# Appendix 1: Study sites, bird assemblages, and trait selections

## Complementary information about study areas and bird sampling

For the placement of the 23 focal landscapes with different forest covers, we also evaluated if forest cover varied within radii of 1, 2, or 3 km based on each landscape centroid. Landscape-level forest cover did not vary more than 5% within those radii. It shows that we are avoiding the influence of any outside larger patch on colonization processes (Pasher et al. 2013).

## Bird assemblages

We restricted our analysis to forest specialist and habitat generalist species, excluding open area species eventually detected inside smaller forest patches. We recorded 180 bird species in both regions: 93 specialists and 87 generalists. **Specialist species richness** was higher in the low-quality than in the high-quality matrix region (82 and 68 species respectively), with 57 species common to both regions. However, the median of specialist species richness per landscape and site in the high-quality matrix was higher than in the low-quality matrix (Table S1.1). There were 11 specialist species (16% of total richness) in the high-quality matrix detected only once (singletons), and 15 singletons (18% of total richness) in the low-quality matrix.

**Generalist species richness** was quite similar between regions, with 77 and 74 species in the high and low-quality matrix, respectively (64 common species). Accordingly, generalist species richness per landscape and site did not vary much between high-quality and low-quality matrices (Table S1,1). There were 9 singleton generalist species in the high-quality matrix (12% of total richness) and 12 in the low-quality matrix (16% of total richness). For more details in biodiversity metrics of both regions see Boesing et al. (2018).

**Table S1.1.** Species richness for the assemblages in the high and low-quality matrix landscapes for landscape and local spatial scales.

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Assemblage** | | **Total richness** | **Landscape** | | **Local** |
| **Median (min – max)** | | **Median (min – max)** |
| Specialists | | 93 | |  |  |
|  | Low-quality matrix | 82 | | 32 (17 – 61) | 16 (4 – 42) |
|  | High-quality matrix | 68 | | 40 (29 – 48) | 24 (12 – 40) |
| Generalists | | 87 | |  |  |
|  | Low-quality matrix | 74 | | 38 (34 – 44) | 19 (10 – 31) |
|  | High-quality matrix | 77 | | 44.5 (38 – 49) | 22.5 (15 – 31) |
| Total | | 180 | |  |  |

**Beta diversity** (*sensu* Baselga et al. 2010) between assemblages in high- and low-quality matrix regions was very small (Fig S1.1).

Gráfico, Gráfico de barras

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**Figure S1.1.** Beta diversity between high- and low-quality matrix regions partitioned in Nestedness and Turnover (*sensu* Baselga 2010), calculated with all species and separately for forest specialists and generalists. Analysis done using bepart R package (Baselga et al. 2022).

It is worth noting that our bird species list contains few species that were not expected to occur given the current knowledge of their distributional range based on field observations, especially in the South of Minas Gerais. The region is located in an ecotone which might explain some species associated to humid forests occurring further into the Atlantic forest distribution range. We also highlight that the region is undersampled since it is an agricultural dominated region poorly attractive for ornithologists and bird watchers. Thus, many other interesting species might occur undetectable in the region. Fortunately, we have vouchers (audio records) of some of the species recorded deposited on Xeno-canto website (<https://xeno-canto.org/contributor/ETMICIBVME>), including some of the unexpected species, as *Grallaria varia,* *Anabazenops fuscus, Chamaeza campanisona*. Thus, it may be possible that our records could contribute to expanding the distributional range of *Anabazenops fuscus, Chamaeza campanisona, Grallaria varia, Drymophila rubricollis,* and *Drymophila squamata*. It is important to highlight that the detection of these species was in general rare, which indicates that they may have low population.

Even though some of the species mentioned above are known as ‘unlikely’ in the region, an unpublished study on niche species modeling of birds in the Brazilian Atlantic Forest shows that our study area (both regions) is suitable for many of these unexpected species (Acosta et al.  *in prep*). In this study, the current suitability of the Atlantic Forest biome for each bird species was obtained using species distribution modeling (SDM), which relies on species’ records and on climate variables to build models of geographic distribution. We show in Figure S1.2 habitat suitability maps for seven species of interesting findings in the study area: *Anabazenops fuscus, Chamaeza meruloides, Chamaeza campanisona, Drymophila ferruginea, Drymophila malura, Grallaria varia, Odontophorus capueira.*

Mapa

Descrição gerada automaticamente

**Figure S1.2**. Habitat suitability for some species recorded in our field surveys, with focus in the south and southeastern area of the Brazilian Atlantic Forest. Black points are the sampling sites of our study. Source Acosta et al. *in prep.*

**Reference**

Acosta, A.L.; Giannini, T.C.; De Coster, G.; Banks-Leite, C. Metzger, J.P. *in prep.* How climate change can affect the environmental services provided by birds in the Atlantic Forest.

## Species traits selection

Bird traits selection and the associated hypothesis of how species may respond to habitat loss according to its traits are summarized in Table S1.2 and described in detail in the following paragraphs.

**Table S1.2.** Bird traits with the information of the operational variables, the hypothesis of species habitat loss filtering according to trait values, and the sources of data acquisition.

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Trait** | **Operational variable** | **Hypothesis** | **Data source** |
| Body size | Continuous. Log of mean body mass for both sexes in grams. | Abundance of large species decreases more intensely with habitat loss. | Ramirez et al. 2008; Rodrigues et al. 2019 |
| Nest type | Categorical. Nest in cavities; open or semi-open nest; closed nest. | The abundance of species with open/semi-open nests decreases more intensely with habitat loss than for species with other nest types. | Del Hoyo et al. 2014 |
| Diet | Categorical main diet: omnivorous, frugivorous, nectarivorous, insectivorous, granivorous. | The abundance of frugivorous and insectivorous species decreases more intensely with habitat loss than for species with other diets. | Sick 1997, Del Hoyo et al. 2014; Wilman et al. 2014 |
| Continuous. Percentage of fruits in the diet. |
| Continuous. Percentage of invertebrates in the diet. |
| Foraging stratum | Categorical. Main foraging stratum: ground and/or understory, midstory and/or canopy, and all strata.  Continuous. Percentage of lower strata (ground and understory) use. | The abundance of species in the ground and understory strata decreases more intensely than species using midstory, canopy, or all strata. | Sick 1997, Del Hoyo et al. 2014; Wilman et al. 2014 |
| Hand-wing index | Continuous. Index for wing shape. Mean of Hand-wing index for both sexes. | Abundance of species with larger hand-wing index (larger dispersal ability) decreases less intensely with habitat loss. | Sheard et al. 2020 |

**Body size** is one of the key attributes of vertebrates in respect of extinction risk, reproduction, and dispersal (Owens and Bennett 2000, Ripple et al. 2017). In birds, species with large mean body sizes are often considered more vulnerable to extinction given their low population densities, large home ranges, slow growth rates, high energetic requirements, and high sensitivity to anthropogenic overexploitation (Cardillo et al. 2005). The risk of local extinction in altered and smaller habitats correlates with mean body size (e.g. Barbaro and Halder 2009, Flynn et al. 2009, Newbold et al. 2013, Bregman et al. 2016, Bovo et al. 2018). However, sometimes this trait is not a good predictor of community changes (e.g. Tscharntke et al. 2008, Angert et al. 2011), probably because large species may also benefit from having higher mobility (Tscharntke et al. 2012). We compiled information on avian body mass (mean values from males and females) in Boesing et al. (2018), which followed Ramirez et al. (2008) and Rodrigues et al. (2019). Body mass was log-transformed before modeling.

**Nest type** is often associated with reproduction effort and is most likely to affect recruitment (Bennett and Owens 2002). For example, species that make nests in cavities have higher growth rates (Bellier et al. 2018) probably because it is a safer nest against parasitism and predation (Sibly et al. 2012). Nest predation and parasitism are among the most impacting factors of bird populations’ decline in fragmented landscapes (Cavitt and Martin 2002). In addition, the lack of suitable nesting habitats in disturbed environments can have a strong effect on the reproductive success of certain bird species, such as those from Picidae and Psittacidae families, which require old or dead trees to build their nests (Sick 1997). We assigned the species to 3 nesting categories: closed, cavity, and open/semi-open. We collapsed open and semi-open nest types due to the low proportion of specialist species with open nests in our data. Nest type information was collected in Del Hoyo et al. (2014).

Habitat loss, fragmentation, and land-use change affect the structure of the habitat by altering differently the provision of food for birds. For example, nectarivorous, frugivorous, and insectivorous species seem to be more sensitive to habitat loss and fragmentation than omnivorous and granivorous (Sekercioglu et al. 2004, Newbold et al. 2013, Bovo et al. 2018, Chatterjee and Basu 2018). We assigned species to five **main diet** categories according to information available in the literature (Sick 1997, Del Hoyo 2014): omnivorous, insectivorous, frugivorous, nectarivorous, granivorous. Because of the special relationship found for frugivorous and insectivorous species in land-use change (Newbold et al. 2014), we also assigned the percentage of each of these components in species’ diet as trait variables. The percentages of fruits and insects in the species’ diet were extracted from the EltonTrait database (Wilman et al. 2014). For the analysis, we excluded the single granivorous forest specialist species in the high-quality matrix region and two omnivorous forest specialist species in the low-quality matrix region because of issues during model fit.

**Foraging stratum** is of most importance for birds in fragmented landscapes. Ground and understory species are more prone to extinction (Laurance and Gomez 2005), mostly because of higher dispersal limitation and avoidance of open areas (gaps, matrix, and forest edges). We assigned each species to 3 foraging strata categories: ground-understory, midstory-canopy, and all strata. We also used the percentage of use of lower foraging strata (ground and understory) as an alternative operational variable extracted from EltonTrait database (Wilman et al. 2014).

**Hand-wing index** is an estimate of wing shape widely adopted as a proxy for dispersal ability in birds (Sheard et al. 2020). Species with larger dispersal abilities are expected to suffer less with habitat loss and fragmentation because of higher connectivity among habitat patches. We compiled hand-wing index values from (Sheard et al. 2020).

## Comparing traits between forest specialists and habitat generalists

All traits were compared between forest specialists and habitat generalists using graphical and multivariate analysis to ensure that the selected traits are comparable between groups, i.e., the range of numeric trait values between generalist and specialist species are around the same range (minimum and maximum) and that there was not a single trait that could completely separate them. We found that hand-wing index presented larger maximum values and that nectarivorous birds were only generalists and insectivorous were more common among specialists.

Below, we present the comparisons of trait values between specialists and generalists. Continuous variables were Z-score scaled and are presented in Figure S1.3, Categorical variables are summarized in Table S1.4.

Gráfico, Gráfico de caixa estreita

Descrição gerada automaticamente

**Figure S1.3.** Boxplots of values for the traits measured as continuous variables for specialist and generalist birds. Values presented are maximum and minimum values in each group.

**Table S1.4.** Percentage of the species in each trait category for specialists and generalists. Numbers inside brackets are the number of species.

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **Traits** | **Specialists** | **Generalists** |
| **Nest type** |  |  |
| Cavities | 25% (23) | 22% (19) |
| Closed | 27% (25) | 21% (18) |
| Open/semi-open | 48% (45) | 57% (50) |
| **Main diet** |  |  |
| Frugivorous | 17% (16) | 23% (20) |
| Granivorous | 2% (2) | 6% (5) |
| Insectivorous | 77% (72) | 40% (35) |
| Nectarivorous | 0% (0) | 15% (13) |
| Onivorous | 3% (3) | 16% (14) |
| **Foraging stratum** |  |  |
| All | 5% (5) | 20% (17) |
| Ground/Understory | 58% (54) | 32% (28) |
| Midstory/Canopy | 37% (34) | 48% (42) |

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