

1 LRH: de-Carvalho et al.

2 RRH: Isolated Trees Support Bird Functional Diversity

3

4 **Isolated trees support lower bird taxonomic richness than trees within habitat patches**
5 **but similar functional diversity**

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24 ABSTRACT

25 Large isolated trees are keystone structures that can help maintain biodiversity in fragmented
26 landscapes, with evidence that open areas with isolated trees may support similar levels of
27 taxonomic diversity to nearby patches of habitat. However, it is not clear if isolated trees can
28 support the same diversity of ecological functions as trees in habitat patches. We compared
29 species richness, community composition and functional diversity of birds in trees at forest
30 edges and isolated trees. Twenty isolated trees and ten edge trees of American muskwood
31 (*Guarea guidonia*) were selected, and sampled on 11 occasions, each of 20 minutes, over
32 four months. All individual birds that landed at trees were recorded using a standardized
33 protocol. Species richness was, on average, almost twice as high at edge trees than at isolated
34 trees. Taxonomic composition differed between edge and isolated trees, with many forest-
35 dependent birds restricted to edge trees, and some open-area birds restricted to isolated trees.
36 Overall functional diversity was similar at edge and isolated trees, but some ecological
37 functions (e.g. frugivory) were less frequent, while others (e.g. granivory) were more
38 frequent at isolated compared to edge trees. Isolated trees are important for supporting many
39 ecological functions in modified areas. However, the maintenance of forest patches is
40 essential to complement the provision of such functions in modified landscapes.

41

42 *Keywords:* Atlantic Forest; Brazil; fragmented landscapes; functional traits; matrix
43 suitability; Functional divergence index; scattered trees.

44

45 RESUMO

46 Árvores isoladas são estruturas-chave que podem ajudar a manter a biodiversidade em
47 paisagens fragmentadas, com evidências de que áreas abertas com árvores isoladas podem
48 suportar níveis semelhantes de diversidade taxonômica quando comparadas a fragmentos
49 florestais próximos. No entanto, não está claro se as árvores isoladas podem suportar a
50 mesma diversidade de funções ecológicas que árvores localizadas em fragmentos florestais.
51 Para testar isso, comparamos a riqueza de espécies, a composição da comunidade e a
52 diversidade funcional de aves em árvores isoladas e árvores localizadas nas bordas da
53 floresta. Vinte Carrapeteiras (*Guarea guidonia*) isoladas e dez localizadas na borda da
54 floresta foram selecionadas, e amostradas por 20 minutos em 11 ocasiões, durante quatro
55 meses. Todas as aves que pousaram nas árvores foram registradas usando um protocolo
56 padronizado. A riqueza de espécies foi, em média, duas vezes mais alta em árvores
57 localizadas na borda do que em árvores isoladas. A composição taxonômica diferiu entre
58 árvores localizadas na borda e isoladas, com muitas aves dependentes de floresta restritas às
59 árvores localizadas na borda e algumas aves de área aberta restritas às árvores isoladas. Por
60 outro lado, a diversidade funcional foi semelhante nas árvores localizadas na borda e
61 isoladas, mas algumas funções ecológicas (e.g., frugivoria) foram menos frequentes,
62 enquanto outras (e.g., granivoria) foram mais frequentes nas árvores isoladas em comparação
63 com as árvores localizadas na borda. Árvores isoladas são importantes para manter funções
64 ecológicas em áreas modificadas. No entanto, a manutenção de áreas florestais é essencial
65 para complementar o fornecimento de tais funções.

66

67 THE CONVERSION OF NATIVE HABITATS TO HUMAN-MODIFIED ENVIRONMENTS IS A MAJOR CAUSE
68 OF BIODIVERSITY LOSS WORLDWIDE (Donald *et al.* 2001; Norris 2008; Scherr & McNeely
69 2008; Butchart *et al.* 2010; Newbold *et al.* 2015; Tilman *et al.* 2017). It is clear that patches
70 of old-growth vegetation are essential for sustaining biodiversity (Ewers & Didham 2006;
71 Gibson *et al.* 2011; Betts *et al.* 2017; Watson *et al.* 2018). However, given multiple
72 competing demands for land, the conservation of native habitat remnants is sometimes not
73 possible and in other cases insufficient to conserve all biodiversity (Cullen *et al.* 2004;
74 Rodrigues *et al.* 2004; Phalan *et al.* 2011; Fischer *et al.* 2014). Thus, managing the matrix in
75 fragmented landscapes may be key to maintain biodiversity, ecosystem services and
76 agricultural production (Schroth *et al.* 2004; Lindenmayer *et al.* 2008; Fischer *et al.* 2014).

77 One strategy to increase matrix suitability for biodiversity is to maintain or plant
78 isolated trees (Manning *et al.* 2006; Prevedello *et al.* 2018). Such trees are thought to be
79 “biodiversity foci” as they may facilitate the occurrence of native species in open areas (Dunn
80 2000; Fischer & Lindenmayer 2002a; DeMars *et al.* 2010; Lindenmayer & Laurance 2016;
81 Prevedello *et al.* 2018). Furthermore, isolated trees may increase the provision of ecosystem
82 services such as pest control, pollination of crops, and increase livestock production by
83 offering shade and shelter for cattle (Quelch 2002; Fischer *et al.* 2010; Barton *et al.* 2016).
84 Therefore, isolated trees have been considered “keystone structures” in fragmented
85 landscapes due to their disproportionately high contribution to ecosystem functioning relative
86 to the small area they occupy (Fischer *et al.* 2010). A recent meta-analysis provided
87 quantitative support for the “keystone tree hypothesis” for arthropods, vertebrates and
88 terrestrial plants, showing that open areas near isolated trees may support similar species
89 abundance and richness to areas within habitat patches (Prevedello *et al.* 2018).

90 Despite increasing recognition of the importance of isolated trees, previous studies
91 have focused on species richness and taxonomic composition only (e.g. Dunn 2000; DeMars

92 *et al.* 2010; Fischer *et al.* 2010; Lasky & Keitt 2012), whereas the role of isolated trees in the
93 maintenance of functional diversity is poorly understood. Recent studies have evaluated how
94 functional diversity responds to different anthropogenic impacts (e.g. De Coster *et al.* 2015,
95 Magioli *et al.* 2016), but to our knowledge no study has addressed communities of isolated
96 trees from a functional perspective. Although the biotic communities using isolated trees may
97 be composed by a mix of species from open areas and from habitat patches (Prevedello *et al.*
98 2018), it is unclear whether isolated trees may support similar levels of functional diversity to
99 trees located within habitat patches. Therefore, quantifying which ecological functions these
100 species can provide in modified areas is essential to inform future conservation and
101 management initiatives.

102 To assess the contribution of isolated trees to the maintenance of both taxonomic and
103 functional diversity, we compared species richness, community composition, and functional
104 diversity of birds between isolated trees and trees located at the edges of continuous forests.
105 We hypothesized that: (i) isolated trees will be used by a smaller number of forest-dependent
106 species and a higher number of open-area species compared to edge trees, as the communities
107 using isolated trees appear to be composed by a mix of species from open areas and from
108 habitat patches (Prevedello *et al.* 2018); and (ii) despite possible taxonomic differences,
109 functional diversity will be similar between communities from isolated and edge trees, as
110 found in previous studies comparing taxonomic and functional diversity (e.g. De Coster *et al.*
111 2015, Magioli *et al.* 2016). To test these predictions, we conducted an empirical study in a
112 biodiversity hotspot - the Brazilian Atlantic Forest (Myers *et al.* 2000; Ribeiro *et al.* 2009),
113 using birds as model organisms, and quantified their taxonomic and functional diversity and
114 vulnerability to habitat loss and fragmentation (Marini & Garcia 2005; BirdLife International
115 2013).

116

117 **METHODS**

118

119 STUDY AREA – We conducted this study in forests and pastures located within and adjacent to
120 the Reserva Ecológica de Guapiaçu (REGUA; 22°24'S, 42°44'W), in Rio de Janeiro state,
121 Brazil. The study landscape is composed of a mosaic of native forests surrounded by pastures
122 (Vieira *et al.* 2009; Almeida-Gomes & Rocha 2014) that have been semi-cleared for ~ 100
123 years. The pastures support large numbers of livestock and many isolated trees - mostly of
124 American muskwood (*Guarea guidonia*; Meliaceae) and fig trees (*Ficus* spp.; Moraceae), as
125 well as guava (*Psidium guajava*; Myrtaceae), gumtree (*Sapium glandulosum*; Euphorbiaceae)
126 and cambara (*Gochnatia polymorpha*; Asteraceae).

127

128 SAMPLING DESIGN – We carefully selected trees for sampling, controlling possible
129 confounding factors. To control for potential differences in the attractiveness of different tree
130 species to birds, we focused on a single tree species, American muskwood (*G. guidonia*),
131 which is the dominant isolated tree in the study area (A. D. Azevedo, unpublished data) and
132 common throughout the Atlantic Forest (Cartes 2003; Lima *et al.* 2009). We measured and
133 georeferenced 102 *G. guidonia* trees within the study landscape and selected 20 isolated trees
134 and 10 edge trees based on a careful systematic procedure (Fig. S1). First, we selected trees
135 that were at least 200 m apart, to prevent double counting of birds and to maximize the
136 independence of sampling units (trees). Second, we selected trees spanning a broad range of
137 sizes (i.e. circumference at breast height). Tree size varied from 0.87 to 5.84 m (mean \pm SE:
138 2.32 ± 1.27) among isolated trees and from 0.5 to 2.12 m (1.27 ± 0.64) among edge trees.
139 Third, isolated trees varied in the number of surrounding isolated trees (from all species) and
140 in the amount of surrounding forest cover, thus covering the range of conditions present
141 within our study landscape. Forest cover varied from 0 to 57 percent, the number of isolated

142 trees ranged from 0 to 34, within a 200-m radius circular area around sampled isolated trees,
143 and the distance from the forest edge varied from 12 to 2,145 m. Edge trees were located at
144 the edge of a large continuous forest area of ~ 100,000-ha (Fig. S1). Thus, the edge trees
145 served as a reference to determine the potential pool of bird species present at the edges of
146 continuous forest that might use the sampled isolated trees. Fruit density, i.e., the volume of
147 the canopy with fruits estimated by counting and attributing a score from 0 to 5, was similar
148 at isolated and edges trees within our survey period (mean density \pm SD per tree = $2.19 \pm$
149 1.57 and 1.55 ± 0.61 for isolated and edge trees, respectively; t-Student = 1.47; $p = 0.15$). We
150 sampled a higher number of isolated trees (20) than edge trees (10) to capture the range of
151 variation in distances from the continuous forest and in the amount of surrounding forest
152 cover in the isolated trees. This difference in the number of sampled trees did not affect our
153 comparisons of bird communities between the two treatments, as the individual trees were
154 used as the unit of analysis for statistical modelling (see *Data analysis*).

155

156 BIRD SAMPLING – We sampled birds from September to December 2016, which corresponded
157 to the period of greatest reproductive activity (Sick 1997). Based on a pilot study conducted
158 in September 2015 and information in the literature (Fischer and Lindenmayer 2002a, b;
159 DeMars *et al.* 2010), we determined 20 minutes to be the appropriate period for sampling.
160 During each 20-min sampling event, an observer stood at 5 m from a sampled tree (ideal
161 distance for bird identification) and recorded all birds that landed at the tree. Surveys were
162 conducted between 5:00 and 11:00 a.m. and only during fine weather, with the same amount
163 of effort employed for all trees. All trees were sampled in each of the four months of the
164 study at all survey hours, summing to 11 sampling events of 20 min each (220 min in total for
165 each tree).

166

167 FUNCTIONAL TRAITS – To quantify functional diversity, we selected bird traits related to
168 habitat requirements (open area, generalist, or forest; Stotz 1996, del Hoyo *et al.* 2020), diet
169 (carnivore, frugivore, nectarivore, granivore, insectivore, saprophage, or omnivore; Wilman
170 *et al.* 2014), foraging strata (terrestrial, understory, midstory, superior, or generalized; Stotz
171 1996, Wilman *et al.* 2014) and body mass (small – individuals smaller than the median, i.e.
172 24.75 g, and large – individuals larger than the median; Dunning 2007), which are related to
173 both the response of species to environmental change and their effects on ecosystem function
174 (Luck *et al.* 2012). Therefore, we compiled data for a total of four traits containing 16
175 categories (Table S2). The traits classification was based on available information in the
176 literature (e.g. Stotz 1996, Dunning 2007, Wilman *et al.* 2014, del Hoyo *et al.* 2020).

177

178 DATA ANALYSIS – To guarantee a robust sampling effort to capture the set of species using
179 each tree, we pooled the data from the 11 sampling events per tree to quantify differences in
180 composition and compute taxonomic and functional diversity. To evaluate differences in bird
181 community composition between isolated and edge trees, we completed non-metric
182 multidimensional scaling (NMDS) based on Jaccard distances (presence-absence of species).

183 To compare species richness between isolated and edge trees, we built a GLM with
184 negative binomially-distributed residuals, as the residuals were overdispersed ($c = 2.06$, $p =$
185 0.05). We controlled for differences in tree size by including diameter at breast height (DBH)
186 as a co-variable in the model, as tree size varied significantly between treatments (t -Student =
187 -2.44 ; $p = 0.02$); and for differences in distance of isolated trees to the nearest forest edge. To
188 evaluate the differences in functional diversity between isolated and edge trees, we used a
189 functional divergence index (FDiv), which has a high power to detect assembly rules as
190 functional dissimilarity (limiting similarity) and redundancy (niche filtering) (Mouchet *et al.*
191 2010). High levels of functional divergence are associated with niche differentiation among

192 species (Mouchet et al. 2010). We used Gower's distance to build a matrix of dissimilarity
193 (Botta-Dukat 2005) using the FD package (dbFD function; Laliberté *et al.* 2014). To compare
194 the functional diversity (FDiv) between treatments, we built a GLM with Gaussian
195 distribution, as the residuals were normally distributed (Shapiro Wilk $w = 0.98$, $p = 0.90$; Fig.
196 S3), controlling for tree size and distance of isolated trees to the nearest forest edge, which
197 were used as co-variables. We found no correlation between species richness and FDiv
198 (Pearson's $r = 0.18$; $p = 0.35$).

199 To identify changes in frequency across categories within each trait (habitat
200 requirements, diet, foraging strata, and body mass) between edge and isolated trees, we
201 performed a multinomial logistic regression using the VGAM package (Yee 2013),
202 considering the number of species in each category recorded in each tree. We used generalist
203 species, omnivorous species, generalized species, and small species (< 24.75 g) as reference
204 groups for habitat requirements, diet, foraging strata, and body mass, respectively. We
205 conducted all analyses in the R environment (R Development Core Team 2017).

206

207 **RESULTS**

208

209 We recorded a total of 117 bird species from 37 families, with 95 species from the 10 edge
210 trees and 78 species from the 20 isolated trees. We recorded 39 species (33%) exclusively at
211 edge trees, and 22 (19%) exclusively at isolated trees (Table S4). Accordingly, there were
212 clear differences in community composition between edge and isolated trees (stress = 0.15;
213 Fig. 1).

214 Species richness differed significantly between edge and isolated trees ($z = -4.76$; $p <$
215 0.001) (Fig. 2A) with, on average, 70 percent more species observed at an edge tree

216 compared to an isolated tree. In contrast, functional diversity was similar between isolated
217 and edges trees ($t = -0.42$; $p = 0.68$) (Fig. 2B).

218 The frequency of categories within traits differed between edge and isolated trees. We
219 observed a statistically significant decrease in the frequency of forest species ($p < 0.001$) and
220 an increase in frequency of open species ($p < 0.001$) from edge to isolated trees (Table 1, Fig.
221 3A). We found a significant reduction in frequency of frugivorous species and an increase in
222 frequency of granivorous species from edge to isolated trees (Table 1, Fig. 3B). We also
223 found a significant reduction in frequency of midstory and understory species from edge to
224 isolated trees (Table 1, Fig. 3C). Finally, the frequency of body mass categories was similar
225 between edge and isolated trees (Table 1, Fig. 3D).

226

227 **DISCUSSION**

228

229 Our results supported our two hypotheses, indicating that isolated trees support bird
230 communities with fewer and different species compared to trees at forest edges, but with
231 similar levels of functional diversity. However, the frequency of categories within three
232 distinct functional traits differed between edge and isolated trees. In the remainder of this
233 section, we first discuss the differences in species composition and species richness between
234 edge and isolated trees. We then discuss the similarity in functional diversity between these
235 two types of trees. We conclude highlighting the implications of our findings for the
236 maintenance of biodiversity and ecosystem services in human-modified landscapes, as well
237 as the relevance of investigating changes in species functional traits when assessing
238 functional diversity.

239

240 SPECIES COMPOSITION AND RICHNESS – Similar to previous studies (e.g. Fischer &
241 Lindenmayer 2002a; Prevedello *et al.* 2018), we found a clear difference in species
242 composition between isolated and edge trees. This difference was due mostly to a
243 replacement of forest-dependent species by open-area species at isolated trees. Previous
244 studies have found that many forest species are negatively affected by forest loss (Watson *et*
245 *al.* 2018), whereas open-area species generally exhibit a positive response (e.g. Estavillo *et*
246 *al.* 2013; Morante-Filho *et al.* 2015). Our results therefore reinforce the importance of habitat
247 patches for disturbance-sensitive birds. Importantly, however, some forest-dependent species
248 also were present at isolated trees, even if uncommon, confirming that isolated trees support a
249 mix of species from open areas and habitat patches, as recently found in an earlier
250 investigation (Prevedello *et al.* 2018).

251 Consistent with our predictions at the outset of this study, we detected greater bird
252 species richness at edge trees compared to isolated trees. One third of all bird species were
253 found only at edge trees. However, in a recent meta-analysis, species richness was similar in
254 habitat patches and in areas with isolated trees for many taxa, including vertebrates
255 (Prevedello *et al.* 2018). Our data thus suggest that the species-rich Atlantic forest bird fauna
256 may respond more strongly to tree position (edge versus isolated), compared to the faunas of
257 other tropical and temperate areas. Although we detected more species at edge trees,
258 including one vulnerable species (the Channel-billed Toucan *Ramphastos vitellinus* (IUCN
259 2019) and 15 endemic species, we also recorded at isolated trees one near threatened species,
260 the Festive Coquette *Lophornis chalybeus* (IUCN 2019), and five endemic species (Vale *et*
261 *al.* 2018). In addition, the lower number of species detected at isolated trees may partly reflect
262 a sampling bias, if some birds avoided landing at isolated trees due to the presence of
263 researchers (who could be more easily detected in the open area). Therefore, isolated trees

264 should not be disregarded as unimportant for conservation, especially due their potential to
265 support some threatened and endemic species.

266

267 FUNCTIONAL DIVERSITY – When investigating community differences in functional terms, we
268 found that functional diversity (FDiv) did not differ between edge and isolated trees. This
269 may reflect changes in the frequency of traits, rather than the simple loss of some functional
270 traits in the isolated trees compared to edge trees. Relative to edge trees, isolated trees
271 supported a lower number of forest, frugivorous, canopy and midstory species, but a greater
272 number of granivorous and open-area species. This pattern probably reflects the greater
273 availability of fruit and greater vertical complexity of the vegetation in forests compared to
274 open areas with isolated trees, possibly as a result of higher tree density and richness in
275 forests. Indeed, frugivorous birds are generally more sensitive to habitat loss and degradation
276 than granivorous birds (which are more common in open areas; reviewed by Sekercioglu
277 2012; Bregman *et al.* 2014).

278 A novel outcome from this investigation was that human-generated open areas with
279 isolated trees had the same functional diversity as observed at forest edges, despite a strong
280 reduction in taxonomic richness and marked changes in species composition. However, the
281 frequency of functional trait categories varied between communities at edge and isolated
282 trees, underscoring the importance of investigating the variation in trait frequency to more
283 thoroughly assess local changes in community composition (De Coster *et al.* 2015).

284 Our findings revealed that isolated trees are used by birds with potentially important
285 functions in modified areas, such as carnivorous and insectivorous species that may promote
286 pest control. However, the maintenance of large forest patches is essential to complement the
287 provision of important functions in modified landscapes, for example by favoring frugivorous
288 species, which may play an essential role as seed dispersers (reviewed by Sekercioglu 2006).

289

290 **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

291

292 We thank Nicholas J. Locke of the Reserva Ecológica de Guapiaçu for logistical support
293 during fieldwork, and Nathalie Citeli and Érica Santos who helped us with data collection.

294 Luiz Gustavo Rodrigues Oliveira-Santos assisted with the logistic regression analyses.

295 Financial support was provided by PROEX-CAPES (process 1593780) (grant to MC); by the

296 LTER site Mosaico Central Fluminense (PELD-MCF), funded by the LTER-CNPq program

297 (process 403.840/2012-0), and by the Bio.M.A. network of the PPBio - Research Program in

298 Biodiversity, funded by the MCT-MMA-GEF-CNPq (process 457.522/2012-7). JP and RP

299 acknowledge research fellowships from CNPq (424061/2016-3 and 311051/2018-9,

300 respectively).

301

302 **DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT**

303

304 Data Availability: The data used in this study will be archived at the Dryad Digital

305 Repository (waiting for article acceptance to archive data).

306

307 **LITERATURE CITED**

308

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510

511 **TABLE 1.** Multinomial logistic regressions to evaluate differences in the frequency of
 512 categories within bird traits, from edge trees to isolated trees. Significant p-values are in bold.

	Coefficient (β)	z value	P-value
Habitat requirement			
Generalist	Reference group		
Open	1.224	6.604	< 0.001
Forest	-1.542	-3.377	< 0.001
Diet			
Omnivore	Reference group		
Carnivore	-0.814	-1.562	0.118
Frugivore	-1.027	-3.314	< 0.001
Nectarivore	0.045	0.139	0.889
Granivore	0.995	3.214	0.001
Insectivore	0.247	1.208	0.227
Saprophage	-1.508	-1.337	0.181
Foraging strata			
Generalized	Reference group		
Terrestrial	0.464	1.740	0.081
Understory	-0.302	-0.954	0.340
Midstory	-0.505	-2.086	0.037
Superior	-0.828	-3.476	< 0.001
Body mass			
Small	Reference group		
Large	0.053	0.321	0.748

513

514 **FIGURE LEGENDS**

515

516 FIGURE 1. Differences in bird species composition between focal trees located at forest
517 edges (white trees) and isolated in open pasture (black trees). The two axes of a non-
518 metric multidimensional scaling (NMDS) are shown based on presence–absence data of
519 117 bird species (stress = 0.15)

520

521 FIGURE 2. Boxplots showing differences in bird species richness (a), and in functional
522 diversity (FDiv; b) between forest edge (edge) and isolated trees (iso). Each boxplot
523 shows the median (horizontal bars in bold), the quartiles (boxes), the maximum and
524 minimum excluding outliers (bars), and the outlier (circle)

525

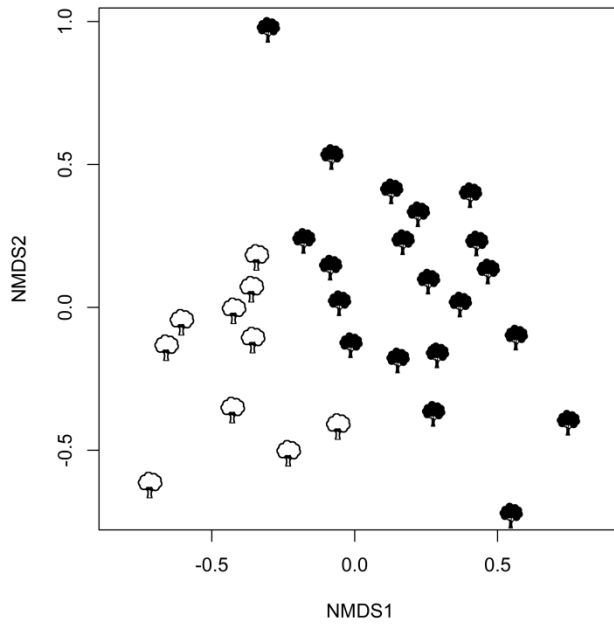
526 FIGURE 3. Predicted means (black dots) and standard errors (vertical dotted lines) of
527 the frequency of different categories within bird traits at edge and isolated trees. The
528 gray dotted lines represent the reference group for each trait. A – Habitat requirement; B
529 – Diet; C – Foraging strata; D – Body mass. Asterisks represent the significance level
530 (* $0.01 \leq p \leq 0.05$; ** $0.001 \leq p \leq 0.01$; *** $p < 0.001$)

531

532

533 **FIGURES**

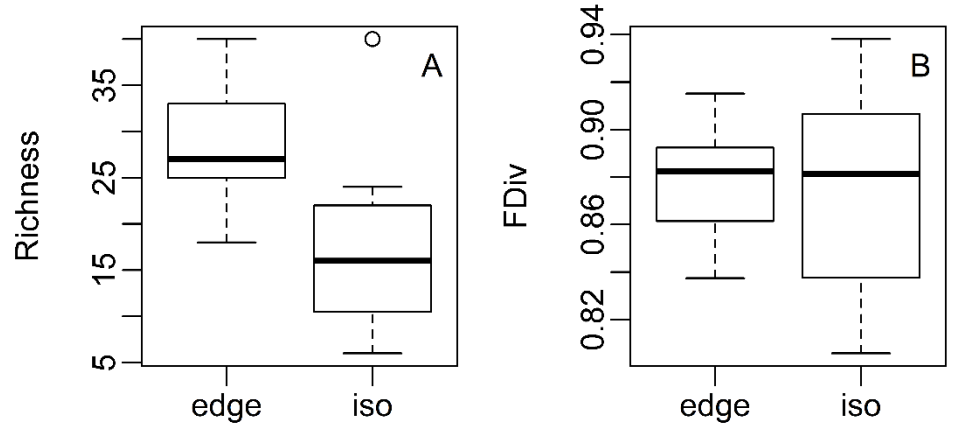
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535

536 **FIGURE 1**

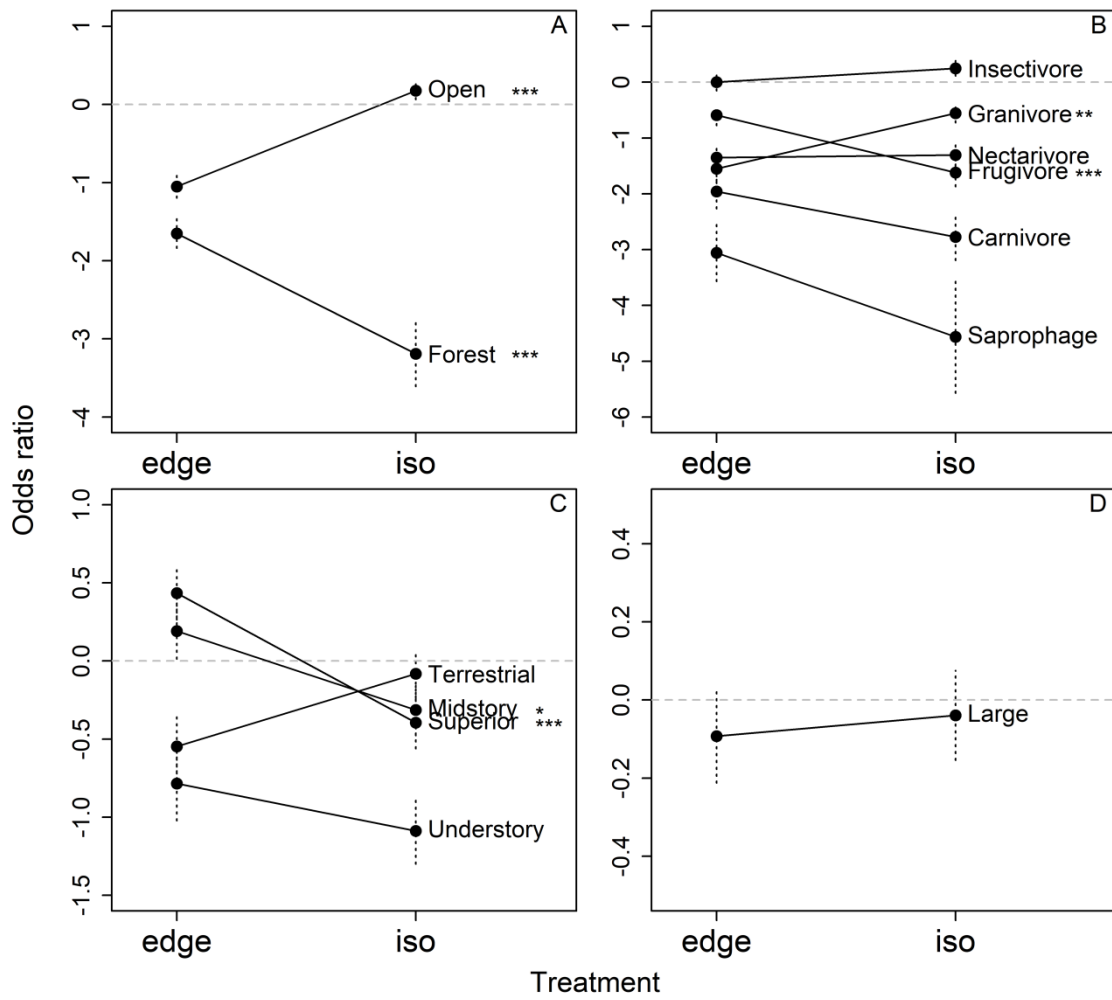
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538

539 FIGURE 2

540



541

542 FIGURE 3

543

544

545 **SUPPLEMENTARY INFORMATION**

546

547 **Isolated trees support lower taxonomic richness than trees within habitat patches**
548 **but similar functional diversity**

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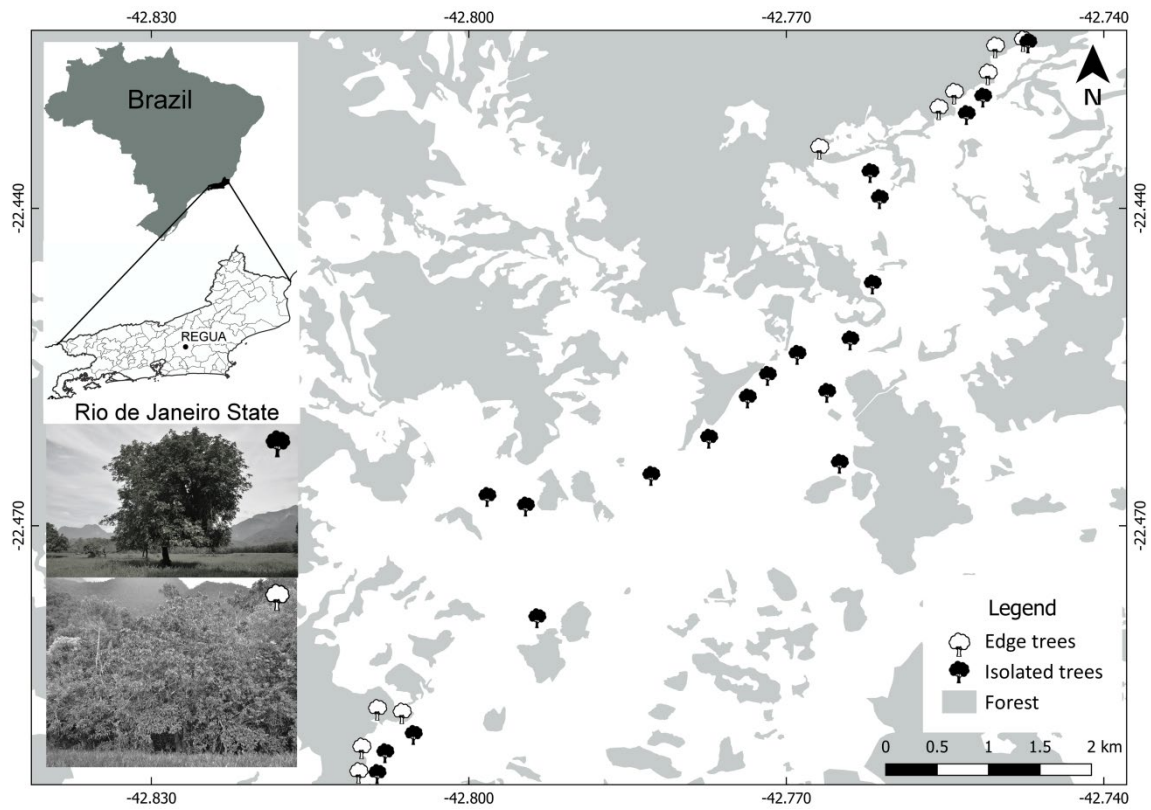
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571 **FIGURE S1.** Study area and sampling design. A total of 30 focal trees was sampled,
 572 ten at forest-pasture edges (white trees) and 20 isolated in open pasture (black trees), in
 573 an Atlantic Forest fragmented landscape in Rio de Janeiro, Brazil

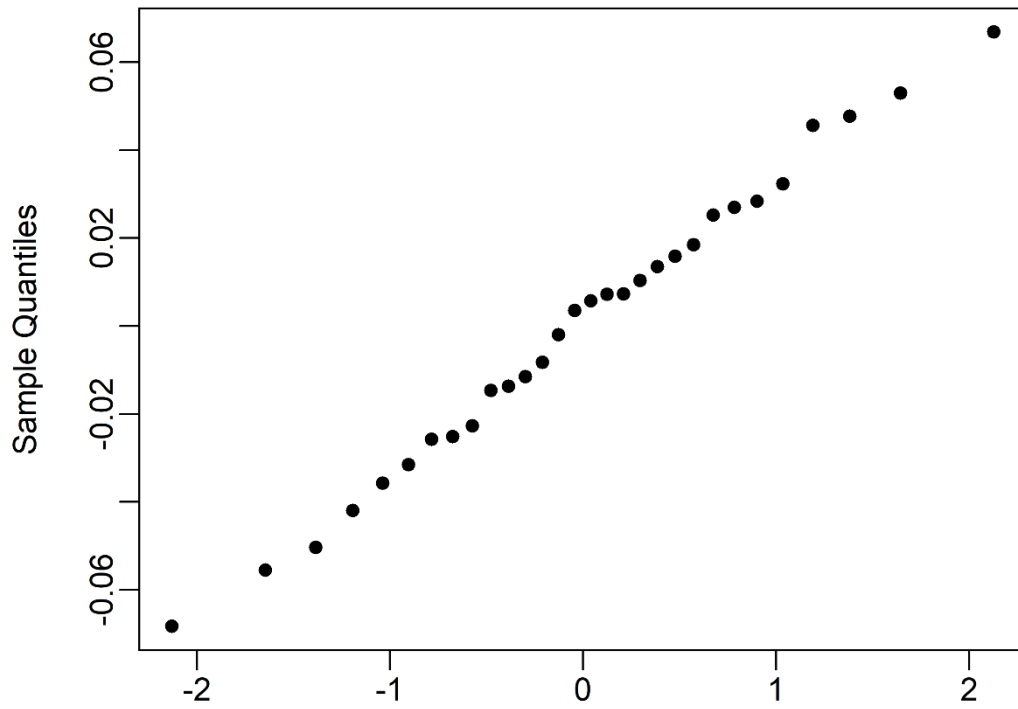
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575

576 **TABLE S2.** Used traits (a-f), with respective categories and descriptions

Traits	Descriptions
<i>a) Habitat requirement</i>	
Forest	Forest specialist birds
Open area	Open area specialist birds
Generalist	Generalists birds
<i>b) Diet</i>	
Carnivore	Feeds mainly on vertebrates
Frugivore	Feeds mainly of fruits
Nectarivore	Feeds mainly on nectar
Granivore	Feeds mainly on seeds
Insectivore	Feeds mainly on arthropods and caterpillars
Carrion eating habit	Feeds mainly on dead animals
Omnivore	No food preference
<i>c) Foraging stratum</i>	
Terrestrial	Fodder mainly on the ground
Understory	Fodder mainly on understory
Midstory	Fodder mainly on midstory
Superior	Fodder mainly on canopy
Generalized	Forage with similar frequency in two or more strata
<i>d) Body mass</i>	
Mass	Average weight between males and females, in grams

577



578

579 **FIGURE S3.** Qqplot showing that residuals of bird functional diversity have normal

580 distribution.

581

582 **TABLE S4.** Record birds on edge trees (edge) and at isolated trees (iso) and their
583 respective functional attributes: Habitat requirement (Habitat; Open area – OA; generalist
584 – G; forest – F), diet (frugivore – Fru; granivore – Gra; nectarivore – Nec; carnivore –
585 Car; insetivore – Ins; Carrion eating – Carri; omnivore - Omn), Foraging stratum (For;
586 terrestrial – T, understory – U; midstory – M; superior – S, generalized – Ge) and e body
587 mass (mass; quantitative data, in grams).

Scientific name	habitat	diet	for	mass	iso	edge
Tinamiformes						
Tinamidae						
<i>Crypturellus tataupa</i>	G	Ins	T	221.3		x
Galliformes						
Cracidae						
<i>Penelope superciliaris</i>	G	Fru	Ge	815		x
Cathartiformes						
Cathartidae						
<i>Cathartes aura</i>	OA	Sap	T	1425		x
<i>Coragyps atratus</i>	OA	Sap	T	1520	x	x
Accipitriformes						
Accipitridae						
<i>Geranospiza caerulescens</i>	G	Car	M	321.5		x
<i>Heterospizias meridionalis</i>	OA	Car	Ge	904.5	x	x
<i>Rupornis magnirostris</i>	G	Car	Ge	269	x	x
Gruiformes						
Aramidae						

<i>Aramus guarauna</i>	OA	Omn	T	1137.5	x	
Columbiformes						
Columbidae						
<i>Columbina talpacoti</i>	OA	Gra	T	45.6	x	
<i>Claravis pretiosa</i>	G	Gra	T	62.5	x	x
<i>Patagioenas picazuro</i>	G	Gra	Ge	402	x	x
<i>Leptotila verreauxi</i>	G	Gra	T	126.5		x
Cuculiformes						
Cuculidae						
<i>Piaya cayana</i>	G	Ins	S	102	x	x
<i>Coccyzus sp.</i>	G	-	-	-		x
<i>Crotophaga ani</i>	OA	Ins	Ge	124.5	x	x
<i>Guira guira</i>	OA	Ins	T	144.6	x	x
<i>Tapera naevia</i>	OA	Ins	T	49.5		x
Strigiformes						
Tytonidae						
<i>Tyto furcata</i>	OA	Car	T	472.5	x	
Caprimulgiformes						
Caprimulgidae						
<i>Nyctidromus albicollis</i>	G	Ins	T	55.3	x	
Apodiformes						
Apodidae						
<i>Chaetura meridionalis</i>	G	Ins	S	21.5		x
Trochilidae						
<i>Ramphodon naevius</i>	F	Nec	U	7.9		x

<i>Glaucis hirsutus</i>	G	Nec	U	6.1		x
<i>Phaethornis pretrei</i>	G	Nec	U	3.8		x
<i>Eupetomena macroura</i>	OA	Nec	M	7.7	x	x
<i>Florisuga fusca</i>	G	Nec	M	8	x	x
<i>Lophornis chalybeus</i>	G	Nec	M	3	x	
<i>Chlorostilbon lucidus</i>	G	Nec	M	3.6		x
<i>Thalurania glaucopis</i>	G	Nec	Ge	4.5	x	x
<i>Hylocharis sapphirina</i>	G	Nec	U	4.2		x
<i>Amazilia versicolor</i>	G	Nec	Ge	3.4		x
<i>Amazilia fimbriata</i>	G	Nec	Ge	4.9	x	x
Trogoniformes						
Trogonidae						
<i>Trogon viridis</i>	F	Omn	S	89.3		x
<i>Trogon rufus</i>	F	Omn	U	52.5		x
Coraciiformes						
Momotidae						
<i>Baryphthengus ruficapillus</i>	F	Ins	M	145.5		x
Galbuliformes						
Galbulidae						
<i>Galbula ruficauda</i>	G	Ins	M	23	x	x
Piciformes						
Ramphastidae						
<i>Ramphastos vitellinus</i>	G	Fru	S	370		x
Picidae						
<i>Picumnus cirratus</i>	G	Ins	U	9.4	x	x

<i>Colaptes campestris</i>	OA	Ins	T	155	x	
<i>Celeus flavescens</i>	G	Ins	M	137.5	x	x
Falconiformes						
Falconidae						
<i>Caracara plancus</i>	OA	Car	T	1375		x
<i>Milvago chimachima</i>	OA	Car	T	335	x	
<i>Micrastur semitorquatus</i>	F	Car	Ge	723	x	
Psittaciformes						
Psittacidae						
<i>Psittacara leucophthalmus</i>	G	Fru	S	159		x
<i>Pyrrhura frontalis</i>	G	Fru	M	83		x
<i>Amazona aestiva</i>	G	Fru	S	400	x	
Passeriformes						
Thamnophilidae						
<i>Myrmotherula axillaris</i>	F	Ins	M	7.3	x	x
<i>Myrmotherula unicolor</i>	F	Ins	M	7.5		x
<i>Thamnophilus palliatus</i>	G	Ins	M	27	x	x
<i>Drymophila squamata</i>	F	Ins	U	10.8	x	
Xenopidae						
<i>Xenops rutilans</i>	F	Ins	M	12.5		x
Furnariinae						
<i>Furnarius rufus</i>	OA	Ins	T	48	x	
<i>Philydor atricapillus</i>	F	Ins	M	22		x
<i>Phacellodomus rufifrons</i>	OA	Ins	T	24.5	x	x
<i>Certhiaxis cinnamomeus</i>	OA	Ins	U	15	x	

Pipridae						
<i>Manacus manacus</i>	F	Fru	U	15	x	x
<i>Chiroxiphia caudata</i>	F	Fru	U	14.8		x
Tityridae						
<i>Pachyramphus validus</i>	G	Ins	S	43		x
Rhynchocyclidae						
<i>Tolmomyias sulphurescens</i>	G	Ins	S	14.9	x	x
<i>Tolmomyias flaviventris</i>	G	Ins	M	13.3	x	x
<i>Todirostrum poliocephalum</i>	G	Ins	M	7	x	x
<i>Todirostrum cinereum</i>	G	Ins	Ge	6.2	x	
Tyrannidae						
<i>Hirundinea ferruginea</i>	OA	Ins	Ge	34.4	x	x
<i>Camptostoma obsoletum</i>	G	Ins	M	8	x	x
<i>Elaenia flavogaster</i>	OA	Omn	S	21	x	x
<i>Legatus leucophaeus</i>	G	Fru	S	22.5	x	x
<i>Myiarchus tyrannulus</i>	G	Ins	U	37	x	x
<i>Pitangus sulphuratus</i>	OA	Omn	Ge	53.8	x	x
<i>Machetornis rixosa</i>	OA	Ins	T	34.5		x
<i>Myiodynastes maculatus</i>	G	Omn	M	43.5	x	x
<i>Megarynchus pitangua</i>	G	Ins	S	61.5	x	x
<i>Myiozetetes similis</i>	G	Omn	M	25.5	x	x
<i>Tyrannus melancholicus</i>	OA	Ins	S	38.5	x	x
<i>Tyrannus savana</i>	OA	Ins	U	30.6	x	x
<i>Empidonomus varius</i>	OA	Ins	M	25	x	x
<i>Fluvicola nengeta</i>	OA	Ins	T	21	x	x

<i>Lathrotriccus euleri</i>	F	Ins	U	11.4		x
<i>Xolmis velatus</i>	OA	Ins	T	49.1	x	
Vireonidae						
<i>Vireo olivaceus</i>	G	Ins	S	18.6		x
Hirundinidae						
<i>Pygochelidon cyanoleuca</i>	OA	Ins	M	12	x	x
<i>Stelgidopteryx ruficollis</i>	OA	Ins	M	16	x	x
Troglodytidae						
<i>Troglodytes musculus</i>	OA	Ins	U	12	x	x
<i>Cantorchilus longirostris</i>	G	Ins	U	20.5	x	
Turdidae						
<i>Turdus flavipes</i>	G	Omn	Ge	63.5	x	x
<i>Turdus leucomelas</i>	G	Omn	Ge	62.5	x	x
<i>Turdus rufiventris</i>	G	Omn	Ge	75	x	x
<i>Turdus amaurochalinus</i>	G	Omn	Ge	62.5		x
Mimidae						
<i>Mimus saturninus</i>	OA	Omn	T	64	x	x
Motacillidae						
<i>Anthus lutescens</i>	OA	Ins	T	15.5	x	x
Passerellidae						
<i>Ammodramus humeralis</i>	OA	Gra	T	16	x	
<i>Arremon semitorquatus</i>	F	Fru	T	25		x
Parulidae						
<i>Setophaga pitiayumi</i>	G	Ins	S	6.9		x
Icteridae						

<i>Cacicus haemorrhous</i>	G	Omn	M	60.9	x	x
<i>Gnorimopsar chopi</i>	OA	Omn	T	71.8	x	x
<i>Molothrus bonariensis</i>	OA	Ins	T	55.7	x	
Thraupidae						
<i>Tangara seledon</i>	G	Omn	S	18.7	x	x
<i>Tangara cyanocephala</i>	G	Omn	S	18.8		x
<i>Tangara sayaca</i>	G	Omn	S	31	x	x
<i>Tangara cyanoptera</i>	G	Fru	S	43.5		x
<i>Tangara palmarum</i>	G	Omn	S	37.5	x	x
<i>Tangara ornata</i>	G	Fru	S	33		x
<i>Tangara cayana</i>	OA	Fru	Ge	18	x	x
<i>Conirostrum speciosum</i>	G	Omn	S	8.5	x	x
<i>Sicalis flaveola</i>	OA	Gra	T	17.7	x	x
<i>Hemithraupis flavicollis</i>	G	Ins	S	13		x
<i>Volatinia jacarina</i>	OA	Gra	T	10	x	
<i>Lanio cristatus</i>	G	Omn	S	18.8		x
<i>Tachyphonus coronatus</i>	G	Omn	Ge	29.5		x
<i>Dacnis cayana</i>	G	Omn	S	12.8	x	x
<i>Coereba flaveola</i>	G	Nec	Ge	10.3	x	x
<i>Tiaris fuliginosus</i>	OA	Gra	T	13.3	x	x
<i>Sporophila lineola</i>	OA	Gra	U	9.8	x	
<i>Sporophila nigricollis</i>	OA	Gra	U	9.9	x	
<i>Sporophila caerulescens</i>	OA	Gra	U	10	x	
Fringillidae						
<i>Euphonia violacea</i>	G	Fru	Ge	14.8	x	x

<i>Euphonia xanthogaster</i>	F	Fru	Ge	12.5	x	x
<i>Euphonia pectoralis</i>	F	Fru	S	15.8		x
Estrildidae						
<i>Estrilda astrild</i>	OA	Gra	T	8.5	x	

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