1 Trait-mediated filtering predicts phyllostomid bat responses to habitat

2 disturbance in the Orinoco Llanos

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36 Abstract

Which functional traits allow a bat species to survive habitat disturbance? Empirical evidence 37 38 regarding this question remains limited for many tropical regions despite their importance for 39 conservation. Here, we used body mass, wing morphology, trophic level, and diet to identify 40 which traits make phyllostomid bat species more vulnerable to human impacts in the Colombian 41 Orinoco Llanos. Bats were sampled using mist nets in riparian forests, unflooded forests, 42 flooded savannahs, and conventional rice crops on traditional farmlands with high-intensity 43 agriculture and in private reserves with greater ecosystem protection. We tested the associations 44 between species traits and landscape-structure variables (habitat cover and type, number of habitat patches, shortest distance to water) using RLQ and fourth-corner analyses, accounting 45 46 for both spatial and phylogenetic autocorrelation. Trophic level and diet were the most 47 important traits linked to disturbance sensitivity. Our results indicated that rice crop cover, 48 savannah patches, and altered unflooded forest act as a filter, benefiting disturbance-adapted frugivorous genera in farmlands (e.g., Artibeus spp., Carollia spp., Platyrrhinus spp., 49 50 Uroderma spp.). Conversely, animalivorous species were strongly associated with savannah 51 cover and riparian forests within reserves (e.g., Lampronycteris brachyotis, Lophostoma 52 brasiliense, Micronycteris minuta, Trachops cirrhosus). Encouraging the creation of more 53 wildlife-friendly landscapes through payments for ecosystem services across the Colombian 54 Llanos will ensure the long-term persistence of disturbance-sensitive species and sustain a 55 complete set of ecological functions and ecosystem services that these bats provide.

Keywords: Chiroptera, environmental filters, functional traits, land-use change, landscape
 composition and configuration, Llanos Orientales

58 Introduction

59 The conversion of natural vegetation into an agricultural-livestock matrix is increasing substantially across tropical savannahs (Buchadas et al. 2022), and recent evidence suggests 60 61 that < 3% of their ecosystems remain highly intact (Williams et al. 2022). This highlights the 62 enormous importance of savannahs for effective conservation targets to address the global 63 decline in biodiversity and ecosystem services. The second-largest Neotropical savannah, the 64 Orinoco Llanos, has been severely affected by multiple and deleterious anthropogenic pressures 65 since the 1970s (Romero-Ruiz et al. 2012). The Llanos account for $\sim 15\%$ (170,000 km²) of the total area of Colombia and ~25% (240,000 km²) of Venezuela (Borghetti et al. 2019). Its 66 67 ecosystems are highly biodiverse, threatened, ecologically understudied, support the 68 livelihoods of local human communities (Suárez-Castro et al. 2021), and harbour important 69 carbon stocks (Grace et al. 2006). Over 85% of the original cover of the region falls outside of 70 protected areas (Williams et al. 2022), and typically comprises a mosaic of savannahs and 71 forests, with interspersed croplands, pastures varying in the degree of livestock grazing 72 intensity, and urban settlements (Romero-Ruiz et al. 2012). Substitution of native vegetation 73 by human-disturbed habitats is spatially complex and has contributed to the loss of species and 74 ecosystem functions and services worldwide (Newbold et al. 2016). Making conventional 75 agriculture sustainable is a central task for farmers and environmental scientists. To tackle this 76 challenge, jointly considering human-modified landscapes (Pereira and Daily 2006) and 77 functional information in the form of species traits (Cadotte et al. 2011) in ecological studies is critical to devising more effective conservation strategies. 78

79 Characteristics of an organism or species that potentially affect its survival, 80 growth/reproduction, and ecological functions (functional trait sensu Weiss and Ray 2019) have 81 been a focus of extensive research in the last decade across different spatiotemporal scales and 82 levels of biological organization (Palacio et al. 2022). Trait-based ecology has broadly 83 contributed to advancing our understanding of biodiversity patterns and responses to 84 environmental shifts in complex natural systems in the Anthropocene (Green et al. 2022). This 85 approach has provided an innovative conservation-planning tool to disentangle the mechanisms 86 structuring communities, such as the relative role of environmental filtering and interspecific 87 competition (Cadotte and Tucker 2017). Therefore, assessing how functional traits and 88 environmental variables influence the ability of species to persist in small, isolated, and 89 disturbed habitats is essential to understanding the processes underlying community assembly 90 and minimizing local species loss (Jeliazkov et al. 2020).

91 Neotropical bats may evince different responses and extinction risks depending on land-92 use intensity and disturbance (reviewed in Meyer et al. 2016). Their selection as focal taxon for 93 trait-based conservation is appropriate given their high diversity in the tropics and their crucial 94 contribution to ecosystem functioning, as pollinators, seed dispersers, prey, and predators of 95 arthropods and small vertebrates (Kunz et al. 2011). While trait-environment relationships have 96 lately been assessed in some studies to predict anthropogenic effects on phyllostomid and 97 aerial-hawking insectivorous bat species and ecosystem functioning across the Neotropics (e.g., 98 Farneda et al. 2015; Gonçalves et al. 2017; Núñez et al. 2019; Carballo-Morales et al. 2021; 99 Bobrowiec et al. 2022; Colombo et al. 2023) results differ across ecosystems, and studies are 100 rare for many tropical ecoregions or countries such as Colombia (but see Ramírez-Mejía et al. 101 2020 and Díaz-B et al. 2023).

102 Multivariate trait-based research focusing on different ecological systems and 103 geographic regions is pivotal for determining if traits identified as important in one ecosystem 104 can be helpful as general predictors of local species decline (Chichorro et al. 2019). Here, we 105 used a robust approach that accounts for phylogenetic and spatial autocorrelation (Braga et al. 106 2018) within an analytical framework that integrates RLQ (\mathbf{R} = environmental variables, \mathbf{L} = 107 <u>species distributions</u>, Q =species traits) and fourth-corner methods (Dray et al. 2014) to 108 evaluate how landscape-structure variables (composition and configuration) in the Colombian 109 Llanos influence the vulnerability of phyllostomid bat species based on their functional traits. 110 We anticipated that increasing land-use intensity and decreasing structural complexity of the 111 vegetation would act as a filter, promoting the selective loss of species in more disturbed 112 habitats (e.g., rice monocultures) through their functional traits (Wordley et al. 2017; Carvalho 113 et al. 2021). Specifically, our study was guided by the following questions and associated 114 predictions:

115

1. Which functional traits are the best predictors of bat sensitivity to habitat disturbance 116 in the Orinoco Llanos?

117 Trophic level and diet will be the most important traits linked to species vulnerability. 118 Phytophagous bats (those with mainly a fruit- or nectar-based diet) will be less affected by the 119 conversion of natural habitat to rice paddies, as they often forage and commonly roost in 120 human-disturbed habitats compared to animalivorous bats (Castro-Luna and Galindo-González 121 2012; Farneda et al. 2015).

122 2. Which bat species are most vulnerable to habitat disturbance based on the traits 123 identified in (1)?

Animalivorous species (those with mainly a vertebrate- or arthropod-based diet), such as *Lampronycteris brachyotis*, *Lophostoma brasiliense*, and *Trachops cirrhosus*, will be more vulnerable to disturbance and thus be absent or considerably less abundant in rice fields. As secondary consumers these species are commonly considered habitat specialists which are more dependent on preserved forests compared to phytophagous phyllostomids (Gonçalves et al. 2017; Carballo-Morales et al. 2021).

130 3. Which landscape-structure variables are the most important in determining bat131 functional trait composition?

Landscapes with small, irregular, or narrow habitat patches generally exhibit a high number of patches (Fahrig et al. 2011). Therefore, a high number of patches is more representative of traditional farmlands in our study area. This would be reflected in a significant positive relationship between number of patches of unflooded forests with phytophagous bats due to a greater supply of roosts and fruits, while forest cover and the shortest distance to water would benefit animalivorous bats due to their more significant association with riparian forest (Arroyo-Rodríguez et al. 2016; Chambers et al. 2016).

139 Material and methods

140 Study area

The study was carried out in two Civil Society Nature Reserves (La Esperanza 5°42'N-141 142 71°14'W and El Boral 5°19'N-71°47'W) and four traditional farmlands (Hato California 143 5°39'N-71°17'W, Sinaloa 5°46'N-71°27'W, Las Acacias 5°25'N-71°46'W, and Finca Bella 144 Vista 5°25'N-71°45'W), in Casanare state, Colombian Orinoco Llanos (Fig. 1). The climate in 145 the region is characterized by a unimodal seasonality pattern: a dry season between December 146 and March (monthly accumulated rainfall < 100 mm) and a rainy season from April to 147 November (monthly variation of 150 to 600 mm) - total annual rainfall varies from 1500 to 148 3000 mm (IDEAM 2015). Temperatures vary from 27 to 30 °C during dry and 23 to 26 °C 149 during rainy seasons (Etter 1997).

La Esperanza and El Boral (~137 m a.s.l.) are private reserves that constitute a mix of flooded savannahs with native grass and others used for cattle grazing, and mature and secondary riparian forests (gallery forest) that vary in size and experience seasonal inundation. On farmlands, the understory of unflooded forest patches (California, Las Acacias, and Bella Vista, ~164 m a.s.l.) and riparian forest (Sinaloa, 159 m a.s.l.) has been partially removed and is often used as a passageway for cattle. Naturally flooded savannahs were replaced mainly by 156 conventional rice crop monocultures (Fig. 1), which were subjected to synthetic pesticides and157 fertilizers between three and ten years (mean of 8 years) before this study.

In all farmlands and reserves, there is selective non-commercial logging of larger trees, 158 159 and some exotic trees (e.g., Mangifera spp., Anacardiaceae) are present in riparian (La 160 Esperanza) and unflooded forests (California). The canopy in riparian and unflooded forests is 161 ca. 15 m high, with occasional emergent trees reaching 20 m, and closed due to the high 162 vegetation density. Forest pioneer species that produce fruits consumed by many frugivorous 163 bat species, such as Cecropia spp. (Urticaceae), Ficus spp. (Moraceae), and Vismia spp. 164 (Hypericaceae) were observed in riparian and mainly unflooded forests. The savannah has an open canopy composed primarily of a grassy vegetation stratum interspersed with some shrubs 165 166 and trees of small diameter and stature (between 2 to 6 m in height) (A. Otálora-Ardila, 167 unpublished data). See Supporting Information Plate S1 for differences in vegetation structure 168 among habitats.



169 Fig. 1 Spatial distribution of the six Colombian landscapes overlaid on a hydrographic mesh of 170 the Orinoquia region and the respective "Land Use Land Cover" (LULC) class quantified within 171 a focal landscape buffer of 1.5 km radius. The darkest area highlights the flooded 172 (hyperseasonal) savannah, Northern South America. The rice crop cover percentage is given in 173 each landscape's upper left corner.

174 Bat sampling

Each habitat was sampled for a total of 23 to 26 nights, evenly distributed among four replicate
surveys (one per season and rice production stage): land preparation (transition dry-wet season),
vegetative growth (wet), grain maturation (transition wet-dry), and post-harvest (dry). Bat
sampling covered three sampling units in riparian forests (La Esperanza, El Boral, Sinaloa),

179 three in unflooded forests (California, Las Acacias, Bella Vista), three in flooded savannahs 180 (La Esperanza [two units], El Boral), and three in conventional rice crops (California, Las 181 Acacias, Bella Vista). Sampling sites in savannahs and rice crops were located at least 150-400 182 m from the edge of riparian and unflooded forests. These distances are generally greater than 183 those of other Neotropical bat studies (e.g., at least 50 m was used in the Brazilian Amazon by 184 Carvalho et al. 2021 and 75 m in Colombian Andes by Otálora-Ardila and López-Arévalo 2021) 185 and were delimited according to the total area of each habitat in each sampling site to maximize 186 spatial independence.

187 Phyllostomid bats were sampled using five ground-level mist nets (12×2.5 m, 188 ECOTONE Inc., Poland, intercalating nylon/polyester and monofilament nets) in each of the 189 12 sampling sites distributed in the four habitats. The nets were opened for two to three 190 consecutive nights per site from dusk (~18:00 h) until 5 to 7 h after exposure (except during 191 torrential rains) and revised at intervals of ~25 minutes. Bias in capture rates due to the ability 192 of bats to detect the location of nets (Marques et al. 2013) was avoided by moving nets on the 193 third night across the same site and spacing visits to the same habitat more than three months apart. Sampling effort was roughly similar among habitats: riparian forests = $24,678 \text{ m}^2$.h (m².h 194 195 = net area multiplied by the number of nets, exposition time, and sampling repetitions; Straube and Bianconi 2002), unflooded forests = $22,590 \text{ m}^2$.h, flooded savannahs = $26,901 \text{ m}^2$.h, 196 197 conventional rice crops = $23,310 \text{ m}^2$.h, total = $97,479 \text{ m}^2$.h.

198 Bat sampling was conducted in each habitat in all seasons: wet season (July-August 199 2022), transition wet-dry season (November-December 2020), dry season (January-February 200 2022), and transition dry-wet season (March 2021). Phyllostomid bats were individually 201 marked with tattoos on the right wing at the lower part of the plagiopatagium (project phase 1) 202 funded by the "Neotropical Grassland Conservancy") or with small, coloured plastic rings on a 203 plastic cable tie necklace (project phase 2 funded by "The Rufford Foundation") (Sikes 2016) 204 and released at the capture site on the same night. This study was approved by the Institutional 205 Committee for the Care and Use of Animals (CICUA-060-21, National University of Colombia 206 at Medellín), and bat sampling was conducted under a Colombian government permit (ANLA, 207 resolution 0255/2014).

208 Species traits and phylogenetic relatedness

The functional traits used as predictors of species' sensitivity to habitat disturbance reflect a variety of ecological roles and indicate potential vulnerability to human-modified ecosystems 211 in Neotropical bats (Castillo-Figueroa and Pérez-Torres 2021): (i) body mass, (ii) wing 212 morphology, (iii) trophic level, and (iv) diet (Table 1). See Appendix S1 for a description of the 213 wing morphology traits, and Table S1 for individual species values of each functional trait. We 214 preferred not to include the "vertical stratification" trait due to high variation in vertical 215 vegetation structure across the different habitats in our study area (Plate S1). This trait could 216 make our results more difficult to interpret given that it can create a pattern of indifferentiable 217 use of the vertical stratum with capture height probably not designating foraging height (Rex et 218 al. 2011).

- Table 1 List and description of the four functional traits used as predictors of bat species vulnerability to habitat disturbance in the Orinoco Llanos, Colombia. Literature sources are
- 221 provided in Table S1.

Trait	Description	Source
Body mass	Average body mass of each species (adults only but excluding pregnant females)	Our capture data
Wing morphology	Aspect ratio and relative wing loading	Our capture data
Trophic level	Phytophagous or animalivorous	Literature
Diet	Based on the main food item consumed by each species: nectar or pollen, fruits or leaves, blood, invertebrates, vertebrates	Literature

222 To account for phylogenetic autocorrelation, we used the phyllostomid species-level 223 phylogeny proposed by Rojas et al. (2016) as it avoids a known mislabelling error for 224 Phyllostomus discolor present in other phylogenies that renders the genus Phyllostomus paraphyletic based on RAG2 in GenBank (Dávalos et al. 2012). One of the 20 phyllostomid 225 species (*Platyrrhinus angustirostris*) was not present in the phylogeny and was replaced by its 226 227 closest congener (P. incarum) (Velazco and Lim 2014). The supertree was pruned to obtain the 228 local phylogeny (R package 'picante', Kembel et al. 2010) and the pairwise phylogenetic distances ('cophenetic.phylo' function, R package 'ape', Paradis et al. 2004). See Fig. S1 for 229 230 detailed information on the phylogenetic relationships between bat species in this study.

231 Landscape characteristics

We included only aspects of landscape composition and configuration in the analyses to equalize the representation of environmental variables between all habitat types and avoid bias from over-representation of local vegetation structure of riparian and unflooded forests 235 (Cushman et al. 2008). We used ESRI ArcMap 10.4.1 and ERDAS Imagine 2014 software 236 based on 2021 Sentinel-2A satellite images (10 and 20 m resolution) to assess the proportional 237 cover of forests, savannah, water, rice, and other crops in the landscape. We considered mature 238 and secondary riparian forests and unflooded forests as "forests". This simplification reduces 239 the probability of misclassification of the different habitats in our study area, increases 240 statistical power for not adding more layers of complexity in a multivariate analysis framework, 241 and is based on their influence on the distribution and abundance of Neotropical bats (e.g., 242 Cleary et al. 2016; Falcão et al. 2021; Carvalho et al. 2021). The landscape metrics were based 243 on their effect on tropical bat diversity (Meyer et al. 2016) and calculated for circular buffers 244 of 1.5 km radius centered on the 12 sampling sites using the R package "landscapemetrics" 245 (Hesselbarth et al. 2019): "habitat cover" (total area in hectares of forests, savannahs, and rice 246 croplands) and "patch number" (number of patches of each habitat); and using Google Earth 247 Pro 7.3.4: "water distance" (distance in meters between each sampling site and the nearest water 248 body). We also considered "habitat type" as a qualitative variable: riparian forest, unflooded 249 forest, flooded savannah, and conventional rice crop (see Table S2). We chose to quantify the 250 landscape metrics within a circle of 1.5 km radius to reflect the home ranges of different-sized 251 Neotropical bat species (Chambers et al. 2016), to reduce the probabilities of inflating type I 252 errors due to multiple testing and, at the same time, minimize spatial overlap between sites.

Data analysis

254 We considered only phyllostomid species as they can be reliably sampled with mist nets (Kalko 255 et al. 1996) and excluded same-site recaptures and rare species with fewer than three captures 256 to increase explanatory power. This resulted in 20 species and 661 individuals for analysis 257 (Table S3), but see Table S4 for a complete list of species captured. We also analyzed all rice 258 production stages jointly because species richness and abundance did not differ significantly 259 among them (Shapiro-Wilk test on residuals P > 0.5; Gaussian-GLM P > 0.2 for both response 260 variables). All functional traits and environmental variables were standardized to a mean of 261 zero and a standard deviation of one using the 'scale' function (R package 'FD', Laliberté and 262 Legendre 2010) to facilitate comparison of their relative effects. Relative species abundance 263 was calculated based on net sampling effort for each site. Inventory completeness was evaluated 264 across the different habitats using a rarefaction/extrapolation approach (R package 'iNEXT', 265 Hsieh et al. 2016).

To infer associations between bat functional traits and species vulnerability to habitat 266 267 conversion, we employed a statistical framework that integrates RLQ and "fourth-corner" 268 analyses (Dolédec et al. 1996; Dray et al. 2014). This multivariate approach provides a direct 269 and appropriate way to test and estimate trait-environment relationships mediated by species 270 abundances (Klever et al. 2012). The ordination-based RLQ analysis summarizes the link 271 between three input datasets: R (site-environmental data), L (site-relative species abundances), 272 and Q (species traits). We analyzed table L through a correspondence analysis (CA) and the R 273 and Q tables through Hill-Smith principal components analysis (PCA) because they contained 274 a mix of continuous and categorical traits (Hill and Smith 1976). The link between the three 275 matrices is established by weighting the ordinations of the R and Q matrices with scores 276 (eigenvalues) from the correspondence analysis.

277 While RLQ maximizes the covariance between the three matrices, "fourth-corner" 278 allows to statistically test individual trait-environment relationships in the output of the RLQ. 279 We conducted the fourth-corner analysis in a highly conservative way to provide total control 280 over type I error rates. First, we used a combination of site-based permutation model 2, which 281 tests if the distribution of species with site-independent traits is influenced by environmental 282 conditions, with species-based model 4, which tests if the species composition of sites with 283 fixed environmental conditions is influenced by the species traits. Second, due to spatial and 284 phylogenetic effects that can be pervasive in trait-based ecological studies, we used a 285 randomization approach based on Moran's spectral randomization (MSR; 999 random 286 replicates) to account for spatial autocorrelation and phylogenetic relatedness between species 287 (Braga et al. 2018). Third, due to multiple comparisons, the P values were controlled by the 288 false discovery rate method (FDR; Benjamini and Hochberg 1995), and significance was 289 assessed based on 49,999 permutations (Dray et al. 2014). Analyses were performed using the 290 'ade4' R package (Dray and Dufour 2007; R Development Core Team 2020).

291 **Results**

We captured 996 bats (excluding 29 same-site recaptures) belonging to five families and 39 species. Phyllostomidae was the dominant family (67% of the total captures, 25 species), followed by Molossidae (17%, 6), Vespertilionidae (6%, 5), Emballonuridae (2%, 2) and Noctilionidae (8%, 1). The species richness and abundance of phyllostomid bats was higher in riparian forests (22 species, 169 individuals) and unflooded forests (16, 427) than in savannahs (9, 26) and rice fields (9, 46) (Table S4). Sample coverage values for phyllostomid species from
all habitats were close to 1 (Fig. S2), indicating good sampling completeness.

The total variance between landscape characteristics and functional traits from the first two RLQ ordination axes was 84.8% for axis 1 and 11% for axis 2 (Table 2). The variance expressed for the first RLQ axis also indicated variability in trait values across the different habitats (R = 41.8%, L = 28.7%, Q = 44.8%) (Table 2).

Table 2 Summary of RLQ axes values for phyllostomid bats: eigenvalues and percentage of
total co-inertia accounted for by the first two axes, covariance and correlation with the L matrix,
projected variance with the R and Q matrices, and ordinations of tables L (CA), R and Q (HillSmith PCA).

	Axis 1 (%)	Axis 2 (%)
RLQ axis eigenvalues	3.36 (84.79)	0.43 (11)
Covariance	1.82	0.66
Correlation: L	0.42	0.43
Projected variance: R	4.49	6.23
Projected variance: Q	4.26	5.61
L table CA	0.49 (28.65)	0.34 (19.74)
R table PCA (Hill-Smith)	4.60 (41.78)	2.19 (19.95)
Q table PCA (Hill-Smith)	4.48 (44.82)	2.04 (20.38)

In the three-table RLQ ordination, trophic level and diet grouped according to habitat 307 308 type (Fig. 2), i.e., unflooded forests and rice crops in farmland-dominated landscapes were 309 separated from more pristine habitats such as riparian forests and savannahs at reserve sites 310 (Fig. 3). While frugivorous bats (11 species, e.g. Artibeus spp., Carollia spp., Platyrrhinus spp., 311 Uroderma spp.) were associated with rice cover, savannah patches, and unflooded forests, 312 animalivorous bats (five species, e.g. Lampronycteris brachyotis, Lophostoma brasiliense, 313 Micronycteris minuta) with a diet composed mainly of invertebrates were associated with more 314 preserved habitats at private reserves such as riparian forests and savannah (Fig. 2 and Fig. 3).



315 Fig. 2 Results of the first two axes of RLQ analysis: (a) species, (b) principal component analysis (PCA Hill-Smith) analyzing the covariation of environmental variables, and (c) 316 317 functional traits. Abbreviations: (a) see Table S3 for full species names; green species names = 318 trophic level phytophagous, red = trophic level animalivorous, blue = both; (b) FC = forest 319 cover, SC = savannah cover, RC = rice cover, FP = forest patches, SP = savannah patches, RP320 = rice patches, WD = water distance, RF = riparian forest, UF = unflooded forest, FS = flooded 321 savannah, RF = rice fields; (c) BM = body mass, AR = aspect ratio, RWL = relative wing 322 loading, P = phytophagous, A = animalivorous, NP = nectar or pollen, FL = fruits or leaves, B 323 = blood, I = invertebrates, V = vertebrates. See Table 1 and Appendix S1 for trait descriptions.



Fig. 3 Results of the RLQ analysis relating phyllostomid species traits (black bars) and environmental variables (grey) along RLQ axis 1.

The global test of the fourth-corner statistic indicated that species composition is more dependent on the environmental site conditions (model 2, P = 0.007) and not influenced by functional traits (model 4, P = 0.126). Bat species associated with a diet composed mainly of fruits or leaves revealed a significant relationship with the environment (P = 0.03), manifesting negatively with the first RLQ axis of the environmental variables (AxcR1) (Fig. 4).

	AxcR1	AxcR2		AxcQ1	AxcQ2
Body mass	0.811	0.811	Forest cover	0.999	0.954
Aspect ratio	0.395	0.811	Savannah cover	0.418	0.969
Rel. wing loading	0.811	0.811	Rice cover	0.546	0.999
Phytophagous	0.070	0.811	Forest patches	0.468	0.969
Animalivorous	0.253	0.811	Savannah patches	0.647	0.741
Nectar or pollen	0.811	0.811	Rice patches	0.647	0.969
Fruits or leaves	0.030	0.811	Riparian forest	0.097	0.969
Blood	0.811	0.988	Unflooded forest	0.772	0.999
Invertebrates	0.768	0.811	Flooded savannah	0.969	0.969
Vertebrates	0.811	0.811	Rice crop	0.969	0.969
			Water distance	0.869	0.418

Fig. 4 Results of fourth-corner tests with *P*-values controlled by FDR. Significant (P < 0.05) negative associations are represented by blue cells. Thick black lines separate different types of

333 variables.

334 **Discussion**

335 Despite the importance for biodiversity conservation, studies addressing the link between 336 species, functional traits, and environment are still rare across the tropics (Gonçalves-Souza et 337 al. 2023). Here, we assessed how functional traits of phyllostomid bat species are correlated 338 with environmental characteristics and species distributions in two landscapes in the Colombian 339 Llanos with different levels of anthropogenic disturbance: traditional farmland-dominated sites 340 and private reserves. In general, our study revealed that while high-intensity agriculture in 341 farmlands benefited frugivorous species, habitat conversion towards conventional rice 342 monocultures negatively affected animalivorous bat species. Our results support the importance 343 of well-preserved riparian forests and savannahs in Civil Society Nature Reserves for 344 safeguarding disturbance-sensitive species. However, the conservation of most phyllostomid 345 species in the Orinoco Llanos is only possible with the protection of savannahs surrounding 346 forest patches. This protection helps maintain the species pool within the riparian forests in 347 private reserves compared to forests adjacent to intensive agricultural fields.

348 **Trophic level and diet**

A particularly interesting finding in line with our initial prediction is that phytophagous bats, represented mainly by frugivores, have shown a remarkable ability to tolerate habitat disturbance. More stable population dynamics make Neotropical bat species at the bottom of 352 food chains less threatened than those at higher trophic levels (e.g., Farneda et al. 2015; 353 Carvalho et al. 2021; Bobrowiec et al. 2022). The interpatch movements and habitat use by 354 many frugivorous species across the farmland forest patches probably is facilitated due to the 355 high abundance of fruits of successional plants, such as Cecropia spp., Ficus spp., and Vismia 356 spp. (A. Otálora-Ardila and F. Z. Farneda, pers. obs.) (Giannini and Kalko 2004). On the other 357 hand, the RLQ analysis suggested that animalivorous bats (mainly species which feed on 358 arthropods) are more extinction-prone, highlighting the importance of native vegetation cover 359 (landscape composition) and well-preserved forests for the conservation of this particular bat 360 group, as found by numerous studies elsewhere (e.g., Klingbeil and Willig 2009; Voss et al. 361 2016; Wordley et al. 2017). Farmland habitats with a high percentage of rice crops act as a 362 selective filter for many gleaning animalivorous bats (i.e., species that capture prey from the 363 surface of the vegetation or ground; ter Hofstede and Faure 2023) due to their limited roost and 364 prey availability compared to more conserved riparian forests and savannahs at private reserves. 365 Specialist forest-dwelling gleaning animalivorous bats were also strongly and negatively 366 affected by human disturbance in the Brazilian Amazon (Farneda et al. 2018) and Colombian 367 Llanos (Morales-Martínez et al. 2018; Ramírez-Mejía et al. 2020).

368 Body mass

369 Studies generally point to a strong negative correlation between body size and land-use 370 intensity, suggesting that larger mammals are demographically more fragile due to their lower 371 reproductive potential and higher trophic levels (Colinvaux 1980), which requires vast areas of 372 primary habitats for their conservation (Semper-Pascual et al. 2022). Fourth-corner analyses 373 have suggested that habitat fragmentation and disturbance significantly and negatively affect 374 larger phyllostomid bat species, both in the Amazon and on Panamanian land-bridge islands 375 (Farneda et al. 2015). However, the lack of evidence of body mass as a predictor of bat 376 vulnerability in our study may be explained by the similarities in species richness and 377 abundances of farmlands and reserves, as the largest bat species (Phyllostomus hastatus [average 91.1 g] and Artibeus lituratus [66.4 g]) and one of the smallest species (Dermanura 378 379 gnoma [9.7 g]) were recorded in both. Furthermore, we did not record heavier gleaning species, 380 such as Vampyrum spectrum (average 169 g) and Chrotopterus auritus (77 g) (ecoregister.org, 381 accessed on December 19, 2023), considered more vulnerable to habitat disturbance (Gonçalves 382 et al. 2017). These species generally require vast areas of pristine forest (Farneda et al. 2015) 383 that probably are absent in our study landscape due to multiple human activities.

384 Wing morphology

385 Wing morphology is an equally important and widely used trait to predict the sensitivity of bat 386 species in human-modified landscapes (Marinello and Bernard 2014), which intricately 387 correlates with diet, habitat use, home-range size (Crane et al. 2022), and echolocation 388 characteristics (Zou et al. 2022). The fact that some phyllostomid generalist species with similar 389 wing morphology values are present throughout the different habitats may have resulted in 390 weak support for this trait as predictor of bat species vulnerability to habitat conversion in the 391 Orinoco Llanos (see Table S1). For example, the haematophagous bat Desmodus rotundus was 392 recorded in three habitats (riparian forests, unflooded forests, and savannahs) and had average 393 values of aspect ratio and relative wing loading similar to some widespread frugivorous bats, 394 such as Chiroderma villosum and Platyrrhinus helleri.

395 Caveats and guidelines for future research

396 Fieldwork in the Orinoco Llanos is challenging due to public safety situations and poor or 397 absent road infrastructure, and our results might have been slightly biased due to the limited 398 number of replicates of each habitat. Sampling more riparian forests could increase the power 399 of the fourth-corner test (ter Braak et al. 2012), and may have resulted in a more evident 400 relationship between riparian habitats and animalivorous bats. In a context of information loss, 401 we had to convert categorical traits into a numerical factor (0 or 1, Table S1) to be able to 402 perform the phylogenetic and spatial autocorrelation analyses (MSR; Braga et al. 2018). We 403 also calculated the shortest distance to water between each sampling site and the nearest water 404 body based on fixed values, which may have underestimated its effects on bat communities due 405 to the high seasonal fluctuation of the Llanos, with dry and rainy extreme periods.

406 The type of trait considered can influence species' vulnerability, and some physiological 407 traits (e.g., "thermal tolerance", "metabolic rate") could potentially be important for functional 408 bat ecology (McKechnie and Wolf 2019). Nevertheless, the general lack of physiological data 409 for most Neotropical bat species makes it impossible to understand how environmental 410 temperature fluctuations and energy requirements affect the resilience of species to habitat 411 disturbance. The paucity of ecological information for many bat species regarding other traits 412 such as "mobility or home range" (Bernard and Fenton 2003), "roosting behaviour" (Marroquin et al. 2023), and "diet specialization" (Villalobos-Chaves and Santana 2022) further challenges 413 414 our ability to make better-informed model predictions.

415 The exponential increase in trait-based studies in the last decade has led to a wide range 416 of often disparate results due to different geographic locations, widespread use of certain 417 species traits (Gonçalves-Souza et al. 2023), a proliferation of statistical procedures in 418 functional ecology (Palacio et al. 2022), and the integration or not of phylogenetic and spatial 419 information in the analyses (Chichorro et al. 2019). Therefore, we recommend extending this 420 line of research through a global meta-analysis to determine under what ecological and 421 methodological circumstances a specific trait is more important than others. Further, we suggest 422 replicating the methodological approach of this study across the other habitat types in the 423 Orinoco Llanos, such as aeolian and highplain savannahs (see Romero-Ruiz et al. 2010). 424 Furthermore, we also highlight the urgency of evaluating how different scenarios of intensive 425 monoculture, fire management, and climate change across the Orinoquia ecosystems affect bat 426 functional composition and ecosystem services.

427 The importance of Civil Society Nature Reserves for conservation

428 The capacity of agricultural landscapes to support biodiversity will likely determine new 429 pathways for conservation policy (Melo et al. 2013), especially in tropical savannahs currently 430 characterized by high rates of habitat and species loss (Williams et al. 2022). Understanding 431 which species traits are most closely correlated to different land-uses will enable us to identify 432 which species are particularly vulnerable and ways to mitigate the harmful effects of habitat 433 conversion on biodiversity (Jeliazkov et al. 2020). Our study showed that some animalivorous 434 bat species (e.g., Lampronycteris brachyotis, Lophostoma brasiliense, Micronycteris minuta, 435 Trachops cirrhosus) are lost with increasing land-use intensity (rice crops). In this regard, 436 private reserves like La Esperanza and El Boral, are important strongholds for the conservation 437 of many disturbance-sensitive bat species. The importance of private protected areas for 438 conserving some threatened vertebrate species has also been documented in Colombia by 439 López-Arévalo et al. (2021) and in the Brazilian Cerrado by De Marco et al. (2023).

The private reserves protect part of a natural ecosystem, and their owners have voluntarily committed to biodiversity conservation without receiving financial government assistance (Pasquini et al. 2011). Initiatives of the Colombian and Venezuelan government's environmental departments and agencies to support the creation of private reserves via payments for ecosystem services are scarce (Aldana and Mitchley 2013). Protecting ecosystems outside protected and indigenous areas is imperative and urgent, mainly in conservation unitsscarce ecoregions such as the Orinoco Llanos (Williams et al. 2022), recognized for its high diversity of natural wetlands (Piraquive-Bermúdez and Behling 2022). Encouraging the creation of more wildlife-friendly farming practices and supporting private reserves in the longterm is key to ensuring the functional connectivity between forest and savannah patches in the Orinoco Llanos. This, in turn, would enable the conservation of a more complete set of bat species across these human-disturbed landscapes and the maintenance of their crucial ecosystem functions and services, such as insect suppression and pollination.

453 Supporting information

454 Additional supplementary material may be found online in the Supporting Information section.

455 Authors' contributions

AOA and FZF designed research; AOA and FZF performed the landscape/statistical analyses and FZF led the writing of the manuscript, supported mainly by AOA and CFJM; AOA and FZF collected data; AOA and FZF carried out the field expeditions, funding acquisition and project administration. CGP gave support from Instituto Alexander von Humboldt and HFLA and JP from Colombia National University as project supervisors. All authors contributed critically to the drafts, gave final approval for publication, and do not have any conflict of interest to declare.

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469 Availability of data and material

- 470 Data on species functional traits: uploaded as online supporting information (Table S1).
- 471 Environmental descriptors of the study sites: uploaded as online supporting information (Table472 S2).
- 473 Bat species occupancy and abundance change: uploaded as online supporting information474 (Table S3).

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