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IMPORTANCIA DE LAS ZONAS RIPARIAS PARA LA COMUNIDAD DE MURCIÉLAGOS EN EL BOSQUE TROPICAL HÚMEDO EN EL SURESTE DE MÉXICO. IMPLICACIONES DE MANEJO Y CONSERVACIÓN

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ERIKA IVETEE DE LA PEÑA CUÉLLAR

TUTORA PRINCIPAL DE TESIS:
DRA. JULIETA BENÍTEZ MALVIDO
INSTITUTO DE INVESTIGACIONES EN ECOSISTEMAS Y SUSTENTABILIDAD, UNAM

COMITÉ TUTOR:
DR. MIGUEL MARTÍNEZ RAMOS
INSTITUTO DE INVESTIGACIONES EN ECOSISTEMAS Y SUSTENTABILIDAD, UNAM

DR. ALEJANDRO ESTRADA MEDINA
INSTITUTO DE BIOLOGÍA, UNAM

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Presente

Por medio de la presente me permito informar a usted, que el Subcomité de Ecología y Manejo Integral de Ecosistemas del Posgrado en Ciencias Biológicas, en su sesión ordinaria del día **22 de enero de 2018**, aprobó el jurado para la presentación del examen para obtener el grado de **DOCTORA EN CIENCIAS** a la alumna **DE LA PEÑA CUÉLLAR ERIKA IVETEE**, con número de cuenta **508010679**, con la tesis titulada, "**Importancia de las zonas riparias para la comunidad de murciélagos en el bosque tropical húmedo en el sureste de México. Implicaciones de manejo y conservación**", realizada bajo la dirección de la **DRA. JULIETA BENITEZ MALVIDO**:

Presidente: Dr. Vinicio de Jesús Sosa Fernández
Vocal: Dr. Luis Daniel Ávila Cabadilla
Secretario: Dr. Miguel Martínez Ramos
Suplente: Dra. Ek del Val de Gortari
Suplente: Dr. Salvador Montiel Ortega

Sin otro particular, quedo de usted.

ATENTAMENTE
"POR MI RAZA HABLARÁ EL ESPÍRITU"
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DR. ADOLFO GERARDO NAVARRO SIGÜENZA
COORDINADOR DEL PROGRAMA



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RESUMEN

Debido al proceso de globalización y la cambiante dinámica demográfica, los bosques tropicales enfrentan amenazas tradicionales (ganadería, agricultura) y emergentes (agricultura moderna basada en OGM, biocombustibles), así como nuevas oportunidades de urbanización presentando altas tasas de deforestación y cambio de uso de suelo a nivel mundial. Esta presión ha dado lugar a una constante pérdida de hábitat y un incremento en su fragmentación como parte del paisaje. La región de la selva Lacandona en Chiapas es una de las zonas prioritarias para México, ya que constituye el remanente más grande del ecosistema tropical y la región con más alta diversidad biológica en México. Se estima que el 31% de la superficie forestal se perdió durante la década de los noventas. Uno de los principales retos en materia de conservación es el mantenimiento de la biodiversidad dentro de paisajes modificados por las actividades humanas, en los cuales se presenta un mosaico integrado por fragmentos de bosque primario y secundario, tierras agrícolas, pastizales para ganado, vegetación riparia y zonas de asentamientos humanos.

Los murciélagos son peculiarmente importantes en los Neotrópicos ya que contribuyen con casi el 50% de las especies de mamíferos. Además debido a su amplio espectro trófico participan en procesos ecosistémicos primordiales como la regeneración de bosques en la en las zonas tropicales La presente investigación plantea que dentro de los paisajes agropecuarios la vegetación riparia posee características estructurales de la vegetación más complejas que el resto de la matriz agropecuaria, lo que en comparación le confiere mayor diversidad de recursos alimenticios y sitios de refugio para la comunidad de murciélagos. Por lo tanto, documentar la importancia de la vegetación riparia para la comunidad de murciélagos puede representar un eje fundamental para el diseño de estrategias de conservación enfocadas a la comunidad de murciélagos en un paisaje agropecuario.

La presente tesis se llevó a cabo en la región de la selva Lacandona, México, dónde se realizaron muestreos de murciélagos utilizando redes de niebla en cuatro tipos de hábitat: 1) vegetación riparia dentro del bosque continuo, 2) vegetación riparia dentro de pastizal, 3) bosque contínuo alejado de vegetación riparia y, 4) pastizal activo. Teniendo como pregunta central ¿Qué importancia tienen las zonas riparias para las comunidades de murciélagos? y si existen variables ligadas a la estructura de la vegetación que determinan la composición de la comunidad de murciélagos en un paisaje dominado por el hombre

Como primera aproximación evaluamos el papel de la vegetación riparia en la conservación de especies, donde se encontraron diferencias en la riqueza de especies y la

abundancia de murciélagos filostómidos entre hábitat riparios y no riparios. Se concluyó además que la presencia de árboles de mayor área basal en la vegetación riparia favorece la diversidad en la composición de especies de murciélagos. También, contrario a otros hallazgos que sugieren que la subfamilia Phyllostominae es un indicador ecológico para la modificación del hábitat debido a la fuerte asociación con bosques preservados, nuestros resultados sugieren que las especies abundantes y capaces de utilizar diferentes coberturas de vegetación (generalistas), como la subfamilia Stenodermatinae pueden ser mejores indicadores ecológicos. Esto corrobora que la vegetación riparia, permite la persistencia de especies sensibles a la perturbación del hábitat., y demuestra la importancia de mantener diferentes tipos de vegetación y así permitir la conservación de la diversidad de murciélagos en paisajes con uso de suelo agrícola.

Posteriormente, para tratar de entender la asociación entre la proporción de hembras y la vegetación riparia, se utilizaron las seis especies de murciélagos con más capturas (*Artibeus jamaicensis*, *A. lituratus*, *Sturnira lilium*, *Carollia perspicillata*, *Glossophaga soricina* y *Platyrrhinus helleri*). Comparando las tasas de captura de hembras y machos en los diferentes tipos de hábitat, se encontró que más de la mitad de los individuos capturados fueron hembras. Además, se demuestra la relación estrecha entre las hembras de *A. lituratus* y la calidad del hábitat, así como también que la presencia de hembras de *G. soricina* está influida por atributos específicos de la vegetación como árboles de gran altura y mayor área basa, esto parece respaldar la idea de que debido a los costos energéticos asociados a la reproducción y la necesidad de encontrar refugios temporales para dejar a sus crías durante el forrajeo, las hembras de ambas especies restringen sus movimientos hacia los sitios con mayores disponibilidad de recursos alimenticios y de refugio. Se encontró también que la estacionalidad resulta particularmente importante para las hembras de *A. lituratus* y *S. lilium*, lo cual reside en las diferencias en la abundancia o diversidad de los recursos alimenticios entre las estaciones húmedas y secas, al parecer, durante la estación seca, cuando los recursos alimenticios suelen ser escasos, las hembras tienden a aumentar los movimientos de forrajeo en áreas de bosques secundarios ricos en recursos. Estas respuestas específicas de las hembras de murciélagos conllevan importantes implicaciones para la comprensión de la adaptabilidad de los murciélagos a las modificaciones del hábitat. Las altas demandas energéticas de las hembras asociadas a la reproducción podrían llevar a un aumento de los movimientos de forrajeo en la vegetación riparia aumentando la importancia de conservación de la misma a largo plazo.

Finalmente, se evaluaron cuatro componentes de la diversidad funcional: riqueza funcional, equidad funcional, divergencia funcional, y especialización funcional, para los cuatro tipos de hábitat. Registrando los valores más altos de divergencia funcional para el hábitat de vegetación riparia dentro del bosque continuo y vegetación riparia dentro de pastizal. En contraste, el valor más bajo para la divergencia funcional se registró en el pastizal activo, esto indica que las especies registradas para este hábitat repiten los

atributos ya existentes y existe poca especialización. Además con la finalidad de conocer si el tipo de hábitat tiene un efecto específico sobre ciertos atributos de la comunidad de murciélagos, se analizó cuáles de estos están siendo filtrados por los diferentes tipos de hábitat. Los atributos de las especies seleccionados estuvieron relacionados con el tamaño, carga alar, fuerza de la mordida, tipo de ecolocación, nivel trófico y preferencia de forrajeo. Se encontró que especies frugívoras de tamaño pequeño y con carga alar alta son más comunes en ambientes perturbados; dichos atributos les permiten ser voladores rápidos y eficientes para viajes de larga distancia en espacios abiertos.

Los resultados de la tesis demuestran que el comportamiento de la comunidad de murciélagos en el paisaje transformado del bosque tropical lluvioso del sureste mexicano, depende de las características de los diferentes elementos del paisaje, como el tipo de hábitat y aspectos específicos de la estructura vegetal como altura y área basal de los árboles, además de la estacionalidad y disponibilidad de sitios de refugio y percha. Esto sugiere que las estrategias de conservación para la comunidad de murciélagos en la región de la Selva Lacandona requieren tanto de la conservación de la vegetación de bosque maduro como de estrategias de manejo sustentable de las zonas de sujetas a actividades de agricultura y ganadería. En particular, la vegetación riparia presentó gran similitud con el bosque maduro en cuanto a la diversidad de especies y diversidad funcional, así como los recursos alimenticios y de refugio esenciales para las hembras de murciélagos en especial durante la etapa reproductiva. Debido a que los ecosistemas riparios se ven fuertemente afectados por las actividades humanas, y a fin de mantener las poblaciones de murciélagos y los servicios ecosistémicos que brindan, los esfuerzos de conservación en el Neotrópico deben incluir a las zonas de vegetación riparia dentro de sus programas de manejo.

SUMMARY

Because of the process of globalization and the changing demographic dynamics, tropical forests face traditional threats (livestock and agriculture) and emergent ones (modern agriculture based on GMOs and biofuels), as well as new opportunities for urbanization that present high rates of deforestation and land-use change on a worldwide scale. This pressure has given rise to a sustained loss of habitat and an increase in its fragmentation as part of the landscape. The Lacandona rainforest in Chiapas is one of the priority areas for Mexico because it constitutes the largest remnant of tropical ecosystem and the region with the highest biological diversity in Mexico. It is estimated that 31% of the forest cover was lost during the 1990s. One of the main challenges for conservation is the maintenance of biodiversity within landscapes modified by human activity, in which a mosaic is presented that is composed of fragments of primary and secondary forest, farmland, pastureland for livestock, riparian vegetation and areas of human settlement.

Bats are particularly important in the Neotropics because they contribute almost 50% of the mammal species. In addition, because of their wide trophic spectrum they participate in essential ecosystem processes, such as the regeneration of forests in tropical zones. This study suggests that within agricultural landscapes the riparian vegetation possesses more complex vegetation structure characteristics than the rest of the agricultural matrix, which in comparison bestows greater diversity of food resources and refuge areas for the bat community. Therefore, documenting the importance of riparian vegetation for the bat community can represent a main focus for the design of conservation strategies focused on the bat community in a human dominated landscape.

This study was conducted in the Lacandon Jungle rainforest in Mexico, where bat sampling was performed using mist nets in four types of habitat: 1) riparian vegetation within mature continuous forest, 2) riparian vegetation in open pastures, 3) mature continuous forest away far from riparian vegetation and, 4) active pastureland. Having as a central question how important are the riparian areas for the bat communities and if variables linked to the vegetation structure that determines the composition of the bat community in a landscape dominated by agricultural practices.

As a first approach, we evaluated the role of riparian vegetation in species conservation, where differences in species richness and the abundance of Phyllostomidae bats between riparian and non-riparian habitats were found. It was also concluded that the presence of trees with a large basal area in riparian vegetation favors diversity in the composition of bat species. In addition, contrary to other findings that suggest that the subfamily Phyllostominae is an ecological indicator for habitat modification because of the strong association with preserved forests, our results suggest that species that are abundant and capable of using different vegetation cover (generalists), such as the subfamily Stenodermatinae, can be better ecological indicators. This corroborates that riparian vegetation permits the persistence of a species sensitive to habitat disturbance and

demonstrates the importance of maintaining different types of vegetation and ,therefore, allowing the conservation of bat diversity in a human-dominated landscape.

Afterward, to try to understand the association between the proportion of females and the riparian vegetation, the six bat species with the most captures were used: (*Artibeus jamaicensis*, *A. lituratus*, *Sturnira lilium*, *Carollia perspicillata*, *Glossophaga soricina* and *Platyrrhinus helleri*). Comparing the capture rate of females and males in the different types of habitat, it was found that more than half of the captured individuals were females. In addition, the close relationship between the females of *A. lituratus* and the quality of the habitat is demonstrated, as well as that the presence of females of *G. soricina* is influenced by specific attributes of the vegetation, such as tall trees with a large basal area. This seems to support the idea of that because of the energy costs associated with reproduction and the need to find temporary refuge to leave their offspring during foraging the females of both species restrict their movements toward the sites with the greater availability of food and refuge resources. It was also found that seasonality becomes particularly important for the *A. lituratus* and *S. lilium* females, which lies in the differences in the abundance or diversity of the food sources between the rainy and dry seasons. Apparently during the dry season when the food sources are usually scarce, the females tend to increase their foraging movements in areas of secondary forests rich in resources. These specific responses of female bats involve important implications for the understanding of the bats adaptability to habitat changes. The females' high energy demands associated with reproduction could lead to an increase of foraging movements in the riparian vegetation, confirming the importance of conservation of this vegetation cover in the long term.

Finally, four components of functional diversity were evaluated: functional richness, functional evenness functional divergence, and functional specialization, for the four habitat types .The highest values of functional divergence was recorded for the habitat of riparian vegetation within the continuous forest and riparian vegetation within the pastureland. In contrast, the lowest value for functional divergence was recorded in the active pastureland. This indicates that the species recorded for this habitat repeat the existing traits, and little specialization exists. In addition, to know if the type of habitat has a specific effect on certain attributes of the bat community, the traits filtered through the different types of habitat were analyzed. The characteristics of the selected species were related to size, wing loading, bite force, type of echolocation call, trophic level and foraging preference. It was found that small frugivorous species with high wing loading are most common in disturbed environments; these characteristics permit them to be fast and efficient flyers for long distance travel in open spaces.

The results of the thesis demonstrate that the behavior of the bat community in the modified landscape of the tropical rain forest in southeastern Mexico depends on the characteristics of the different elements of the landscape, like the type of habitat and specific aspects of plant structure such as height and the trees' basal area, in addition to seasonality and the availability of refuge and perching sites. This suggests that conservation strategies for the bat community in the Lacandon rainforest region require

both the conservation of mature forests and sustainable management strategies for the areas subjected to agriculture activities. In particular, the riparian vegetation showed a strong similarity to the mature forest regarding species diversity and functional diversity, as well as the essential food sources and refuge for the female bats especially during the reproductive stage. Given that the riparian ecosystems are strongly affected by human activities, and for the purpose of maintaining the bat populations and ecosystem services that they offer, the conservation efforts in the Neotropics must include areas of riparian vegetation within management programs.

Los bosques tropicales son uno de los ecosistemas más diversos del planeta y aportan casi el 50% de las especies conocidas a nivel global (Dirzo & Raven 2003), no obstante son también una de las regiones más importantes en la producción de alimentos. Actualmente las políticas públicas implementadas para el sector agrícola se enmarcan dentro de tratados internacionales, provocando que la dinámica entre los productores y sus tierras esté direccionado hacia el abastecimiento del mercado internacional (principalmente Asia), dejando como última instancia la producción para consumo local (Grau & Aide 2008)

Debido al proceso de globalización y la cambiante dinámica demográfica enfrentan amenazas tradicionales (ganadería, agricultura) y emergentes (agricultura moderna basada en OGM, biocombustibles), así como nuevas oportunidades de urbanización (Grau & Aide 2008). Esto ha provocado una tendencia generalizada al reemplazo de grandes extensiones de bosque maduro por remanentes de selva, bosques secundarios, tierras agrícolas, pastizales para ganado y zonas de asentamientos humanos (Chazdon 2003). A Esta presión para el cambio de uso de suelo, ha dado lugar a una constante pérdida de hábitat e incremento del aislamiento de los remanentes de hábitat en todo el mundo (Henle *et al.* 2004). Dentro del proceso de fragmentación del paisaje, los efectos implicados en los cambios en la biodiversidad son: disminución de hábitat disponible, el incremento en el número de parches, la disminución en el tamaño de parches y la pérdida de conectividad entre estos (Fahrig 2003). La reducción de la cubierta vegetal ocasiona modificaciones en el ciclo hidrológico y cambios regionales de los regímenes de temperatura y precipitación, favoreciendo con ello el calentamiento global y la disminución en el secuestro de bióxido de carbono (Chazdon 2003). Además del alimento, la vegetación proporciona elementos estructurales del hábitat para muchos animales, como son:

sitios de percha, refugio, zonas de anidamiento, además de cobertura para protección contra los depredadores y las condiciones climáticas adversas. Asimismo, es un suministro directo de recursos alimentarios (Ober & Hayes 2008). Los procesos correlacionados con la pérdida y fragmentación del hábitat son considerados las más graves amenazas a la biodiversidad y la causa principal de la crisis actual de extinción (Laurance, Bierregaard & Moritz 1997). Uno de los principales retos en las regiones tropicales es conservar la biodiversidad dentro de paisajes altamente deforestados y fragmentados y se ha señalado ya que algunas especies nativas pueden continuar viviendo en ambientes que, aunque están sujetos a actividades productivas, mantienen la estructura y funciones básicas del ecosistema original (Laurance *et al.* 2002).

La selva Lacandona en Chiapas es una de las zonas prioritarias para la conservación en México, ya que es el remanente más grande del ecosistema de bosque tropical en nuestro país y la región con más alta diversidad biológica en el trópico (Medellín 1994). Esta zona, alberga una cobertura continua de bosques tropicales poco perturbados que se extienden a la región del Petén en Guatemala mediante el corredor Bonampak-Yaxchilán, y al noreste de Belice, formando parte del Corredor Biológico Mesoamericano (CBM) dando lugar a una de las zonas ("hot spot") más importantes de biodiversidad Mesoamericana (Medellin Medellín 1994; Instituto Nacional de Ecología 2000). El CBM representa la mayor extensión de vegetación tropical en América Central y se estima que tiene una extensión aproximada de 768,000 km², equivalente al 0.5% de la superficie continental, albergando alrededor del 10% de la biodiversidad del planeta (Miller, Chang & Johnson 2001). El gobierno federal ha establecido Áreas Naturales Protegidas como: Parque Nacional Palenque (1771.95 ha), Monumento Natural Yaxchilán (2632 ha), Reserva de la Biósfera Montes Azules (331000 ha) y Reserva de la Biosfera

Lacantún (61874 ha) con el objetivo de conservar la biodiversidad de la región Lacandona, por otra parte, también se ha propiciado el cambio de uso de suelo de la región a través de la implementación de políticas públicas como el Programa de Apoyos Directos al Campo (PROCAMPO) cuyo objetivo es introducir el campo mexicano al mercado internacional, otorgando subsidios a los cultivos que representarían ventajas frente al mercado externo, y Proganadería (Progan) fortaleciendo la actividad ganadera, incluso incorporando a grupos de mujeres para el manejo de pequeños hatos, provocando un cambio radical en la organización del campo mexicano (Montoya Gómez *et al.* 2006), aumentando la presión antrópica sobre el bosque remanente. Se estima que el 31% de la superficie forestal de la Selva Lacandona (Chiapas) se perdió durante la década de los noventas provocado por actividades humanas (Instituto Nacional de Ecología 2000). Durante estas prácticas es común que se dejen remanentes de selva en lugares remotos o poco accesibles, sin embargo, para el establecimiento de potreros ganaderos, es habitual que se conserve la vegetación a lo largo de los arroyos. De tal manera que en la región puede observarse un mosaico de potreros activos e inactivos, parches de vegetación en sucesión secundaria, fragmentos con vegetación primaria y vegetación riparia (Warkentin, Greenberg & Ortiz 1995).

Una de las estrategias más empleadas para el mantenimiento de la conectividad en paisajes fragmentados es el establecimiento y conservación de los corredores de vida silvestre, los cuáles se definen como elementos lineales del paisaje que conectan dos o más parches de hábitat que han estado conectados en tiempo histórico y funcionan como un conducto para organismos (Soule & Gilpin 1991). Los elementos lineales de paisajes

fragmentados, tales como cercas vivas y corredores de vegetación riparia, son importantes para la comunidad animal ya que proporcionan mayor disponibilidad de recursos, funcionan como rutas de vuelo, proveen sitios de refugio para protección contra depredadores y condiciones climáticas adecuadas (Cosson, Pons & Masson 1999; Estrada & Coates-Estrada 2001; Medina *et al.* 2007).

Vegetación riparia y biodiversidad en paisajes fragmentados

Las zonas de vegetación riparia son el intervalo entre sistemas terrestres y acuáticos, albergan una gran variedad de especies de flora y fauna, y muchas de éstas están restringidas a estas zonas (Naiman, Decamps & Pollock 1993; Sabo *et al.* 2005). La vegetación riparia provee numerosos servicios ecológicos, no sólo como hábitat para la fauna, sino también como control de la erosión, control de inundaciones y mantenimiento de los ciclos biogeoquímicos (Naiman *et al.* 1993). Además, son reconocidos como hábitat para diversas especies, y como corredores de organismos terrestres y voladores, fomentando la formación de redes de dispersión (Estrada & Coates-Estrada 2001). Se ha documentado que la composición de especies y densidad de fauna difiere considerablemente entre franjas de vegetación riparia y la matriz agropecuaria circundante (Warkentin *et al.* 1995; Pinto & Keitt 2008). Por lo anterior, en paisajes agrícolas, la conservación y manejo de las zonas de vegetación riparia parece un método eficaz y poco costoso para el mantenimiento de la diversidad biológica en general (Jobin *et al.* 2004). Diversos estudios corroboran la importancia de la vegetación riparia como hábitat para la comunidad de murciélagos en paisajes agrícolas y coinciden

en recomendar el mantenimiento de una variedad y extensión de zonas de vegetación riparia para promover la conservación del mayor número de especies de murciélagos (Naiman *et al.* 1993; Harvey *et al.* 2005; Lloyd, Law & Goldingay 2006).

Importancia de los murciélagos en los ecosistemas Neotropicales

Los murciélagos son particularmente importantes en los Neotrópicos ya que constituyen entre el 40 y 50% de las especies de mamíferos, contribuyendo a la alta diversidad y riqueza de especies de mamíferos en las zonas neotropicales (Nowak 1991; Fenton *et al.* 1992). Además, comprenden un amplio espectro trófico lo que los hace primordiales en procesos como la regeneración debido a su participación en la dispersión de semillas (Whittaker & Jones 1994; Kelm, Wiesner & Helversen 2008), polinización (Lobo, Quesada & Stoner 2005) y control de las poblaciones de artrópodos y quizás de algunos vertebrados pequeños (Kalka & Kalko 2005; Williams-Guillén, Perfecto & Vandermeer 2008). Se ha demostrado que la fragmentación del paisaje modifica la disponibilidad de sitios para percha y refugio además de las zonas de forrajeo de los murciélagos, lo que propicia la reducción de sus poblaciones (Fenton *et al.* 1992; Cosson *et al.* 1999; Medellín, Equihua & Amin 2000). Sin embargo, estos efectos negativos pueden atenuarse cuando existe conectividad entre fragmentos mediante corredores lineales, que actúan como “trampolines” y permiten el desplazamiento e intercambio de la fauna entre fragmentos (Estrada & Coates-Estrada 2001). La conectividad ecológica o funcional de un paisaje, se define como la capacidad del territorio para permitir los desplazamientos de los organismos entre parches con recursos (Taylor, Fahrig & Henein

1993). Cuando la disminución de la movilidad de los organismos es significativa, se produce la subdivisión espacial de las poblaciones naturales, lo que a menudo puede tener un efecto negativo en las especies al encontrarse más vulnerables a las fluctuaciones, catástrofes ambientales y a la estocasticidad demográfica, así como a ser más proclives al deterioro genético (Primack 1993).

En varios ecosistemas a diferentes latitudes, se ha encontrado que la presencia de vegetación riparia y cercas vivas favorece a diferentes especies de murciélagos ofreciendo hábitat importante por lo que aumenta la diversidad de especies y la actividad de forrajeo dentro de la matriz agrícola (Fig. 1). Particularmente, trabajos desarrollados en bosques templados, han registrado la importancia de los ríos y vegetación riparia para la comunidad de murciélagos del gremio insectívoro (Racey 1998; Fukui *et al.* 2006; Lloyd *et al.* 2006; Lundy & Montgomery 2010). Por ejemplo, estudios realizados en Europa han identificado relaciones positivas entre la comunidad de murciélagos y los elementos lineales del paisaje. Se ha reportado que los murciélagos utilizan elementos como cercas vivas, vegetación riparia y corredores arbolados como zonas de vuelo en lugar de volar a través de áreas abiertas (Walsh & Harris 1996; Racey 1998; Smith & Racey 2008; Abbott, Sleeman & Harrison 2009) (Fig. 1).

También, se ha observado gran impacto sobre la actividad de forrajeo de murciélagos debido a cambios relativamente pequeños en la estructura y calidad de las zonas de vegetación riparia dentro de paisajes urbanos, además, es posible cuantificar la actividad como medida del impacto de la calidad del hábitat ripario sobre la diversidad en el sistema fluvial completo (Scott *et al.* 2010); por lo que se sugiere que las estrategias de

conservación y manejo se centren en el mantenimiento de la complejidad estructural de la vegetación riparia para promover zonas de forrajeo para la mayor cantidad de especies de murciélagos (Ober & Hayes 2008). En paisajes con producción forestal la comunidad de murciélagos favorece, mediante el mantenimiento de senderos y zonas de vegetación riparia como zonas de forrajeo, la regeneración de bosques y el mantenimiento de la diversidad de especies vegetales (Law & Chidel 2002; Lloyd *et al.* 2006). También, se ha observado gran impacto sobre la actividad de forrajeo de murciélagos debido a cambios relativamente pequeños en la estructura y calidad de las zonas de vegetación riparia dentro de paisajes urbanos, además, es posible cuantificar la actividad como medida del impacto de la calidad del hábitat ripario sobre la diversidad en el sistema fluvial completo (Scott *et al.* 2010); por lo que se sugiere que las estrategias de conservación y manejo se centren en el mantenimiento de la complejidad estructural de la vegetación riparia para promover zonas de forrajeo para la mayor cantidad de especies de murciélagos (Ober & Hayes 2008). En paisajes con producción forestal, la comunidad de murciélagos favorece la regeneración de bosques y el mantenimiento de la diversidad de especies, mediante el mantenimiento de senderos y zonas de vegetación riparia como zonas de forrajeo (Law & Chidel 2002; Lloyd *et al.* 2006)

En los bosques tropicales, elementos del paisaje como cercas vivas, árboles aislados y vegetación riparia dentro de una matriz agropecuaria, rompen con la homogeneidad de las áreas abiertas para el establecimiento de potreros y ayudan a mantener la diversidad de especies de murciélagos, además promueven la conectividad sirviéndoles como trampolines hacia parches aislados de vegetación primaria (Estrada &

Coates-Estrada 2001; Galindo-González & Sosa 2003; Chacón & Harvey 2006). Dentro de paisajes agrícolas en regiones tropicales la presencia de especies de plantas de sucesión secundaria como *Piper*, *Cecropia* y *Ficus* en vegetación riparia y cercas vivas favorecen la actividad de murciélagos frugívoros y aumentan la abundancia de individuos (Griscom, Kalko & Ashton 2007). Se sugiere que los agropaisajes que mantienen cobertura vegetal heterogénea pueden mantener un ensamblaje diverso de quirópteros (Medina *et al.* 2007).

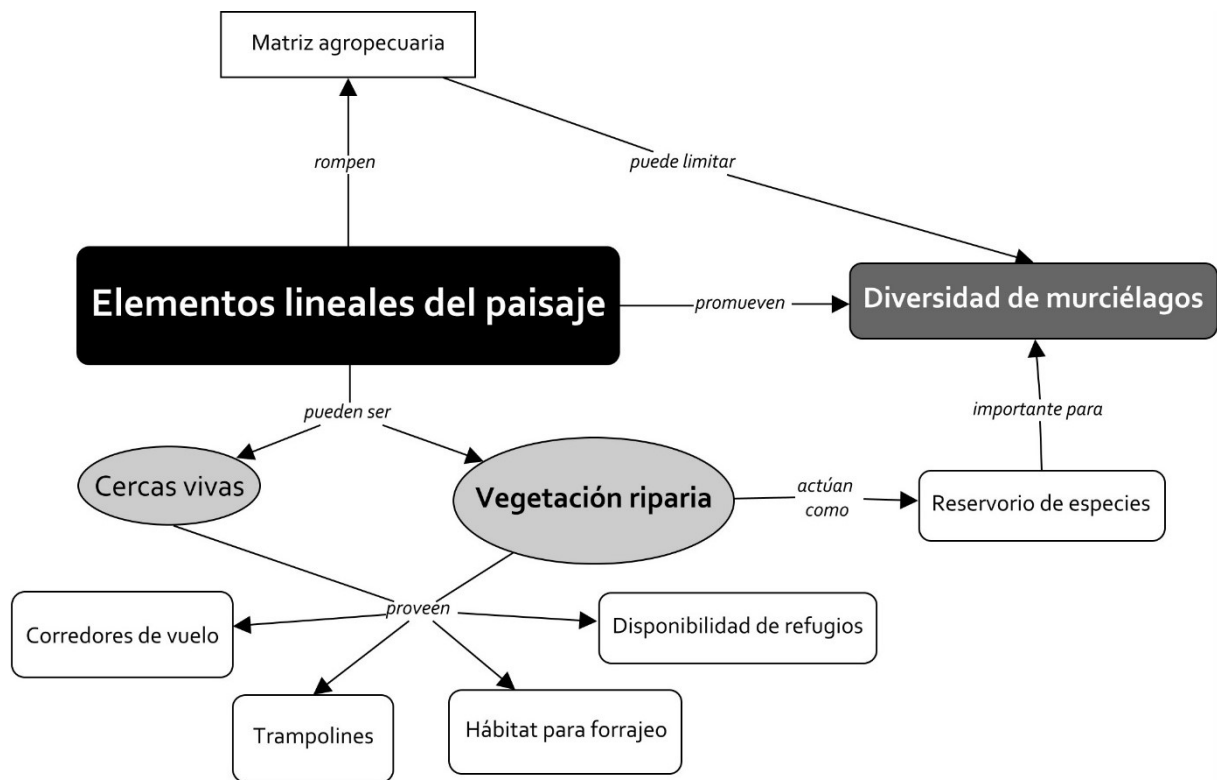


Figura 1. Principales efectos de los elementos lineales de paisajes agropecuarios sobre la comunidad de murciélagos

Perturbación del hábitat y su efecto en las comunidades de murciélagos

La perturbación del hábitat puede modificar la comunidad de murciélagos debido a mortalidad y/o extinciones locales a causa de actividades como deforestación e incendios (efectos directos) y cambios en los patrones demográficos y comportamiento de los quirópteros (efectos indirectos) (Figura 2). La mayoría de los estudios acerca de los efectos que tiene la matriz agropecuaria sobre la comunidad de murciélagos se centran en las respuestas a nivel de especie (inter-específicos) mientras que la potencial importancia de los cambios intra-específicos son ignorados (Lintott *et al.* 2014). Las alteraciones de la distribución espacial de recursos provocadas por la fragmentación de hábitat, resultan en cambios en los patrones demográficos de algunas especies de acuerdo a la plasticidad específica de las mismas (Bender, Contreras, Fahrig 1998; Nupp & Swihart 2000). Se ha observado que las diferencias biológico/metabólicas de machos y hembras de la misma especie ocasiona segregación de uso de hábitat y/o competencia (Lemaître *et al.* 2014; Lintott *et al.* 2014; Beerman *et al.* 2016). A pesar de que los murciélagos no presentan dimorfismo sexual, la mayoría de las especies exhiben una marcada segregación sexual durante la gestación y crianza (Senior, Butlin & Altringham 2005; Sgroi & Wilkins 2010; Encarnaçãõ 2012). Por ejemplo, las hembras tienen mayor consumo energético debido a la reproducción (*e.g.* gestación, lactancia) y suelen visitar con menor frecuencia ambientes con recursos alimenticios limitados (Ramos Pereira *et al.* 2009)

Por otra parte, históricamente se ha utilizado la diversidad taxonómica (riqueza de especies presentes en un área dada) como métrica clásica para estimar la biodiversidad

(Petchey & Gaston 2002), sin embargo, la diversidad funcional definido como el valor y rango de los rasgos funcionales de los organismos en un ecosistema dado, refleja interacciones no solamente a nivel de población y comunidad sino que también muestra la relaciones de las especies con el hábitat, proporcionando un espectro más amplio de las interacciones en los ecosistemas (Tilman 2001; Villéger, Mason & Mouillot 2008; Wordley *et al.* 2017). El concepto de filtrado de atributos sugiere que las características del hábitat y los factores ambientales afectan los patrones de biodiversidad actuando como un embudo que favorece los atributos de ciertas especies (Villéger *et al.* 2008). El análisis de diversidad funcional permite medir cuáles atributos son filtrados por el hábitat, lo cual proporciona información sobre las variables abióticas que permiten la presencia de ciertas especies en un hábitat determinado (Meyer *et al.* 2008; Hanspach *et al.* 2012; Farneda *et al.* 2015). Por otra parte, comparado con la diversidad taxonómica, la diversidad funcional refleja interacciones no solamente a nivel de población y comunidad sino que también muestra la relaciones de las especies con el hábitat, proporcionando un espectro más amplio de las interacciones en los ecosistemas (Villéger *et al.* 2008; Wordley *et al.* 2017). El concepto de filtrado de atributos sugiere que las características del hábitat y los factores ambientales afectan los patrones de biodiversidad actuando como un embudo que favorece los atributos de ciertas especies (Villéger *et al.* 2008). El análisis de diversidad funcional permite medir cuáles atributos son filtrados por el hábitat, lo cual proporciona información sobre las variables abióticas que permiten la presencia de ciertas especies en un hábitat determinado (Meyer *et al.* 2008; Hanspach *et al.* 2012; Farneda *et al.* 2015).

Entender las relaciones entre las características ecológicas y la sensibilidad de las especies a los diferentes tipos de hábitat puede generar importantes predicciones acerca de cuáles especies tienen mayor probabilidad de permanencia (Jennings & Pocock 2009). Dada la matriz agropecuaria actual en Mesoamérica, las zonas de vegetación riparia pueden representar un importante refugio para una gran variedad de taxa y procesos ecosistémicos. Es por esto que el presente trabajo pretende incluir las características inter e intraespecíficas que determinan la relación de la comunidad de murciélagos con el hábitat fragmentado en la región de la selva Lacandona en Chiapas, México. Obtener información de la utilización de las zonas de vegetación riparia por los murciélagos en hábitats fragmentados y su repercusión en la dinámica del ecosistema es esencial para el desarrollo de programas de conservación y restauración de ecosistemas riparios y evitar el deterioro de las poblaciones y de la diversidad de especies de quirópteros.

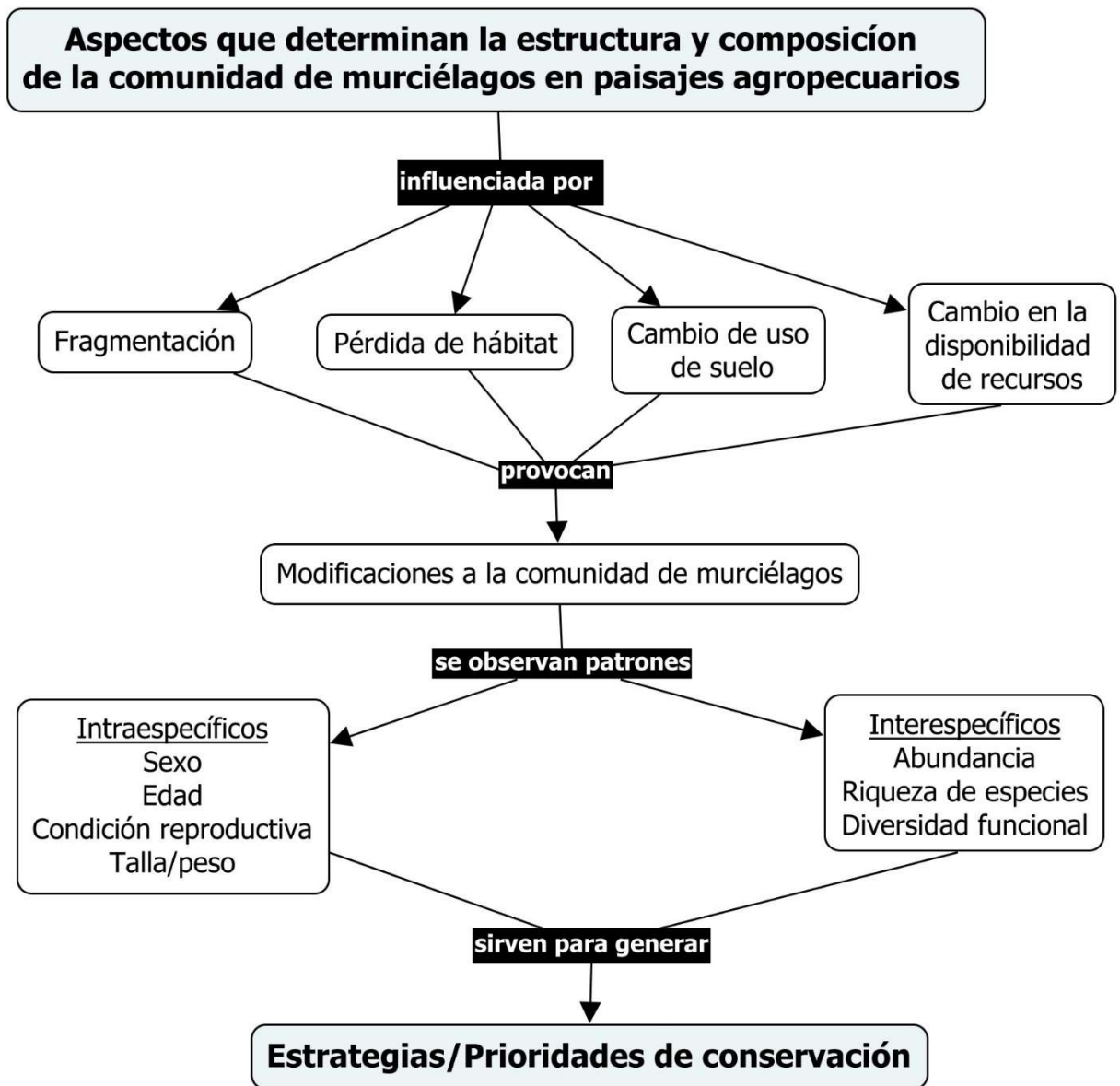


Figura 2. Relación de los factores externos e internos que modifican la estructura de la comunidad de murciélagos.

El presente trabajo de investigación tiene como **objetivo general** documentar la importancia de las zonas de vegetación riparia para las comunidades de murciélagos y determinar qué variables ligadas a la estructura de la vegetación riparia determinan la estructura y composición de la comunidad de murciélagos en un paisaje agropecuario en la región de la selva Lacandona, México.

Como **hipótesis general** se plantea que la comunidad de murciélagos presente en paisajes agropecuarios con distintas coberturas de vegetación se enfrentan a una serie de cambios en la disponibilidad de hábitat, recursos y en la estructura y composición del paisaje, para hacer frente a dichos cambios en las condiciones bióticas y abióticas, muestran adaptaciones. Algunas de estas adaptaciones se reflejan en la variación de la abundancia, diversidad de gremios tróficos y de grupos funcionales, además de la estructura de sexos y edades. Específicamente la vegetación riparia dentro de paisajes agropecuarios posee características estructurales de la vegetación más complejas en comparación con el resto de la matriz, lo que le confiere mayor concentración de recursos alimenticios (e. g. insectos y frutos), y un aumento en la disponibilidad de refugios. Por lo anterior expresado, se espera que la vegetación riparia presente mayor abundancia y riqueza de especies y mayor tasa de captura de hembras. Se espera también que la complejidad estructural de la vegetación explique la variación en la diversidad funcional y en los sitios de pastizal de encuentre la menor diversidad funcional y aumenten la cantidad de atributos funcionales que están siendo filtrados

El **capítulo I** se centra en conocer la influencia del bosque ripario en la distribución, riqueza y densidad de murciélagos filostómidos en un paisaje agropecuario en el bosque tropical húmedo de México. Para esto, evaluamos los siguientes aspectos 1) atributos de la comunidad de murciélagos (e. g., composición de especies y densidad) tanto en hábitat ripario como no ripario; 2) la relación de la complejidad estructural de la vegetación con la

composición de especies; y 3) la distribución de especies, géneros y subfamilias en los diferentes tipos de hábitat con la finalidad de identificar posibles taxones indicadores.

En el **capítulo II** se compararon las tasas de captura de hembras y machos de las seis especies más abundantes de la comunidad de murciélagos en los diferentes tipos de hábitat, con la finalidad de identificar los cambios en la estructura social de la comunidad de murciélagos, documentando si existe preferencia por hembras y machos asociada al hábitat ripario y a atributos específicos de la vegetación en una matriz agropecuaria del trópico mexicano.

El **capítulo III** utiliza un enfoque funcional empleando los atributos de importancia ecológica para los murciélagos y evaluando los componentes de la diversidad funcional, con el objetivo de evaluar los cambios en la diversidad funcional de la comunidad de murciélagos para los diferentes tipos de hábitat. Además determinar que rasgos funcionales están siendo filtrados por los diferentes tipos de hábitat y poder identificar los atributos que afectan la sensibilidad de las especies a la actividad agropecuaria.

Finalmente en la **Discusión General** se presenta una síntesis sobre los principales resultados obtenidos del trabajo de investigación. Con base en esto se proponen algunas acciones de manejo dirigidas hacia los bosques riparios que pretenden promover y conservar la diversidad de murciélagos en paisajes agropecuarios a largo plazo.

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CAPÍTULO I

STRUCTURE AND DIVERSITY OF PHYLLOSTOMID BAT ASSEMBLAGES ON RIPARIAN
CORRIDORS IN A HUMAN-DOMINATED TROPICAL LANDSCAPE



Structure and diversity of phyllostomid bat assemblages on riparian corridors in a human-dominated tropical landscape

Erika de la Peña-Cuéllar¹, Julieta Benítez-Malvido¹, Luis Daniel Avila-Cabadilla², Miguel Martínez-Ramos¹ & Alejandro Estrada³

¹Centro de Investigaciones en Ecosistemas, Universidad Nacional Autónoma de México, Morelia, Michoacán, México

²Escuela Nacional de Estudios Superiores, Universidad Nacional Autónoma de México, Morelia, Michoacán, México

³Estacion de Biología Tropical "Los Tuxtlas", Instituto de Biología, Universidad Nacional Autónoma de México, Morelia, Michoacán, México

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Correspondence

Erika de la Peña-Cuéllar, Centro de Investigaciones en Ecosistemas, Universidad Nacional Autónoma de México, Apartado Postal 27-3 (Xangari), Morelia, Michoacán 58190, México.

Tel: +52 443-322-2777; Fax: +52 443-322-2719;

E-mail: erikapc@cieco.unam.mx

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Introduction

Habitat loss and fragmentation are considered the most serious threats to biodiversity and the main cause of the current extinction crisis (Laurance and Bierregaard 1997). In tropical regions, many biodiversity hot spots have been converted to agricultural lands (Myers et al. 2000; Achard et al. 2002). In many of these landscapes, the presence of vegetation along streams is a common feature and is relatively resistant to agricultural practices and small-scale land use changes (Lundy and Montgomery 2010). Riparian habitats provide some of the most diverse and complex terrestrial habitats (Naiman et al. 1993). Especially,

Abstract

Tropical forests around the world have been lost, mainly because of agricultural activities. Linear elements like riparian vegetation in fragmented tropical landscapes help maintain the native flora and fauna. Information about the role of riparian corridors as a reservoir of bat species, however, is scanty. We assessed the value of riparian corridors on the conservation of phyllostomid bat assemblage in an agricultural landscape of southern Mexico. For 2 years (2011–2013), mist-netting at ground level was carried out twice during the dry season (December to May) and twice during the wet season (June to November) in different habitats: (1) riparian corridors in mature forest, (2) riparian corridors in pasture, (3) continuous forest away from riparian vegetation, and (4) open pastures. Each habitat was replicated three times. To determine the influence of vegetation structure on bat assemblages, all trees (≥ 10 cm dbh) were sampled in all habitats. Overall, 1752 individuals belonging to 28 species of Phyllostomidae were captured with Sternodermatinae being the most rich and abundant subfamily. Riparian corridors in mature forest and pastures had the greatest species richness and shared 65% of all species. Open pastures had the lowest richness and abundance of bats with no Phyllostominae species recorded. Six of the 18 species recorded could be considered as habitat indicators. There was a positive relationship between bat species composition and tree basal area. Our findings suggest that contrary to our expectations, bats with generalist habits and naturally abundant could be useful detector taxa of habitat modification, rather than bats strongly associated with undisturbed forest. Also in human-dominated landscapes, the maintenance of habitat elements such as large trees in riparian corridors can serve as reservoirs for bat species, especially for those that are strongly associated with undisturbed forest.

in fragmented landscapes, riparian vegetation contrasts with adjacent grassland areas as it provides the following landscape elements for the native biota: habitat for many species, corridors for flying and terrestrial animals, connectivity between forest fragments and for fostering network dispersion (Naiman et al. 2000; Estrada and Coates-Estrada 2001). In particular, bird species composition and density differ considerably between riparian vegetation and the surrounding agricultural matrix (Warkentin et al. 1995; Seaman and Schulze 2010). Similarly, bats use riparian vegetation as flyways during foraging activities, reducing the distance that they need to travel from and to their refuges (Daniel et al. 2008).

Intensification of agricultural practices in the tropics is likely to threaten the persistence of some bat species; nonetheless, the presence of landscape elements like live fences, isolated trees, and riparian vegetation disrupts the homogeneity of pastures and has been shown to be important in the maintenance of bat diversity (Harvey *et al.* 2006; Griscom *et al.* 2007; Medina *et al.* 2007). Riparian habitats provide flyways and foraging areas for bats, serving as stepping stones to isolated patches of primary vegetation. In addition, riparian zones offer important sources of water and food for bats (Estrada and Coates-Estrada 2001; Galindo-González and Sosa 2003).

Bats are widely studied because they play a crucial role in the ecosystem functioning as pollinators, seed dispersal agents and controllers of invertebrate and small vertebrate populations (Muscarella and Fleming 2007; Kalka *et al.* 2008; Kunz *et al.* 2011). Particularly in the Neotropics, bats are considered an important component of mammal biodiversity accounting for over 50% of the species (Medellín 1994). The response of bats to habitat loss in the Neotropics is ambiguous, compared to the Stenodermatinae (frugivore bats), and the Phyllostominae bats are very sensitive to disturbance and tend to decrease in degraded and fragmented habitats because of their limited range sizes, specialized resource needs (food and roosting), and because of their avoidance of open pastures (Kalko *et al.* 1999; Medellín *et al.* 2000; Schulze *et al.* 2000; Castro-Luna *et al.* 2007a; de la Peña-Cuéllar *et al.* 2012; García-Morales *et al.* 2013). We selected the Phyllostomidae family because it is the most species rich and functionally diverse bat family in the Neotropics. Furthermore, because of the broad spectrum of biological interactions in which they are involved, phyllostomids have been recognized as useful indicators of habitat quality (Fenton *et al.* 1992; Medellín *et al.* 2000; Jones *et al.* 2009).

In human-impacted landscapes, information about the importance of riparian vegetation in maintaining bat species diversity is crucial for understanding bat behavioral and ecological flexibility. In this framework, we recorded the richness and abundance of phyllostomid bats present in different habitat types within an agricultural matrix to determine the following: (1) bat assemblages attributes (i.e., species composition and species density) in riparian and nonriparian habitats; (2) the extent to which the structural complexity of the vegetation explains bat species composition; and (3) the distribution of species, genera and subfamilies in the different habitats in order to identify indicator taxa.

Methods

Study area and sampling sites

The study was conducted in the tropical rain forest region of Lacandona, Chiapas, Mexico. The original vegetation

consists of semideciduous and lowland tropical rain forests. Mean annual temperature is 24°C, and average annual rainfall is 3000 mm with June to October as the wettest months (551 mm per month) and February to April as the driest months (<100 mm per month) (Breugel *et al.* 2006; CFE 2006). Deforestation of the region began in the 1970s, resulting in the reduction of closed forest from 95% in 1976 to 56% in 1996 (de Jong *et al.* 2000); only 36% of closed forest remains today (Carabias *et al.* 2008). The main practices of the region consist of grazing pastures, maize and other crops, and patches of secondary and old-growth forests (de Jong *et al.* 2000).

We sampled four different habitats: (1) riparian sites within mature continuous forest (RM); (2) riparian sites in open pastures (RP); (3) mature continuous forest away from riparian vegetation (MF); and (4) open pastures (P). Each habitat type was replicated three times, and sites were at least 1.5 km away from each other. Streams were all permanent (although with variable amounts of running water throughout the year); stream width varied from two to eight meters. Study sites in pastures were located in the fragmented landscape of the Marqués de Comillas municipality, on the south side of the Lacantún River. Mature continuous forest sites were located in the 330,000 ha Montes Azules Biosphere Reserve (MABR) on the north side of the river (16°04'N–90°45' W; Fig. 1) (INE 2000).

Bat and vegetation sampling

Bat sampling was performed twice during the dry season (December to May) and two times during the wet season (June to November) for three consecutive years (2011, 2012, and 2013). Eighteen nights were sampled at RM, RP, and P habitats, and sixteen nights were sampled at the MF habitat. Bats were surveyed at all sites using the same standardized method. Five nets (12 m long × 2.6 m high) were set at ground level and were opened at dusk for four consecutive hours, which corresponds to the peak foraging time for most phyllostomid species (La Val 1970). The nets were arranged following three configurations located roughly 50 m apart: (1) one individual net and two pairs of nets were placed in the “L” position (two nets connected perpendicularly); (2) in the riparian habitats nets were located parallel and diagonally across the stream depending on site characteristics, in the MF habitat nets were placed in natural corridors that represented flyways for bats; and (3) in P, nets were located in open spaces devoid of vegetation. Bat sampling avoids nights with a full moon or heavy rain (Morrison 1978). Captured individuals were temporarily stored in cloth bags and identified to species following Medellín *et al.* (2011). We used Koopman's classification (1993) for bat

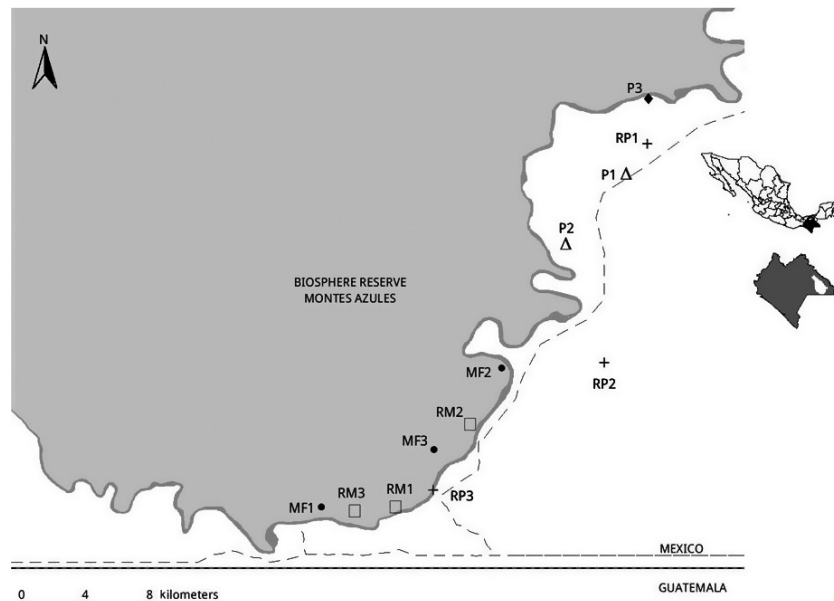


Figure 1. Study area and bat sampling sites at the Lacandona forest, Chiapas, Mexico.

families, subfamilies and genera. For species and feeding guilds, we followed Timm and La Val (1998) classification (i.e., aerial insectivores, carnivores, gleaning insectivores, frugivores, nectarivores, and sanguivores).

Tree sampling was carried out once at each habitat to determine the influence of vegetation structure on bat assemblages; we recorded all trees ≥ 10 cm dbh within a 0.1 ha (20×50 m) plot (Gentry 1982). Plots were located along streams in RM and RP habitats and randomly located in MF and P habitats. We considered the following vegetation attributes: number of individuals (NI), number of species (NS), total basal area (BA), and height (H).

Statistical analyses

Bat sampling completeness

We assessed the completeness of the bat survey by calculating the percentage of estimated species richness that was effectively covered by our samples. To ensure a good representation of bat richness, species richness was estimated by computing the average of the following indices: ICE, Chao2 and Bootstrap (Colwell *et al.* 2004). Ninety percent of completeness was considered to be a satisfactory level of sampling efficiency (Moreno and Halfpenny 2001).

We used a Mantel test with 999 permutations to determine whether bat assemblages closer together were more similar than those farther apart (Mantel 1967). We computed the correlation between the matrix representing the Euclidean distance among sites (represented in UTM

units) and the matrix of Bray–Curtis indices representing ecological distances. These analyses were performed in R (R Development Core Team 2009) with the vegan package (Oksanen *et al.* 2011).

Bat assemblages

We built rank-abundance (dominance-diversity) plots for each habitat; these graphs have been suggested as an alternative to diversity indexes when comparing communities in different habitats (Feinsinger 2001). Individual-based rarefaction curves were constructed to compare species richness among habitats (EstimateS software, version 7.5, Copyright R. K. Colwell: <http://viceroy.eeb.uconn.edu/estimates>). The 95% confidence intervals of the moment-based estimator for species richness (sobs Mao Tau) were used to determine significant differences among habitats (Colwell *et al.* 2004).

To evaluate dissimilarity patterns among phyllostomid assemblages we used nonmetric multidimensional scaling (NMDS) based on Bray–Curtis similarity. The NMDS is one of the most appropriate ordination methods in community ecology (McCune and Grace 2002) as it can properly handle nonlinear species responses (Oksanen 2010), high beta-diversity and data not adjusted to a particular underlying model (i.e., multivariate normality), which are common in community dataset (McCune and Grace 2002). We used the stress value to evaluate the ordination. Low stress values indicate that the distances between objects in space ordination are similar to the distances between objects in the original space, defined by

n-dimensions (in this case, the species considered in the matrix). The lower the stress value, the more reliable the results achieved by the ordination.

Phyllostomid bats as indicator taxa

We evaluated if phyllostomid taxa (subfamily, genus and species) were associated with particular habitats, and therefore considered as indicators of such habitats. Indicator taxa are characteristic of a particular habitat whereas detector taxa exhibit different degrees of preferences for different habitat types and consequently are useful in indicating habitat change. For this purpose, we performed the “indicator value analysis” (Dufrene and Legendre 1997). This method assigns an indicator value (IV) to each taxon, in each habitat, based on the taxon’s relative frequency of occurrence (fidelity) and relative abundance (specificity). We then selected the maximum IV (IV_{\max}) for each taxon and identified the corresponding habitat. The IV_{\max} statistical significance was evaluated through a Monte Carlo test based on 1000 iterations. Following Castro-Luna *et al.* (2007b), and Avila-Cabadilla (2011), we considered as detectors all taxa with an $IV_{\max} \geq 0.5$ and considered as indicators those taxa in which IV_{\max} was statistically significant. These analyses were carried out in the R package *labdsv*, version 1.4-1.

Phyllostomids and site attributes

We examined correlations between phyllostomid response (abundance, species composition) and all the explanatory variables (season, habitat and tree basal area) using a generalized linear mixed model (GLMM). The GLMM is an extension of generalized linear models (GLMs) that include both fixed and random effects. In our models, we considered as fixed effects the season, habitat and tree basal area and as a random effect the sampling nights. In this way, we are accounting for the correlation structure caused by repeated sampling night on the same sites. For each model, we calculated Akaike’s information criterion corrected for small sample size (AIC_c) following Burnham and Anderson (2002). This approach allowed us to select the most plausible models from a set of models. The set of models considered for every response variable, at each scale, included the null model (without explanatory power) and other models that considered each explanatory variable independently. We compared the model using Δ_i , which is the difference of AIC_c between a given model and the best (lowest AIC_c) model. We also calculated the AIC weights (w_i) for each model. The w_i represents the weight of the evidence that a certain model is the best model given the data and the set of candidate

models. The 95% confidence set of the best models was defined by summing the w_i from the largest to the smallest, until the sum is = 0.95. Only models with an AIC_c lower than the null model were considered to define the 95% confidence set of plausible models. All previous analyses were performed with R program (R Development Core Team 2009).

Results

We completed 70 nights of capture effort, 34 during the dry season, and 36 during the rainy season, resulting in a total capture effort of 180 net hours in RM, RP, and P, and 140 net hours in MF habitats. Overall, 1752 individuals belonging to 28 species of Phyllostomidae were captured. The Stenodermatinae was the richest and most abundant subfamily with 16 species (57.1% of all species) and 1598 individuals (91.2% of all captures). The completeness values were above 85% for all habitats, which is considered appropriate to characterize the phyllostomid bat assemblages (Table 1).

The individual-based rarefaction curves (Fig. 2) showed that we sampled all species occurring in RM and RP habitats. Captures in all habitats were dominated by five species: *Sturnira lilium* (30.1%), *Artibeus lituratus* (22.9%), *A. jamaicensis* (11.4%), *Uroderma bilobatum* (9.6%), and *Glossophaga soricina* (6.1%), which together represented 80.4% of all captures (Fig. 2). Bat composition did not show a significant spatial correlation according to the Mantel test ($R = 0.057$, $P = 0.27$).

Bat assemblages and guilds

Species richness declined from 23 species in RM, to 21 in RP, to 20 in MF and 14 species in P, resulting in a total of 28 species (Fig. 3). Habitats shared 10 species. The RM habitat presented three exclusive species; in addition, the RP had two exclusive species and the MF one exclusive species, while open pastures had none. Species of the subfamily Phyllostominae were absent from open pastures (Table 1).

Frugivores accounted for the greatest percentage of both captured species and individuals (59.2% of species and 90.3% of individuals), followed by gleaning insectivores (18.5% of species and 0.7% of individuals) and nectarivores (11.1% of species and 7.7% of individuals). Sanguivores were represented by *Desmodus rotundus* with 11 individuals and *Diphylla ecaudata* with two individuals; in addition, carnivores were represented only by *Trachos cirrhosus* (Table 1). The number of bat guilds per habitat type declined from five in the RM and the MF, to four in RP, and three guilds in P (Fig. 4).

Table 1. Number of bats captured by species in different habitat types at Lacandona, Chiapas, Mexico. Bat guilds are as follows: F, frugivores; GI, gleaning insectivores; N, nectarivores; C, carnivores; and S, sanguivores.

FAMILY Subfamily Species	Guild	Habitats				Total
		Riparian mature (RM)	Riparian pasture (RP)	Mature forest (MF)	Pasture (P)	
PHYLLOSTOMIDAE						
Carollinae						
<i>Carollia perspicillata</i>	F ^S	20 (1.11)	34 (1.8)	5 (0.31)	1 (0.05)	60
<i>Carollia sowelli</i>	F ^S	9 (0.5)	6 (0.33)	8 (0.5)	2 (0.11)	25
Desmodontinae						
<i>Desmodus rotundus</i>	S	1 (0.05)	8 (0.44)	1 (0.06)	4 (0.22)	14
<i>Diphylla ecaudata</i>	S	0	1 (0.05)	1 (0.06)	0	2
Glossophaginae						
<i>Choeroniscus godmani</i>	N ^S	2 (0.11)	0	1 (0.06)	0	3
<i>Glossophaga soricina</i>	N ^S	6 (0.33)	80 (4.44)	2 (0.12)	20 (1.11)	108
<i>Hylonycteris underwoodi</i>	N ^S	0	0	4 (0.25)	0	4
<i>Lichonycteris obscura</i>	N ^S	1 (0.07)	0	0	0	1
Phyllostominae						
<i>Lamproncycteris brachyotis</i>	GI ^S	1 (0.05)	0	0	0	1
<i>Lonchorhina aurita</i>	GI ^S	2 (0.11)	0	0	0	2
<i>Mimon crenulatum</i>	GI ^N	0	7 (0.38)	0	0	7
<i>Phyllostomus discolor</i>	GI ^S	0	1 (0.05)	0	0	1
<i>Trachops cirrhosus</i>	C ^S	2 (0.11)	0	1 (0.06)	0	3
<i>Tonatia saurophila</i>	GI ^S	3 (0.16)	2 (0.11)	3 (0.18)	0	8
Stenodermatinae						
<i>Artibeus jamaicensis</i>	F ^N	72 (4)	59 (3.27)	41 (2.56)	29 (1.61)	201
<i>Artibeus lituratus</i>	F ^N	113 (6.27)	190 (10.55)	25 (1.56)	74 (4.11)	402
<i>Artibeus phaeotis</i>	F ^N	8 (0.44)	11 (0.61)	0	6 (0.33)	25
<i>Artibeus toltecus</i>	F ^N	1 (0.05)	0	2 (0.12)	0	3
<i>Artibeus watsoni</i>	F ^N	3 (0.16)	8 (0.44)	4 (0.25)	1 (0.05)	16
<i>Centurio senex</i>	F ^N	1 (0.05)	1 (0.05)	2 (0.12)	1 (0.05)	5
<i>Chiroderma salvini</i>	F ^N	2 (0.11)	3 (0.16)	2 (0.12)	1 (0.05)	8
<i>Chiroderma villosum</i>	F ^N	0	3 (0.16)	1 (0.06)	0	4
<i>Platyrrhinus helleri</i>	F ^N	24 (1.33)	47 (2.61)	2 (0.12)	9 (0.5)	82
<i>Sturnira liliium</i>	F ^S	68 (3.77)	315 (17.5)	27 (1.68)	119 (6.61)	529
<i>Sturnira ludovici</i>	F ^S	1 (0.05)	1 (0.05)	0	0	2
<i>Uroderma bilobatum</i>	F ^N	48 (2.66)	92 (5.11)	0	29 (1.61)	169
<i>Vampyresia thuyone</i>	F ^N	7 (0.38)	5 (0.27)	1 (0.06)	3 (0.16)	16
<i>Vampyrodes caraccioli</i>	F ^N	39 (2.16)	11 (0.611)	1 (0.06)	0	51
Total abundance		434	885	134	299	1752
Samples		18	18	16	18	70
Richness		23	21	20	14	28
Completeness(%) ¹		87	92	92	89	

Parentheses indicate the relative abundance (bats captured per night sampling) from 18 nights of sampling for RM, RP, and P, and 16 nights of sampling for MF.

Feeding strategy based on Soriano (2000); ^N=Nomadic and ^S=Sedentary.

¹Based on the average of the following indices: ICE, Chao2 and Bootstrap.

Bats as indicator taxa

Six of the 18 species recorded could be considered as habitat indicators (Table 2). The subfamilies Glossophaginae and Stenodermatinae were tightly associated with RP; however, at the genus level *Glossophaga* was mostly associated with MF, and *Sturnira* was tightly associated with RP.

We identified twice as many detector taxa as indicator taxa (Table 2). The subfamily Desmodontinae was associated with RP. We found *Lonchorhina* and *Vampyrodes* were associated with RM, and *Mimon*, *Platyrrhinus* and *Uroderma* were associated with RP. Finally, most of the detector species were associated with RP (*Carollia perspicillata*, *Mimon crenulatum*, *Platyrrhinus helleri*, and *U. bilobatum*), and only two species were

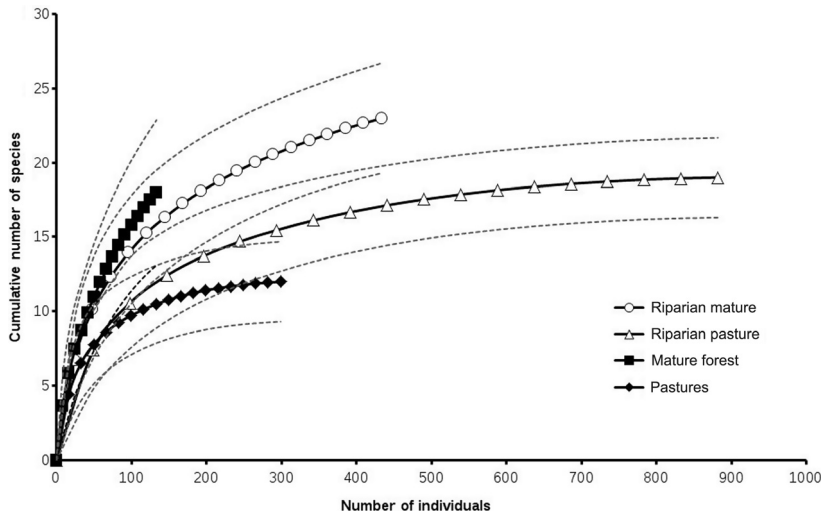


Figure 2. Individual-based rarefaction curves of bat species within different habitat types at the Lacandona forest. Dotted lines delineate 95% of confidence intervals.

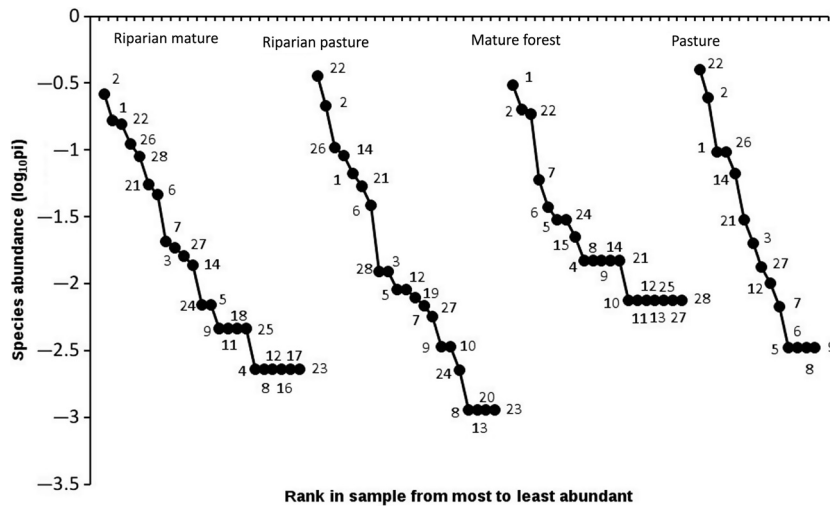


Figure 3. Rank-abundance (dominance-diversity) curves of bat species at Lacandona forest. Numbers represent the species captured. 1: *Artibeus jamaicensis*, 2: *A. lituratus*, 3: *A. phaeotis*, 4: *A. toltecus*, 5: *A. watsoni*, 6: *Carollia perspicillata*, 7: *C. sowelli*, 8: *Centurio senex*, 9: *Chiroderma salvini*, 10: *C. villosum*, 11: *Choeroniscus godmani*, 12: *Desmodus rotundus*, 13: *Diphylla ecaudata*, 14: *Glossophaga soricina*, 15: *Hylonicteris underwoodi*, 16: *Lampronyciteris brachyotis*, 17: *Lichonycteris obscura*, 18: *Lonchorhina aurita*, 19: *Mimon crenulatum*, 20: *Phyllostomus discolor*, 21: *Platyrrhinus helleri*, 22: *Sturnira lilium*, 23: *S. ludovici*, 24: *Tonatia saurophila*, 25: *Trachops cirrhosus*, 26: *Uroderma bilobatum*, 27: *Vampyressa thuyone*, and 28: *Vampyrodes caraccioli*.

associated with RM (*Lonchorhina aurita* and *Vampyrodes caraccioli*).

Response to habitat attributes

Three axes were considered in the NMDS ordination (Fig. 4, stress = 2.3). We only used scores from axes 1 and 2 for the construction of the biplot. Axis 1 of the plot separated riparian and nonriparian habitats. Riparian pasture and RM habitat are closer together, showing more similarity in species composition than MF and P, which are strongly separated (Fig. 4).

The assemblage dissimilarities represented by NMDS (Fig. 4) were significantly associated with the type of habitat and total basal area of the vegetation. Phyllostominae species such as *M. crenulatum*, *P. discolor*, *Lampronyciteris brachyotis*, and *T. saurophila* were associated with the sites with the greater basal area (Table 3). Sites with high basal area were the riparian habitats: RM with 25639.51 m²/0.1 ha and RP with 20,285.77 m²/0.1 ha. On the other hand, whereas in nonriparian habitats basal area was 8561.03 m²/0.1 ha in P and 6241.88 m²/0.1 ha in RM. Also, the variation in bat abundance was positively associated with the rainy season (Table 3).

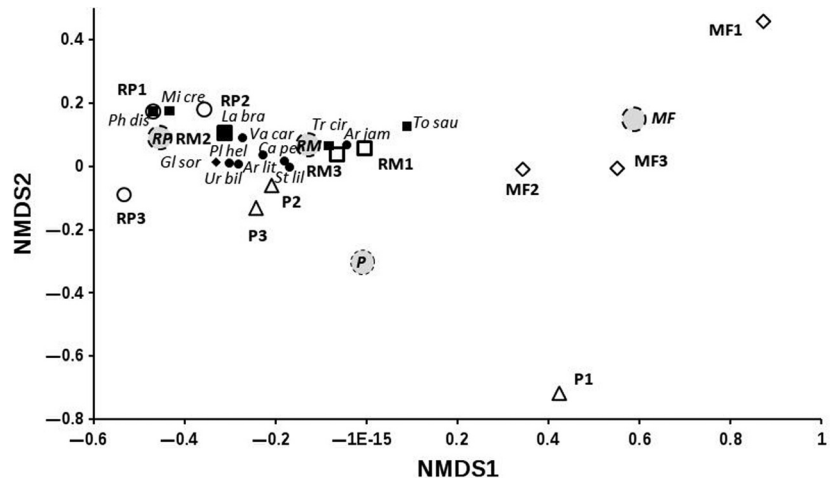


Figure 4. NMDS ordination based on species composition and bat abundance data at the Lacandona forest, where RM, riparian mature; RP, riparian pasture; MF, mature forest; P, open pasture.

Table 2. Bat taxa with a significant indicator value (IV) in the Lacandona, Chiapas, Mexico.

Taxonomic level	Taxon	Habitat	IV	P-value	Category
Subfamily	Glossophaginae	RP	0.682	0.048	I
	Stenodermatinae	RP	0.500	0.025	I
	Desmodontinae	RP	0.548	0.271	D
Genus	Glossophaga	MF	0.739	0.038	I
	Lonchorhina	RM	0.666	0.192	D
	Mimon	RP	0.666	0.170	D
	Platyrrhinus	RP	0.573	0.321	D
	Sturnira	RP	0.593	0.016	I
	Uroderma	RP	0.544	0.087	D
	Vampyroides	RM	0.761	0.212	D
	<i>C. perspicillata</i>	RP	0.559	0.215	D
Species	<i>G. soricina</i>	RP	0.739	0.036	I
	<i>L. aurita</i>	RM	0.666	0.186	D
	<i>M. crenulatum</i>	RP	0.666	0.183	D
	<i>P. helleri</i>	RP	0.573	0.337	D
	<i>S. liliium</i>	RP	0.593	0.019	I
	<i>U. bilobatum</i>	RP	0.544	0.089	D
	<i>V. caraccioli</i>	RM	0.761	0.222	D

RM, riparian mature; RP, riparian pasture; MF, mature forest; P, open pasture; D, detector taxon; I, indicator taxon. Significant P-values (<0.05) appear in bold.

Discussion

Our results suggest differences in species richness and abundance of phyllostomid bats between riparian and nonriparian habitats. This suggests that riparian corridors in agricultural landscapes allow the persistence of sensitive phyllostomines, which demonstrates the importance of maintaining different vegetation cover types to conserve bat biodiversity in areas under agricultural land use (Medina et al. 2007; Williams-Guillén and Perfecto 2010).

Bat assemblages

There was a clear association of riparian habitats with greater richness and abundance of bat species (Seaman

and Schulze 2010). The high species richness and number of individuals recorded in a riparian habitat corroborates their significance as flyways corridors within fragmented landscapes (Limpens and Kapteyn 1991). Riparian corridors offer a great diversity of chiropterophilic and chiropterochoric resources (Sánchez-Merlo et al. 2005) and provide roosting sites, commuting habitats, water, and refuge from adverse climatic conditions and predators (Estrada and Coates-Estrada 2002; Galindo-González and Sosa 2003).

We found more nomadic bats (Stenodermatinae) in anthropogenic habitats as they frequently move among forest remnants probably searching for food, which increases their capture probability (Table 1 Soriano (2000)). This suggests that Stenodermatinae but especially

Table 3. Confidence set of plausible models (95%) explaining the variation in response variables.

Response variable	Model	K	logLik	AIC_c	Δ_i	w_i
Night data analyses						
Abundance	Season	3	450.82	910.64	0.00	0.81
	Habitat + Season	6	442.39	913.58	2.93	0.19
	Habitat	5	500.12	1020.24	109.59	0.00
Site data analyses						
Species composition	Habitat	5	2.12	15.75	0.00	0.56
	$V_{\text{basal area}}$	3	4.35	17.70	1.94	0.21

K , number of estimated parameters; logLik, log-likelihood; AIC_c , sample-sized adjusted Akaike information criterion; Δ_i , Akaike differences; and w_i , Akaike weights. Response variables: species abundances, species rarified at lowest number of captures, species composition, and guild composition. Explanatory variables are the following: habitat, V_{spcomp} , using scores of NMDS axis 1; V_{height} , average height of trees at each site; $V_{\text{basal area}}$, total basal area at each site; $V_{\text{abundance}}$, total number of trees; V_{rich} , number or species.

Artibeus and *Sturnira* may facilitate forest regeneration in open pastures through seed dispersal (García-Morales et al. 2012). Nonetheless, *V. caraccioli* (Stenodermatinae) was caught exclusively in undisturbed forest, and *C. perspicillata* (Carollinae) was caught mainly in riparian pasture habitat, supporting the idea that sedentary bats seldom leave mature forests (Soriano 2000). In this context, open pastures generate impermeability, because they seem to limit the movement of frugivorous bats restraining seed-flux between fragments and their matrix process that is crucial in the recovery in old fields (Cortés-Delgado and Pérez-Torres 2011).

The most abundant species in pastures were *A. lituratus*, *C. perspicillata*, and *S. lilium*. These species are common and may be less susceptible to habitat disturbance because of their generalist diet, and their probability of arriving to modified areas is higher compared to rare species. Species such as *Uroderma bilobatum* was associated with all habitat types reflecting its capacity to consume fruits from primary and secondary forests (Gorresen and Willig 2004).

Habitat disturbance and bat guilds

Frugivores were the best represented trophic guild in all habitats. The feeding habits of the Phyllostomid frugivorous species make them highly tolerant to human-disturbed habitats, and they can easily recolonize disturbed areas (Avila-Cabadilla et al. 2009). We found a higher abundance of some frugivorous species (*A. lituratus*, *P. helleri*, *S. lilium*, and *U. bilobatum*) in RP than in the other habitats. In the case of *A. lituratus*, the guild of large fig-eating bats (genus *Artibeus*) showed greater tolerance to fragmentation than other frugivorous phyllostomids, because of its foraging strategy and capacity for flying long distances (Cosson et al. 1999; Avila-Cabadilla et al. 2012). In contrast, gleaning insectivores and carnivores (Phyllostominae) preferred

mature forest instead of human-disturbed habitats (García-Morales et al. 2013). In our study, gleaning insectivores and carnivores were absent from open pastures, perhaps as a consequence of food scarcity, shelter, and roost resources (Medellín et al. 2000; Schulze et al. 2000; Gorresen and Willig 2004; de la Peña-Cuéllar et al. 2012). Gleaning insectivores were present, however, in RP, supporting our hypothesis that these habitats offer good sites for lurking and hunting for prey (Gorresen and Willig 2004; García-Morales et al. 2013).

Bats as indicator taxa

Taxonomic level analysis demonstrates that in the study area phyllostomid bats are poor ecological indicators (Castro-Luna et al. 2007b). Contrary to other findings (Fenton et al. 1992; Medellín et al. 2000) that suggest the Phyllostominae subfamily is an ecological indicator of habitat modification because of strong association with preserved forest, our results suggest that generalist abundant species like the subfamilies Glossopaginae and Stenodermatinae may be better as ecological indicators. Frugivorous bats like Stenodermatinae, which can fly over large distances and visit different vegetation types (Estrada and Coates-Estrada 2002), could be useful detector taxa for studies aimed at evaluating different degrees of disturbance, rather than highly specialized taxa in which populations decline rapidly under environmental changes (McGeoch et al. 2002; Castro-Luna et al. 2007b).

Nectarivorous *G. soricina* and frugivorous *S. lilium* can be both considered as indicator taxa of habitat change in RP. These species can forage in areas with a simple vegetation structure but with high abundance of chiropterophilic and chiropterocoric species, in particular, *S. lilium* that usually feeds on understory shrubs and pioneer tree species (Marinho-Filho 1991).

Habitat attributes

Despite the relatively stable climatic conditions throughout the year in tropical rain forests, the availability of resources varies seasonally, and our results suggest that bats could be forced to make adjustments in their foraging strategy to cope with seasonal variations of resources availability such as food and roosts (Ramos-Pereira *et al.* 2010). Frugivores diet varies over the year and throughout their geographic ranges as the abundance and availability of fruit species change (Bonaccorso 1979). Seasonal variation could be a cause of variation in resource abundance and diversity, reproductive constraints and forest fragmentation, intensifying the severity of seasonal changes in source availability, furthermore, this variation could be a cause of shifts in foraging strategy that may not be needed in unfragmented landscapes (Klingbeil and Willig 2010).

The positive relationship between species composition and basal area of trees can be explained by the preference of some bat species for roosting in large trees. Large trees provide more potential roost sites because there is a close relationship between tree size and the number of natural cavities (Evelyn and Stiles 2003; Ortiz-Ramírez *et al.* 2006).

Conservation implications

Our results suggest that more efforts are needed to preserve riparian corridors in order to conserve Neotropical bats in human-dominated landscapes. Specifically, increasing matrix heterogeneity at larger spatial scales through the retention and protection of riparian forests is important (Akasaka *et al.* 2012). In human-dominated landscapes, riparian vegetation is highly threatened by agricultural practices, cattle concentration, extraction of firewood and timber. This suggests that conservation strategies should provide incentives for landowners to conserve and restore riparian vegetation in their properties (Harvey *et al.* 2006). Maintaining diverse populations of bats in human-dominated landscapes can benefit agricultural practices via seed dispersal and pollination services and by limiting arthropod populations (Perfecto and Vandermeer 2008; Williams-Guillén *et al.* 2008). Additionally, management programs in human-dominated landscapes should also focus on the quality of the remaining riparian vegetation as a suitable breeding habitat for bats and other animals (Bolívar-Cimé *et al.* 2013).

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Conflict of Interest

None declared.

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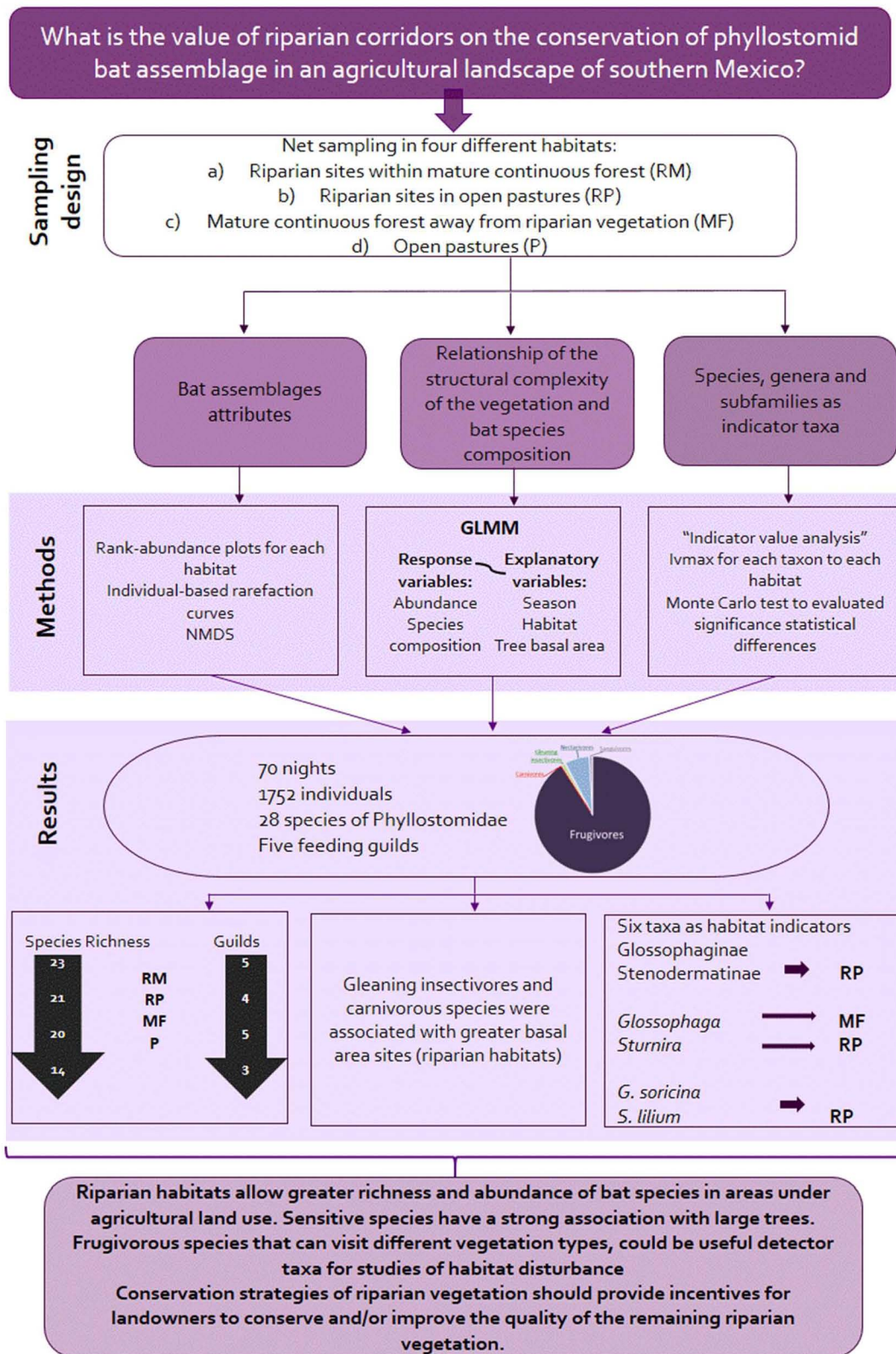


Figure 1. . Diagram of chapter I summary

1 **Sex-specific patterns of phyllostomid bats in a human dominated tropical landscape**

2

3 Erika de la Peña-Cuéllar^{*a}, Julieta Benítez-Malvido^a,

4 ^aInstituto de Investigaciones en Ecosistemas y Sustentabilidad, Universidad Nacional

5 Autónoma de México. Morelia, Michoacán, México

6 *Corresponding author: erikapc@cieco.unam.mx

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8 Preparado para **Journal of Animal Ecology**

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14 **Abstract**

15 To accurately assess the impacts of forest disturbance on native animal populations and
16 communities it is essential to understand what drives species patterns within a human-
17 dominated tropical landscape. Animal species exhibit sex-specific patterns as an adaptation
18 to their habitats however adaptability to a human-dominated landscape is commonly
19 explored without considering intraspecific differences. Biological differences of males and
20 females lead to a sexual segregation in habitat use. Here, we explored sex-specific
21 responses to the presence of riparian corridors in continuous forest and cattle pastures
22 using six common species of phyllostomid bats: *Artibeus jamaicensis*, *A. lituratus*, *Sturnira*
23 *lilium*, *Carollia perspicillata*, *Glossophaga soricina* and *Platyrrhinus helleri*. We further
24 explored the responses of bats to vegetation attributes and seasonality. We found that
25 capture rates were significantly skewed towards females, and that riparian corridors in
26 pastures were the habitat with the highest female capture rates. Females of *A. lituratus*
27 exhibit a strong relationship with habitat quality, and also *G. soricina* females is significantly
28 and positively correlated to height and high basal area of trees, supporting the idea that
29 females of both species might depend on local temporal foliage roosts that can provide
30 energetic and thermal requirements to leave the young while foraging. We found that
31 seasonality was particularly important for *A. lituratus* and *S. lilium* females, this might reside
32 on the differences in abundance or diversity of food resources between the wet and dry
33 seasons, resulting in shortened flights during the exploration for food and roost sources,
34 whereas during the dry season when food resources are often scarce, females tend to
35 increase foraging movements into resource rich secondary forest areas.

36 The results indicate a sexual bias response in bats, leading to important implications for our
37 understanding of bat adaptability to habitat modification. The high energetic demands of
38 female associated to reproduction could leads to increased foraging movements into
39 riparian corridors. The maintenance of vegetation characteristics in riparian corridors
40 associated to the presence of females can guarantee a dynamic and long-term conservation
41 of the bat community.

42

43 **Keywords:** forest disturbance, intraspecific differences, phyllostomid bats, reproduction's
44 energetic demand, riparian, sex-ratio.

45

46 INTRODUCTION

47 The configuration of tropical landscapes is highly dynamic as a consequence of
48 changes of land use and cover (Mayaux *et al.* 2005; Fagan *et al.* 2013). A common feature in
49 tropical agricultural landscapes is the relict natural vegetation along streams which can
50 persist even when being exposed to long term agricultural practices and small-scale land
51 use changes (Lundy & Montgomery 2010). Habitat disturbance can alter the spatial
52 arrangement of critical resources for animals within a given landscape, potentially resulting
53 in distinct demographic patterns (e.g. sex-ratio, abundance, age classes, etc.) among
54 habitat patches. The degree to which habitat disturbance alters the demography of animal
55 populations however, should vary as a function of the behavioral plasticity of individual
56 species (Bender, D. J., Contreras, T. A., Fahrig 1998; Nupp & Swihart 2000).

57 Males and females of the same species may differ in several aspects of their biology
58 (e.g., sexual dimorphism, different thermoregulatory strategies), which may result in sexual
59 segregations in habitat use (Lintott *et al.* 2014) and/or competition between the sexes
60 (Lemaître *et al.* 2014; Beerman *et al.* 2016; Benítez-Malvido *et al.* 2016). Sexual segregation
61 can be broadly categorized into two types: habitat segregation and social segregation
62 Habitat segregation occurs where the sexes differ in their use of the physical environment,
63 whilst social segregation is the tendency for a species to form single-sex groups.
64 (Wearmouth & Sims 2008)

65 One hypothesis postulated to explain habitat segregation suggests that inherent
66 sexual differences in reproductive strategies (i.e. reproductive energy demands, breeding
67 period and predation risk (Dietz, Kalko & Encarnaç o 2006; Nardone *et al.* 2015; Beerman *et*

68 *al.* 2016; Benítez-Malvido *et al.* 2016) result in females trade off food quality of the habitat in
69 favour of safety to their offspring (Wearmouth & Sims 2008).

70 Most studies on the effects of human-modified landscapes on bat communities have
71 focused at the species level responses, while the potential importance of intra-specific
72 differences are often ignored (Lintott *et al.* 2014). Bats are an ideal taxon in studies under
73 the sexual segregation context, since sexual dimorphism in bats is rare but sexual
74 segregation is widespread (Senior *et al.* 2005). Seasonal and maternity sexual segregation
75 has been documented in many bat species (Sgroi & Wilkins 2010; Encarnação 2012;
76 Diamond & Diamond 2014). Many female species of tropical bats roost in groups in
77 resource-rich habitats with other females and few to no males (harem groups) (Ortega &
78 Arita 1999; McCracken & Wilkinson 2000; Altringham 2011). Particularly due to reproductive
79 and parental costs, females have higher energy requirements, so they are less abundant in
80 habitats with limited food resources (Racey & Speakman 1987; Ramos Pereira, Marques &
81 Palmeirim 2010). Given that males and females of the same bat species may have seasonal
82 distributions, different reproductive strategies, and select roosts with different
83 characteristics, sexes should be considered separately whenever possible in the study of
84 bats (Broders *et al.* 2006; Safi, König & Kerth 2007; Weller, Cryan & O'Shea 2009). The
85 importance of fine-scale spatiotemporal and demographically precise data is unquestioned
86 for conservation strategies (van Toor, Jaberg & Safi 2011).

87 Because one of the major threats that bat communities face is habitat destruction,
88 understanding the consequences of human impact for their conservation is important in
89 sustainable management programs in modified landscapes (Hutson, Mickleburgh & Racey

90 2001; Russo *et al.* 2010). Information on the abundance and sex ratios of bat populations
91 throughout the year is important for understanding their ecology, critical periods of time
92 and critical habitats (Perry, Carter & Thill 2010). Therefore, obtaining sex-specific
93 information on the behavior and habitat needs of bats should be one of the primary goals in
94 conservation efforts (Weller *et al.* 2009; Perry *et al.* 2010). In order to understand the
95 mechanisms by which some bat species are affected by habitat perturbation, it is necessary
96 to determine not only if habitat disturbance affects life-history parameters, but also if
97 habitat disturbance generates changes in their social structure. In this study we assessed six
98 common species of phyllostomid bats to identify sex-specific patterns in bat communities
99 within a human-dominated landscape. Our study provides insight into the importance of
100 habitat type on sex ratio and on sex distribution throughout different tropical habitat types.
101 The objective of this study was to determine whether or not bat sex is associated to riparian
102 habitat in a human dominated landscape in Southern Mexico. We hypothesized that sex
103 specific differences in habitat use will be detected mainly because of the reproductive
104 energetic demands in females (i.e., pregnancy and lactation). At the local scale, vegetation
105 attributes may affect female abundance, because females are frequently restricted to high-
106 quality habitats for foraging (Lintott *et al.* 2014). We expected that due to the increase fruit
107 availability in riparian vegetation (Naiman *et al.* 1993), capture rate of females would be
108 higher in riparian habitats. Because one of the major threats that bat communities face is
109 habitat destruction, understanding the consequences of human impact for their
110 conservation is important in sustainable management programs in modified landscapes
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115 conservation efforts (Weller *et al.* 2009; Perry *et al.* 2010). In order to understand the
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127 foraging (Lintott *et al.* 2014). We expected that due to the increase fruit availability in
128 riparian vegetation (Naiman *et al.* 1993), capture rate of female would be higher in riparian
129 habitats.

130 **METHODS**

131 **Study area and sites**

132 The study was performed in the tropical region of Lacandona, south of the state of
133 Chiapas, Mexico. The original vegetation consists mainly on lowland tropical rain forests.

134 Deforestation of the region began in the 1970s, resulting in the reduction of old-growth
135 continuous forest from 95% in 1976 to 56% in 1996 (De Jong *et al.* 2000); only 36% of the
136 original old-growth continuous forest remains today (Carabias, Hernández & Meli 2008).
137 Currently, the main land-use practices in the region consist of cattle pastures, the
138 cultivation of maize and other crops, and patches of secondary and old-growth forests (De
139 Jong *et al.* 2000; Zermeño-Hernández *et al.* 2015). The region has a mean annual
140 temperature of 24°C; average annual rainfall is 3000 mm with June to October as the
141 wettest months (551 mm month⁻¹) and February to April as the driest months (<100 mm
142 month⁻¹) (CFE 2006; Van Breugel, Martínez-Ramos & Bongers 2006). The study was
143 performed in the tropical region of Lacandona, south of the state of Chiapas, Mexico. The
144 original vegetation consists mainly on lowland tropical rain forests. Deforestation of the
145 region began in the 1970s, resulting in the reduction of old-growth continuous forest from
146 95% in 1976 to 56% in 1996 (De Jong *et al.* 2000); only 36% of the original old-growth
147 continuous forest remains today (Carabias, Hernández & Meli 2008). Currently, the main
148 land-use practices in the region consist of cattle pastures, the cultivation of maize and other
149 crops, and patches of secondary and old-growth forests (De Jong *et al.* 2000; Zermeño-
150 Hernández *et al.* 2015). The region has a mean annual temperature of 24°C, and average
151 annual rainfall is 3000 mm with June to October as the wettest months (551 mm month) and
152 February to April as the driest months (<100 mm month) (CFE 2006; Van Breugel, Martínez-
153 Ramos & Bongers 2006).

154 Four different habitat types were selected for this study including the following: (i)
155 riparian habitat within old-growth continuous forest (RC); (ii) riparian habitat in active cattle

156 pastures (RP); (iii) old-growth continuous forest away from riparian vegetation (CF); and (iv)
157 active cattle pastures (P) away from riparian vegetation. Each habitat type was replicated
158 three times and study sites were at least 1.5 km away from each other (Fig. 1). Streams were
159 all permanent (although with variable amounts of running water throughout the year) while
160 stream width varied from two to eight meters. Study sites in pastures were located in the
161 fragmented landscape of the Marqués de Comillas municipality, on the south side of the
162 Lacantún River. Old-growth continuous forest sites were located in the 330,000 ha Montes
163 Azules Biosphere Reserve (MABR) on the north side of the river (16°04'N to 90°45' W; INE
164 2000, Fig. 1).

165 **Bat sampling**

166 Sampling of bats was conducted twice during the dry season (December to May) and
167 twice during the wet season (June to November) for three years (2011, 2012, and 2013),
168 using a standardized method of four nights per site. Five nets (12 m long x 2.6 m high) were
169 set at ground level and were opened at dusk (1800 - 1830) for four consecutive hours, which
170 corresponds to peak foraging time for most phyllostomid species (La Val 2017). The bat
171 sampling nets were arranged according to habitat type: 1) in the riparian habitats (including
172 continuous forest and pastures), nets were located parallel and/or diagonally across the
173 stream, depending on site characteristics; 2) in continuous forest nets were positioned
174 across natural flying corridors; 3) in pastures nets were located in open spaces devoid of
175 vegetation. In all sites we searched for similar physical characteristics that allow the same
176 mist net arrangement, this is one individual net and two pairs of nets in an "L" position (two
177 nets connected perpendicularly), also nets were located roughly 50 m apart. Nights with a

178 full moon or heavy rain were avoided during the bat sampling in order to prevent variation
179 in capture success associated with these conditions (Morrison 1978). Captured individuals
180 were temporarily stored in cloth bags and identified to species following Medellín, Equihua
181 & Amin (2011). For all captured bats, we determined sex by inspecting genitalia (Racey
182 1988) In females, we diagnosed pregnancy by palpation (Racey 1988), and lactation by the
183 occurrence of enlarged nipples surrounded by a hairless skin area and by extruding milk with
184 a gentle finger pressure on the nipple base. Sex ratio was calculated as the ratio of males to
185 females in each area (Russo 2010).

186 **Vegetation structure**

187 Vegetation structure of each sampling site was carried out once to determine the
188 influence of vegetation structure on sex abundances; for each habitat we recorded all trees
189 ≥ 10 cm dbh within a 0.1 ha (20 × 50 m) plot (Gentry 1982). Transects were located along
190 streams in riparian continuous forest and riparian pasture habitats and randomly located in
191 continuous forest and pasture habitats. We considered the following vegetation attributes:
192 number of individuals (NI), number of species (NS), total basal area (BA), and tree height
193 (H). We performed nonmetric multidimensional scaling analyses (NMDS) to obtain a
194 continuous synthetic variable summarizing dissimilarity patterns among vegetation
195 structures. The scores of axis 1 were used as an explanatory variable for evaluating
196 differential sex response to vegetation structure.

197 **Data Analyses**

198 Data analyses were performed considering only the six most abundant bat species:
199 *Artibeus jamaicensis*, *Artibeus lituratus*, *Sturnira lilium*, *Carollia perspicillata*, *Glossophaga*

200 *soricina* and *Platyrrhinus helleri*. Firstly, we compared capture rates for each sex among
201 habitats by using a standardized capture rate (captures/1000 mist net hour) that
202 compensated for differences in number of nets, size of nets and length of times nets were
203 open (Perry *et al.* 2010). We compared capture rates using analysis of variance on ranks
204 (ANOVA). Secondly, we fitted a general linear mixed model (GLMM) with binomial error
205 distribution and logit link to determine the influence of vegetation traits on male and
206 female abundance. In order to assess the relative effects of the explanatory variables on
207 males in comparison to females, the model was run with the proportion of females to males
208 per night (n = 70) as the response variable, with "site" as a random factor (Lintott *et al.*
209 2014). We considered the following explanatory variables: habitat type; Vba, total tree basal
210 area; Vab, total number of trees; Vrich , number of trees species; Vh , average height of
211 trees; Vspcomp , scores of NMDS axis 1. For each model, we calculated Akaike's information
212 criterion (AICc) corrected for small sample size following Burnham and Anderson (2002).
213 This approach allowed us to select the most plausible models from a set of models. Only
214 models with an AICc lower than the null model were considered to define the 95%
215 confidence set of plausible models. All analyses were performed with R v. 1.0.136 (R Core
216 Team 2016).

217 **RESULTS**

218 **Proportion of sexes**

219 Over 70 nights, 34 during the dry season and 36 during the rainy season, we captured
220 a total of 1752 individuals belonging to 28 species of the Phyllostomidae family (de la Peña-
221 Cuellar, et al. 2015). For the analyses however, we considered only 1365 individuals (78 % of

222 all captures) belonging to the six most abundant species (*Artibeus jamaicensis* (11%),
223 *Artibeus lituratus* (23%), *Sturnira lilium* (30%), *Carollia perspicillata* (3%), *Glossophaga soricina*
224 (6%) and *Platyrrhinus helleri* (5%), which were also present in all habitats. Overall, 43 % of
225 the sampled individuals from the six bat species considered were males, while 57 % were
226 females. The capture rates were significantly skewed towards females ($F = 5.282$, $P < 0.001$)
227 (Fig. 2). Riparian pasture, was the habitat with the highest female capture rates (433 indiv,
228 2.14 capture rate), followed by riparian continuous forest (152, 0.75) and pasture (141, 0.69)
229 and continuous forest was the habitat with the lowest female capture rates (50, 0.28) (Fig.
230 2).

231 **Vegetation attributes**

232 The vegetation of riparian habitats (RM y RP) showed a higher structural complexity
233 than M and P. Despite of the fact that RM contained more trees than RP, they showed
234 similar average canopy height (13.63 m and 13.12 m in RM and RP, respectively), whereas in
235 MF tree height was 10.6 m and in OP 9.7 m, the lowest recorded . On the other hand,
236 whereas in non-riparian old-growth habitat basal area was 8561.03 m²/0.1ha and, 6241.88
237 m²/0.1 ha in pasture, riparian old-growth forest accounted 25,639.51 m²/0.1 ha and riparian
238 pasture 20,285.77 m²/0.1ha (Table 1).

239 **Sex ratio and habitat traits**

240 Seasonality and habitat type were the best explanatory variables describing the
241 presence of females for *A. jamaicensis*; while for of *S. lilium*, vegetation structure and
242 seasonality appeared as the most important variables explaining the presence of females. In

243 the case of *G. soricina* we found that the presence of females was positively related to
244 vegetation structure including total basal area and average tree height (Table 2).

245 **DISCUSSION**

246 Overall, the results showed differences in the susceptibility of males and females to
247 cope with habitat disturbance. The sex ratio was skewed towards females, which is an
248 expected pattern for the harem species (*A. jamaicensis* and *A. lituratus*) (de Mello &
249 Fernandez 2000). Furthermore, the results provide insights into the relative importance of
250 different habitats for a specific sex. Except for Mature Forest, overall capture rates of
251 females were greater than those of males; this pattern might imply that females of some
252 bat species may increase their activity (e. g., foraging and/or drinking) during lactation when
253 energy and water requirements increase (Barclay 1989; Adams & Hayes 2008).

254 Unlike males, females need to return at night to the maternity roost to nurse their
255 young which probably limits female foraging areas and restricts foraging females to the
256 profitable areas located in the proximity of their roosts (van Toor *et al.* 2011). In contrast,
257 males may have greater survival than females (Keen & Hitchcock 1980; Kurta & Matson
258 1980), because males are not subject to the additional energetic pressures associated with
259 pregnancy and lactation. We found that capture rates in pastures were predominately
260 towards females. The prevalence of females may be related to the high energy demanding
261 of flying in cluttered habitat than flying in more open areas (Grodzinski *et al.* 2009), due to
262 the elevated energetic costs associated with higher vegetation complexity might represent
263 a particularly high burden for females during pregnancy and while nursing, males otherwise

264 prefer sites with greater vegetation cover possibly related to roost defense (Henry & Kalko
265 2007; Rocha *et al.* 2017).

266

267 **Sex ratio and habitat quality**

268 We did not find significant differences in the sex ratio for *A. jamaicensis*, *C.*
269 *perspicillata* and *P. helleri* suggesting that males and females use habitats similarly. In
270 contrast, according to our hypothesis, we found that females of *A. lituratus* exhibit a strong
271 relationship with habitat quality. *Artibeus lituratus* is the largest species of
272 Stenodermatinae, and as in other mammals, larger species could be more sensitive to
273 human habitat perturbation (Lande 1987). Nevertheless, the high number of females reflect
274 selective foraging in a resource rich environment and higher roost availability in forested
275 habitats. Even though *Artibeus* species may cross inhospitable matrix areas in fragmented
276 landscapes, covering different vegetation types and flying distances ranging from 5 to 10
277 km (Galindo-González 1998), females of *A. lituratus* might locally depend on temporal
278 foliage roosts, and prefer larger trees within the dense and shaded vegetation of mature
279 forest that can provide energetic and thermal requirements to leave the young while
280 foraging (Evelyn & Stiles 2003; Bianconi, Mikich & Pedro 2006; Arnone *et al.* 2016). For the
281 same study area *A. lituratus* has shown to select roosts with high humidity located in trees
282 with the greatest basal areas (Ortiz-Ramírez *et al.* 2006).

283

284 **Sex ratio and seasonality**

285 The importance of seasonality for *A. lituratus* and *S. lilium* females might reside on the
286 differences in abundance or diversity of food resources between the wet and dry seasons.
287 Seasonal fluctuations in rainfall influence phenology of fruiting plants and affects
288 productivity in tropical forests (Janzen 1967). In tropical regions, usually the rainy season
289 corresponds to greatest fruit abundance and the dry season with fewer food resources
290 (Smythe 1986). Food abundance due to seasonality can result in shortened flights during the
291 exploration for food and roost sources, whereas during the dry season when food resources
292 are often scarce, females tend to increase foraging movements into resource rich secondary
293 forest areas to compensate for the elevated energetic burden associated with pregnancy and
294 milk production (Rocha et al. 2017). This increases the importance of vegetation
295 characteristics associated to the reproduction's energetic demand (pregnancy, lactation,
296 roost defense) (Charles-Dominique 1991; Klingbeil & Willig 2010).

297 Furthermore, some studies have argued that Glossophaginae are resilient to land
298 use change (Willig *et al.* 2007). Our data indicate that the presence of *G. soricina* females is
299 significantly and positively correlated to vegetation attributes such as tree height and basal
300 area, supporting the idea that the species is an habitat specialist (Aguiar, Bernard &
301 Machado 2014). The association between females of *G. soricina* with large trees could be due
302 to the fact that large trees can provide a greater availability of roosts and foraging
303 opportunities (Evelyn & Stiles 2003; Ortiz-Ramírez *et al.* 2006). There is evidence showing
304 food differentiation between the sexes for individuals of *G. soricina* in the same area where
305 females preferred a food item (plant) different from males (Alvarez & Sánchez-Casas 1999).
306 Supporting the idea that during pregnancy and breeding season females feed on the

307 nearest available resource and males fly larger distances to other feeding areas (Sosa, De
308 Ascencao & Soriano 1996). This foraging behavior might reduce the activity of *G. soricina* to
309 habitats with high resource availability which limits their activity to small home ranges and
310 increases the susceptibility to local extinction (Arita & Santos-del-Prado 1999).

311

312 **Implications for conservation and future research**

313 Our results show that in addition to trait filtering, responses of Neotropical bat communities
314 associated to riparian habitat within a human dominated matrix are sex-specific. The
315 understanding of changes in sex ratio may help to a better understanding of the pervasive
316 consequences of forest loss, fragmentation, and habitat deterioration. Sex-specific studies
317 are critical to habitat managers because practices used to promote habitat conditions
318 favorable for females may not be equally beneficial to males and the opposite (Perry, Thill &
319 Carter 2007). Our results suggests that the structural complexity of the vegetation and large
320 trees influence the presence of females of *G. soricina*. In these sense management efforts
321 should promote a riparian vegetation cover with large basal area of trees that has shown to
322 be important for the conservation of the entire bat community. Even though our analysis
323 was restricted to six common bat species, we assumed that the maintenance of habitats
324 that favor habitat generalist species should also benefit bat species that are more habitat
325 specialized (Istvanko, Risch & Rolland 2016; Rocha *et al.* 2017). Therefore, we encourage the
326 inclusion of species of sensitive trophic guilds (gleaning insectivores and carnivores) and
327 particularly roosting habits emphasizing adequate protection of females in conservation
328 plans. Conservation actions towards female protection are particularly important due to

329 their high level of parental investment associated with rearing pups (Istvanko *et al.* 2016).
330 The management decisions that do not guarantee the protection of the habitat frequently
331 used by female bats would likely have detrimental long term consequences on their
332 reproduction, jeopardizing the dynamics and long-term persistence (van Toor *et al.* 2011;
333 Frank *et al.* 2016).

334 In human dominated landscapes, pastures cannot sustain the same species
335 richness of bats as old-growth forest and riparian vegetation (de la Peña-Cuéllar *et al.*
336 2015a). Moreover, pastures seem to have a large effect on bat population dynamics, which
337 cause detrimental effects on the ecosystem services provided by bats and in the recovery of
338 degraded areas. Additional research is needed to directly examine the effects of pregnancy
339 and lactation on habitat selection by bats. We encourage radio-tracking studies that can
340 show specific habitat use of males and females (roost and foraging areas) and if there exists
341 temporally segregation between sexes; this could provide information about how different
342 habitats have an impact in the demography of bat populations.

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352

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795

796 **Table 1.** Tree community attributes in four different habitat types in a rain forest, Chiapas,
 797 Mexico. The values are data of ten 50 × 2 m transects (0.1 ha) in each habitat. Only trees
 798 with diameter at breast height > 10 cm were measured.

799

Vegetation attributes	Riparian	Riparian	Old-growth	Pasture
	vegetation in	vegetation in	forest	
	old-growth	pasture		
	forest			

Number of individuals	182	101	55	37
Number of species	46	46	29	17
Total basal AREA (m²ha⁻¹)	25639.51	20285.77	8561.030	6241.88
Tree height (m)	13.63	13.12	10.69	6.6

800

801 **Table 2.** Results of Akaike information criterion (AIC)-based model selection, assessing the
 802 association between the proportion of bat females and the explanatory variables including
 803 season and vegetation attributes. Confidence set of plausible models (95 %) explaining the
 804 variation in response variables. Only highest ranked models explaining gender variation for
 805 each species are shown.

806

<i>BAT SPECIES</i>	<i>FACTOR</i>	<i>K</i>	<i>logLik</i>	<i>AICc</i>	<i>Δi</i>	<i>wi</i>
<i>Artibeus lituratus</i>	Season	3	-72.49	151.35	0.00	1
	Habitat	3	-89.39	185.15	33.80	0
<i>Sturnira lilium</i>	Vegetation structure	3	-86.88	180.12	0.00	0.88
	Season	3	-89.03	184.42	4.30	0.98
<i>Glossophaga soricina</i>	Total tree basal area	3	-26.45	59.27	0.00	0.63
	Average height of trees	3	-28.23	62.82	3.55	0.74

807

808 *K*, number of estimated parameters; *logLik*, log-likelihood; *AICc*, sampled-sized adjusted
 809 Akaike information criterion; *Δi*, Akaike differences; and *wi*, Akaike weights. Response
 810 variable: proportion of females to males per night. Explanatory variables: Habitat, Season
 811 (rainy, dry), Vegetation structure (using scores of NMDS axis), Total basal area at each site,
 812 Average height of trees at each site.

813

814 Figure 1. Study area and bat sampling sites at the Lacandona rain forest, Chiapas, Mexico.

815 The map shows the distribution of the habitat types used to sample bat species: riparian

816 vegetation in mature forest (RM), riparian vegetation in pasture (RP), mature forest (MF),

817 Pasture (P).

818

819 Figure 2. Capture rate (bats/mist net hour) of males and females of the six species across

820 different habitat types at the Lacandona rain forest in the dry and rainy seasons.

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822 Figure 3. Diagram of chapter II summary.

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824 Figure 1

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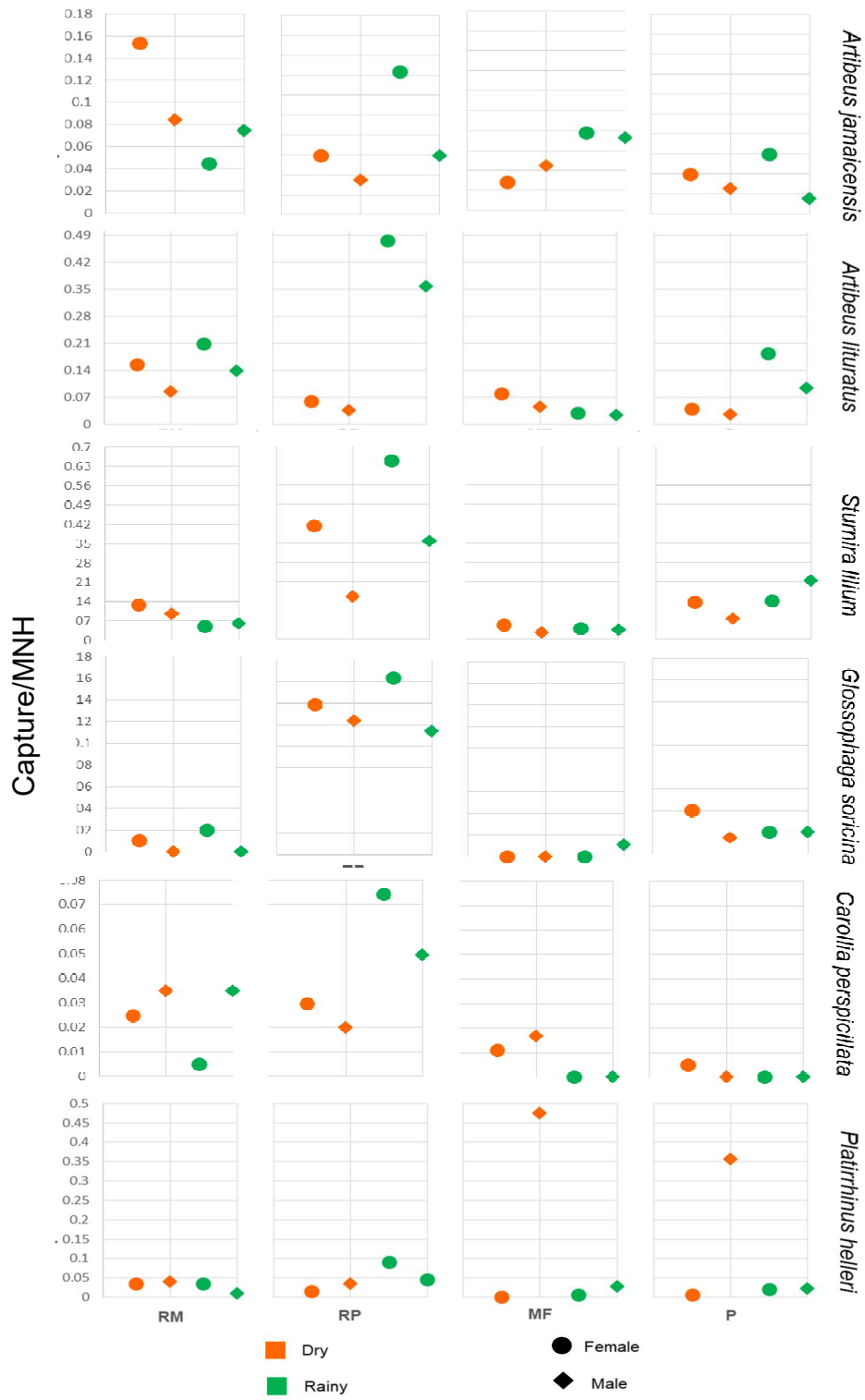
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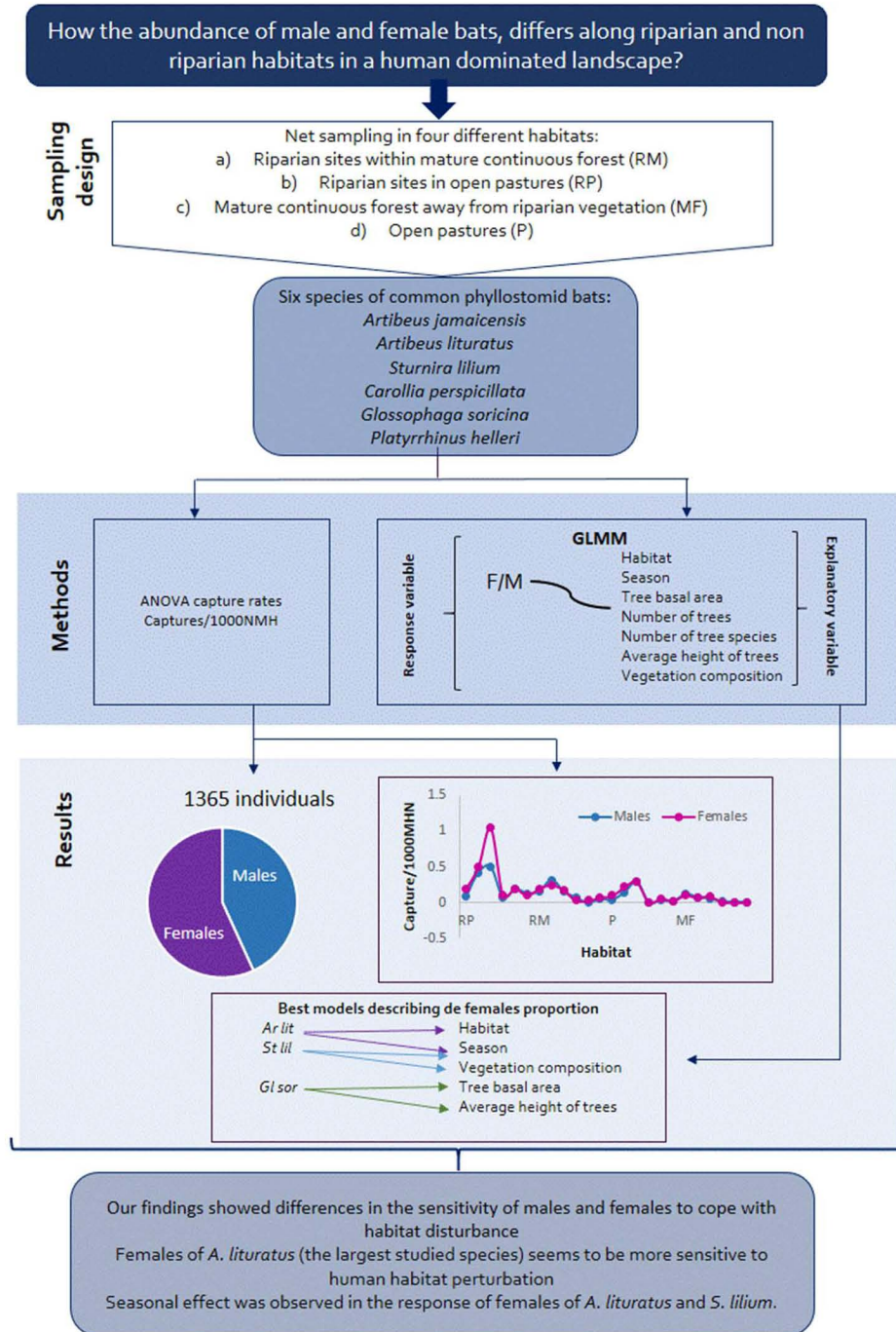
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843 Figure 2

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23 **Bat functional diversity and trait filtering in a tropical agricultural landscape**

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25 Erika de la Peña-Cuéllar¹, Gabriela Rodríguez-Barrera², John D. Altringham², Julieta Benítez-

26 Malvido¹

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28 ¹Instituto de Investigaciones en Ecosistema y Sustentabilidad, Universidad Nacional

29 Autónoma de México, Morelia, Michoacán, México

30 ²School of Biology, University of Leeds, Leeds, United Kingdom

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32 Corresponding author: erikapc@cieco.unam.mx

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34 Preparado para: **Functional Ecology**

35

36 **Abstract**

37 Land use change and deforestation have negative implications for Neotropical bat species,
38 populations and communities. Compared to taxonomic species richness the use of traits to
39 explore functional diversity can provide a broader spectrum of ecosystem interactions.
40 Based on bat species functional traits we analyzed bat responses to habitat modification
41 within an agricultural landscape in the south of Mexico. For three years we recorded bat
42 species within mature continuous forest with and without riparian vegetation and within
43 open pastures with and without riparian vegetation. We measured the following traits in
44 bats: skull form, forearm length and frequency of echolocation calls. Furthermore, we also
45 determined functional evenness, divergence and specialization of the bat community.
46 Overall, results show that relative to mature forest habitats, bats in pastures had smaller
47 skulls, shorter forearms and species echolocated with higher frequency calls. Furthermore,
48 bats in mature forests had higher functional evenness, divergence and specialization, with
49 mature forest habitats providing refuge for species with the more extreme traits. Finally,
50 riparian vegetation presented greater species richness, abundance and variety of bat
51 functional traits. Our results support the suggestion that it is essential to include large
52 mature forest tracks in tropical agricultural landscapes in order to conserve highly specialist
53 bat species that are absent from disturbed habitats.

54 INTRODUCTION

55 Major land use changes as a consequence of agricultural expansion can have serious
56 consequences for global biodiversity, through habitat loss and fragmentation (Laurance &
57 Bierregaard 1997; Lindenmayer & Fischer 2006;). Furthermore, habitat loss and
58 fragmentation are highly linked with local extinction rates (Laurance 1991; Turner 1996).
59 Tropical agricultural landscapes usually contain forest fragments of native vegetation,
60 active pasture lands and old-fields, different crops, and strips of riparian vegetation, among
61 other land-uses (Warkentin *et al.* 1995). The maintenance of forest fragments and
62 biodiversity-friendly agroforestry plantations in agricultural landscapes are management
63 practices that can support local biodiversity, help to maintain viable populations of many
64 species and increase resilience to climate change (Vandermeer & Perfecto 2007). A similar
65 effect has been observed when maintaining strips of riparian vegetation in the agricultural
66 landscapes. Landowners frequently maintain riparian vegetation due to the ecological
67 services they provide such as erosion and flood controllers, and as filters of sediments and
68 contaminants. This riparian vegetation remnants are known to be highly dynamic, acting as
69 corridors for animal movement and dispersal as well as for providing food and shelter, with
70 positive impacts to landscape biodiversity (Naiman *et al.* 1993; Lees & Peres 2007; Gillies &
71 St. Claire 2008; Grey *et al.* 2014).

72 In the Neotropics many studies have suggested that bat community abundance and
73 richness are directly affected by land use change (Fenton *et al.* 1992; Medellín *et al.* 2000;
74 Estrada & Coates-Estrada 2002; Gorresen & Willig 2004; Schulze *et al.* 2004; de la Peña-
75 Cuéllar *et al.* 2012). Bats have been suggested as a good model group for the study of

76 functional traits because of their varied trophic guilds and of their important ecological roles
77 as pest controllers, seed dispersers and pollinators (Medellín *et al.* 2000). Most studies on
78 the impacts of human-modified landscapes on bat communities have focused on species
79 richness and abundance (Henle *et al.* 2004), however, the inclusion of trait and functional
80 diversity variables have appeared as important tools to better understand the interactions
81 between animals and their habitats (Violle *et al.* 2007; Duchamp & Swihart 2008; Meyer *et*
82 *al.* 2008; Cadotte, Carscadden & Mirotchnick 2011; Farneda *et al.* 2015; McGill & Kalko 2015;
83 Wordley *et al.* 2017).

84 In addition, functional diversity enables us to identify the traits being filtered in a
85 particular habitat, compared to simply identifying which species are able to persist (Meyer &
86 Kalko 2008; Hanspach *et al.* 2012; Edwards *et al.* 2014; Farneda *et al.* 2015). The trait filtering
87 concept suggests that habitat characteristics and environmental factors affect biodiversity
88 patterns by acting as a filter that favors certain traits over others (Villéger *et al.* 2008;
89 Lebrija-trejos *et al.* 2010; Mouillot *et al.* 2013). Using bats as models for the study of
90 functional traits provides a good understanding of habitat interactions and disturbance
91 effects (Duchamp & Swihart 2008; Flynn *et al.* 2009; Farneda *et al.* 2015; Wordley *et al.*
92 2017). Furthermore, utilizing ecologically realistic models like functional diversity analysis
93 could provide a better understanding of how species coexist and would facilitate decision
94 making for conservation purposes (Mayfield *et al.* 2010; Cadotte *et al.* 2011).

95 It is imperative to understand how species react to habitat disturbance and to
96 comprehend the relationships between these interactions and habitat characteristics so we
97 can implement effective conservation strategies (Bernard & Fenton 2002; Bhagwat *et al.*

98 2008; Cardoso et al. 2011; Fahrig *et al.* 2011; Mouillot *et al.* 2013). Based on bat functional
99 traits, we used the metrics to assess bat assemblage responses among habitats in an
100 agricultural tropical landscape of southern Mexico. This approach could provide important
101 tools for management decisions on this highly biodiverse region in need of protection
102 (Edwards et al. 2013; Farneda *et al.* 2015; Wordley *et al.* 2017). The aim of this study was to
103 quantify bat functional diversity and trait filtering in riparian and non-riparian habitat within
104 an agricultural-pasture landscape of Chiapas, Mexico, with a focus on understanding the
105 specific effects that habitats have on certain traits.

106 **METHODS**

107 The fieldwork was conducted in the region of Marqués de Comillas south of the
108 Montes Azules Biosphere Reserve (MABR) (16°04' N; 90°45'W approximately) in the
109 Lacandona tropical rain forest in the State of Chiapas, Mexico. The original vegetation of
110 the area consists of lowland tropical rain forest, with mean annual temperature of 24°C and
111 average annual rainfall of 3000 mm (Comisión Federal de Electricidad 2006; van Breugel *et*
112 *al.* 2006). In Mexico, the Lacandon Forest is the largest remnant of tropical rain forest,
113 constituting the most diverse ecosystem and sustaining the only Mexican populations of
114 many species (Medellin 1994). Land use change in the region began in the 1970s resulting in
115 large scale deforestation and reducing the total area of mature forest from 95% land cover
116 in 1976 to 56% in 1996 (Jong & Reid 1998). The main land use practices are agricultural fields
117 of maize and other crops, cattle pastures, and patches of secondary and old-growth forest
118 (De Jong *et al.* 2000). Mature continuous forest sites were located in the 330,000 ha MABR
119 on the north side of the Lacantún River (INE 2000).

120 Site selection

121 Twelve sites were permanently established consisting in: three riparian sites within
122 mature continuous forest (RF), three riparian sites in pastures (RP), three mature continuous
123 forest (F), and three open pastures away from riparian vegetation (P). Sites were at least
124 1.5 km away from each other. Streams were permanent (although with variable water flow
125 through the year); stream width varied from 2 to 8 m. Sites in pastures were located in the
126 Marqués de Comillas municipality, on the south side of the Lacantún River. Mature
127 continuous forest sites were located on the north side of the river, in the Montes Azules
128 Biosphere Reserve (MABR) (330,000 ha; 16°04'N-90°45'W; Fig. 1).

129 Bat sampling

130 For three consecutive years (2011-2013) bat sampling was performed twice in the
131 rainy and twice in the dry season (December to May – dry season and June to November –
132 wet season) (Breugel *et al.* 2006, CFE 2006). Eighteen nights were sampled at riparian
133 forest, riparian pastures, and pasture habitats, and 17 nights at the continuous forest
134 habitat; using the same method. Five mist nets (12 m long, 2.6 m high) were set at ground
135 level and were opened at dusk for four hours, which corresponds to the peak foraging time
136 for most bat species (La Val. 1970). The bat sampling nets were arranged according to
137 habitat type: 1) in the riparian habitats (including continuous forest and pastures), nets were
138 located parallel and/or diagonally across the stream, depending on site characteristics; 2) in
139 continuous forest nets were positioned across natural flying corridors; 3) in pastures nets
140 were located in open spaces devoid of vegetation. In all sites we searched for similar
141 physical characteristics that allow the same mist net arrangement, this is one individual net

142 and two pairs of nets in an “L” position (two nets connected perpendicularly), also nets were
143 located roughly 50 m apart. Sampling was not performed on nights with a full moon or
144 heavy rain (Morrison 1978). Captured bats were temporarily stored in individual cloth bags
145 and identified to species following Medellín *et al.* (2011).

146 Our study included all the families represented in captures (Emballonuridae,
147 Phyllostomidae, Mormoopidae and Vespertilionidae). However only Phyllostomidae and
148 Mormoopidae have numerous understory species that are easily caught with mist nets
149 (Moreno & Halffter 2000). Families of aerial insectivores like Emballonuridae, Molossidae,
150 and Vespertilionidae tend to forage over the canopy so can be underestimated with mist
151 netting and require a complementary sampling method (e.g. canopy mist nets or acoustic
152 bat monitoring) to fully understand the impact of land use change on the functional
153 diversity of bat communities.

154 Data analysis

155 Data including ten functional traits (Table 1) were obtained from the literature
156 (references in Table S1) for all the 22 species captured in all sites together with the forearm
157 length measurements of actual captured individuals. A total of 11 traits were obtained from
158 our data and from the literature, all species were listed with their mean trait values (Table
159 4). All traits are considered to be ecologically relevant and have been used for functional
160 analysis of bats in several studies (Barlow 1997; Duchamp & Swihart 2008; Meyer *et al.*
161 2008; Hanspach *et al.* 2012; Farneda *et al.* 2015; Wordley *et al.* 2017). The traits are related
162 to size: forearm length (FA); wing morphology; aspect ratio (AR): is a measure of wing
163 shape, calculated as the length from tip to tip (span), divided by the width, front to back

164 (chord) (Altringham 2011); and relative wing loading (RWL); bite force: greatest length of
165 skull (GLS), breadth across molars (BAM) and zygomatic breadth (ZYG); echolocation:
166 frequency of maximum energy (FmaxE) and type of echolocation call (Call Type), pulses of
167 echolocation are described as frequency modulated (FM), constant frequency (CF), quasi-
168 constant frequency (QCF), low constant frequency (LCF), and low frequency modulated, but
169 many, perhaps most, species of bat use combinations of these (Jung, Kalko & Von
170 Helversen 2007; Altringham 2011); trophic level: diet (D); and foraging: space preference
171 (SP): bats foraging in “narrow space” exploit animal prey positioned on or near background
172 objects like vegetation or the ground, or they forage for fruits and flowers which are part of
173 the background. Bats foraging in “edge space” exploit the resource of airborne prey found
174 near the edges of buildings and vegetation, in gaps, or above the ground and water
175 surfaces, and catch their prey in the “aerial” mode (Denzinger & Schnitzler 2013); and
176 foraging preference (FP): “passive gleaning” mode is used by bats that have no chance to
177 find food echo in the dense clutter echoes from the background, so they have to rely on
178 other senses and use food generated cues to find it; on the other hand in the “active
179 gleaning” mode bats are still able to find food, which is either part of the substrate or
180 positioned on substrate, only by echolocation even under challenging clutter conditions.
181 Bats that use the “flutter detecting” mode recognize insect echoes from their long CF-FM
182 signals, which are modulated in the rhythm of the beating wings, and discriminate them
183 from unmodulated clutter echoes; “trawling” foragers fly at low height above water
184 (Denzinger & Schnitzler 2013).

185 Functional metrics

186 Functional metrics based on Villéger *et al.* (2008) and Mouillot *et al.* (2013) were
187 calculated. Four components of functional diversity were used: functional richness (FRic),
188 functional evenness (FEve), functional divergence (FDiv) and functional specialization
189 (FSpe). These components incorporate species abundances and a measure of position in
190 functional-trait space to describe how much space is filled within a created trait-space using
191 Principal Coordinates Analysis (PCoA), based on the standardization of trait values, so that
192 each trait gets the same weight and no single trait over influences the results. First Gower-
193 distance and PCoA were estimated using the “cluster” package in R (Maechler et al, 2015).
194 Gower-distance calculates functional distances between species and is recommended when
195 using both categorical and continuous traits (Villéger *et al.* 2008). Principal Coordinates
196 Analysis (PCoA), is used to reduce variables to the least correlated ones while still explaining
197 most of the variance and plotting them in a Euclidean multidimensional functional space.
198 Once the functional trait-space is obtained plotting the distances using PCoA, diversity
199 indices were calculated using the “ape” and “geometry” packages in R. Functional richness
200 is a measure of the amount of functional space filled by the species in the community based
201 on the convex hull volume (obtained from PCoA). Functional evenness measures the
202 changes in abundance distributions within the obtained functional space, based on a
203 minimum spanning tree (MST). Functional divergence measures the proportion of
204 abundances of species with the most extreme trait and functional specialization measures
205 abundance of generalist or specialist species increase within the functional space, generalist
206 species with the least extreme traits tend to be in the center and if they have a higher
207 abundance then functional specialization will be lower (Cornwell, Schiwilk & Ackerly 2006;

208 Villéger *et al.* 2008; Mouillot *et al.* 2013). All metrics were calculated using functions
209 provided by Villéger *et al.* (2008). Metric results obtained for functional richness, evenness
210 and specialization were then compared for each habitat using generalized linear models in
211 R. Functional divergence was compared using quasi-generalized linear models in R (Bates *et*
212 *al.* 2014). All analyses were compared by FDR adjusted pairwise comparisons with 'lsmeans'
213 package in R (Lenth 2014). Additional measures using sampled nights in each habitat could
214 not be run because in some cases there were not enough species (less than 2) per night in
215 some cases.

216 Trait analysis

217 We obtained community weighted means (CWM) of each continuous trait (forearm,
218 aspect ratio, relative wing loading, greatest length of skull, breadth across molars,
219 zygomatic breadth, Fmax) for each habitat using the "FD" package in R (Laliberté *et al.*
220 2015). The data were used to evaluate differences between each habitat to provide
221 evidence for habitat trait filtering (Cornwell *et al.* 2006; Villéger *et al.* 2010). Traits were
222 tested for collinearity. For instance, zygomatic breadth was correlated to breadth across
223 upper molars (Kendall correlation: $\tau < 0.80$) and greatest length of skull (Kendall correlation:
224 $\tau < 0.72$) so it was removed from further analysis. After zygomatic breadth was removed,
225 functional traits were no longer correlated (Kendall correlation: $\tau < 0.60$). In total 18
226 analyses were carried out. Differences in habitat types were analyzed using linear models in
227 R (Bates *et al.* 2014) for mean forearm length, mean aspect ratio, mean relative wing
228 loading, mean greatest length of skull, mean breadth across upper molars, mean FmaxE,
229 abundance of bats that use FM multiharmonic (Fmmulti) bat calls, abundance of frugivorous

230 individuals, abundance of narrow-space preference individuals and abundance of
231 passive/active-gleaning foraging individuals. Habitat differences in relation to the
232 abundance of individuals with different insectivore, nectarivorous, sanguivorous and
233 omnivore individuals; abundance of individuals that have an edge-space space preference
234 and abundance of individuals that are aerial, flutter detecting and trawling foragers were
235 analyzed using quasi-generalized linear models due to data over dispersion. All analyses
236 were adjusted by false discovery rate (FDR) pairwise comparisons using the “lsmeans”
237 package in R (Lenth 2014). This controls the number of false positives within the analysis by
238 making p-values larger, limiting the number of false positives in multiple comparisons.

239

240 **RESULTS**

241 Bat sampling

242 Overall, a total of 1,688 individuals were captured including 119 in mature forest
243 habitat, 289 in pasture habitat, 367 in riparian mature forest habitat, and 913 in riparian
244 vegetation pasture habitat (Table 2). A total of 22 species: 14 Phyllostomidae species, four
245 Mormoopidae, two Emballonuridae and two Vespertilionidae were captured. Frugivore
246 species accounted for 89 % of all captures and they were the second most dominant feeding
247 guild (32% of all species). The insectivore guild had most species (36 % of all species) but
248 accounted for only 3% of all captures. Nectarivores made up 7 % of the captures.

249 Functional diversity metrics

250 The principal coordinate analysis (PCoA) on species traits captured 71% of the
251 distance table variance (Fig. 2). The closest species in space are the most similar. Dimension

252 1 is positively correlated with *A. jamaicensis*, *A. lituratus*, *C. perspicillata*, *C. villosum*, *P.*
253 *helleri*, *S. lilium*, *U. bilobatum*, *T. cirrhosus*, *C. godmani*, *G. soricina*, *L. brachyotis*, *D. rotundus*;
254 whereas dimension 2 is positively correlated with *A. jamaicensis*, *A. lituratus*, *M. crenulatum*,
255 *T. cirrhosis*, *T. saurophila*, *M. megalophyla*, *P. parnelli*, *S. bilineata* and *D. rotundus*.

256 Functional specialization showed high significant difference for continuous forest
257 ($F_{3,8} = 5.859$, $P=0.020$). In contrast, functional richness ($F_{3,8} = 0.764$, $P=0.545$), evenness ($F_{3,8}$
258 $= 1.939$, $P=0.2019$) and divergence ($F_{3,8} = 1.460$, $P=0.2966$) showed no significant difference
259 among habitats. FEve and FSpe are higher in forest habitats while FRic is higher in riparian
260 habitats. There is a high FDiv in forest and riparian habitats but a low FDiv in pasture habitat
261 (Fig 3, Table 3). FSpe was higher for mature forest (F) than for all pasture habitats.
262 (Supporting information Table S.1).

263 Functional traits

264 Functional traits were analyzed individually in order to show how each trait was filtered in
265 each habitat. Significant results were found in community-weighted mean (called mean
266 from here on), forearm length ($F_{3,8}=5.87$, $P < 0.02$), mean relative wing loading ($F_{3,8}=7.09$, $P <$
267 0.01), mean greatest length of skull ($F_{3,8}=6.57$, $P < 0.01$), mean frequency of maximum
268 energy ($F_{3,8}=8.52$, $P < 0.01$), number of FM multi-harmonic individuals ($F_{3,8}=25.94$, $P <$
269 0.001), frugivores ($F_{3,8}=26.07$, $P < 0.001$), nectarivores ($F_{3,8}=7.85$, $P < 0.01$), narrow-space
270 preferences ($F_{3,8}=23.22$, $P < 0.001$) and passive/active gleaning foragers ($F_{3,8}=27.38$, $P <$
271 0.001). Mean forearm length was significantly higher in all forest habitats. Mean relative
272 wing loading was higher in non-forest habitats and increased significantly in the pasture
273 non-riparian (P). Greatest length of skull significantly increased in the forest habitat (F)

274 while frequency of maximum energy decreased significantly. Abundance of: individuals that
275 use FM multiharmonics, nectarivores, and narrow-space preference individuals were
276 significantly low in all but riparian pasture habitats. The abundances of frugivores and
277 passive/active gleaning forager individuals were higher in riparian habitats but only
278 significantly higher than the forest habitat (Fig 4, Supporting Information Table S.2).

279 **DISCUSSION**

280 Functional metrics among habitats

281 In our study, functional richness (FRic) does not show significant differences among habitats
282 however, functional richness has been reported to be related to the degree of forest cover
283 (Cisneros, Fagan & Willig 2015; García-Morales *et al.* 2016). The bat assemblages of pasture
284 habitat were impoverished compared to riparian habitats, supporting the idea that probably
285 due to a higher availability of feeding resources as well as suitable commuting areas,
286 riparian habitats show higher taxonomic and functional diversity than the surrounding
287 landscape (Zarazúa-Carbajal *et al.* 2017). In some cases differences in species richness may
288 not reflect changes in species composition and the occurrence of trait filtering (Cisneros *et*
289 *al.* 2015). Despite changes in species richness, functional diversity may remain constant if
290 species that disappear are functionally redundant (StrauB *et al.* 2010). We can infer that
291 those species that establish or remain in riparian pastures provide similar resource-use traits
292 to those of the riparian forest.

293 Functional divergence (FDiv) showed the highest values in riparian forest and
294 riparian pastures than in non-riparian habitats. Similarly, pasture showed the lowest FDiv
295 values, this is probably because species of riparian habitats show extreme values for some

296 functional traits like aerial insectivorous and gleaning species while pastures exhibit high
297 abundance of Stenodermatinae species which are all similar in functional space (have
298 similar traits) (Villéger *et al.* 2008; Mouillot *et al.* 2013). Riparian habitats within an
299 agricultural matrix can favor the presence of species with extreme traits values associated
300 with unperturbed habitats including the gleaning insectivore *T. saurophila* and the carnivore
301 *T. cirrhosus*.

302 Functional traits

303 Our results show that forearm, frequency of maximum energy, greatest length of skull and
304 aspect ratio were the strongest predictors of species responses comparing F to P. Bat size
305 (forearm length) and wing morphology (aspect ratio) were strong determinants of habitat
306 use by Neotropical bats, small frugivorous species are the most common in disturbed
307 habitats (Medellín *et al.* 2000; Castro-Luna, Sosa & Castillo-Campos 2007; Presley *et al.*
308 2008). Riparian-mature forest and mature forests showed high mean FA (related to size),
309 which can be explained by the higher abundance of *T. saurophila*, *A. jamaicensis*, *A. lituratus*
310 and *D. rotundus*. Several studies in the Neotropics have reported that as fragmentation
311 increases, body size declines, driven mainly by the declines of large gleaning carnivores and
312 the high abundances of small frugivores capable to exploit resources in secondary forest
313 (Meyer & Kalko 2008; de la Peña-Cuéllar *et al.* 2012, 2015a; Farneda *et al.* 2015)

314 In this study, we recorded bat species with greatest skull measurements in mature
315 forest and riparian-mature forest, such as the carnivorous *T. cirrhosus* (Freeman, 1984;
316 Herrel *et al.* 2008; Orihuela, 2011; Santana *et al.* 2012; Dumont *et al.* 2012). This trophic
317 specialization may be sensitive to agricultural practices; species at the top of the food chain

318 (carnivorous species) are more prone to extinction than those at lower trophic levels
319 (phytophagous) (Henle et al. 2004). In contrast, most of the bat species presented small
320 skulls like *S. liliium*, indicating that frugivorous generalist species usually dominate habitats
321 with high density of understory chiropterocoric plants (Medellín 2000, Pineda et al. 2005,
322 Rex et al. 2008, Freudmann et al. 2015, de la Peña-Cuellar 2015). Pasture and riparian
323 pasture habitats showed the highest range of AR and RWL where insectivorous species with
324 open habitat preferences were common including: *P. parnelli*, *E. fuscus*, *R. naso* and *S.*
325 *bilineata* (Norberg et al. 1987; Jennings et al. 2004; Meyer et al. 2008; Jung et al. 2007;
326 Marinello & Bernard, 2014). Species adapted to open-habitats have high wing aspect ratios
327 and wing loadings, traits that facilitate rapid, efficient flight in unobstructed airspaces
328 (Norberg & Rayner 1987; Duchamp & Swihart 2008).

329 Overall, riparian pasture habitat had bat assemblages with similar functional
330 diversity to riparian mature forest habitat, but some trait filtering was observed. Riparian
331 pasture habitat had a higher number of individuals with multi-harmonic calls, more species
332 of nectarivores, and clutter-adapted species (bats foraging in narrow space). We found that
333 pasture species typically echolocated with high frequency of maximum energy calls. Species
334 with higher maximum energy frequencies in the assemblage are frugivorous and are
335 present in high abundances within pastures. High frequency of maximum energy species are
336 adapted to cluttered habitats thus it is most likely that they are found in pastures while
337 commuting to look for food (Farrel & Miller, 2000; Kalko et al. 1996; Thies et al. 1998).
338 However, in the Neotropics call frequencies must be interpreted with care since there is lack

339 of reference call libraries, because most of the call intensity of tropical bats are very low and
340 difficult to record (Arita & Fenton 1997; Jennings *et al.* 2004).

341 Conservation implications and future studies

342 We provide further evidence on the importance of a functional diversity approach as
343 a complementary tool to study disturbance effects on bat assemblages in tropical
344 agricultural landscapes. Our results showed the importance of mature forests tracks in
345 tropical agricultural landscapes to conserve highly specialist species that are absent in other
346 habitats. Although riparian pasture showed high levels of diversity and the presence of rare
347 species, this habitat had the lowest values of functional specialization, implying that
348 riparian habitat cannot be considered as a substitute for continuous mature forest. Since
349 species distribution and niche differentiation are based on the complex interactions among
350 several factors including vegetation structure, it is crucial that management of riparian
351 vegetation encourages landowners to maintain forest cover favoring those bat species that
352 do not fly great distances across deforested lands (Kalko & Handley 2001; Vleut *et al.* 2012).
353 Considering functional diversity could provide other ecological perspectives to trait
354 repetition and high species overlapping within communities (Duchamp & Swihart, 2008;
355 Cadotte *et al.* 2011; Petchey and Gaston, 2006). This study highlights the importance of
356 maintaining large tracks of mature forests in agricultural landscapes for bat conservation, as
357 mature forests have higher functional evenness, divergence and specialization, and provide
358 refuge for many extreme trait bat species. We also suggest that riparian vegetation in
359 human modified landscapes are of important conservation value for bat biodiversity (de la
360 Peña-Cuellar *et al.* 2015), retaining high levels of functional diversity assuring ecosystem

361 function throughout the ecological services provided by bats including seed dispersal and
362 insect pest population control (Kunz *et al.* 2011)

363

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Table 1. Traits of bat species used for functional diversity analyses in an agricultural landscape of the Lacandona rain forest, Chiapas, Mexico; where: FMAXE = frequency of maximum energy; FM= frequency modulated, QCF = frequency modulated call with a quasi-constant frequency tail; FMmulti = multi-harmonic frequency modulated call, ---- = not classified.

Species	Conservation status NOM 059, ^A IUCN ^B	Forearm (mm)	Aspect ratio	Relative wing loading	Greatest length of skull	Breadth across upper molars	Zygomatic breadth	FMAX E (kHz)	Call type	Diet	Space preference	Foraging preference
<i>Artibeus jamaicensis</i>	----, C	62	6.2	42.5	29.8	12.4	18.6	57.0	FMmulti	Frugivore	narrow	Passive_active _gleaning- foragers
<i>Artibeus lituratus</i>	----, LC	70	6.1	39.9	30.7	13.6	18.8	61.4	FMmulti	Frugivore	narrow	Passive_active _gleaning- foragers
<i>Carollia perspicillata</i>	----, LC	43	6	39.4	23.2	7.6	11.4	62.7	FMmulti	Frugivore	narrow	Passive_active _gleaning- foragers
<i>Chiroderma villosum</i>	----, LC	43	6.4	44.5	24.3	11.2	15.8	91.8	FMmulti	Frugivore	narrow	Passive_active _gleaning- foragers
<i>Platyrrhinus helleri</i>	----, LC	40	6.3	45.2	22	9.0	12.3	99.0	FMmulti	Frugivore	narrow	Passive_active _gleaning- foragers
<i>Sturnira lilium</i>	----, LC	39	6.5	46.9	22.4	10.1	13.5	72.4	FMmulti	Frugivore	narrow	Passive_active _gleaning- foragers
<i>Uroderma bilobatum</i>	----, LC	44	6.3	40.7	23.3	9.3	12.9	74.7	FMmulti	Frugivore	narrow	Passive_active _gleaning- foragers
<i>Mimon crenulatum</i>	A, LC	52	7.4	30.0	21.9	8.4	12.3	66.1	FMmulti	Insectivore	narrow	Passive_gleani ng-foragers
<i>Trachops cirrhosus</i>	A, LC	59	6.1	39.6	28.6	10.1	14.5	66.8	FMmulti	Insectivore	narrow	Passive_gleani ng-foragers
<i>Tonatia saurophila</i>	A, LC	53	5.9	30.4	27.4	8.3	13.6	56.5	FMmulti	Insectivore	narrow	Passive_gleani ng-foragers
<i>Eptesicus brasiliensis</i>	---, LC	39	6.3	33.6	16.5	7.3	10.5	37.1	FM.QCF. multi	Insectivore	edge	Aerial_forager s
<i>Eptesicus fuscus</i>	---, LC	38	6.4	36.9	19.4	8.0	13.0	34.8	FM.QCF. multi	Insectivore	edge	Aerial_forager s
<i>Mormoops megalophyla</i>	---, ---	56	7.1	43.0	15	6.9	9.6	52.0	FMmulti	Insectivore	edge	Aerial_forager s
<i>Myotis keaysi</i>	---, LC	40	6.4	33.3	13.6	5.3	7.9	60.9	FM.QCF. multi	Insectivore	edge	Aerial_forager s

<i>Pteronotus parnelli</i>	----, ---	56	7	27.9	22.5	8.7	12.4	63.6	FM.LCF. multi	Insectivore	narrow	Flutter detecting foragers
<i>Pteronotus davyi</i>	----, LC	43	7.3	35.5	16.1	6.6	8.9	66.8	CF.LFM. multi	Insectivore	edge	Trawling foragers
<i>Rhynchonycteris naso</i>	Pr, LC	37	6.7	28.8	11.8	4.4	6.2	95.8	CF.LFM. multi	Insectivore	edge	Trawling foragers
<i>Saccopteryx bilineata</i>	----, LC	44	7.3	28.2	16.3	7.5	10	47.3	FM.QCF. multi	Insectivore	edge	Aerial_forager s
<i>Choeroniscus godmani</i>	----, ----	36	6.2	45.5	20.4	8.2	8.5	97.9	FMmulti	Nectarivore	narrow	Passive_active _gleaning- foragers
<i>Glossophaga soricina</i>	----, ----	36	6.2	43.1	21.4	5.5	9.4	94.5	FMmulti	Nectarivore	narrow- space	Passive_active _gleaning- foragers
<i>Lamproncycteris brachyotis</i>	A, LC	41	5.8	41.4	22	7.1	11.1	74.6	FMmulti	Omnivore	narrow- space	Passive_active _gleaning- foragers
<i>Desmodus rotundus</i>	----, LC	61	6.7	43.5	24.4	6.1	12.2	56.9	FMmulti	Sanguivore	narrow- space	Passive_gleani ng-foragers

^A NOM-059-2010 categories: A = Threatened, P = Endangered. Source: SEMARNAT. 2010. Norma Oficial Mexicana NOM-059, Protección ambiental de especies nativas de México de Flora y fauna silvestres- Categorías de riesgo y especificaciones para su inclusión, exclusión o cambio – Lista de especies en riesgo. Diario Oficial de la Federación, Mexico City, Mexico.

^B IUCN conservation status: LC, least concern. Source: IUCN.2017.IUCN Red List of Threatened Species. www.iucnredlist.org.

Table 2. Bat species included in the analysis of species richness, number of samples, total abundance and abundance per habitat types. Habitat types were the following: riparian mature forest (RF), riparian vegetation in pastures (RP), mature continuous forest (F), and open pastures away from riparian vegetation (P). Bat guilds are as follows: F, Frugivores; N, Nectarivores; C, Carnivores; S, Sanguivores; I, Insectivores.

FAMILY	Subfamily	Species	Guild	Habitat				TOTAL
				F	P	RF	RP	
EMBALLONURIDAE								
		<i>Rhynchonycteris naso</i>	I	0	0	0	3	3
		<i>Saccopteryx bilineata</i>	I	0	0	0	4	4
PHYLLOSTOMIDAE								
Carollinae								
		<i>Carollia perspicillata</i>	F	5	1	20	35	61
Desmodontidae								
		<i>Desmodus rotundus</i>	S	1	4	1	8	14
Glossophaginae								
		<i>Choeroniscus godmani</i>	N	1	0	2	0	3
		<i>Glossophaga soricina</i>	N	3	21	6	88	118
Phyllostominae								
		<i>Lamproncycteris brachyotis</i>	I	0	0	1	0	1
		<i>Mimon crenulatum</i>	I	0	0	0	7	7
		<i>Trachops cirrhosus</i>	C	1	0	2	0	3
		<i>Tonatia saurophila</i>	I	3	0	3	2	8
Stenodermatinae								
		<i>Artibeus jamaicensis</i>	F	43	29	72	61	205
		<i>Artibeus lituratus</i>	F	29	74	113	195	411
		<i>Chiroderma villosum</i>	F	1	0	0	3	4
		<i>Platyrrhinus helleri</i>	F	2	9	24	49	84
		<i>Sturnira lilium</i>	F	27	120	68	348	563
		<i>Uroderma bilobatum</i>	F	1	30	48	98	177
MORMOOPIDAE								
		<i>Pteronotus davyii</i>	I	0	0	4	1	5
		<i>Pteronotus parnelli</i>	I	2	1	3	8	14
VESPERTILLIONIDAE								

<i>Eptesicus fuscus</i>	1	0	0	0	3	3
Total abundance		119	289	367	913	1688
Samples		17	18	18	18	
Richness		13	9	14	16	
Completeness %		64%	89%	93%	95%	
Species diversity		1.710	1.580	1.880	1.850	
Species evenness		0.667	0.719	0.712	0.667	

Table 3. Functional diversity measurements for bats considering different habitat types, including: mature continuous forest (RF), riparian sites in pastures (RP), mature continuous forest (F), and open pastures away from riparian vegetation (P).

Habitat type	Functional diversity measure			
	Functional richness	Functional evenness	Functional divergence	Functional specialization
Continuous forest	0.090	0.549	0.738	0.273
Pasture	0.066	0.365	0.480	0.215
Riparian Forest	0.144	0.363	0.686	0.261
Riparian Pasture	0.128	0.434	0.647	0.223

Table 4. Functional traits of bat species inhabiting different habitat types in the Lacandona rain forest, Mexico.

Trait (units)	Trait type	Categories	Source
Forearm (mm)	Cont.	N/A	Average obtained from this study.
Aspect ratio	Cont.	N/A	Norberg and Rayner, 1987; Marinello and Bernard 2011; García-García <i>et al.</i> 2014;
Relative wing loading	Cont.	N/A	
Greatest length of skull (mm)	Cont.	N/A	Averages obtained per species from: Acosta & Aguanta, 2005; Adams, 1989; Alvarez <i>et al.</i> 1991; Anderson, 1972; Anderson, 1997; Carter <i>et al.</i> 1966 (C. godmani Breadth across molars based on C.minor measurements) ; Cloutier & Thomas, 1992; Cramer <i>et al.</i> 2001; Eisenberg & Redford, 1992; Ferrel & Wilson, 1991; Gannon <i>et al.</i> 1989; Goodwin <i>et al.</i> 1946; Goodwin <i>et al.</i> 1969; Greenhall <i>et al.</i> 1983; Guzmán <i>et al.</i> 1999; Hernandez-Meza <i>et al.</i> 2005; Hoffman & Genoway, 2008; Husson, 1978; Knox-Jones, 1964; Kurta & Baker, 1990; Miranda <i>et al.</i> 2006; Nuñez-Garduño, 2005; Orihuela, 2011; Ortega & Arellano, 2001; Owen <i>et al.</i> 2014; Plumpton & Jones, 1992; Rehn, 1900; Rezutek and Cameron 1993; Scultori <i>et al.</i> 2009; Simmons & Voss, 1998; Sosa-Escalante <i>et al.</i> 2001; Watkins <i>et al.</i> 1972; Wilson <i>et al.</i> 1985; Yancey <i>et al.</i> 1998.
Breadth across molars (mm)	Cont.	N/A	Zamora-Gutiérrez <i>et al.</i> 2016; Pio <i>et al.</i> 2010
Zygomatic breadth (mm)	Cont.	N/A	
FmaxE (kHz)	Cont.	N/A	
Call type	Cate.	Fmmulti (FM multiharmonics), CF-Long FM- multiharmonics, FM-Long CF- multiharmonics, FM-Quasiconstant frequency-multiharmonics	Based on call descriptions from Pio <i>et al.</i> 2010; Briones-Salas <i>et al.</i> 2013; Rydell <i>et al.</i> 2002; Jennings <i>et al.</i> 2004 (C. godmani and S. lilium based on C.minor and S. tildae measurements respectiveley)

Diet	Cate.	Frugivore, Insectivore, Nectarivore, Omnivore, Sanguivore	Kalko et al. 1996; Marinello and Bernard 2011
Space preference	Cate.	Edge-space	Zamora-Gutierrez et al. 2016
Foraging preference	Cate.	Narrow-space Passive-active gleaning Aerial foragers Flutter detecting foragers Trawling foragers	Zamora-Gutierrez et al. 2016

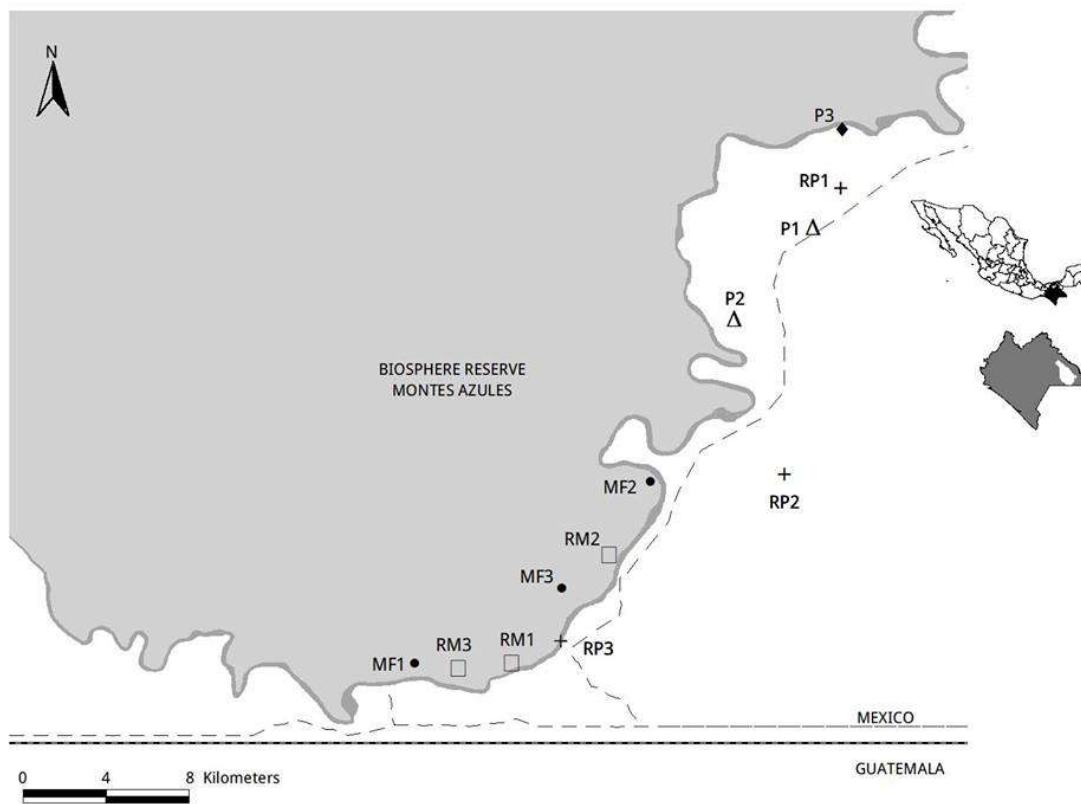


Figure 1. Study area and bat sampling sites at the Lacandona rain forest, Chiapas, Mexico. The map shows the distribution of the habitat types used to sample bat species: riparian vegetation in mature forest (RM), riparian vegetation in pasture (RP), mature forest (MF), Pasture (P).

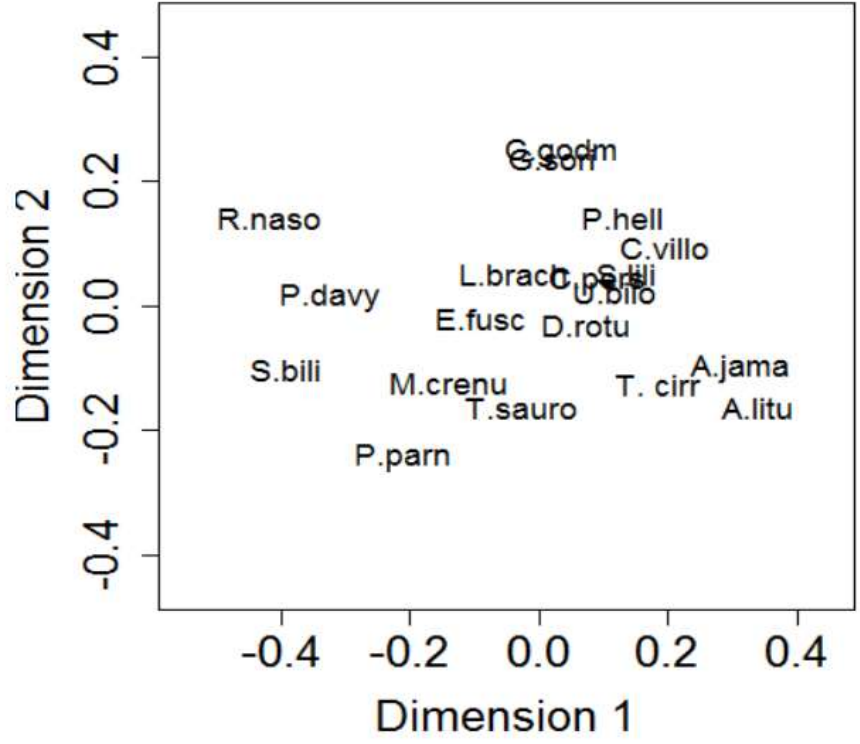


Figure 2. Principal coordinate analysis biplot based on Gower distances between bat species from all families.

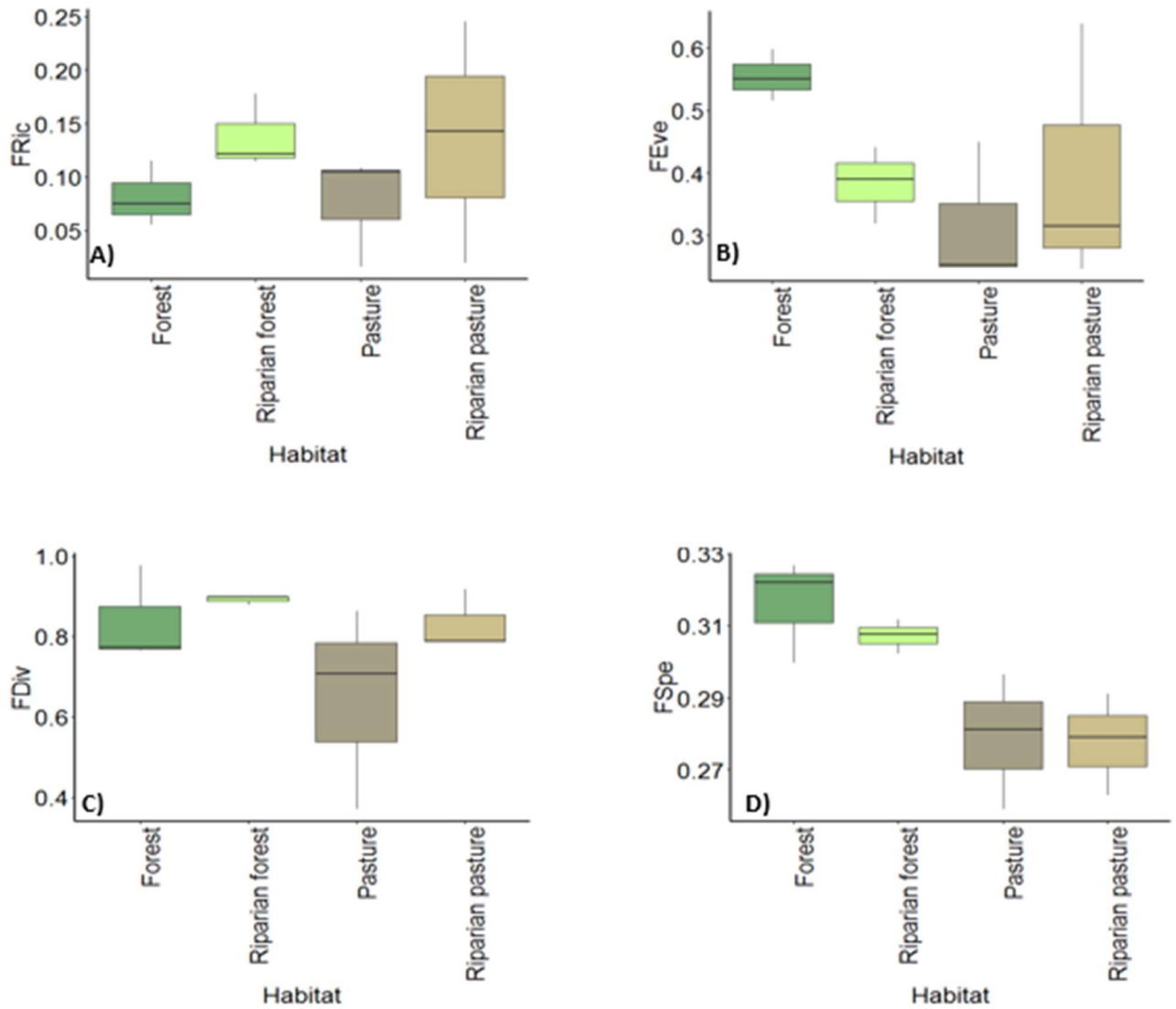
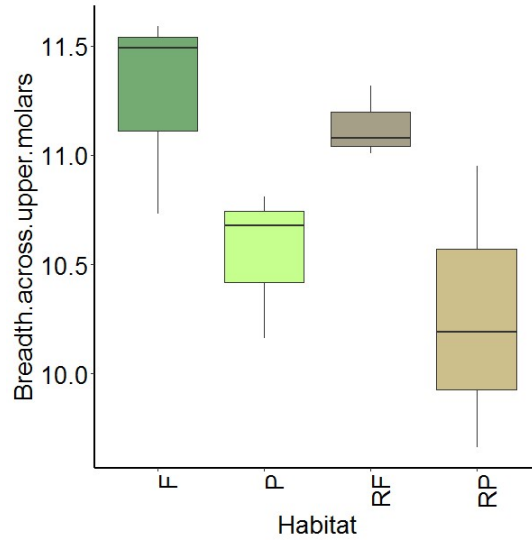
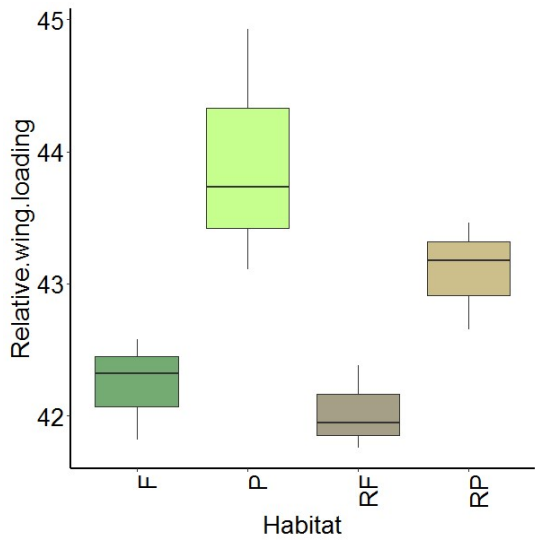
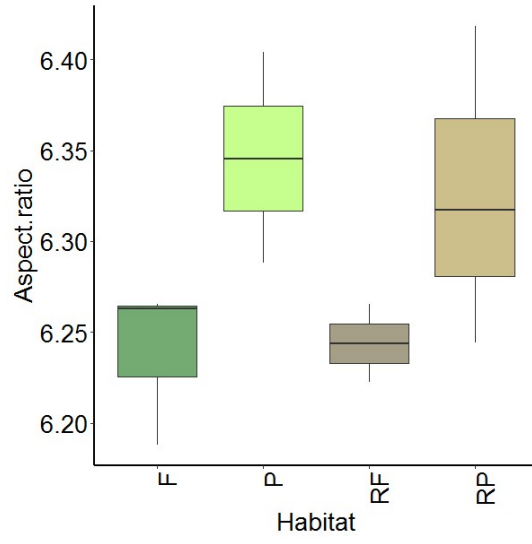
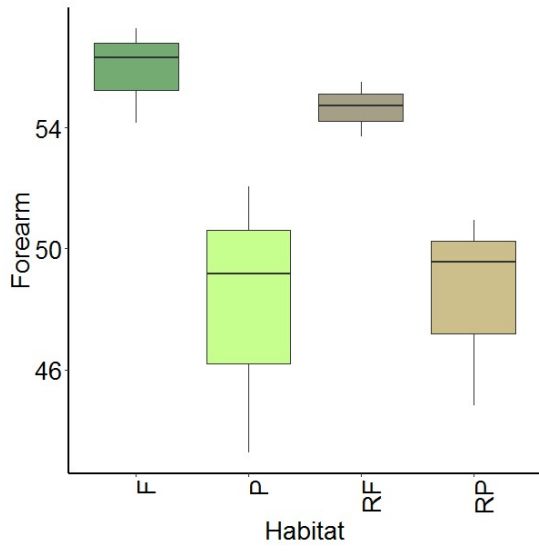


Figure 3. Boxplots showing values of bat species functional diversity in different habitat types: A) Functional richness (FRic), B) Functional evenness (FEve), C) Functional divergence (FDiv), and D) Functional specialization (FSpe). Whiskers extending to 1.5 times the interquartile range of the nearest hinge.



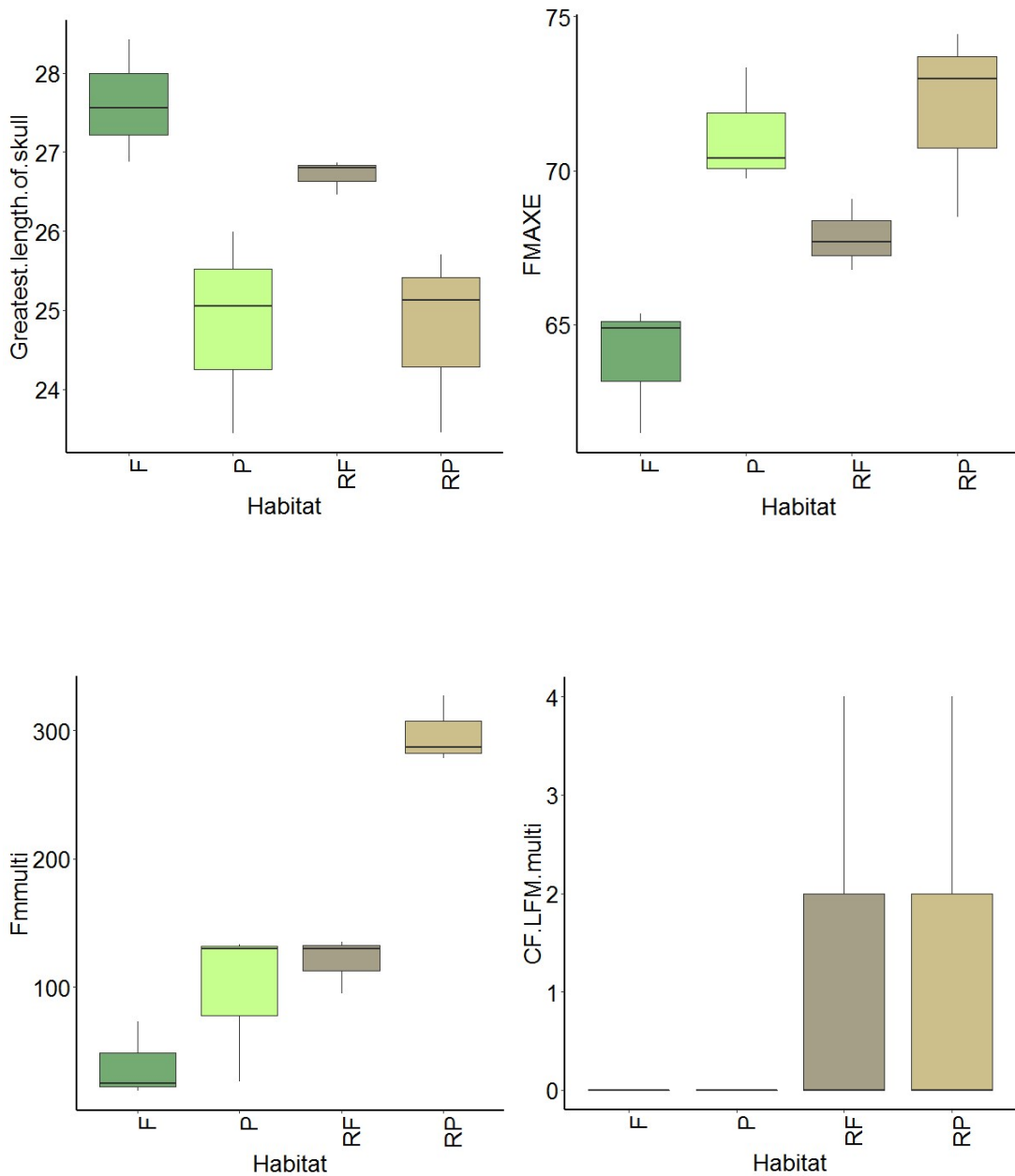
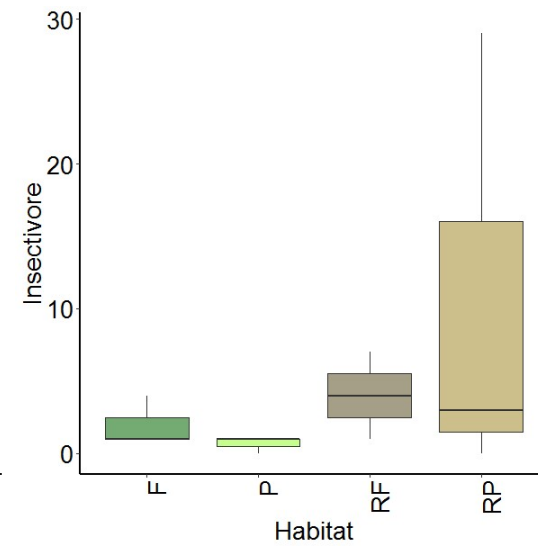
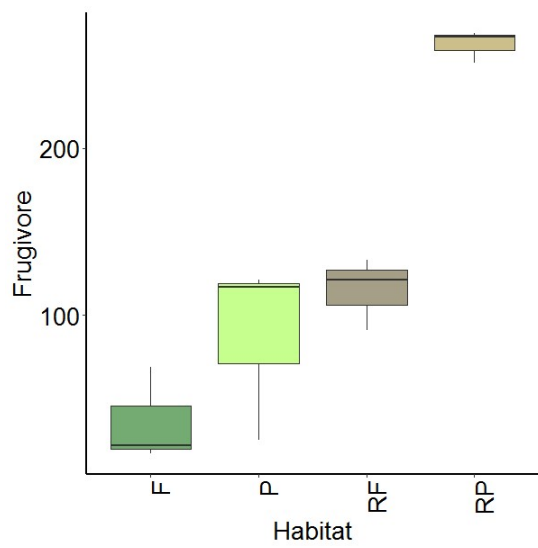
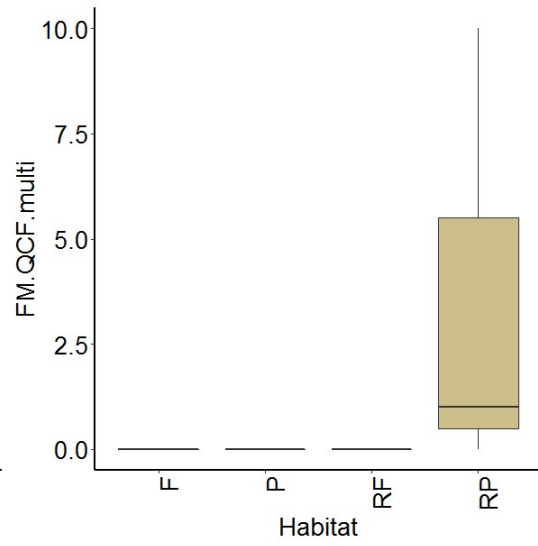
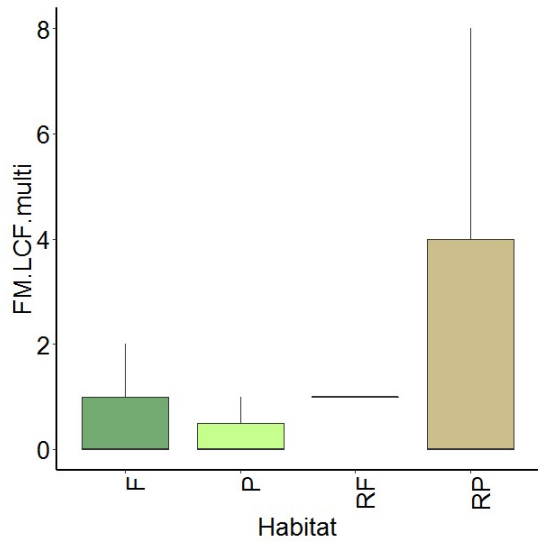
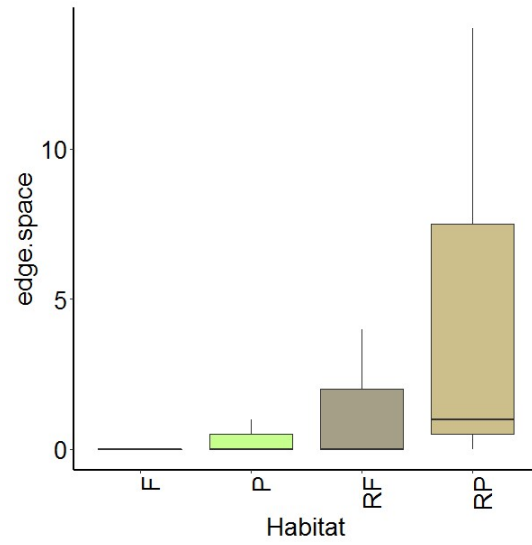
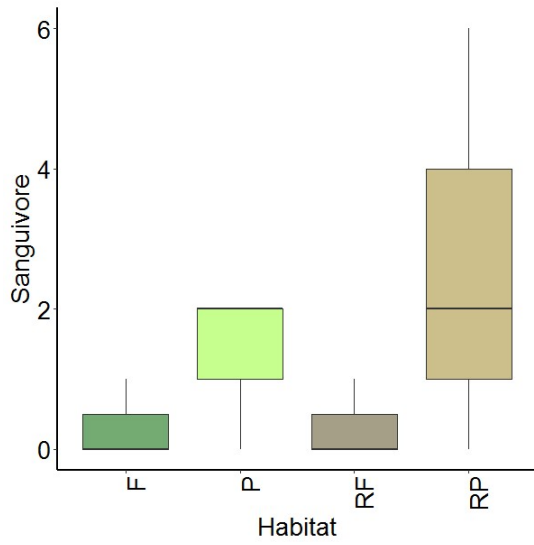
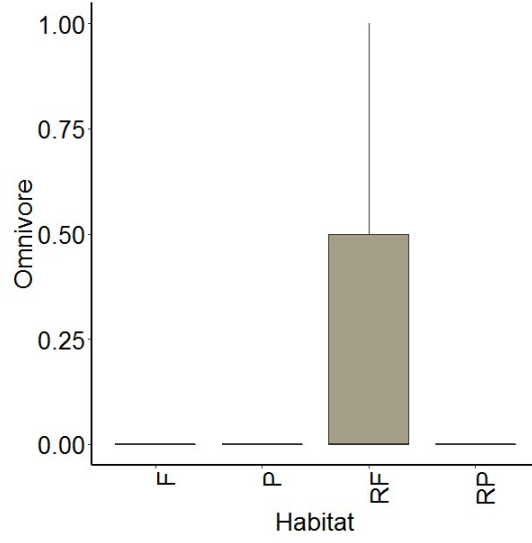
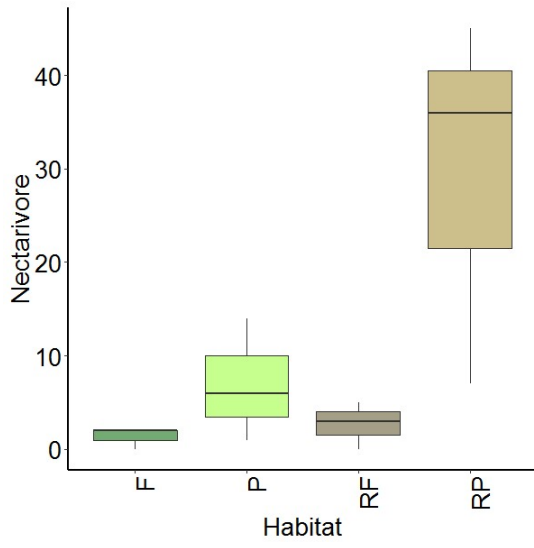
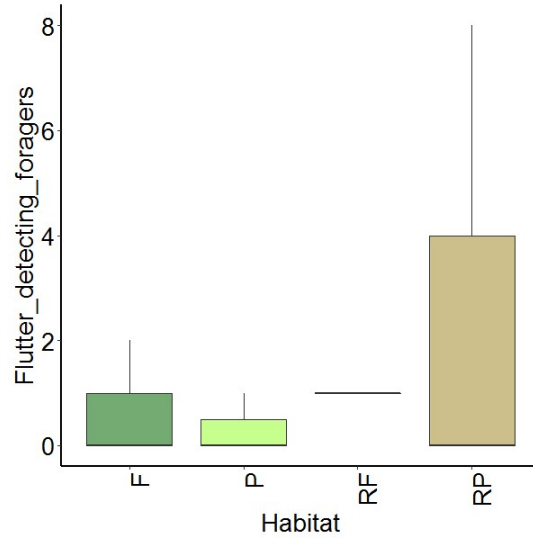
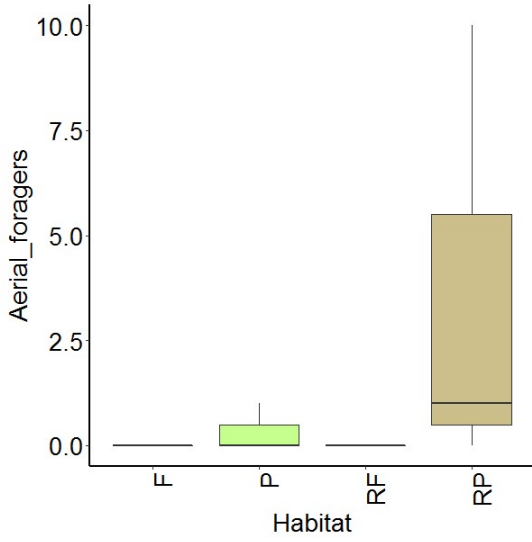
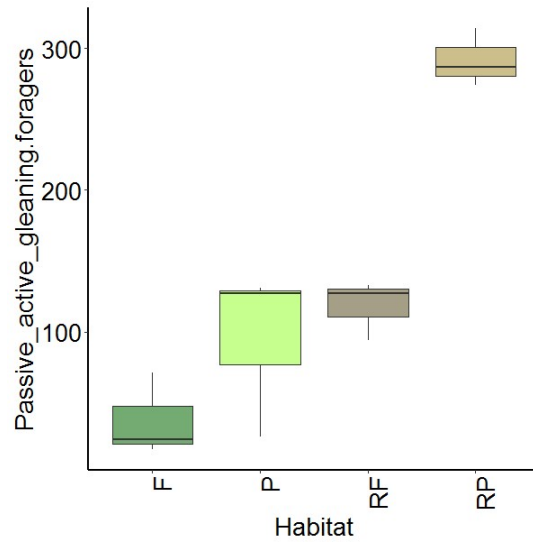
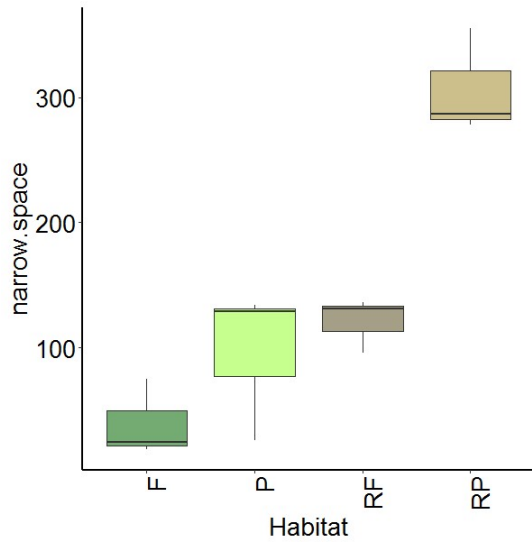


Figure 4. Boxplots showing significant differences among habitats for continuous traits: A) Forearm (FA), B) Aspect ratio (AR), C) Relative wing loading (RWL), D) Greatest length of skull (GLS), E) Breadth across molars (BAM), F) Minimum frequency (FmaxE). Whiskers extending to 1.5 times the interquartile range of the nearest hinge. Asterisks indicate probability of Type I error where * means $P = 0.05$, ** $P \leq 0.01$ and *** $P \leq 0.001$.







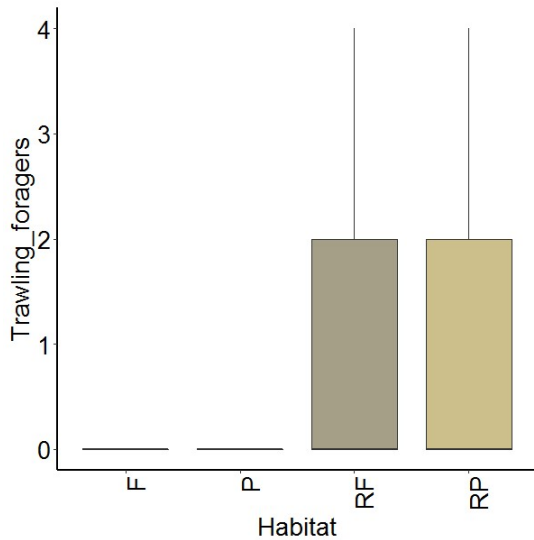


Figure 5. Boxplots showing significant differences among habitats for categorical traits: A) FM multiharmonics (Fmmulti), B) CF-Long FM- multiharmonics (CF.LFM.multi), C) FM-Long CF- multiharmonics (FM.LCF.multi), D) FM-Quasiconstant frequency-multiharmonics (FM.QC.multi), E) Frugivore, F)

Insectivore, G) Nectarivore H) Omnivore, I) Sanguivore, J) Edge-Space, K) Narrow-space, L) Passive-active gleaning, M) Aerial foragers, N) Flutter detecting foragers, O) Trawling foragers. Whiskers extending to 1.5 times the interquartile range of the nearest hinge. Asterisks indicate probability of Type I error where * means $P = 0.05$, ** $P \leq 0.01$ and *** $P \leq 0.001$.

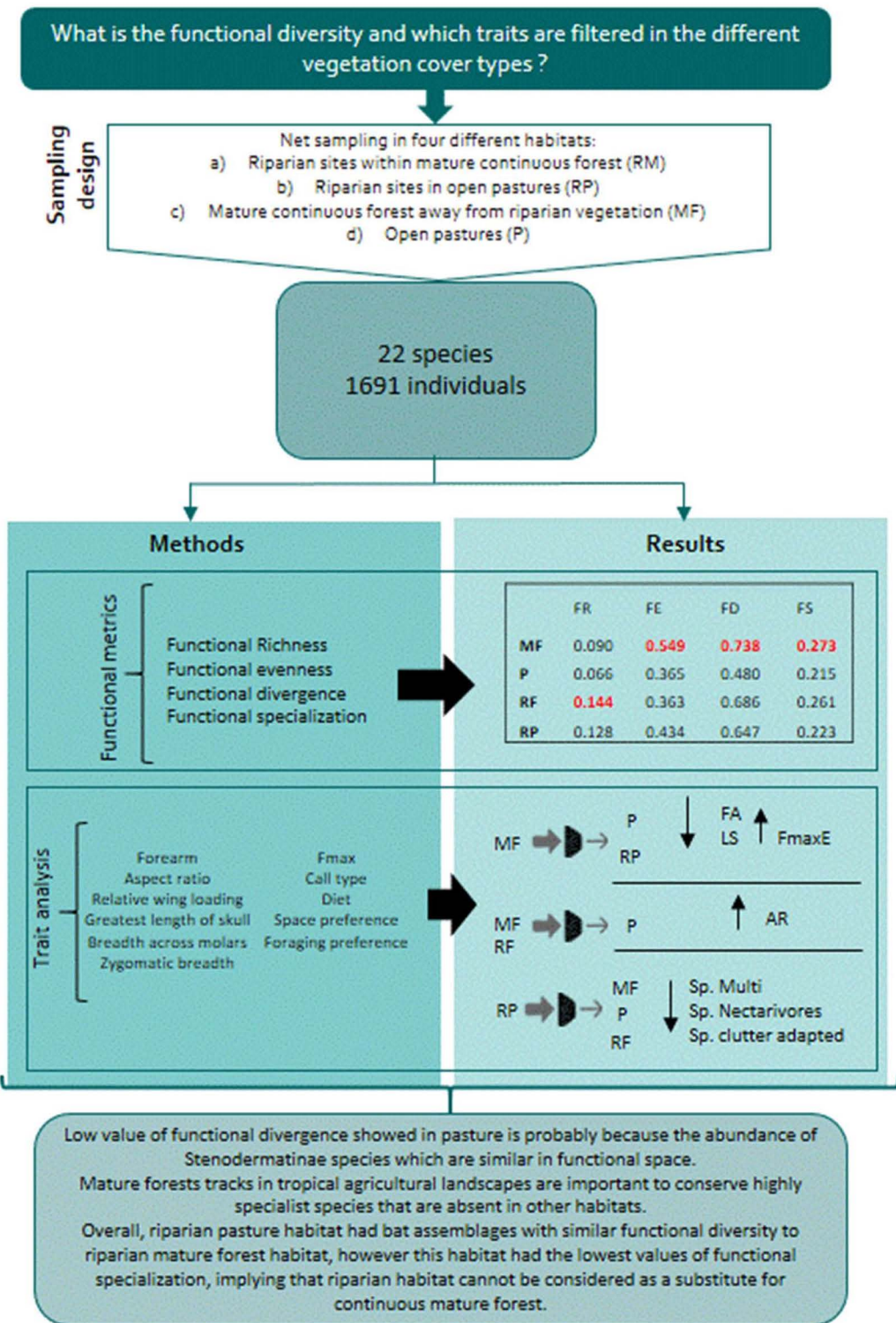


Figure 6. Diagram of chapter II summary

En la actualidad, la amenaza más grave a la biodiversidad y la causa principal de la crisis de extinción es la fragmentación y pérdida de hábitat (Laurance *et al.* 1997). En el Neotrópico los cambios de uso de suelo derivado de actividades humanas han modificado el paisaje a través de la fragmentación, degradación y destrucción del hábitat natural, dichas actividades son generalmente disturbios de gran extensión y larga duración (Martínez-Ramos & García-Orth 2007; Zermeño-Hernández *et al.* 2014) propiciando la creación de nuevos ambientes antropogénicos. Recientemente, se ha reconocido la importancia de la conservación fuera de las reservas ecológicas, ya que debido a la tendencia al incremento de la frontera agrícola, resulta cada vez menos probable el mantenimiento de grandes extensiones de bosque primario intacto. Uno de los principales retos es conservar la biodiversidad dentro de paisajes fragmentados y se ha señalado ya, que algunas especies nativas pueden continuar viviendo en ambientes que, aun estando sujetos a actividades productivas, mantienen la estructura y funciones básicas del ecosistema original (Laurance *et al.* 1997).

Estudios previos han demostrado que a lo largo del tiempo el paisaje de Marqués de Comillas es capaz de mantener niveles altos de biodiversidad y conservar especies nativas de flora y fauna de gran interés para los planes de conservación (Muench & Martínez-Ramos 2016; de la Torre, Núñez & Medellín 2017). La mayoría de los estudios con comunidades de murciélagos en paisajes fragmentados se basan en descripciones dicotómicas y cualitativas de hábitat, por ejemplo, perturbado vs. no perturbado (Estrada & Coates-Estrada 2002), fragmentado vs. bosque continuo o en índices sencillos de la composición del paisaje como el tamaño de los fragmentos (Cosson *et al.* 1999). Sin embargo, los efectos de la

fragmentación operan a múltiples escalas espaciales, probablemente en función del comportamiento específico de cada especie o las características de su historia de vida (Klingbeil & Willig 2009). Por lo tanto, en la presente tesis se buscó entender la importancia de la vegetación riparia para la dinámica de la comunidad de murciélagos dentro de un paisaje agropecuario. Para responder esta pregunta se siguieron tres enfoques:

La metodología expuesta en el **Capítulo I** permite conocer el papel de la vegetación riparia como reservorio de especies de murciélagos en ambientes altamente perturbados debido a actividades humanas. Para esto, se registró la riqueza y abundancia de murciélagos filostómidos presentes en los diferentes tipos de cobertura vegetal. Los resultados revelaron que existe una clara asociación entre el hábitat de vegetación riparia y la diversidad de especies así como con la abundancia de individuos, encontrando que el hábitat de vegetación riparia dentro de pastizales ganaderos fue superado únicamente por el hábitat de vegetación riparia dentro del bosque maduro en cuanto al número de especies registradas. Se encontró también una asociación positiva entre la composición de especies de murciélagos con árboles de mayor área basal; estos árboles generalmente se encuentran en la vegetación riparia y suelen ser utilizados preferentemente por algunas especies como sitios de percha y/o refugio. Finalmente, encontramos que las especies de murciélagos generalistas y abundantes pueden ser mejores indicadores ecológicos, ya que son capaces de volar sobre diferentes tipos de vegetación cubriendo distancias mayores, en comparación con especies altamente especializadas que disminuyen sus poblaciones rápidamente bajo condiciones de cambio de uso de suelo. Con estos resultados pudimos corroborar la importancia que tienen los corredores de vegetación riparia, ya que permiten

la persistencia de especies sensibles a la perturbación del hábitat, demostrando la importancia de mantener diferentes tipos de vegetación y así permitir la conservación de la diversidad de murciélagos en paisajes con uso de suelo agrícola (Medina *et al.* 2007; Williams-Guillén & Perfecto 2010).

Por otra parte, **el Capítulo II** aborda la dinámica social de la comunidad de murciélagos, analizando la importancia del tipo de hábitat para la distribución de la proporción de sexos y patrones de segregación sexual en seis de las especies de filostómidos más comunes. La segregación sexual es un fenómeno ampliamente documentado con murciélagos (Senior *et al.* 2005; Sgroi & Wilkins 2010), sin embargo la mayoría de estos estudios consideran únicamente colonias de murciélagos cavernícolas (Ortega & Arita 1999; Ortega & Maldonado 2006). El presente trabajo es uno de los primeros en explorar la asociación ente la proporción de hembras y el hábitat de vegetación riparia en el Neotrópico. Los resultados obtenidos mostraron que más de la mitad de los individuos capturados fueron hembras. Para la especie de mayor tamaño (*Artibeus lituratus*) la proporción de hembras mostró una fuerte asociación con el tipo de hábitat los cuáles suelen ser el hábitat con mayor disponibilidad de recursos. Otra consideración interesante es que junto con *Sturnira lilium* (especie considerada generalista) mostraron fuerte asociación con la estacionalidad, la cual influye sobre la fenología y producción de frutos de las plantas afectando directamente la disponibilidad de recursos.

Por otra parte las hembras de la especie nectarívora *Glossophaga soricina* están estrechamente relacionadas con atributos muy específicos de la vegetación como árboles de gran altura y mayor área basal los cuáles pueden proporcionarles mayores oportunidades

de forrajeo y refugio (Evelyn & Stiles 2003; Ortiz-Ramírez *et al.* 2006). Estos resultados muestran que las respuestas de la comunidad de murciélagos asociadas al hábitat de vegetación riparia en paisajes dominados por actividades humanas son específicas para cada sexo y especie, y el entendimiento de estos cambios puede disminuir las consecuencias generalizadas de la fragmentación además del deterioro y pérdida de hábitat.

El estudio de las respuestas específicas de las especies a los diferentes tipos de vegetación ha cobrado gran relevancia ecológica. Con la finalidad de comprender los efectos específicos que el tipo de hábitat puede tener sobre los atributos funcionales de las especies de murciélagos, el **Capítulo III** tuvo como finalidad cuantificar la diversidad funcional de la comunidad de murciélagos e identificar cuáles atributos están siendo filtrados por el hábitat de vegetación riparia y no riparia. Los resultados revelaron que la divergencia funcional (medida de la proporción de abundancia de las especies y su discrepancia del espacio funcional) registró los valores más altos en el hábitat de ripario maduro y ripario pastizal. Esto puede explicarse debido a que las especies registradas presentan poca especialización y los atributos son redundantes entre ellas. Por otra parte, especies frugívoras de tamaño pequeño y con carga alar alta son más comunes en ambientes perturbados, dichos atributos les permiten ser voladores rápidos y eficientes para viajes de larga distancia en espacios abiertos. Por otra parte las especies con tamaño de cráneo más grande fueron registradas en el bosque maduro y ripario maduro sugiriendo que la especialización trófica suele ser más sensible a las actividades agropecuarias. Los resultados de este capítulo demuestran la importancia de conservar áreas de bosques

maduros en los paisajes agropecuarios para asegurar la conservación de especies de murciélagos altamente especializadas.

Implicaciones de manejo para la conservación de murciélagos en paisajes transformados

En el Neotrópico, la vegetación riparia se encuentra bajo gran presión debido principalmente a actividades de origen agropecuario y la extracción de productos maderables, sin embargo, la conservación y manejo de las zonas de vegetación riparia parece ser el método más eficaz y menos costoso para el mantenimiento de la diversidad biológica en general (Jobin *et al.* 2004). Se ha documentado que para grupos faunísticos de invertebrados (García-Martínez *et al.* 2015), aves (Seaman & Schulze 2010) y murciélagos (de la Peña-Cuéllar *et al.* 2015b; Zarazúa-Carbajal *et al.* 2017) la composición de especies y densidad de individuos difiere considerablemente entre franjas de vegetación riparia y la matriz agropecuaria adyacente.

La biodiversidad y las actividades productivas dentro de los bosques están íntimamente relacionadas. Particularmente se ha enfatizado que la conservación de bosques riparios y el establecimiento de cercas vivas son herramienta cruciales para el mantenimiento de la biodiversidad y los servicios ecosistémicos en paisajes seriamente fragmentados (Estrada & Coates-Estrada 2001). Sin embargo, al igual que en la mayoría de los países de América Latina, en México los bosques riparios no suelen ser considerados dentro de los programas gubernamentales ni en las políticas públicas relacionadas con el manejo de recursos (Meli *et al.* 2017).

En un esfuerzo reciente por sistematizar acciones de conservación de la biodiversidad que puedan ejecutarse de manera voluntaria por los propietarios de las tierras, la CONAFOR y el Programa de las Naciones Unidas para el Desarrollo (PNUD) desarrollaron el “Manual de mejores prácticas de manejo forestal para la conservación de la biodiversidad en ecosistemas tropicales de la región sureste de México”(CONAFOR 2016), desafortunadamente en este documento tampoco se consideran prácticas dirigidas hacia los bosques riparios bajo condiciones de manejo agropecuario. No obstante en la tabla 1 se enlistan algunas acciones puntuales que pueden promover y conservar la diversidad de murciélagos en la región.

Tabla 1. Recomendaciones relacionadas con la conservación y manejo de las zonas riparias en el bosque tropical lluvioso del sureste mexicano, modificado de CONAFOR 2016.

Recomendaciones	Beneficio a la diversidad de murciélagos
Identificar los árboles utilizados como refugio o fuente de alimento, con la finalidad de proteger dichos árboles durante las actividades	- Mantener la distribución y abundancia de las poblaciones- Conservación de la diversidad genética de las poblaciones de flora y fauna
Mantener vegetación arbórea que cubra los cauces de los arroyos hasta una distancia de 50 m perpendicular a la dirección de la corriente	Podría garantizar la cobertura vegetal a lo largo del arroyo y favorecer la conectividad del paisaje actuando como corredores de vuelo fomentando la formación de redes de dispersión (Estrada & Coates-Estrada 2001)
En la medida de lo posible evitar el uso de agroquímicos y labores que	Mantener o mejorar la calidad del agua que atraviesa las zonas de pastizales, favoreciendo la

impliquen riesgos de contaminación del agua

abundancia y biomasa de insectos, los cuales sirven de alimento para muchas especies de murciélagos (Ober & Hayes 2008)

Consideraciones finales

El comportamiento de la comunidad de murciélagos en el paisaje transformado del bosque tropical lluvioso del sureste mexicano, depende de las características de los diferentes elementos del paisaje, como el tipo de hábitat y aspectos específicos de la estructura vegetal como altura y área basal de los árboles, además de la estacionalidad y disponibilidad de sitios de refugio y percha. Esto indica que las estrategias de conservación para este grupo y por lo tanto de los servicios ecosistémicos que brindan requieren de la atención tanto de la vegetación de bosque maduro como de la parte sujeta a actividades de agricultura y ganadería. La vegetación riparia es de vital interés ya que resulta fundamental para la conservación un gran número de especies de fauna que habitan el bosque tropical lluvioso.

Con base en los resultados obtenidos y los vacíos de información detectados durante el transcurso del estudio, sugerimos que en estudios futuros se consideren aspectos como:

- 1) la dinámica que existe entre la estructura de la vegetación y la actividad y biomasa de invertebrados y la relación con la actividad de los murciélagos, en esta parte se pueden también incorporar mediciones de calidad del agua;
- 2) determinar patrones de uso de hábitat por género y especie de murciélagos, con lo cual se puede también determinar el grado de conectividad del paisaje, y
- 3) documentar las prácticas de manejo agrícolas y

ganaderas para establecer si existe relación de ellas con la dinámica de la comunidad de murciélagos.

La identificación de los patrones ecológicos y poblacionales en la respuesta de la comunidad de murciélagos a la transformación del hábitat derivados de diferentes regiones y características de disturbio puede garantizar la persistencia a largo plazo de las poblaciones de murciélagos en paisajes modificados, asegurando servicios ecológicos como polinización y dispersión de semillas los cuales tienen influencia indirecta en la provisión de la diversidad de alimentos y mantenimiento de la diversidad de plantas y así como control de plagas asociado con el mantenimiento de la salud pública, los cuales tienen impacto directo al bienestar humano.

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