

ELECTRONIC SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL

Using avian functional traits to assess the impact of land-cover change on ecosystem processes linked to resilience in tropical forests

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Expanded Methods

Study design

Data were collected in two study regions: the municipality of Paragominas (1.9 Mha) and parts of the municipalities of Santarém, Mojuí dos Campos and Belterra (~1 Mha). These two regions are situated in different areas of endemism (Belém and Tapajós, respectively). They also differ in their histories of human occupation and use. The city of Santarém was founded in 1661, and northern Santarém municipality has been densely settled by small-scale farmers for more than a century. In contrast, Paragominas was founded in 1959 and the municipality had a very low population density prior to its colonization by cattle ranchers in the 1950s and 1960s, and the boom in the timber industry during the 1980s and 1990s. Large-scale, mechanized agriculture became established in both regions only in the early 2000s, and has increased rapidly in recent years, currently occupying approximately 40,000 and 60,000 ha in Santarém and Paragominas, respectively.

Fieldwork was coordinated by a research consortium of 30 institutions and partner organisations (Gardner et al. 2013) in the Sustainable Amazon Network (RAS; <http://www.redeamazoniasustentavel.org>), a multi-disciplinary initiative assessing the sustainability of land-use systems in the Brazilian Amazon. The RAS sampling design is based on a sample of 18 third- or fourth-order hydrological catchments (c. 5000 ha) in each region, which were delineated using a digital elevation model and SWAT (Soil and Water Assessment Tool) for ARCGIS 9.3. Catchments are distributed over a gradient of forest cover in 2009 (10–100% in Santarém; 6–100% in Paragominas) with detailed ecological information collected from study transects and individual farms within each catchment. The 36 study catchments were selected to capture the full deforestation gradient, including all

current land-use practices and major soil types. For lists of species identified, and links to digital vouchers supporting identifications, see Lees et al. (2012; 2013).

Ecological data were collected from a sample of 300 m study transects in every catchment, distributed using a stratified-random sampling design, where a standard density of transects (1 per 400 ha) was distributed across the catchment in proportion to the percentage cover of total forest and production areas. For example, if half of the landscape was covered by forest, then half of the transects were allocated to forest. In catchments with very low levels of forest cover we sampled additional forest transects to ensure a minimum sample of three transects in all catchments. Within each of these two land-use categories (forest and non-forest), sample transects were distributed randomly with a minimum separation of 1500 m to minimize spatial dependence. The use of this stratified-random sampling design provided a balance between the need for: (1) proportional sampling of forest and non-forest areas, and a sufficient density and coverage of sample points to capture major differences in landscape structure and composition among different catchments; and (2) a well-dispersed set of sampling points across forest and non-forest areas that captured important environmental heterogeneities within each catchment and across the region as a whole, helping to minimize problems of pseudoreplication. The final distribution of sampling points among habitat categories is presented in Moura et al. (2013).

Land-cover categories

Transects were classified *a posteriori* into five land-cover types, using 2010 Landsat images and a decision tree classification algorithm (Gardner et al. 2013), as (i) primary forest—the region’s original climax physiognomy that has never been cleared for agriculture, and for which no recent evidence of logging or fire events was

detected; (ii) disturbed forest—primary forests that have never been clear-felled but have suffered recent logging or fire events; (iii) secondary forests—forests that have developed after complete clearance; (iv) pasture and (v) arable—typically soybean fields or rice. We subdivided primary forests into (i) and (ii) based on 20 year chronosequence of Landsat images for each transect, calibrated by interviews with local farmers, as well as our own ground-truthed surveys. The former remote sensing analysis was carried out using a time series of georeferenced 30-m spatial resolution Landsat images from 1990–2010 in Santarém, and from 1988 to 2010 in Paragominas. Images were first corrected for atmospheric haze and smoke interference and then classified using a decision tree algorithm (see Gardner et al. 2013). The ground-truthed survey included a combination of physical evidence of selective logging (debris and stumps) and understory fires (charcoal and fire scars on stems found during field surveys) (see Berenguer et al. 2014).

Environmental variables

Vegetation surveys for all woody plants (trees and lianas) and palms above 10 cm DBH (Diameter at Breast Height) were conducted in 10 x 250 m plots, subdivided into 10 x (10 x 15 m) parcels. Smaller individuals (2.5 to 10 cm DBH) were sampled in five subplots of 5 x 20 m. All individuals were identified to species or morphospecies level with herbarium samples collected wherever appropriate. Along each forest transect, 5 hemispherical photos were taken at a 50 m intervals in order to determine the canopy openness of each area. The camera was placed 1 m from the ground and faced north. Canopy openness was determined with the software Gap LightAnalyzer 2.0 (Frazer et al. 1999) which calculates the percentage of the canopy covered by trees crowns.

Bird surveys

Birds provide a useful system for understanding how complex tropical forest ecosystems respond to landscape disturbance for two main reasons. First, they are the best-known class of organisms, with comprehensive datasets available on ecological roles and interspecific variation on their life histories (Vandewalle et al. 2010). Second, they are relatively time- and cost-effective to sample (Gardner et al. 2008).

We surveyed birds at all main study transects. In each transect, three point count stations were located at 0, 150 and 300 m. We carried out six surveys per transect (two repetitions of three 15 minute, 75 m fixed-width surveys). Repetitions were carried out within the same week but not on the same day; all species identified were recorded. Fieldwork in Paragominas was carried out by A.C.L. and N.G.M. between 28 July and 20 November 2010 and then again from 18 to 29 May 2011. Fieldwork in Santarém was conducted by A.C.L., N.G.M., Christian Borges Andretti and Bradley J.W. Davis from 16 October 2010 to 8 February 2011. All observers had extensive experience of conducting bird surveys in Brazil. Point counts were recorded with solid state recorders to facilitate identification of bird calls which were not identified in the field. Surveys were not carried out on days with persistent rain and/or strong winds. If a species' identification was ever in doubt playbacks were used to lure the vocalizing bird for visual confirmation. Playbacks were not used systematically to increase the detectability of any given species during the point count surveys. Any effect of seasonality (presence/absence of austral/boreal migrants, fluctuations in vocalization activity, etc.) was minimized by systematically rotating surveys between catchments of varying total forest cover and between habitat types.

All bird surveys in dense tropical forest suffer from the problem imperfect detection because some species are far less detectable than others, particularly by

sight. We have minimised this problem by ensuring that all surveys were conducted by experienced fieldworkers skilled at identifying avian acoustic signals. Detection of bird species by songs and calls is standard in tropical forests, and around 90% of our survey detections were auditory rather than visual, reducing the potential bias caused by reliance on visual detection. Another potential bias relates to sampling intensity as our sampling regime resulted in fewer surveys undertaken in open habitats. However, reduced sampling is offset by increased detectability of bird species in open habitats which means that a similar proportion of resident species can be detected with fewer survey visits. In support of this view, we note that relatively few species were excluded from analyses because of their rarity in non-forest land-cover (see Dataset 1, sheet 3), and that species accumulation curves indicate that surveys were near-asymptotic in all habitats (Moura et al. 2013).

Biometric traits

We compiled a functional trait dataset from museum specimens collected as near as possible to the study localities. We took seven morphometric measurements from all specimens: beak length, width and depth, wing length, Kipp's distance (the distance between the tip of the longest primary/wing tip and the first secondary feather measured on the folded wing), tail length and tarsus length.

The rationale for selecting these measurements was as follows. Beak size and shape predict the size and type of food items selected by birds (Wheelright 1985; Miles et al. 1987) and thus provide a long-established index of dietary niche (Schoener 1965; Hsu et al. 2014; Tobias et al. 2014). Similarly, tarsus, tail, and wing length are locomotory traits associated with substrate use and foraging manoeuvre (Miles and Ricklefs 1984; Miles et al. 1987; Tobias et al. 2014). Finally, Kipp's

distance gives further insight into wing shape and flight ability, thus providing information about dispersal limitation and gap-crossing ability (Dawideit et al. 2009; Lees and Peres 2009; Claramunt et al. 2012).

All three beak measurements were taken at or from the anterior edge of the nostrils: (1) width, (2) length to the tip of the beak and (3) depth (as vertical height). Wing length was the distance between the carpal joint and the wing tip of the unflattened wing. Kipp's distance was measured from the tip of the first secondary and the tip of the longest primary on the closed wing. Tail length was taken from the point at which the two central rectrices meet the skin to the tip of the longest rectrix. Tarsus length was measured from the middle of the rear ankle joint, i.e. the notch between the tibia and tarsus, to the end of the last scale of the acrotarsium. All measurements were taken with digital callipers to the nearest 0.01 mm, apart from wing length and tail length, which were measured using an end-ruler to the nearest mm.

To account for intra-specific variability, we aimed to measure at least two males and two females for each species. This was not possible for 48 monomorphic species (12% of total) lacking four specimens of known sex, so in these cases we included unsexed specimens where necessary. On average, we measured 5.6 ± 2.8 specimens per species (3.0 ± 2.2 males; 2.4 ± 0.9 females; 1.9 ± 1.1 unsexed). We generated a mean value for each morphological trait by averaging data across all (male, female and unsexed) specimens for each species. Most specimens were accessed in the Museu Paraense Emílio Goeldi, Belém, Brazil ($n = 1399$ specimens) to ensure that the phenotypes measured were sampled in the same region as our bird surveys. Gaps were filled using specimens stored at the Natural History Museum, Tring, UK ($n = 394$ specimens), as well as smaller samples of specimens at the

Louisiana State University Museum of Zoology and the American Museum of Natural History. Full details of the sex, locality, source and acquisition numbers for specimens used in this study are presented in Dataset 1 (sheet 2).

Habitat classification

Within the tropics, species occurring in more structurally dense habitats (e.g. forest) are expected to be less dispersive than more open-habitat specialists (e.g. grassland) (Weir et al. 2009). Empirical studies show that forest species may fail to cross even narrow breaks in habitat easily crossed by open country species (Moore et al. 2008; Lees and Peres 2009). This is thought to occur both because of the behavioral inhibition of forest species to cross gaps (Harris and Reed 2002) and because the adaptations required for movement amongst dense vegetation (e.g. short and rounded wings) are not favourable for long distance flight (Stratford and Robinson 2005). Species were assigned to one of two habitat categories according to whether they are (i) regularly detected in forest or (ii) almost exclusively restricted to non-forested habitats, following Bregman et al. (2014). We defined forest as any type of evergreen or deciduous woodland lacking gaps between tree canopies.

Analyses

To quantify the functional trait structure of avian communities, we used Functional Diversity (FD) and Functional Dispersion (F_{DIS}) because they focus on different components of community structure. The key difference is that FD is the sum of branch lengths of a given trait or set of traits, whereas F_{DIS} is the mean distance of all species to the community mean trait value. Branch lengths are calculated from a dendrogram of trait similarity (Petchey and Gaston 2002). This means that FD is

strongly correlated with species richness, whereas F_{DIS} is not (Laliberte and Legendre 2010). We retain FD because it is a standard measure in the literature and performs relatively well in simulations (Kraft and Ackerly 2010), and we add F_{DIS} as an additional measure because it has the advantage of being more sensitive to changes in the overall spread, or ‘dispersion’ of traits (Laliberte and Legendre 2010).

All analyses were conducted in *R* (R Development Core Team 2014). Both functional diversity metrics were calculated using species presence-absence data: FD was calculated using the ‘*Picante*’ package (Kembel et al. 2010); F_{DIS} was calculated using the ‘*FD*’ package (Laliberte and Legendre 2010); GLMMs were fitted using the ‘*glmmADMB*’ package (Skaug et al. 2011).

Expanded Discussion

The results of mean community trait analyses can be interpreted in the light of specific changes in community composition. For example, we found that the beaks of forest and non-forest species were on average shorter, wider and deeper in disturbed habitats (figure S2c). Among insectivores, we attribute this shift to the loss of species with long and slender beaks (e.g. *Campylorhamphus*, *Galbula*), and the prevalence of species with shorter, wider beaks (e.g. *Stelgidopteryx*), whereas for frugivores it can perhaps be explained by the predominance of oscine passerines (e.g. *Thraupis*, *Euphonia*) in agricultural landscapes.

Our results revealed that the locomotory trait (tarsus:tail/wing ratio) decreased for forest insectivores in degraded habitats (figure S2d), again suggesting a shift in the dominant foraging behaviour within communities. Community-wide changes in locomotory traits are presumably driven by the loss of terrestrial and semi-terrestrial insectivores (e.g. *Sclerurus*, *Formicarius*) with long legs and short wings, and

colonisation by vagile arboreal or open country insectivores (e.g. *Tyrannus*) with short legs and long wings (Barlow et al. 2006). In frugivores, a similar decrease in the locomotory trait of non-forest species with disturbance (figure S2h) is largely driven by the loss of ground-dwelling frugivores (e.g. *Psophia*), and the persistence of canopy frugivores.

Mean hand-wing index increases across the disturbance gradient, particularly for forest insectivores (figure S2b) and non-forest frugivores (figure S2f). This suggests that better dispersers typically dominate communities in degraded forests and agricultural areas. Forest insectivores, in particular, are often highly dispersal-limited, with many species unable or unwilling to make prolonged flights across open areas (Moore et al. 2008, Lees and Peres 2009). These species have smaller hand-wing index, and tend to suffer both increased extinction and reduced likelihood of subsequent recolonisation in fragmented or degraded forests (Canaday 1996, Stratford and Stouffer 1999, Sekercioglu et al. 2002, Lees and Peres 2008, Tobias et al. 2013).

Limitations

One limitation of this study is the lack of temporal replication. Fluctuations in species richness and abundance over time are widespread in nature (Boulinier et al. 1998) but adequate time series for communities remain rare (Debinski and Holt 2000). We note that further changes in bird community structure and composition are perhaps likely in our system because land-cover change in parts of these landscapes has been a relatively recent phenomenon (Gardner et al. 2013), suggesting that many communities still owe an extinction debt (Tilman et al. 1994, Wearn et al. 2012). Thus, even if bird communities are currently capable of maintaining ecosystem function, local extinctions may further reduce functionality in future.

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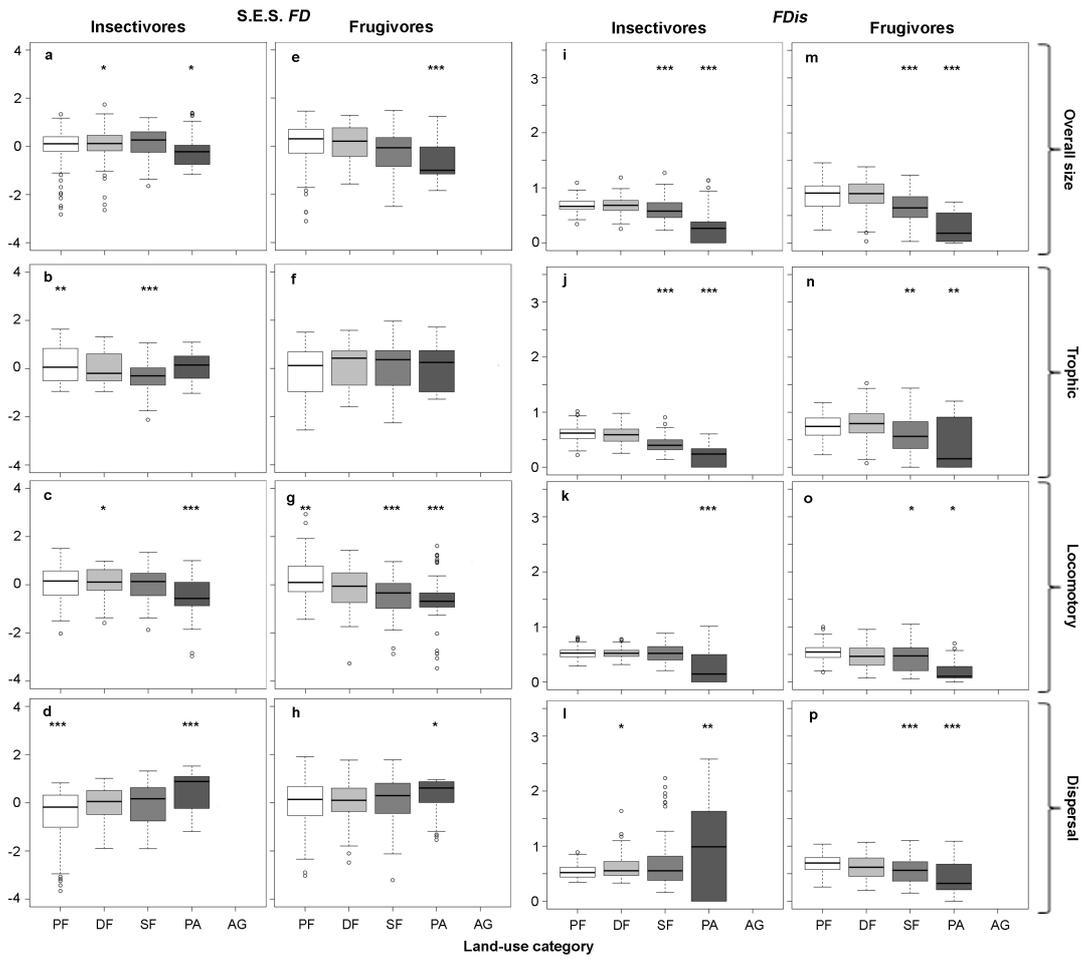


Figure S1. Standardized effect size (SES) of Functional Diversity (FD) and functional dispersion (F_{DIS}) for four functional traits of forest insectivores (a–d, i–l) and frugivores (e–h, m–p) in 330 avian communities across five land uses: primary forest (PF), disturbed primary forest (DF), secondary forest (SF), pasture (PA) and arable agriculture (AG). Data from Santarém and Paragominas are pooled. Asterisks indicate that observed FD was significantly different from null expectations, or that observed F_{DIS} was significantly different from the primary forest F_{DIS} (* <0.05 , ** <0.01 , *** <0.001). All statistical results are from two-tailed Wilcoxon signed-ranks tests.

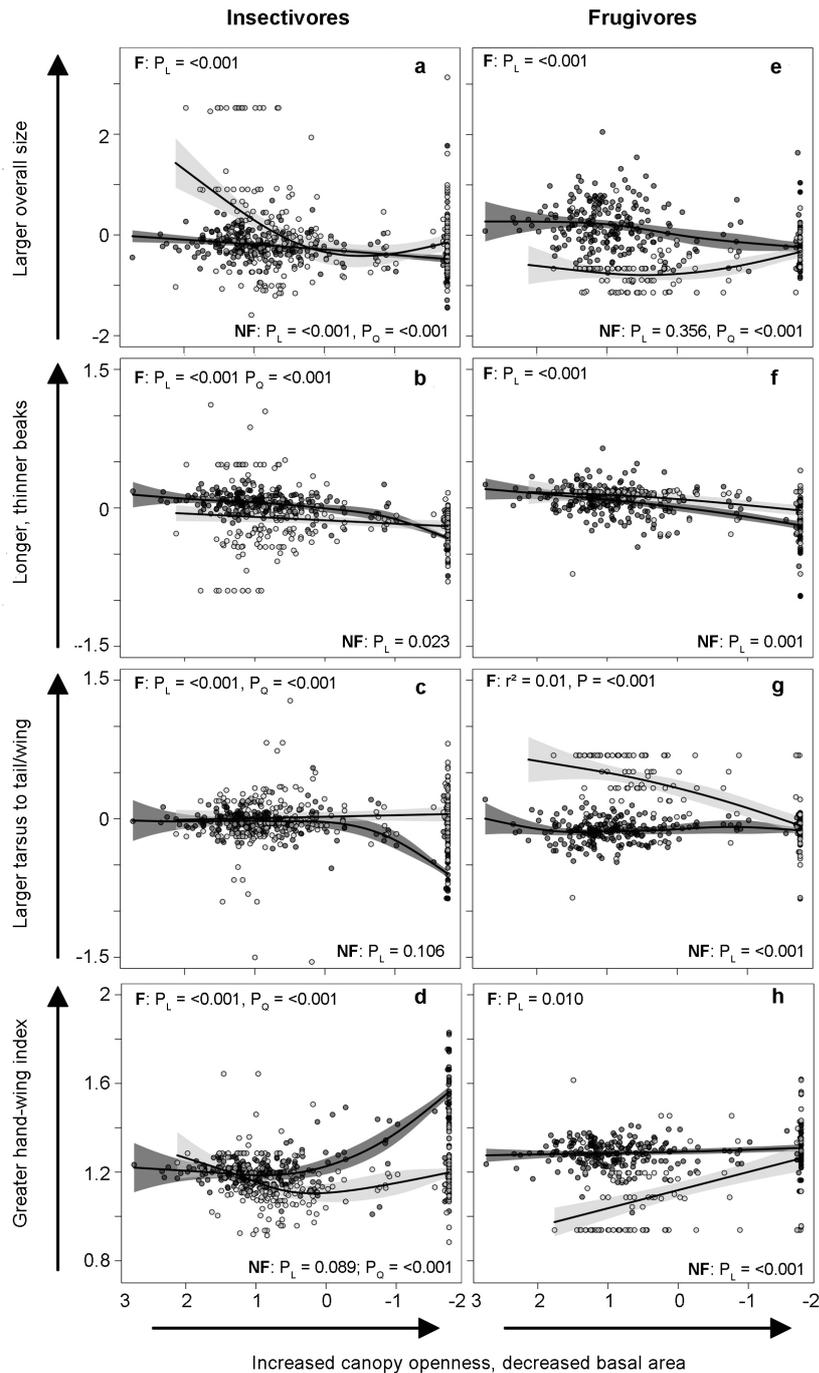


Figure S2. Change in functional traits in 330 avian communities distributed across a land-use gradient for insectivores (a–d) and frugivores (e–h). Forest species (8 models) are shown in dark grey; non-forest species (8 models) in light grey (lines show model fit from Generalised Additive Modelling; shaded areas show standard error ± 1.96 S.E). All data were derived from principal component analyses; see the electronic supplementary material, table S3.4, S3.5 and S3.12. Significance (P) values for linear (P_L) and quadratic (P_Q) forms of the environmental PC axis are from Generalised Linear Modelling (see table S13 for more details).

Table S1 Principal Component Analysis (PCA) for insectivorous birds showing Eigenvalues and the proportion of variance explained. PC1 from both trophic and locomotory trait analyses were combined in a secondary PCA to create an axis representing overall body size. The second PC for both trophic and locomotory traits captured variation independent of body size.

Functional trait	PC	Proportion variance	PCA loadings		
			Tarsus length	Tail length	Wing chord
Locomotory	1	0.695	0.471	0.604	0.642
	2	0.237	0.864	-0.464	-0.197
Trophic	1	0.790	Beak length	Beak width	Beak depth
	2	0.154	0.532	0.593	0.604
Body size	1	0.812	0.842	-0.446	-0.304
			Trophic PC1	Locomotory PC1	
			0.707	0.707	

Table S2 Principal Component Analysis (PCA) for frugivorous birds showing Eigenvalues and the proportion of variance explained. PC1 from both trophic and locomotory trait analyses were combined in a secondary PCA to create an axis representing overall body size. The second PC for both trophic and locomotory traits captured variation independent of body size.

Functional trait	PC	Proportion variance	PCA loadings		
			Tarsus length	Tail length	Wing chord
Locomotory	1	0.847	0.560	0.565	0.606
	2	0.119	0.726	-0.687	-0.458
Trophic	1	0.931	Beak length	Beak width	Beak depth
	2	0.056	0.567	0.590	0.574
Body size	1	0.686	0.760	-0.108	-0.641
			Trophic PC1	Locomotory PC1	
			0.707	0.707	

Table S3 Results of Principal Component Analysis (PCA) for environmental variables (mean canopy openness and mean basal area). Eigenvalues and the proportion of variance explained are presented for PC1 and PC2.

	PC	Proportion variance	PCA Loadings	
			Mean canopy openness	Mean basal area
Environmental variables	1	0.924	-0.707	0.707
	2	0.076	0.707	0.707

Table S4 Differences in *FD* of insectivore and frugivore communities, comparing between all combinations of land-use categories: primary forest (PF), disturbed primary forest (DF), secondary forest (SF), pasture (PA) and agriculture (AG). Analyses are two-tailed Wilcoxon tests.

Group	Land use	Insectivores		Frugivores	
		<i>V</i>	Wilcoxon <i>P</i>	<i>V</i>	Wilcoxon <i>P</i>
All	PF vs DF	3695	0.742	4148	0.082
	PF vs SF	4515	<0.001	4075	<0.001
	PF vs PA	6055	<0.001	5311	<0.001
	PF vs AG	2185	<0.001	–	–
	DF vs SF	3511	<0.001	2732	0.013
	DF vs PA	4688	<0.001	3686	<0.001
	DF vs AG	1679	<0.001	–	–
	SF vs PA	2606	0.056	2772	<0.002
	SF vs AG	1238	<0.001	–	–
	PA vs AG	1447	<0.001	–	–
Forest	PF vs DF	3917	0.307	4029	0.171
	PF vs SF	4901	<0.001	4026	<0.001
	PF vs PA	4641	<0.001	5383	<0.001
	PF vs AG	–	–	–	–
	DF vs SF	3654	<0.001	2684	0.023
	DF vs PA	3540	<0.001	3805	<0.001
	DF vs AG	–	–	–	–
	SF vs PA	2611	<0.001	2853	<0.001
	SF vs AG	–	–	–	–
	PA vs AG	–	–	–	–
Non-forest	PF vs DF	313	0.549	–	–
	PF vs SF	404	0.846	–	–
	PF vs PA	330	0.002	–	–
	PF vs AG	245	0.175	–	–
	DF vs SF	1029	0.466	–	–
	DF vs PA	787	<0.001	–	–
	DF vs AG	613	0.048	–	–
	SF vs PA	735	<0.001	–	–
	SF vs AG	622	0.232	–	–
	PA vs AG	1461	<0.001	–	–

Table S5 Comparison of *FD* in disturbed habitats relative to primary forest for insectivore and frugivore communities. Analyses are two-tailed Wilcoxon tests (i.e. testing whether the observed values are significantly different from the null expectation in either direction). Bold denotes significant differences. The standardised effect size (SES) is provided along with the standard error (SE). Analyses were run separately for individual functional traits in different land-use categories: primary forest (PF), disturbed primary forest (DF), secondary forest (SF), pasture (PF) and agriculture (AG). The number of communities statistically different from the null expectation are given (with the total number of communities for each test in brackets). Sample size can differ within categories because guild communities sometimes contained too few species to be included in analyses.

Group	Land use	Insectivores				Frugivores			
		SES (mean + SE)	No. communities < expectation (sample)	<i>N</i>	Wilcoxon <i>P</i>	SES (mean + SE)	No. communities < expectation (sample)	<i>N</i>	Wilcoxon <i>P</i>
All	PF	0.046 (0.665)	33 (97)	2757	0.172	0.083 (0.863)	43 (97)	2717	0.221
	DF	0.073 (0.567)	26 (74)	1670	0.129	0.027 (0.859)	44 (74)	1418	0.872
	SF	-0.162 (0.573)	34 (59)	670	0.105	-0.211 (0.809)	41 (59)	541	0.010
	PA	0.015 (0.589)	40 (74)	1487	0.594	-0.288 (0.645)	50 (59)	357	<0.001
	AG	0.167 (0.693)	8 (23)	178	0.235	–	–	–	–
Forest	PF	-0.043 (0.725)	55 (97)	2248	0.645	0.024 (0.796)	49 (97)	2385	0.977
	DF	0.061 (0.699)	37 (74)	1636	0.182	0.100 (0.930)	37 (74)	1482	0.613
	SF	-0.195 (0.743)	37 (59)	674	0.112	-0.038 (0.868)	33 (59)	777	0.417
	PA	-0.274 (0.553)	35 (48)	385	0.037	-0.481 (0.465)	52 (57)	157	<0.001
	AG	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Non-forest	PF	0.660 (1.446)	8 (17)	104	0.207	–	–	–	–
	DF	0.611 (1.272)	17 (41)	591	0.037	-0.431 (0.365)	7 (8)	2	0.023
	SF	-0.369 (0.637)	34 (46)	211	<0.001	-0.356 (0.814)	19 (22)	49	0.010
	PA	-0.061 (0.941)	43 (74)	1202	0.319	1.84 (0.789)	0 (10)	55	0.002
	AG	0.244 (1.097)	12 (23)	147	0.800	–	–	–	–

Table S6 Comparison of *FDis* in disturbed habitats relative to primary forest for insectivore and frugivore communities. Analyses are two-tailed Wilcoxon tests (i.e. testing whether the observed values are significantly different from the null expectation in either direction). Bold denotes significant differences. Analyses were run separately for individual trait syndromes in different land-use categories: primary forest (PF), disturbed primary forest (DF), secondary forest (SF), pasture (PF) and agriculture (AG).

Group	Land use	Insectivores		Frugivores	
		<i>V</i>	Wilcoxon <i>P</i>	<i>V</i>	Wilcoxon <i>P</i>
All	PF vs DF	3150	0.172	3613	0.942
	PF vs SF	3670	0.003	4406	<0.001
	PF vs PA	2292	<0.001	6370	<0.001
	PF vs AG	590	<0.001	1135	<0.001
	DF vs SF	2965	<0.001	3328	<0.001
	DF vs PA	1979	0.004	4814	<0.001
	DF vs AG	512	0.002	864	<0.001
	SF vs PA	1008	<0.001	3308	<0.001
	SF vs AG	268	<0.001	649	<0.001
	PA vs AG	653	0.053	634	0.003
Forest	PF vs DF	2958	0.049	3516	0.821
	PF vs SF	3148	0.296	4238	<0.001
	PF vs PA	4615	<0.001	6202	<0.001
	PF vs AG	1643	<0.001	1137	<0.001
	DF vs SF	2649	0.035	3225	<0.001
	DF vs PA	3579	<0.001	4659	<0.001
	DF vs AG	1252	<0.001	862	<0.001
	SF vs PA	2711	<0.001	3241	<0.001
	SF vs AG	979	<0.001	651	<0.001
	PA vs AG	928	<0.001	613	0.004
Non-forest	PF vs DF	812	0.001	126	0.049
	PF vs SF	622	<0.001	144	0.004
	PF vs PA	464	<0.001	138	0.036
	PF vs AG	129.5	<0.001*	–	–
	DF vs SF	1515	0.768	549	0.147
	DF vs PA	1242	<0.001	461	0.758
	DF vs AG	315	<0.001	–	–
	SF vs PA	1048	<0.001	848	0.322
SF vs AG	278	<0.001	–	–	
PA vs AG	601	0.018	–	–	

Table S7 Comparison of *FD* in disturbed habitats relative to primary forest for insectivore and frugivore communities (all species), with analyses run separately for individual functional traits in different land-cover categories. Analyses are two-tailed Wilcoxon tests (i.e. testing whether observed values are significantly different from the null expectation in either direction). Bold denotes significant differences. The standardised effect size (SES) is provided along with the standard error (SE). Land-cover categories: primary forest (PF), disturbed primary forest (DF), secondary forest (SF), pasture (PA) and agriculture (AG). Sample size differs within categories because guild communities sometimes contained too few species to be included in analyses.

Functional trait	Land cover	Insectivores				Frugivores			
		Mean SES (SE)	No. communities < expectation (sample)	<i>N</i>	Wilcoxon <i>P</i>	SES (mean + SE)	No. communities < expectation (sample)	<i>N</i>	Wilcoxon <i>P</i>
Body size	PF	0.115 (0.597)	35 (97)	3109	0.008	0.076 (1.171)	30 (97)	3076	0.012
	DF	0.089 (0.575)	34 (74)	1619	0.213	0.204 (0.753)	22 (74)	1972	0.002
	SF	-0.064 (0.567)	32 (59)	815	0.600	-0.327 (1.057)	31 (59)	708	0.183
	PA	0.173 (0.378)	20 (74)	2131	<0.001	-0.646 (0.795)	41 (59)	297	<0.001
	AG	0.207 (0.633)	7 (23)	184	0.170	-0.210 (1.112)	2 (4)	4	0.875
Trophic traits	PF	0.189 (0.576)	43 (97)	3439	<0.001	-0.053 (0.860)	44 (97)	2222	0.580
	DF	-0.025 (0.531)	48 (74)	1401	0.944	0.083 (0.853)	29 (74)	1472	0.651
	SF	-0.376 (0.505)	49 (59)	328	<0.001	-0.119 (0.966)	26 (59)	766	0.371
	PA	-0.281 (0.276)	64 (74)	213	<0.001	-0.227 (0.892)	28 (59)	628	0.053
	AG	0.301 (0.439)	7 (23)	227	0.005	–	–	–	–
Locomotory traits	PF	0.073 (0.544)	41 (97)	2865	0.080	0.044 (0.815)	48 (97)	2485	0.700
	DF	0.062 (0.479)	32 (74)	1669	0.130	0.016 (0.895)	28 (74)	2485	0.304
	SF	-0.097 (0.556)	35 (59)	683	0.128	-0.042 (0.908)	25 (59)	913	0.836
	PA	0.280 (0.487)	19 (74)	2210	<0.001	-0.581 (1.015)	38 (59)	399	<0.001
	AG	0.246 (0.533)	8 (23)	195	0.086	–	–	–	–
Dispersal trait	PF	-0.195 (0.755)	44 (97)	2166	0.450	0.072 (0.752)	41 (97)	2963	0.035
	DF	-0.032 (0.607)	33 (74)	1480	0.620	-0.081 (0.823)	34 (74)	1337	0.788
	SF	-0.143 (0.595)	26 (59)	746	0.296	0.071 (0.843)	23 (59)	1046	0.226
	PA	0.375 (0.468)	12 (74)	2394	<0.001	0.363 (0.691)	16 (59)	1336	<0.001
	AG	0.611 (0.427)	2 (23)	273	<0.001	0.059 (0.965)	1 (4)	6	0.875

Table S9 Comparison of *FD* in disturbed habitats relative to primary forest for insectivore and frugivore communities (non-forest species), with analyses run separately for individual functional traits in different land-cover categories. Analyses are two-tailed Wilcoxon tests (i.e. testing whether observed values are significantly different from the null expectation in either direction). Bold denotes significant differences. The standardised effect size (SES) is provided along with the standard error (SE). Analyses were run separately for individual functional traits in different land-cover categories: forest (PF), disturbed primary forest (DF), secondary forest (SF), pasture (PA) and agriculture (AG). The number of communities statistically different from the null expectation are given (with the total number of communities for each test in brackets). Sample size may differ within categories because guild communities sometimes contained too few species to be included in analyses.

Functional trait	Land cover	Insectivores				Frugivores			
		Mean SES (SE)	No. communities < expectation (sample)	<i>V</i>	Wilcoxon <i>P</i>	SES (mean + SE)	No. communities < expectation (sample)	<i>V</i>	Wilcoxon <i>P</i>
Body size	PF	0.493 (1.084)	7 (17)	110	0.120	–	–	–	–
	DF	0.389 (0.971)	17 (41)	601	0.027	0.047 (0.936)	4 (8)	18	1
	SF	-0.571 (1.018)	31 (46)	239	<0.001	-0.098 (1.004)	15 (22)	103	0.463
	PA	0.170 (0.847)	22 (74)	1884	0.008	0.495 (0.732)	2 (10)	48	0.037
	AG	0.256 (0.918)	8 (23)	184	0.170	–	–	–	–
Trophic traits	PF	0.674 (1.536)	5 (17)	110	0.120	–	–	–	–
	DF	0.105 (1.099)	19 (41)	450	0.808	-0.261 (1.131)	5 (8)	16	0.844
	SF	0.237 (1.019)	22 (46)	640	0.282	-0.193 (1.011)	14 (22)	97	0.354
	PA	-0.168 (0.548)	50 (74)	854	0.004	0.354 (1.022)	4 (10)	40	0.232
	AG	0.236 (0.516)	9 (23)	199	0.065	–	–	–	–
Locomotory traits	PF	-0.067 (0.995)	10 (17)	68	0.712	–	–	–	–
	DF	-0.307 (0.766)	31 (41)	257	0.024	0.130 (0.881)	4 (8)	20	0.844
	SF	0.050 (0.925)	23 (46)	606	0.481	-0.382 (0.976)	15 (22)	75	0.098
	PA	0.197 (1.232)	39 (74)	1482	0.613	0.670 (0.962)	2 (10)	44	0.106
	AG	0.218 (0.818)	12 (23)	150	0.731	–	–	–	–
Dispersal trait	PF	-0.304 (0.815)	14 (17)	39	0.080	–	–	–	–
	DF	-0.134 (0.934)	27 (41)	304	0.103	0.109 (0.916)	3 (8)	19	0.945
	SF	-0.210 (1.082)	27 (46)	399	0.124	-0.367 (0.941)	11 (22)	96	0.337
	PA	0.196 (1.204)	27 (74)	1627	0.198	0.580 (0.950)	3 (10)	46	0.064
	AG	0.883 (1.030)	4 (23)	246	<0.001	–	–	–	–

Table S10 Comparison of raw *FDis* in disturbed habitats relative to primary forest for insectivore and frugivore communities (all species), with analyses run separately for individual functional traits. Analyses are two-tailed Wilcoxon tests (i.e. testing whether observed values are significantly different from the null expectation in either direction). Bold denotes significant differences. Analyses were run separately for individual functional traits in different land-uses: PF (Primary forest), DF (Disturbed primary forest), SF (Secondary forest), PA (Pasture), AG (Agriculture).

Functional trait	Land cover comparison	Insectivores		Frugivores	
		<i>V</i>	Wilcoxon <i>P</i>	<i>V</i>	Wilcoxon <i>P</i>
Body size	PF vs DF	3347	0.452	3469	0.710
	PF vs SF	3680	0.003	4131	<0.001
	PF vs PA	3913	0.313	6250	<0.001
	PF vs AG	1261	0.531	1109	<0.001
	DF vs SF	2892	0.001	3216	<0.001
	DF vs PA	3153	0.112	4803	<0.001
	DF vs AG	974	0.480	853	<0.001
	SF vs PA	1775	0.065	3353	<0.001
	SF vs AG	713	0.964	638	<0.001
	PA vs AG	923	0.776	625	0.005
Trophic traits	PF vs DF	4059	0.143	3157	0.179
	PF vs SF	4408	<0.001	3867	<0.001
	PF vs PA	5474	<0.001	4410	<0.001
	PF vs AG	1484	0.038	970	<0.001
	DF vs SF	3189	<0.001	3143	<0.001
	DF vs PA	3961	<0.001	3566	<0.001
	DF vs AG	1086	0.103	754	<0.001
	SF vs PA	2006	0.424	2417	0.068
	SF vs AG	666	0.677	590	<0.001
	PA vs AG	889	0.997	610	0.009
Locomotory traits	PF vs DF	3768	0.578	3979	0.225
	PF vs SF	3315	0.098	3050	0.492
	PF vs PA	2467	<0.001	5716	<0.001
	PF vs AG	641	0.001	1115	<0.001
	DF vs SF	2464	0.204	2134	0.826
	DF vs PA	1745	<0.001	4188	<0.001
	DF vs AG	454	<0.001	840	<0.001
	SF vs PA	1297	<0.001	3373	<0.001
	SF vs AG	349	<0.001	667	<0.001
	PA vs AG	780	0.375	643	0.002
Dispersal traits	PF vs DF	3020	0.076	4104	0.109
	PF vs SF	3214	0.198	3909	<0.001
	PF vs PA	1130	<0.001	4641	<0.001
	PF vs AG	202	<0.001	1084	<0.001
	DF vs SF	2653	0.033	2559	0.089
	DF vs PA	1193	<0.001	3288	0.003
	DF vs AG	197	<0.001	824	<0.001
	SF vs PA	860	<0.001	2413	0.071
	SF vs AG	139	<0.001	649	<0.001
	PA vs AG	520	0.002	683	<0.001

Table S11 Comparison of raw *FDis* in disturbed habitats relative to primary forest for insectivore and frugivore communities (forest-dependent species), with analyses run separately for individual functional traits. Analyses are two-tailed Wilcoxon tests (i.e. testing whether observed values are significantly different from the null expectation in either direction). Bold denotes significant differences. Land-cover categories: PF (Primary forest), DF (Disturbed primary forest), SF (Secondary forest), PA (Pasture), AG (Agriculture).

Functional trait	Land cover comparison	Insectivores		Frugivores	
		<i>V</i>	Wilcoxon <i>P</i>	<i>V</i>	Wilcoxon <i>P</i>
Body size	PF vs DF	3454	0.675	3365	0.486
	PF vs SF	3632	0.005	3930	<0.001
	PF vs PA	5763	<0.001	5975	<0.001
	PF vs AG	1646	<0.001	1109	<0.001
	DF vs SF	2776	0.007	3124	<0.001
	DF vs PA	4401	<0.001	4634	<0.001
	DF vs AG	1252	<0.001	857	<0.001
	SF vs PA	3299	<0.001	3218	<0.001
	SF vs AG	979	<0.001	646	<0.001
	PA vs AG	904	<0.001	615	0.003
Trophic traits	PF vs DF	3933	0.284	3028	0.081
	PF vs SF	4695	<0.001	3637	0.005
	PF vs PA	6554	<0.001	4091	0.005
	PF vs AG	1649	<0.001	971	<0.001
	DF vs SF	3468	<0.001	2994	<0.001
	DF vs PA	4956	<0.001	3348	<0.001
	DF vs AG	1258	<0.001	756	<0.001
	SF vs PA	3404	<0.001	2333	0.082
	SF vs AG	994	<0.001	590	<0.001
	PA vs AG	946	<0.001	596	0.008
Locomotory traits	PF vs DF	3492	0.764	4361	0.016
	PF vs SF	2895	0.904	3482	0.023
	PF vs PA	5147	<0.001	5768	<0.001
	PF vs AG	1649	<0.001	1112	<0.001
	DF vs SF	2250	0.763	2364	0.415
	DF vs PA	3932	<0.001	4129	<0.001
	DF vs AG	1258	<0.001	831	<0.001
	SF vs PA	3160	<0.001	3080	<0.001
	SF vs AG	1003	<0.001	645	<0.001
	PA vs AG	958	<0.001	614	0.004
Dispersal trait	PF vs DF	2904	0.033	4210	0.053
	PF vs SF	2845	0.953	3922	<0.001
	PF vs PA	2601	0.010	5038	<0.001
	PF vs AG	1358	<0.001	1085	<0.001
	DF vs SF	2410	0.305	2566	0.084
	DF vs PA	2106	0.053	3553	<0.001
	DF vs AG	1054	<0.001	819	<0.001
	SF vs PA	1885	0.395	2619	0.002
	SF vs AG	862	<0.001	644	<0.001
PA vs AG	916	<0.001	649	<0.001	

Table S12 Comparison of raw *FDis* in disturbed habitats relative to primary forest for insectivore and frugivore communities (non-forest species), with analyses run separately for individual functional traits. Analyses are two-tailed Wilcoxon tests (i.e. testing whether observed values are significantly different from the null expectation in either direction). Bold denotes significant differences. Land-cover categories: PF (Primary forest), DF (Disturbed primary forest), SF (Secondary forest), PA (Pasture), AG (Agriculture).

Functional trait	Land-cover comparison	Insectivores		Frugivores	
		<i>V</i>	Wilcoxon <i>P</i>	<i>V</i>	Wilcoxon <i>P</i>
Body size	PF vs DF	762	< 0.001	126	0.049
	PF vs SF	600	< 0.001	144	0.004
	PF vs PA	389	< 0.001	138	0.036
	PF vs AG	170	< 0.001	–	–
	DF vs SF	1548	0.918	546	0.137
	DF vs PA	1475	0.002	462	0.772
	DF vs AG	489	0.034	–	–
	SF vs PA	1136	< 0.001	864	0.242
	SF vs AG	470	0.054	–	–
Trophic traits	PA vs AG	906	0.885	–	–
	PF vs DF	834	0.002	126	0.049
	PF vs SF	521	< 0.001	144	0.004
	PF vs PA	452	< 0.001	138	0.036
	PF vs AG	179	< 0.001	–	–
	DF vs SF	1098	0.006	540	0.118
	DF vs PA	1317	< 0.001	460	0.745
	DF vs AG	417	0.004	–	–
	SF vs PA	1929	0.741	855	0.285
Locomotory traits	SF vs AG	567	0.383	–	–
	PA vs AG	896	0.951	–	–
	PF vs DF	871	0.004	126	0.049
	PF vs SF	603	< 0.001	144	0.004
	PF vs PA	430	< 0.001	138	0.036
	PF vs AG	168	< 0.001	–	–
	DF vs SF	1180	0.024	553	0.161
	DF vs PA	753	< 0.001	469	0.867
	DF vs AG	302	< 0.001	–	–
Dispersal trait	SF vs PA	1106	< 0.001	867	0.229
	SF vs AG	369	0.003	–	–
	PA vs AG	839	0.689	–	–
	PF vs DF	815	0.001	126	0.049
	PF vs SF	561	< 0.001	144	0.004
	PF vs PA	282	< 0.001	138	0.036
	PF vs AG	84	< 0.001	–	–
	DF vs SF	1298	< 0.001	547	0.140
	DF vs PA	763	< 0.001	450	0.616
DF vs AG	223	< 0.001	–	–	
SF vs PA	946	< 0.001	818	0.513	
SF vs AG	244	< 0.001	–	–	
PA vs AG	563	0.007	–	–	

Table S13 The effect of habitat disturbance on functional traits in insectivorous and frugivorous birds in Amazonia. Separate analyses are conducted on forest and non-forest species. Results are from a Generalised Linear Model, with the final model chosen based upon the lowest AIC value. The initial ‘global’ model included a quadratic explanatory variable (Environmental²). Guilds: IN = insectivores; FR = frugivores.

Community type	Guild	Functional trait	Explanatory variable	Estimate (S.E.)	<i>t</i>	<i>P</i>
Forest	IN	Body size	Environmental	0.099 (0.015)	6.384	< 0.001
		Dispersal	Environmental	-0.103 (0.006)	-17.762	< 0.001
			Environmental ²	0.048 (0.006)	8.139	< 0.001
		Trophic	Environmental	0.115 (0.006)	20.264	< 0.001
	Environmental ²		-0.035 (0.006)	-5.944	< 0.001	
	FR	Locomotory	Environmental	0.155 (0.009)	16.360	< 0.001
			Environmental ²	-0.075 (0.010)	-7.840	< 0.001
		Dispersal	Environmental	-0.008 (0.003)	-1.058	0.010
		Trophic	Environmental	0.086 (0.010)	8.796	< 0.001
		Body size	Environmental	0.153 (0.022)	6.968	< 0.001
Locomotory		Environmental	-0.009 (0.003)	-2.710	0.007	
Non-Forest	IN	Dispersal	Environmental	0.191 (0.412)	1.706	0.089
			Environmental ²	0.553 (0.441)	4.600	< 0.001
		Trophic	Environmental	0.037 (0.016)	2.327	0.021
		Body size	Environmental	0.237 (0.052)	4.537	< 0.001
	Environmental ²		0.162 (0.056)	2.904	0.003	
	FR	Locomotory	Environmental	-0.026 (0.016)	-1.622	0.106
		Dispersal	Environmental	-0.078 (0.015)	-5.238	< 0.001
			Environmental	0.043 (0.015)	2.903	0.004
		Body size	Environmental	-0.037 (0.040)	-0.928	0.356
			Environmental ²	0.135 (0.036)	3.711	< 0.001
Locomotory		Environmental	0.192 (0.025)	7.680	< 0.001	