Legendre 2010). Such species dispersion occurs from the average individual distance in relation to the centroid of all species. Higher values of functional dispersion indicate a greater potential for functional complementarity (i.e., larger range of traits that allow different ecological niches to be occupied; Wong and Dowd 2021; Melo et al. 2021). This may increase the partition of resources, enabling the coexistence of species, culminating in an increase in the ecosystem functioning (Tilman et al. 1997; Loreau and Hector 2001).

Increase in the forest cover was related to decrease in functional dispersion (Fig. 4 and Fig. 5). The groups more distant from the centroid are composed of species with generalist habitat use, and greater dispersal ability (see Fig. 2) (Laliberté and Legendre 2010). This expansion pattern of functional traits is probably caused by species with traits related to habitat preference and wing size, in this case species such *Myiarchus swainsoni*, *Stelgidopteryx ruficollis*, *Progne chalybea* and *Vanellus chilensis*. A clearer decrease in the values of functional dispersion in marsh and pasture environments is notable when compared to the forest ones (Fig. 4). This may be a consequence of a retention of some taxa with low dispersion capacity traits, while they also receive an influx of highly vagile taxa (Bregman et al. 2016). In short, these results suggest that the effects of forest cover on functional diversity are (I) specific to the different functional groups within the community; and (II) might have been impacted by the early succession stages in which the regional forest fragments are (Johnstone et al. 2016; Thorn et al. 2020).

Beta functional diversity: effects of turnover and nestedness

Our study revealed a distinct pattern of beta functional diversity for each type of environment (Fig. 3). Bird assemblies were more nested in the pasturelands, while a turnover effect was more notable in marsh sites, and both turnover and nesting effects were detected in the forest sites. The massive presence of second-growth forests in early to medium stages of succession may explain these last results (Ribeiro et al. 2009; Metzger et al. 2009). Bird assemblies are a set of an original species pool (i.e., derived from a set of species present in the original primary forest); as ecological succession advances, generalist species would be replaced by specialists, caused by directional turnover along secondary forest successions (Robinson and Terborgh 1997; Blake and Loiselle 2001). In addition, the age of the secondary forests is also related to the recovery of specialist forest species (Acevedo-Charry and Aide 2019). The accelerated recovery of species composition and forest specialists among the different successional successes may be also related to their greater dispersal capacity (Dobrovolski et al. 2012), characteristic intrinsically related to some traits we used in this study, such as wing size and migratory strategy.

Communities of insectivorous birds in the pasturelands are more functionally nested because they were probably part of the native original forest pool in this region. These results contrast with what was described in Dias et al (2017) and Barros et al (2019), in which the change in functional composition for pasture environments is mostly based on turnover processes. Nestedness may be reflecting a non-random process of species loss (e.g., differences in species sensitivity to a widespread environmental disturbance), and also might be linked to the selection of functional traits, which may largely determine the functional metrics (Petchey and Gaston 2006).

Ultimately, the variation in functional diversity in marsh environments might be due to a turnover process, since the presence of water attracts specific birds (e.g., *Aramides saracura*, *Theristicus caudatus*, *Donacobius atricapilla*, *Gubernates yetapa*, *Mustelirallus albicollis*) to this type of habitat and, in the case of this study, nine species were exclusive to marsh areas. This pattern was also found in previous studies (Villéger et al 2013; Si et al 2016), suggesting that the turnover is caused by functionally redundant species. On the other hand, different environmental conditions in marsh areas may be acting as environmental filters, which leads to a directional survival of species resulting in a functional convergence in the communities (Logez et al. 2010).

CONCLUSIONS

Our study provides insights that evaluating multiple aspects of functional diversity, through different indices,

leads to a more accurate understanding of the effects of the loss of forest cover on the functioning of the ecosystem performed by insectivorous birds – a key ecological guild that plays an important ecological function, the control of invertebrate populations. We highlight two main implications to be considered in future studies.

First, we show that the greater species dispersion in the functional space (i.e., larger functional dispersion and functional richness) in deforested areas (in this case pasturelands) are not followed by increased functional divergence and functional evenness. Therefore, when considering only the dispersion and richness indexes, it is possible to an erroneous conclusion that functional diversity will be greater in deforested sites, and that the functioning of the ecosystem in these environments would be improved. Thus, we strongly emphasize the use of different functional indices in future studies to evaluate the effects of anthropogenic disturbances on biodiversity patterns.

The presence of secondary forests may have influenced the pattern of functional diversity we found. Hence, caution is needed with these findings, mainly because forest and non-forest bird species present different functional responses (Matuoka et al 2020). For example, deforested landscapes should reduce the availability of niches for forest species, while increasing for non-forest species. Therefore, the behavior of forest communities in deforested environments can be severely affected, since compensatory dynamics may not involve real compensation within the functional perspective, as some specific functions will be lost or damaged (De Coster et al 2015; dos Anjos et al. 2019).

Finally, a possible limitation of our work is that we did not evaluate the specific abundance, since the data come from automatic recordings. Environmental disturbances cause distinct effects on the abundance of species (Mac Nally 2007), and those having higher ecological restrictions, and usually with low population density, may be extinct early, or have their abundance reduced in order to become functionally extinct (Tobias et al. 2013; Galetti et al. 2013). We therefore suggest that these analyzes be incorporated into future studies.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

..... LGPS organized the data, led the species tagging with the specialists and revised the manuscript. MCR defined the sampling design and acquired the data (funded by FAPESP), contributed with the conception of ideas, discussed the analytical approach and revised the manuscript.

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TABLES

TABLE 1. Bird traits used to calculate functional diversity metrics (see Wilman et al. 2014; Melo et al. 2021; Tobias et al. 2022).

Trait	Range	Definition
Diet	0-100%	Corresponding to the percentage of each item in the diet (e.g., invertebrates, endothermic and
Biomass (g)	3-1200	The weight (g) of each species
Foraging strata	0-100%	Percentage of each level of forage stratum (in this case, water around the surface, soil, mid,
Bill length (mm)	8-152	Beak size, in millimeters, of each bird species
Wing length (mm)	42-400	Wing size, in millimeters, of each bird species
Migratory status	0-1	Classification of species as non-migrant (0) and migrants (1)
Habitat preference	1-7	The habitat in which each bird species prevails, such as: 1 - Forest (tall trees-dominated veg

TABLE 2. Analysis of Variance for the linear models for the effects of the forest cover gradient on the Functional Diversity indices, being a) ANOVA for Functional Richness; b) Functional Evenness; c) Functional Divergence and d) Functional Dispersion.

Functional Richness	Functional Richness	Functional Richness	Functional Richness	Functional Richness
	Df	Sum Sq	Mean Sq	F value
Forest Cover	1	8198	8198.4	8.0265
Residuals	63	64349	1021.4	
Functional Evenness	Functional Evenness	Functional Evenness	Functional Evenness	Functional Evenness
	Df	Sum Sq	Mean Sq	F value
Forest Cover	1	0.000725	0.000725	0.2503
Residuals	63	0.182473	0.002896	
Functional Divergence	Functional Divergence	Functional Divergence	Functional Divergence	Functional Divergence
	Df	Sum Sq	Mean Sq	F value
Forest Cover	1	0.000091	9.06E-05	0.1075
Residuals	63	0.053065	8.42E-04	
Functional Dispersion	Functional Dispersion	Functional Dispersion	Functional Dispersion	Functional Dispersion
	Df	Sum Sq	Mean Sq	F value
Forest Cover	1	8198	8198.4	8.0265
Residuals	63	64349	1021.4	

TABLE 3. Most parsimonious Generalized Linear Mixed Models of insectivorous bird functional diversity and taxonomic diversity. For the best models ($\Delta AICc < 2.0$), AICc – Akaike Information Criterion corrected

for small sample sizes was used (Burnham and Anderson 2004), ΔAIC and weight of evidence (wAIC).

Response Variable	Model	AICc	$\Delta AICc$	df	weight
Functional Richness	~ Forest Cover - 2km	-64.7	0	5	0.35
	~ Forest Cover - 2km + Environment Type	-64.5	0.2	7	0.32
	~ Null	-63.4	1.3	4	0.18
	~ Environment Type	-62.9	1.8	6	0.14
	~ Null	-232.2	0	4	0.495
Functional Evenness	~ Forest Cover - 2km	-230.7	1.5	5	0.238
	~ Environment Type	-230.1	2.1	6	0.177
	~ Forest Cover - 2km + Environment Type	-228.7	3.4	7	0.089
	~ Null	-255	0	3	0.583
	~ Forest Cover - 2km	-253	2	4	0.215
Functional Divergence	~ Environment Type	-252.2	2.7	5	0.148
	~ Forest Cover - 2km + Environment Type	-250.2	4.7	6	0.054
	~ Forest Cover - 2km + Environment Type	97	0	6	0.67
	~ Environment Type	98.4	1.4	5	0.33
	~ Forest Cover - 2km	118	21	4	<0.001
Functional Dispersion	~ Null	119.4	22.5	3	<0.001

TABLE 4. Full model-averaged parameter estimates and significance values for models of insectivorous birds' functional diversity with cumulative Akaike weight summed to 0.95, calculated by multiplying the estimates for individual models which contain parameters by their weights. Relative importance is the sum of the AICc weights across these models.

Model Average	Model Average	Model Average Estimate	Model Average Std. Error	Model Average Adjusted SE	Model Average z value	Model Average $\Pr(> z)$
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Functional Richness	cond((Int))	0.24808	0.06698	0.06786	3.656	0.000256
	cond(Flo_-2km)	-0.25505	0.12527	0.12789	1.994	0.046113
	cond(envMarsh)	0.06848	0.03673	0.03751	1.826	0.067913
	cond(envPasture)	0.0548	0.03838	0.0392	1.398	0.162083
Functional Evenness	cond((Int))	0.82521	0.01216	0.01236	66.786	<2e-16
	cond(Flo_-2km)	0.02782	0.03798	0.03876	0.718	0.473
Functional Divergence	cond((Int))	0.702281	0.006823	0.006955	100.979	<2e-16
	cond(Flo_-2km)	0.000623	0.024432	0.024927	0.025	0.98
	cond(envMarsh)	0.010548	0.00982	0.010022	1.052	0.293
	cond(envPasture)	0.002277	0.009705	0.009905	0.23	0.818
Functional Dispersion	(Intercept)	4.301	0.1995		21.563	< 2e-16
	Flo_2km	-0.7878	0.4127		-1.909	0.0563
	envMarsh	0.7276	0.1305		5.575	2.48E-08
	envPasture	0.5289	0.1288		4.108	4.00E-05

FIGURE LEGENDS

Fig. 1 Landscapes where soundscape data were collected using autonomous audio recorders within the Long-Term Ecological Research of Ecological Corridor Cantareira-Mantiqueira (LTER CCM or PELD CCM), São Paulo, Brazil between October 2016 and January 2017 (Gaspar 2021)

Fig. 2 PCoA for traits of bird species, where each dot represents a species in the trait space. Green dots represent the bird species within the functional trait space. Species labels are provided in **Supporting Information 1**

Fig. 3 Relationship between partition components of functional diversity (beta) in corridor Cantareira-Mantiqueira, where the yellow dot represents pasture areas, the green dot represents forest areas and the blue dot marsh areas

Fig. 4 Relationship between the functional composition and the forest cover gradient, adjusted by linear models with their diagnoses. The yellow dots represent pasture sites; the blue dots represent marsh sites, and the green dots, forest sites

Fig. 5 Graphics generated for the best GLMM models. A) Influence of forest cover on functional richness; B) Influence of forest cover and environment type on functional dispersion

FIGURES

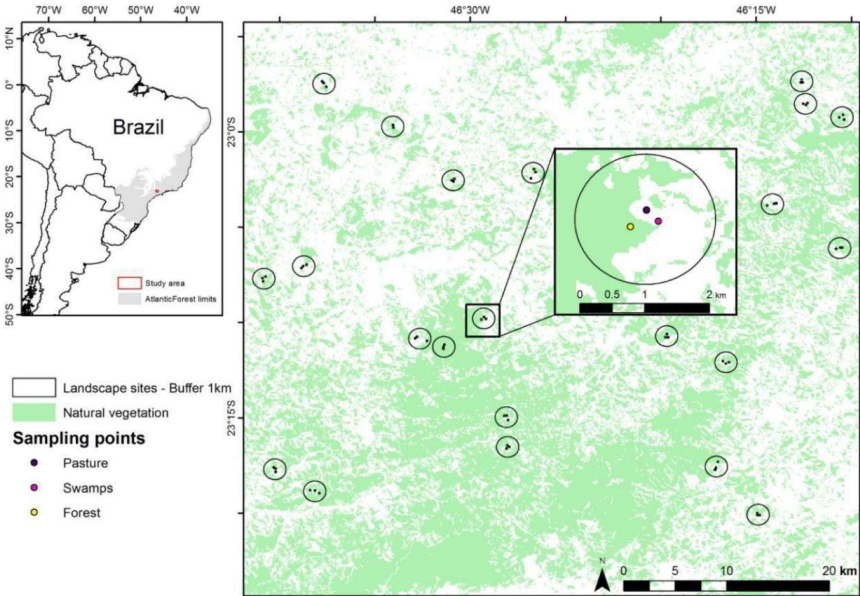


Fig. 1

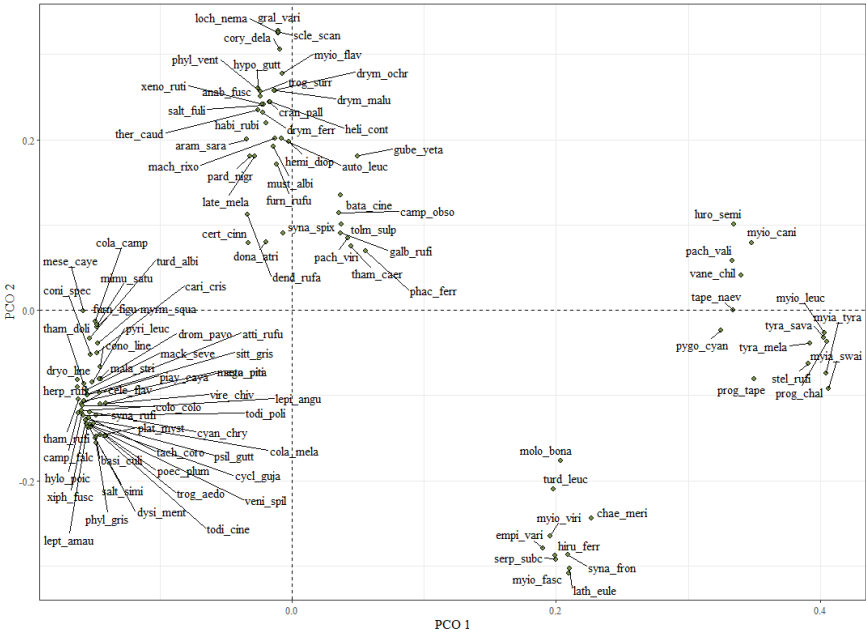


Fig. 2

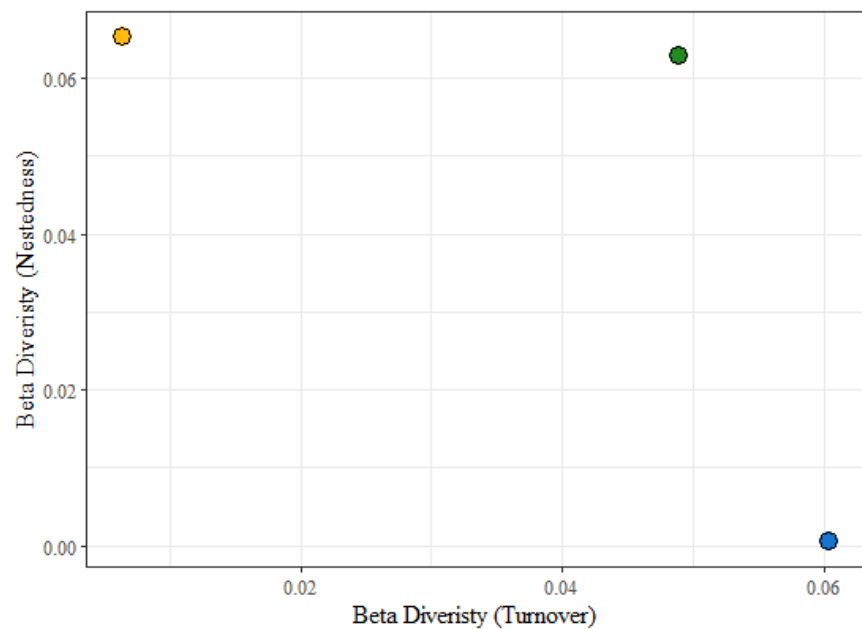


Fig. 3

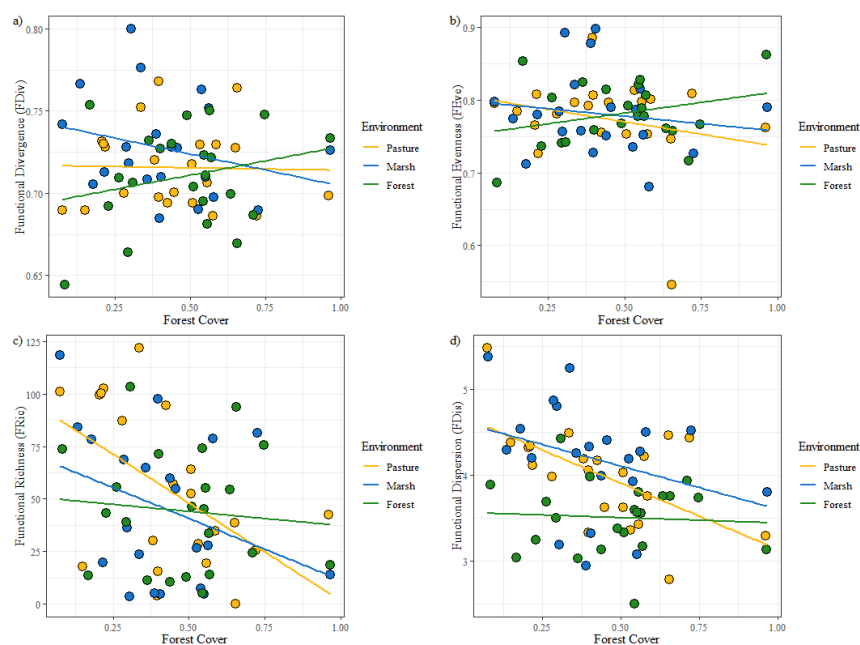


Fig. 4

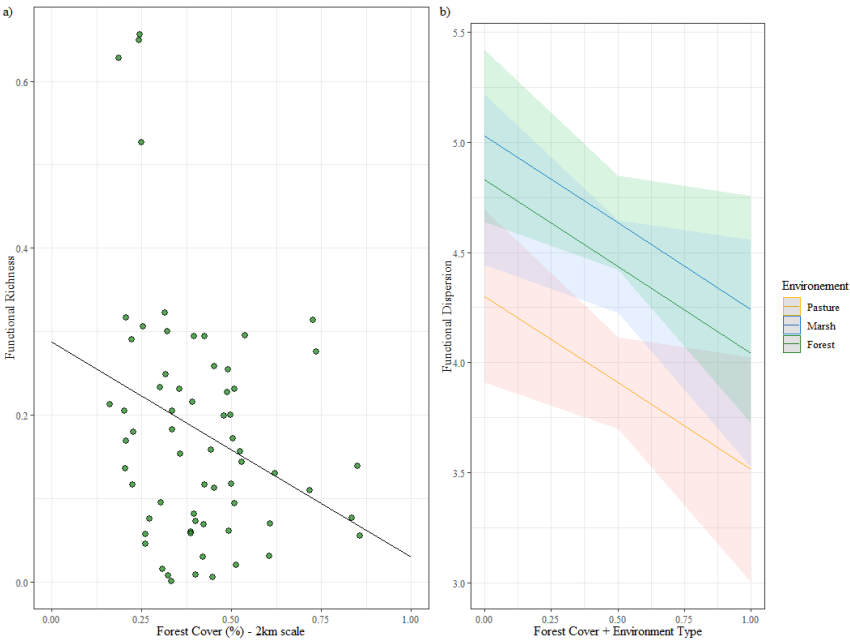


Fig. 5

