Online Research @ Cardiff

This is an Open Access document downloaded from ORCA, Cardiff University's institutional repository: <https://orca.cardiff.ac.uk/id/eprint/52920/>

This is the author's version of a work that was submitted to / accepted for publication.

Citation for final published version:

Krüger, F., Clare, E. L., Greif, S., Siemers, B. M., Symondson, William Oliver Christian ORCID: <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-3343-4679> and Sommer, R. S. 2014. An integrative approach to detect subtle trophic niche differentiation in the sympatric trawling bat species *Myotis dasycneme* and *Myotis daubentonii*. *Molecular Ecology* 23 (15) , pp. 3657-3671. 10.1111/mec.12512 file

Publishers page: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/mec.12512>
<<http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/mec.12512>>

Please note:

Changes made as a result of publishing processes such as copy-editing, formatting and page numbers may not be reflected in this version. For the definitive version of this publication, please refer to the published source. You are advised to consult the publisher's version if you wish to cite this paper.

This version is being made available in accordance with publisher policies.

See

<http://orca.cf.ac.uk/policies.html> for usage policies. Copyright and moral rights for publications made available in ORCA are retained by the copyright holders.

MOLECULAR ECOLOGY

An integrative approach to detect subtle trophic niche differentiation in the sympatric trawling bat species *Myotis dasycneme* and *Myotis daubentonii*

Journal:	<i>Molecular Ecology</i>
Manuscript ID:	MEC-13-0478.R1
Manuscript Type:	Original Article
Date Submitted by the Author:	n/a
Complete List of Authors:	Krüger, Frauke; Buero Echolat, ; University of Kiel, Institute for Natural Resource Conservation, Landscape Ecology Clare, Elizabeth; School of Biological and Chemical Sciences Queen Mary University of London, Greif, Stefan; Max Planck Institute for Ornithology, Sensory Ecology Siemers, Bjoern; Max Planck Institute for Ornithology, Sensory Ecology Symondson, William; Cardiff University, Cardiff School of Biosciences; Sommer, Robert; University of Kiel, Institute for Natural Resource Conservation, Landscape Ecology
Keywords:	Diet Analysis, Bats, Functional morphology, Mammals, Adaptation

1 **An integrative approach to detect subtle trophic niche differentiation in the**
2 **sympatric trawling bat species *Myotis dasycneme* and *Myotis daubentonii***

3 **F Krüger^{1*}, E L Clare², S Greif³, BM Siemers³, WOC Symondson⁴, RS Sommer¹,**

4 ¹University of Kiel, Ecology Centre, Landscape Ecology, Kiel, Germany

5 ²School of Biological and Chemical Sciences, Queen Mary University of London, London,
6 United Kingdom

7 ³Max Planck Institute for Ornithology, Sensory Ecology, Seewiesen, Germany

8 ⁴Cardiff University, Cardiff School of Biosciences, Cardiff, Wales, United Kingdom
9 University of Kiel, Ecology Centre, Landscape Ecology, Kiel, Germany

10

11 **Corresponding author:**

12 Frauke Krüger, Olshausenstr. 75, 24118 Kiel, fkrueger@ecology.uni-kiel.de

13

14 **Key words:** Bats, Diet Analysis, Functional morphology, Adaptation,

15 **Running title:** Trophic ecology of European trawling *Myotis*

16

17

18 Abstract

19 Bats are well known for species richness and ecological diversity thus they provide a
20 good opportunity to study relationships and interaction between species. To assess
21 interactions we consider distinct traits which are likely to be triggered by niche shape and
22 evolutionary processes. We present data on the trophic niche differentiation between two
23 sympatric European trawling bat species, *Myotis dasycneme* and *M. daubentonii*,
24 incorporating a wide spectrum of methodological approaches. We measure morphological
25 traits involved in foraging and prey handling performance including bite force, weight lifting
26 capacity and wing morphology. We then measure resulting prey consumption using both
27 morphological and molecular diet analysis.

28 These species closely resemble each other in morphological traits however, subtle but
29 significant differences were apparent in bite force and lift capacity which are related to
30 differences in basic body and head size. Both morphological and molecular diet analyses
31 show strong niche overlap. We detected subtle differences in less frequent prey items, as well
32 as differences in the exploitation of terrestrial and aquatic-based prey groups. *M. dasycneme*
33 feeds more on aquatic prey, like Chironomidae and their pupal stages, or the aquatic moth
34 *Acentria ephemerella*. *M. daubentonii* feeds more on terrestrial prey, like Brachycera, or
35 Coleoptera. This suggests that these bats use different micro-habitats within the habitat where
36 they co-occur.

37

38 Introduction

39 Understanding species' interactions is a fundamental research area in ecology
40 (Ricklefs & Schluter 1993) and these interactions (e.g., predation, competition) are
41 frequently cited as causal factors in adaptive speciation (Dieckmann *et al.* 2004). This theory
42 implies that each species is adapted to a specific ecological niche, separated from other
43 species by reproductive isolation and eco-morphological traits (Hutchinson 1957; Mayr 1986;
44 Schluter 2001; Holt 2009) which permit co-existence. Ecological interactions and selective
45 processes contribute to the evolution of new phenotypes and the maintenance of
46 morphological diversity (Dieckmann & Doebeli 1999; Ryan *et al.* 2007).

47 In many vertebrates species radiation and diversification of ecological niches is
48 accompanied by corresponding diversification of morphological characters and adaptations.
49 Case studies, e.g. Darwin's finches, have shown that morphological traits can be formed
50 through natural selection interacting with trophic resources (Grant 1985; Schluter *et al.* 1985;
51 Grant & Grant, 2006). Often these morphological traits are directly related to the performance
52 of a species during resource exploitation and the ability to sustain that performance in a
53 changing environment (Lack 1974; Schluter *et al.* 1985; Herrel *et al.* 2005). High diversity in
54 such adaptations and variable resource exploitation in time and space may facilitate the
55 coexistence of even highly similar species (Coyne & Orr 2004).

56 Bats (Chiroptera) exploit a great diversity of trophic niches with a variety of
57 morphological and behavioural adaptations, but up to 70% are primarily insectivorous
58 (Simmons 2005). Due to high species richness and diversity in trophic adaptations, bat
59 communities and guilds have been the focus of numerous studies dealing with species
60 interaction and community structure (Findley & Black 1983; Dumont 1997; Schnitzler &
61 Kalko 2001; Aguirre *et al.* 2002; Kalko *et al.* 2007; Clare *et al.* 2009; Bohmann *et al.* 2011;
62 Razgour, *et al.* 2011, Emrich *et al.* accepted).

To understand the interactions between species and to measure their ecological niche one can observe competitive interactions directly, but for cryptic and elusive species like bats, indirect measures are necessary including analysis of both morphological traits and behavioural mechanisms of resource exploitation. Echolocation call structure has been shown to separate ecological niches of bat species (Schnitzler & Kalko 2001; Schnitzler *et al.* 2003; Siemers & Schnitzler 2004). Similarly, wing morphology and corresponding flight habits and foraging behaviour are highly diverse and contribute to niche segregation (Norberg & Rayner 1987). Bite force also influences resource partitioning on the base of food hardness and prey handling (Freeman 1981; Dumont 1999, Aguirre *et al.* 2003; Santana *et al.* 2010). Often a complex of interacting parameters, including subtle traits such as temporal partitioning of resources (e.g. Emrich *et al.* accepted), must be considered to accurately measure the mechanisms of partitioning. These parameters partly define ecological niches (habitat, foraging, etc) and shape bat communities.

One method of assessing whether these characters effectively result in niche partitioning and specialization is to measure the effect on food resource exploitation and examine post foraging resource divisions. For example, through analysis of eco-morphological characters in conjunction with dietary analysis and modelling of niche differentiation between potentially competing species (Emrich *et al.* accepted). Traditionally, dietary studies have employed morphological identification of prey remains in faecal samples or stomach content (Whitaker 1972; Kunz & Whitaker 1983; Whitaker *et al.* 2009), or culled prey remains (Bell 1982; Jones 1990; Lacki & Ladeur 2001) to assess prey occurrences and dietary biomass. While effective, these methods are normally limited to ordinal or family level identification of prey and may overlook more subtle niche differentiation. More recently, molecular based approaches were introduced and have become sophisticated both in efficiency and productivity (Symondson 2002; King *et al.* 2008; Pompanon *et al.* 2012). Molecular methods provide the possibility of species-level taxonomic assignment of

unknowns (Hebert *et al.* 2003a, b) and rapid analyses particularly using high-throughput sequencing platforms, such as electronic-current based Ion Torrent (Pourmand *et al.* 2006; Rothenburg *et al.* 2011; Pompanon *et al.* 2012). These methods have been used to great effect in insectivorous bats with both traditional sanger sequencing (Clare *et al.* 2009, 2011, Zeale *et al.* 2011) and high throughput next generation sequencing (Bohman *et al.* 2011, Razgour *et al.* 2011, Clare *et al.* a/b accepted, Emrich *et al.* accepted, Krüger *et al.* accepted).

Two species of trawling *Myotis*, *Myotis dasycneme* and *Myotis daubentonii*, share behavioural and morphological traits such as large feet, foraging close to the water surface, and scooping prey from the surface with their feet or tail membrane. During foraging both species use short, downward-frequency-modulated echolocation signals, of 1.7–3.0 ms length and a sweep range of 38.9–54.5 kHz (Jones & Rayner 1988; Kalko & Schnitzler 1989; Britton *et al.* 1997; Siemers *et al.* 2001). A previous study based only on morphological diet analysis showed high overlap in prey groups, with little difference among the less frequent prey items (Krüger *et al.* 2012). In contrast, these species show dissimilarities in roosting behaviour and migration behaviour. *M. dasycneme* prefers synanthropic roosting, using attics and cavity walls as maternity roosts while *M. daubentonii* is frequently found in hollow trees and artificial roosts in forests. In addition, it is believed that they do not share a recent phylogenetic history thus resource competition may not have been a primary factor in their radiation. *M. dasycneme* probably diverged more than 10 MYA from a group of *Myotis*, which includes *M. daubentonii*. This leaves *M. dasycneme* more closely related to *M. mystacinus*. Yet, the phylogenetic position of *M. dasycneme* is debated (Stadelmann *et al.* 2004, 2007).

Razgour *et al.* (2011) assessed resource use between cryptic, closely related long-eared bats (*Plecotus auritus* and *P. austriacus*) occurring in sympatry while Bohman *et al.* (2011) considered resource use between two morphologically different species which share roosts and foraging grounds (*Chaerephon pumilus* and *Mops condylurus*). Here we consider the

intermediate case, two sympatric species of the same guild which do not share a sister-species relationship. While resource partitioning in general may be important in diversification and coexistence, morphological convergence and the limits of bats' perceptual abilities may limit prey partitioning. In this scenario, morphology and echolocation may lead to habitat selection and thus dietary convergence, particularly in insects are not limiting and thus competition unlikely. Here, we test the hypothesis that morphological and behavioural convergence corresponds with resource overlap when there is no reasonable expectation of past radiation via competitive interactions (e.g. allopatric origin, reproductive isolation).

We use morphological traits, including wing morphology, bite force and a novel aspect, the physio-morphological ability to lift objects from the surface of the water (and thus important for trawling bats), along with molecular and morphological dietary analysis, to assess mechanisms of co-existence between these two predators. We hypothesise that the dietary niche of the two bat species will overlap to a large extent, as both species should perceive similar sized prey and use similar hunting modes in the same habitats. Their physio-morphological abilities, though similar (same guild), may vary reflecting more recent competitive interactions in secondary sympatry. We expect that both species share major prey types and do not show significant eco-morphological differences.

Methods

The study uses a combined approach including data collected from molecular and morphological analysis of diet from faecal pellets, measurements of wing morphology, bite force and laboratory experiments on hunting performance.

Study site and guano collection

We collected faecal samples between May and August 2009 from bats mist-netted along their commuting routes between roosts and foraging habitat over the Schwentine River in Schleswig-Holstein, Germany (54,195°N; 10,308°E). The distances between the sampling sites varied from 2.94 km to 14.61 km. Thus given the proximity and similarity of the landscape at each site, we consider them to be “sympatric” (able to commute freely between sites) and that any observed difference in diet between the species is unlikely to be explained through access to different species of insects via habitat selection. We kept bats in clean soft cotton bags for approximately half an hour after capture for collection of faecal samples. Permission and ethical approval was provided by the State Agency for Agriculture, Environment and Rural Areas, Schleswig-Holstein, Germany (LANU 314/5327.74.1.6).

Functional morphology

Wing morphology — We photographed wings and measured wing parameters of 30 bats with the program AxioVision 4.7.10 (Carl Zeiss Microscopy GmbH, Jena) along with collection of traditional morphological data, like body mass and forearm length (Norberg & Rayner 1987).

Weight lifting — To estimate weight lifting in foraging performance we took six male *M. daubentonii* and three male *M. dasycneme* into captivity for laboratory experiments. We

collected data in the laboratory facilities at the Max-Planck Institute for Ornithology, Seewiesen, Germany. We housed these animals in air-conditioned rooms (20°C / 80% humidity) with *ad libitum* water and food supply (mealworm larvae, *Tenebrio molitor*, vitamins and minerals in addition). Animals were habituated to a 12 h shift in their photoperiod. Permission and ethical approval was provided by the State Agency for Agriculture, Environment and Rural Areas (LLUR), Schleswig-Holstein, Germany (LLUR 515/5327.74.1.6).

We trained bats to take mealworms from the water surface of an artificial pond (3 × 4 m), built in a 4 × 9 meter flight room. For measurements of maximal weight lifting performance we connected a dummy mealworm with a piezo electric force transducer (type 5015A, KISTLER, Inc.) via a nylon thread and a custom made deviating mechanism. The dummy was connected permanently with the nylon thread so that maximum lift force could be obtained. After each catching attempt (successful or unsuccessful) a real mealworm was provided on the water surface.

Bite force — All bats caught in the field were identified, sexed, weighed, and measured. We only choose adult bats for bite force assessment. Measurements included forearm length (the standard proxy for bat body size) and upper tooth row length (distance from the canine to the 3rd molar, CM³), used as a proxy for head size. We measured maximum bite force in 20 bats each of *M. dasycneme* and *M. daubentonii*, by letting the bats bite onto a custom-made lever which connected to a piezo electric force transducer (KISTLER, Type 9217A) (Aguirre *et al.* 2002). The distance of the bite plates was adjusted to accommodate a standardized gape angle of approximately 25° (Dumont and Herrel 2003). A series of six bite sessions was conducted, some sessions consisting of multiple bites. The maximum bite force obtained across all bite sessions was used for further analysis. Bite forces were corrected for the effect of the lever and transducer system. We released bats directly after measurements at the site of capture.

183 *Molecular diet analysis*

184 We extracted DNA from each pellet (n *M. dasycneme* = 34; n *M. daubentonii* = 36)
185 using the QIAamp DNA Stool Mini Kit (Qiagen, UK) following standard protocol with
186 adjustments suggested by Zeale *et al.* (2011). We stored extracted DNA at -80°C prior to PCR
187 analyses. We amplified insect DNA from faecal pellets using insect general COI primers ZBJ-
188 ArtF1c and ZBJ-ArtR2c modified as described by Clare *et al.* accepted. The original primers
189 were described by Zeale *et al.* (2011), and have been tested by many recent studies (e.g.
190 Bomann *et al.* 2011, Razgour *et al.* 2011, Clare *et al.* a/b accepted, Emrich *et al.* accepted).
191 The target region is a 157 bp amplicon located at the 5' end of the 658 bp COI barcode region
192 (Hebert *et al.* 2004). Prior to experimental use we confirmed the efficiency of the primers on
193 additional common local arthropod genera (i.e. Diptera, Aranea, Lepidoptera, Coleoptera,
194 data not shown) by amplification following Zeale *et al.* (2011). We did not use unique MID
195 recognition methods (e.g. Clare *et al.* a accepted), rather, all independently amplified samples
196 were pooled within predator species (following Emrich *et al.* accepted) for DNA sequencing
197 via the Ion Torrent sequencing platform (Life Technology) at the University of Bristol
198 Genomics facility (School of Biological Sciences, Bristol, UK). To remove primers and
199 adaptors post sequencing, collapse to unique haplotypes and for further sequencing
200 processing, we used the Galaxy V platform (<https://main.g2.bx.psu.edu/root>; Giardine *et al.*
201 2005; Blankenberg *et al.* 2007; Blankenberg *et al.* 2010; Goecks *et al.* 2010). We removed
202 haplotypes represented by <2 haplotypes and clustered the sequences into molecular
203 operational taxonomic units (MOTU) using the program jMOTU (Jones *et al.* 2011). We
204 tested grouping thresholds from 1-10 bp and selected a 4bp threshold for this data set (see
205 Razgour *et al.* 2011). We extracted representative sequences for each MOTU for comparison
206 with a known reference library.

We compared sequences against known reference sequences within the Barcode of Life Data Systems (Ratnasingham & Hebert 2007; Clare *et al.* 2009). If sequences matched completely to a reference sequence without matching any other arthropod, we regarded the sequence as belonging to the same species. However, the short amplicon length also constrains some species identifications. Following Clare *et al.* a.b accepted we used a modified version of the criteria in Razgour *et al.* (2011) as follows:

- 1a. True species match (>99 % similarity)
- 1b. True species match (>98% similarity)
2. Match (>98%) to more than one species, only one of which belongs to local assemblage
3. Match (>98%) to several species or genera – genus or family level assignment made and considered provisional.

Morphological diet analysis

For morphological faecal analysis, we dried guano samples (n = 206) at room temperature and stored them at -20°C to avoid coprophagous insects. Before analysis, pellets were soaked for 48 h in 70% Ethanol and dissected under a binocular microscope ($\times 40 - 60$). Characteristic fragments were separated and mounted in Euparal for further examination. We identified prey groups by fragments to class, order, family, or genus level (where feasible), by comparison of fragments with whole collected insects and arthropod identification keys (McAney *et al.* 1991, Krüger *et al.* 2012).

For each individual bat, we calculated the occurrence of each prey group as the relative proportion of all sampled individual bats (N) ('percentage occurrence', total > 100 %). We further determined the relative proportion for each prey group of the total of

consumed prey groups (Nc) ('percentage frequency', total = 100) (McAney *et al.* 1991; Vaughan 1997; Krüger *et al.* 2012).

Data analysis

We assessed differences in functional-morphological traits (e.g., wing morphology, bite force and lifting performance) using R (R Development Core Team 2009, Version 2.15.1). To estimate niche differences between *M. dasycneme* and *M. daubentonii* based on the molecular dietary data we calculated Hamming distance and Bray-Curtis index for similarity. The Hamming distance gives the number of positions at which the corresponding symbols of two strings of the same length are different (Hamming 1950). It is calculated on the entire pool of available prey. A smaller value for Hamming distances indicates more similar dietary choices and includes shared prey and shared avoidance of prey in the similarity score. The Bray-Curtis index (Equation 1) (Bray & Curtis 1957) is used to quantify the dissimilarity in the dietary composition of the study species, where C_{ij} is the sum of the lesser value for only those species in common between both samples. S_i and S_j are the total number of species counted in both samples. The Bray-Curtis dissimilarity is 0, if the two samples share all species and 1, if the two samples do not share any species (Bloom 1981).

$$BC_{ij} = \frac{2C_{ij}}{S_i + S_j} \quad (\text{Equation 1})$$

$$D = 1 - \sum_{i=1}^s \frac{n_i(n_i-1)}{n(n-1)} \quad (\text{Equation 2})$$

$$O_{jk} = \frac{\sum p_{ij}p_{ik}}{(\sum p_{ij}^2 \sum p_{ik}^2)^{1/2}} \quad (\text{Equation 3})$$

To assess dietary niche breadth based on the morphological diet data, we used the Simpson's index for diversity and heterogeneity (Equation 2), where n_i is the relative proportion of a prey item i (with $i = 1 \dots n$) of a total of n prey items. Thus, D is 0, if all eaten prey belongs to one prey group. The higher the diversity, the closer D gets to 1. To estimate the degree of similarity in prey exploitation based on the presence-absence data, we calculated Pianka's index of niche overlap (Equation 3), where p_i is the frequency of occurrence of prey item i in the diet of species j and k (Pianka 1973). The Pianka's index reaches 1, if diets of j and k overlap to a 100%. To test the effect of species or sex on the variance in the dietary data we conducted a permutation analysis of variance (ADONIS, Anderson 2001). Additionally, we performed non-metric multidimensional scale ordination (NMDS) with Jaccard distance to visualise differences between the two species (Clark & Warwick, 2001). We tested differences in single prey groups, also including the prey habitat, between species with generalised linear models (GLM) and Tukey post-hoc tests.

We estimated species richness and diversity using morphological dietary data with the *vegan* library (Oksanen *et al.* 2011). We conducted multivariate methods, NMDS, Adonis and GLM, using the *vegan* R library (Oksanen *et al.* 2011) and the *MASS* R library (Venables & Ripley 2002).

Results

Functional morphology

We measured wing parameters from 30 bats using digital photos of live animals (Table 1). The two species differed significantly in their basic body measures: body mass ($\chi^2 = 21.08$, $df = 1$, $p < 0.001$) and forearm length ($\chi^2 = 18.73$, $df = 1$, $p < 0.001$). Within species we found differences, with females being larger in *M. daubentonii* and males being larger in *M. dasycneme*. The species differed in wingtip shape index (I) ($t = 2.0739$, $df = 27$, $p < 0.05$), but not in wing loading ($t = 1.3785$, $df = 27$, $p = 0.179$). Yet, these parameters show high variability within and between species when taking the sex into account: Male *M. dasycneme* showed higher I than male *M. daubentonii*, vice versa for female bats (Tab 1). We measured weightlifting performance in seven male *M. daubentonii* and three male *M. dasycneme*, each represented by 10 individual measurements, under the same settings and conditions. The two species differed significantly in maximal weight lifting performance ($t = -7.08$, $df = 8$, $p < 0.001$). We found *M. dasycneme* individuals to perform less well than *M. daubentonii*. The Pearson correlation shows that wing loading and weightlifting performance are negatively correlated ($cor = -0.83$, $p < 0.01$, Fig. 1), though this is not significant in *M. daubentonii*, when tested separately.

The values for maximal bite force differed significantly between species ($t = 8.68$, $df = 37$, $p < 0.001$). We found *M. dasycneme* to have higher maximal bite force congruent with a longer upper tooth row length (CM³) (Bite force = 31 N; CM³ = 6.12mm, $sd = 0.21$) than *M. daubentonii* (Bite force = 19 N; CM³ = 5.2mm, $sd = 0.23$). In addition, we correlated the maximal bite force with mean forearm length (FA), which is a proxy for body size, and mean upper tooth row length (CM³), which indicates head size. Both size parameters correlated positively with maximal bite force when tested in all species (Fig. 2) though if tested

297 separately, only *M. dasyncneme* shows positive correlation between tooth row length (CM³)
298 and maximal bite force ($\rho = 0.51$, $p < 0.05$).

299

300

For Review Only

Molecular diet analysis

We identified a total of 176 MOTUs, of which 125 could be assigned to insect taxa. For 51 MOTUs we found no matches in the BOLD Systems. We rejected 3 MOTUs, either because they were too short or because they matched unrelated taxa (e.g. Fungus). We found 135 MOTUs in samples from *Myotis daubentonii*, whereas 77 MOTUs were assigned to samples from *Myotis dasycneme*.

We found high values for Bray-Curtis index (BC) between *M. dasycneme* and *M. daubentonii* (Table 3). However, there are gender specific differences. Females show lowest similarity between species. Similarly, there is a high Hamming Distance between *M. daubentonii* females and *M. dasycneme* females (Table 3). We found lower distances within *M. dasycneme*, between males of both species and between *M. daubentonii* males and *M. dasycneme* females. Overall dietary divergence as measured by Hamming Distance between *M. dasycneme* and *M. daubentonii* was higher than similar comparisons within species (Table 3).

Within the identified prey species (n = 51), some specific prey habitat interactions are apparent. The Lepidoptera we found in the samples from *M. dasycneme* encompasses three species, which either have aquatic life stages (*Acentria ephemerella*) or develop in close proximity to aquatic ecosystems (*Nonagria typhae*, *Leucania obsoleta*). Other species like *Epinotia demarniana* or *Mompha epilobiella* are known from riverine habitats with larvae feeding on riverine plant species (e.g., *Alnus glutinosa*, *Epilobium sp.*). The prey species in the order of Hemiptera clearly indicate aquatic habitats, as all found species show sub-aquatic life cycles, with occasional flight events (e.g., *Sigara striata*). Beetles, assigned to truly terrestrial species (*Copris sp.* and Carabidae), were only consumed by *M. daubentonii*.

Morphological diet analysis

Overall, we analysed 206 samples of *M. dasycneme* (n = 84) and *M. daubentonii* (n = 122). In the diet of *M. dasycneme* we identified 12 prey groups and for *M. daubentonii* 17 prey groups. Within identified Diptera, we could identify the sub-order Nematocera with the families of Tipulidae and Chironomidae and the genus *Glyptotendipes*, and the sub-order Brachycera. Within the Hemiptera, we were able to identify the families Corixidae, Gerridae and Aphidoidea. The two predators showed high dietary overlap and similar niche breadth.

The ADONIS analysis indicated significant differences in the diet of the two species (ADONIS: $F = 2.53$, $P < 0.05$). The NMDS ordination resulted in a two-dimensional solution with a final stress of 0.132. Samples of *M. dasycneme* and *M. daubentonii* are evenly spread out in the diagram and overlap strongly (Fig. 3).

The Simpson's index showed no statistically significant differences between species in diet breadth or the diversity of prey taxa (*M. dasycneme*: 0.75; *M. daubentonii*: 0.82; $\chi^2 = 90.3281$, $df = 1$, $p < 0.001$). Additionally, Pianka's index for niche overlap indicated an overlap of nearly 100% (Table 5). Comparing the single prey groups between the species' diets, only chironomids differed significantly between the two bat species (Table 5). Unknown Diptera and Brachycera also occurred, but not significantly more often in the diet of *M. daubentonii*. Similar observations concern chironomid pupae in the diet of *M. dasycneme* (Table 5). Both species displayed differences in prey occurrence regarding the major habitat where prey groups are found (GLM, aquatic: $z = -0.009$, $P < 0.05$; terrestrial: $z = 0.902$, $P = 0.367$).

Discussion

We test whether morphological and habitat convergence correlates with dietary overlap and we assess the potential for micro-niche differentiation in morphological and behavioural characteristics. Our analysis suggests that these two bat species overlap largely in both in morphological features and diet but may demonstrate minor differentiation based on behaviour and micro-habitat selection. We provide a multi-factor analysis of the trophic interactions between two morphologically similar species that lack a recent phylogenetic divergence.

Functional morphology

Flight modes and behaviour vary among flying animals. Bats show great diversity in wing morphology and flight patterns (Findley 1972; Norberg & Rayner 1987), triggered by adaptive processes in response to resource availability e.g., prey exploitation and habitat utilization. In bats, wing morphology has been used to identify and characterise structures of communities, guilds and assemblages (Findley 1972; Norberg & Rayner 1987; Britton *et al.* 1997). Our results support the classification of *M. dasycneme* and *M. daubentonii* as trawling *Myotis*, of the Leuconoe guild (Findley 1972; Baagøe 1987; Norberg & Rayner 1987). *Myotis dasycneme* and *M. daubentonii* both show adaptations like lower wing loading, compared to fast flying species like *Nyctalus noctula*, which allow relatively slow flight above water surfaces. Both bat species show high similarity in wing morphology, which, together with high similarity in echolocation (Siemers *et al.* 2001), implies that both bat species perceive and exploit the same prey when they are in the same habitat. We found wingtip shape (I) to be highly variable within the species (female-male difference). Still the higher wingtip shape index (I) in *M. daubentonii* might indicate better maneuverability. *M. daubentonii* is known, to utilizes heterogeneous foraging habitats, like riverine forests, river banks and lake shores,

but also occurs and hunts within forests and cluttered backgrounds (Taake 1992, Dietz *et al.* 2010, Nissen *et al.* 2013). For *M. dasycneme*, less is known about habitat preferences though they are thought to hunt primarily over and along large water bodies (e.g. lakes, canals, rivers) (Limpens 2001), but other, more structured habitats like reeds and forest edges are also used (pers. observation).

The variance in wing parameters found within species may be explained by adaptive radiation following competition. Many insectivorous bat species exhibit sexual segregation regarding habitat differences. Different morphological adaptations would facilitate different habitat utilization. For example, male and female particoloured bats (*Vespertilio murinus*) use different foraging habitats (Safi *et al.* 2007), as do barbastell bats (*Barbastellus barbastella*) (Hill *et al.* 2011). Within *M. daubentonii* females and males may utilize different habitats and even regions (Dietz *et al.* 2009). In *M. dasycneme* it has been observed that female and male individuals inhabit different regions with different habitat interior in the Netherlands (A-J. Haarsma, pers. comm.).

The ability to carry higher load is correlated with behaviour. The ghost bat, *Macrodermas gigas* (0.12 kg), can carry up to 60 g (= 50% of its own weight), which allows it to sustain a diet of small mammals (Kulzer *et al.* 1984). The vampire bat *Desmodus rotundus* can take up 100% of its own weight in blood, also a necessary adaptation, which allows this species to maintain a nutritionally low blood diet (Wimsatt 1969). Fruit bats regularly carry heavy fruits and seeds, like avocado or mangoes (Marshall 1983; Richards 1990). *Myotis capaccinii*, also a trawling *Myotis* and facultative piscivore, is able to carry 0.5g fish (Aihartza *et al.* 2008). In all, lift capacity may be a fundamental character in niche specialization in bats thus the subtle differences measured here are intriguing. However, these measurements should be treated cautiously. Although these same flight room parameters have been successfully used previously with these species (Siemers *et al.* 2001), the difference we found in weightlifting performance might be partially explained by the aerodynamic

constraints pond bats had to face in the flight room. Due to kinetic laws, *M. dasycneme* would likely reach a higher weightlifting capacity with higher flight speed ($F = m * a$). Indeed, higher speeds have been observed in the wild (Baagøe 1987) and are apparent in the square root of their wing loading, which is proportional to flight speed (Norberg & Rayner 1987). Despite these potentially subtle differences, *Myotis dasycneme* and *M. daubentonii* can be regarded as similar in morphological terms, hence the same guild and sub-genus.

The results for bite force show some differences between the species. Although both are insectivorous and feed mainly on soft bodied prey (e.g. Diptera, Lepidoptera), *M. dasycneme* had a higher bite force than *M. daubentonii*. These differences result from the overall size differences between the species, particularly head- and jaw length, head width and resulting jaw muscle size (Herrel *et al.* 2001; Aguirre *et al.* 2002; Herrel *et al.* 2005) which are larger in *M. dasycneme*. Both species lie well within the variation range in bite force and size measurements for their family Vespertilionidae (Greif *et al.* unpublished). This morphological distinction cannot be fully explained by the prey. On the one hand the bats show subtle differences in consumed prey size. Moths of larger wingspan (>20mm), like *Apamea monoglypha*, *Nonagria typhae* or *Laspeyra flexula*, appear only in guano samples of *M. dasycneme*. A bigger mouth may lead to a more efficient handling of bigger prey items (Herrel *et al.* 2005). On the other hand, both bats prey on beetles, as well as other hard bodied prey like water boatman (Corixidae). Although the molecular diet data only show beetles (Carabidae) to occur in the diet of *M. daubentonii*, the morphological results show no difference in beetle consumption between the two species. Hence, bite force needs to be discussed cautiously as meaningful trait within niche differentiation of *M. dasycneme* and *M. daubentonii*. The major prey items (Diptera, Lepidoptera) are all soft-bodied prey.

One limitation of our morphological and behavioural data was a limited sample size. The conservation situation for both species limited the number of individuals that we may take into captivity. To compensate we have performed a repeated measures design and

analysis but the conclusions drawn must be considered preliminary in light of the small sample.

Dietary Analysis

As predicted, the dietary niches overlap to a high degree between species, which mirrors the morphological and behavioural similarities. In particular, both *M. dasycneme* and *M. daubentonii* feed to a large extent on Diptera and Trichoptera. Although, the niche breadth differed between the species, the morphological dietary data overlapped nearly 100%. *M. daubentonii* seems to exploit a larger variety of prey compared to *M. dasycneme*, which seems to rely on chironomids to a larger extent. The comparison of prey regarding their major habitats, shows that *M. dasycneme* overall depends more on the aquatic prey fauna and less on the terrestrial, contrasting slightly with *M. daubentonii*. The molecular data indicates that females may be particularly different between species. Females have higher energy demands and nutrition requirements during pregnancy and lactation. This is due to a reduction in time spent torpid and to promote growth and development of the foetus (Swift & Racey 1983; Wilde *et al.* 1995, 1999). To compensate for this increase in total energy demand, female bats need to increase food consumption (Anthony & Kunz 1977; Kurta *et al.* 1989; Kunz *et al.* 1995; Racey & Entwistle 2000; Encarnacao & Dietz 2006). Often they are found to forage in areas with higher insect abundance compared to males (Dietz *et al.* 2006). In our data the higher energy demand of females may translate into the broader niche breadth compared to males, because generalistic feeding behaviour may provide their optimal foraging strategy (Stephen & Krebs 1986). In this context, the higher dietary distance between females of the different species appears reasonable. If females choose to forage in patches with high food supply within aquatic habitats, they are more likely to meet and compete for food resources.

Consequently, the greater distance between females may be a result of a mechanism to avoid such competition.

The molecular results show high resolution in prey identification and exceed the number of identified prey found through morphological analysis. Molecular analysis is particularly powerful for the identification of small morphologically cryptic prey such as chironomid species. With the morphological tools we could only identify one genus (*Glyptotendipes*, Chironomidae) within this prey group. But the molecular approach revealed and estimated 11 species, though this is still small compared to the actual number of chironomid species which can be expected in the central Europe (e.g. ~ 700 species are found in Germany). The highly diverse group of Chironomidae harbour many cryptic species and are morphological hard to distinguish (Cranston 1995) leading to a significant taxonomic ambiguity in both morphological and molecular reference collections. A lack of species sequences in the barcode archives certainly constrains output in molecular data.

While molecular analysis is becoming common within dietary studies because of its significant taxonomic resolution, there are key advantages of traditional morphological analysis. For example, we were able to distinguish different life stages of prey groups, like the pupal form of Chironomidae. This can provide very valuable information on the hunting mode of the focal species, in this case true trawling behaviour, when the bat scoops the not yet fully emerged Chironomid together with the pupal case directly from the water surface. It can also indicate foraging areas, like the pelagic areas of lakes, where Chironomidae undergo mass emergences. There are clearly advantages of pairing molecular and morphological data for measuring niche differentiation.

The abundance of prey species in the foraging habitats is high. For example, many of the Lepidoptera species are highly numerous and abundant during their adult stage (*Idea biselata*, *Acentria ephemerella*, *Mompha epilobiella*). Also Diptera (Nematocera, like Chironomidae), Trichoptera and especially Ephemeroptera are known to be numerous and

abundant in water habitats (Ward 1992; Racey *et al.* 1998; Warren *et al.* 2000). Hence, our results reflect the diet of generalist predators in this particular habitat. Both, the morphological and the molecular data, suggest the bats share major prey groups like Diptera, Trichoptera and Lepidoptera.

The phylogenetic position of *M. dasycneme* within the old world *Myotis* bats is still disputed (Ruedi & Mayer 2001; Stadelmann *et al.* 2007; Jiang *et al.* 2010). But regardless of this ambiguity, all agree that *Myotis dasycneme* and *M. daubentonii* do not to share a recent phylogenetic history and likely evolved in allopatry and thus without competition. It is thought that *M. dasycneme* is genetically situated more close to *M. mystacinus*, where as *M. daubentonii* belongs to a group of *M. nathalinae* and *M. bechsteinii*. The geographical origins are unknown (Stadelmann *et al.* 2007). Additionally early studies have shown that morphological similarities rarely reflect close phylogenetic relationships, which is illustrated by the close phylogenetic relation of the ecologically and morphological different *M. daubentonii* and *M. bechsteinii* (Ruedi & Mayer 2001).

Resource partitioning and mechanisms of species coexistence

Our data confirm that these species show high morphological and behavioural convergence which leads directly to high trophic overlap. But we also distinguish subtle but significant differences in bite force and lift force which corresponds to small differences in predator body size and explains subtle differences in prey exploitation.

Partitioning of resources and micro-resource differentiation is leading hypothesis to explain the coexistence of species and radiations. Emrich *et al.* (accepted) explored the resource use by an ensemble of Jamaican bats and found that a variety of behavioural and morphological characters contribute to patterns of resource use including things as subtle as temporal partitioning of hunting grounds. The hypothesis that resources must be partitioned rests on the assumption that some aspect of the resources is limited and thus limiting leading

to competition. We have found little evidence of partitioning of insect resources here and, in fact, there is very little evidence to suggest that insects are a limited resource in general. Thus competition for this resource may be minimal among sympatric bats. The alternative hypothesis is that habitat selection is based on morphological and perceptual abilities and thus similar habitat selection by bats with similar echolocation should result in a high degree of dietary overlap. This is largely what we have observed here.

In our analysis, we noted subtle differences in the dietary profile of these bats. While these are real, it is particularly interesting to consider whether these differences are biologically meaningful. First, it is important to note that while morphological data is limited in its ability to recognize subtle differences, molecular data, which identified prey at the species level, is likely biased towards the detection of resource partitioning. This method will tend to overrepresented rare items and underestimate the importance of common items (Clare et al. a/b accepted). As such, it is almost certain that two dietary analyses will contain species that are different (as we have seen here). To differentiate these random differences from biologically meaningful partitioning, we must consider whether the bats can differentiate at this level. While low duty-cycle bats very likely perceive insects by size, shape, speed and acoustic reflectivity, it is unlikely that they differentiate subtle morphological differences between species. As such, we must treat minor species-level differences conservatively. Of particular interest in our analysis are aspects which suggest a significant behavioral difference, for example, we observed that *M. dasycneme* was almost twice as likely to consume Chironomid pupae and more likely to consume prey with aquatic habitats. This suggest a difference in hunting style which may be a far more significant form of micro-resource partitioning than any particular species-level difference in diet. As such, strict differences should be considered in light of their relevance to behaviour. The power of these analyses will be seen when these high-resolution dietary analyses are used to test specific behavioural hypotheses and to guide perceptual test of bats' echolocation ability.

Conclusions

By selective adaptation of morphological and sensory features, evolution permits a species to improve its capacity to use certain food resources in distinct ways and thus shapes communities of foraging bats. Both bat species show high overlap in their functional morphology and also in their diets. Yet, we cannot overlook the dietary differences found between the two species suggest behavioural differences in hunting style. Our study strongly advocates that the integration of different methodologies is crucial to address characteristics of ecological niches and species interactions.

Acknowledgments

Thanks go to Florian Gloza-Rausch, Matthias Göttische, Inka Harms, Henning Nissen, and Antje Seebens for help in the field. We thank Victoria San Andrés Aura and David Brown for advice on molecular methods. We thank Renate Heckel and Leonie Baier for their great help with animal maintenance. We are grateful to Erich Koch for his creativity and great help with experiment set ups. Many thanks to Klemen Koselj, Sara Troxel and Sandor Zsebök for help in the flight room.

References

- Aguirre LF, Herrel A, van Damme R, Matthysen E (2002) Ecomorphological analysis of trophic niche partitioning in a tropical savannah bat community. *Proceedings of the Royal Society of London B*, **269**, 1271-1278.
- Aguirre LF, Herrel A, van Damme R, Matthysen E (2003) The implications of food hardness for diet in bats. *Functional Ecology*, **17**, 201-212.

- 550 Aihartza J, Almenar D, Salsamendi E, Goiti U, Garin I (2008) Fishing behaviour in the long-
551 fingered bat *Myotis capaccinii* (Bonaparte, 1837): an experimental approach. *Acta*
552 *Chiropterologica*, **10**, 287-301.
- 553 Anderson MJ (2001) A new method for non-parametric multivariate analysis of variance.
554 *Australian Ecology* **26**: 32-46.
- 555 Arlettaz R, Perrin N, Hausser J (1997) Trophic resource partitioning and competition between
556 the two sibling bat species *Myotis myotis* and *Myotis blythii*. *Journal of Animal*
557 *Ecology*, **66**, 897-911.
- 558 Baagøe HJ (1987) The Scandinavian bat fauna: adaptive wing morphology and free flight in
559 the field. In: *The recent advances in the study of bats* (eds. Fenton MB Racey P Rayner
560 JMV), pp. 57-74. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge.
- 561 Bell GP (1983) Behavioral and Ecological Aspects of gleaning by a desert insectivorous bat,
562 *Antrozous pallidus* (Chiroptera: Vespertilionidae). *Behavioural Ecology and*
563 *Sociobiology*, **10**, 217-223.
- 564 Blankenberg D, Taylor J, Schenck I, He J, Zhang Y, Ghent M, Veeraraghavan N, Albert I,
565 Miller W, Makova KD, Hardison RC, Nekrutenko A (2007) A framework for
566 collaborative analysis of ENCODE data: Making large-scale analyses biologist-
567 friendly. *Genome Research*, **17**, 960-964.
- 568 Blankenberg D, Gordon A, Von Kuster G, Coraor N, Taylor J, Nekrutenko A, The Galaxy
569 Team (2010) Manipulation of FASTQ data with Galaxy. *Bioinformatics Application*
570 *Note*, **26**, 1783-1785.
- 571 Bloom SA (1982) Similarity indices in community studies: Potential pitfalls. *Marine Ecology*
572 *– Progress Series*, **5**, 125-128.
- 573 Bohmann K, Monadjem A, Lehmkuhl Noer C, Rasmussen M, Zeale MRK, Clare EL, Jones
574 G, Willerslev E, Gilbert MTP (2011) Molecular Diet Analysis of Two African Free-
575 Tailed Bats (Molossidae) Using High Throughput Sequencing. *PLOS one*, **6**, 1-11.

- 576 Bray JR, Curtis J.T., 1957. An ordination of the upland forest community of southern
577 Wisconsin. *Ecological Monographs*, **27**, 325 – 349.
- 578 Britton ARC, Jones G, Rayner JMV (1997) Flight performance, echolocation and foraging
579 behaviour in pond bats, *Myotis dasycneme*. *Journal of Zoology*, **241**, 503-522.
- 580 Clare EL, Fraser EE, Braid HE, Fenton MB, Hebert PD (2009) Species on the menu of a
581 generalist predator, the eastern red bat (*Lasiurus borealis*): using a molecular approach
582 to detect arthropod prey. *Molecular Ecology*, **18**, 2532–2542.
- 583 Clare, E.L., Barber, B.R., Sweeney, B.W., Hebert, P.D.N., Fenton, M.B., 2011. Eating local:
584 influences of habitat on the diet of little brown bats (*Myotis lucifugus*). *Molecular*
585 *Ecology* **20**: 1772-1780.
- 586 Clarke KR, Warwick RM (2001) Change in marine communities: an approach to statistical
587 analysis and interpretation, 2nd ed. PRIMER-E, Plymouth.
- 588 Cranston PS (1995) Introduction. In: *The Chironomidae: the ecology and biology of non-*
589 *biting midges*. (eds Armitage PD Cranston PS Pinder LCV), pp. 1–5. Chapman and
590 Hall, London.
- 591 Coyne JA, Orr HA (2004) *Speciation*. Sinauer Associates, Sunderland, Massachusetts.
- 592 Davidson-Watts I, Jones G (2006) Differences in foraging behaviour between *Pipistrellus*
593 *pipistrellus* (Schreber, 1774) and *Pipistrellus pygmaeus* (Leach, 1825). *Journal of*
594 *Zoology*, **268**, 55–62.
- 595 Dieckmann U, Doebeli M (1999) The origin of species by sympatric speciation. *Letters to*
596 *Nature*, **400**, 354-357.
- 597 Dieckman U, Metz JAJ, Doebeli M, Tautz D (2004) *Introduction*. In: *Adaptive Speciation*
598 (eds. Dieckman U, Metz JAJ, Doebeli M, Tautz D), pp. 1-16. University Press,
599 Cambridge
- 600 Dietz M, Encarnação JA, Kalko EKV (2006) Small scale distribution patterns of female and
601 male Daubenton's bats (*Myotis daubentonii*). *Acta Chiropterologica*, **8**, 403-415.

- 602 Dumont ER (1997) Cranial shape in fruit, nectar, and exudat feeders: Implication for
603 interpreting the fossil record. *American Journal of Physical Anthropology*, **102**, 187-
604 202.
- 605 Dumont ER (1999) The effect of food hardness on feeding behaviour in frugivorous bats
606 (Phyllostomidae): an experimental study. *Journal of Zoology, London*, **248**, 219-229.
- 607 Encarnação J A, Dietz M (2006) Estimation of food intake and ingested energy in
608 Daubenton's bats (*Myotis daubentonii*) during pregnancy and spermatogenesis.
609 *European Journal of Wildlife Research*, **52**, 221-227.
- 610 Fauth JE, Bernard J, Camara M, Resetarits Jr WJ, Van Buskirk J, McCollum SA (1996)
611 Simplifying the jargon of community ecology: a conceptual approach. *The American*
612 *Naturalist*, **147**, 282–286.
- 613 Findley JS (1972) Phenetic relationships among bats of the genus *Myotis*. *Systematic*
614 *Zoology*, 31 – 52.
- 615 Findley JS, Black H (1983) Morphological and dietary structuring of a Zambian insectivorous
616 bat community. *Ecology*, **64**, 625–630.
- 617 Freeman PW (1981) Correspondence of food habits and morphology in insectivorous bats.
618 *Journal of Mammalogy*, **62**, 166-173.
- 619 Giannini NP, Kalko EKV (2004) Trophic structure in a large assemblage of phyllostomid bats
620 in Panama. *OIKOS*, **105**, 209-220.
- 621 Giardine B, Riemer C, Ross CH *et al.* (2005) Galaxy: A platform for interactive large-scale
622 genome analysis. *Genome Research*, **15**, 1451-1455.
- 623 Goecks J, Nekrutenko A, Taylor J, The Galax Team (2010) Galaxy: a comprehensive
624 approach for supporting accessible, reproducible, and transparent computational
625 research in the life sciences. *Genome Biology*, doi:10.1186.
- 626 Grant BR (1985) Selection on bill characters in a population of Darwin's finches: *Geospiza*
627 *conirostris* on Isla Genovesa, Galápagos. *Evolution* **39**, 523-532.

- 628 Grant PR, Grant BR (2006) Evolution of character displacement in Darwin's finches. *Science*,
629 **313**, 224.
- 630 Hamming RW (1950) Error detecting and error correcting codes. *The Bell System Technical*
631 *Journal*, **29**, 147–160.
- 632 Hebert PDN, Cywinska A, Ball SL, de Waard J (2003a) Biological identification through
633 DNA barcodes. *Proceeding of the Royal Society London B Biological Sciences*, **270**,
634 313–321.
- 635 Hebert PDN, Ratnasingham S, de Waard J (2003b) Barcoding animal life: cytochrome c
636 oxidase subunit 1 divergences among closely related species. *Proceeding of the Royal*
637 *Society London B Biological Sciences*, **270**, S596–S599.
- 638 Hebert PDN, Stoeckle MY, Zemplak TS, Francis CM (2004) Identification of birds through
639 DNA barcodes. *PLoS Biology*, **2**, e312.
- 640 Herrel A, de Grauw E, Lemos-Espinal JA (2001) Head shape and bite performance in
641 xenosaurid lizards. *Journal of Experimental Zoology*, **290**, 101–107.
- 642 Herrel A, Podos J, Huber SK, Hendry AP (2005) Bite performance and morphology in a
643 population of Darwin's finches: implications for the evolution of beak shape.
644 *Functional Ecology*, **19**, 43–48.
- 645 Holt RD (2009) Bringing the Hutchinsonian niche into the 21st century. *Proceedings of*
646 *National Academy of Sciences, USA*, **106**, 19659 – 19665.
- 647 Hutchinson GE (1957) *Concluding Remarks*. Cold Spring Harbor Symposia on Quantitative
648 Biology. **22**, 415–42
- 649 Jiang T, Sun K, Chou C, Zhang Z, Feng J (2010) First record of *Myotis flavus* (Chiroptera:
650 Vespertilionidae) from mainland China and a reassessment of its taxonomic status.
651 *Zootaxa*, **2414**, 41–51.
- 652 Jones G (1990) Prey Selection by the Greater Horseshoe Bat (*Rhinolophus ferrumequinum*):
653 Optimal Foraging by Echolocation? *Animal Ecology*, **59**, 587–602

- 654 Jones G, Rayner JMV (1988) Foraging behavior and echolocation of wild horseshoe bats
 655 *Rhinolophus ferrumequinum* and *R. hipposideros* (Chiroptera, Rhinolophidae).
 656 *Behavioural Ecology and Sociobiology*, 25, 183-191.
- 657 Kalko EKV, Schnitzler H-U (1989) The echolocation and hunting behavior of Daubenton's
 658 bat, *Myotis daubentonii*. *Behavioural Ecology and Sociobiology*, **24**, 225-238.
- 659 Kalko EKV, Herre EA, Handley Jr CO (2007) Relation of fig fruit characteristics to fruit-
 660 eating bats in the New and Old World tropics. *Journal of Biogeography*, **23**, 565-576.
- 661 King RA, Read DS, Traugott M, Symondson WOC (2008) Molecular analysis of predation: a
 662 review of best practice for DNA-based approaches. *Molecular Ecology*, **17**, 947 – 963.
- 663 Krüger F, Harms I, Fictner A, Wolz I, Sommer RS (2012) High trophic niche overlap between
 664 the two European trawling *Myotis*, *Myotis dasycneme* and *Myotis daubentonii*. *Acta*
 665 *Chiropterologica*, **14**, 347-356.
- 666 Kulzer E, Nelson JE, McKean JL, Moehres FP (1984) Prey-catching behaviour and
 667 echolocation in the Australian ghost bat, *Macroderma gigas* (Microchiroptera:
 668 Megadermatidae). *Australian Mammalogy*, **7**, 37-50.
- 669 Kunz TH, Whitaker Jr JO (1983) An evaluation of fecal analysis for determining food habits
 670 of insectivorous bats. *Canadian Journal of Zoology*, **61**, 1317-1321.
- 671 Lack D (1974). *Darwin's Finches*. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge.
- 672 Lacki MJ, Ladeur KM (2001) Seasonal use of lepidopteran prey by Rafinesque's big-eared
 673 bats (*Corynorhinus rafinesquii*). *The American Midland Naturalist*, **145**, 213-217.
- 674 Marshall AG (1983) Bats, flowers and fruit: evolutionary relationship in the Old World.
 675 *Biological Journal of the Linnaean Society*, **83**, 351-369.
- 676 Norberg UM, Rayner JMV (1987) Ecological morphology and flight in bats (Mammalia;
 677 Chiroptera): wing adaptations, flight performance, foraging strategy and echolocation.
 678 *Philosophical Transaction of the Royal Society B Biological Sciences*, **316**, 335-427.

- 679 Oksanen JR, Kindt R, Legendre P, O'Hara B, Simpson GL, Solymos P, Stevens MHH,
680 Wagner H (2010) *Vegan: community ecology package*. Available from [http://cran.r-](http://cran.r-project.org/)
681 [project.org/](http://cran.r-project.org/) and <http://vegan.r-forge.r-project.org>.
- 682 Pianka ER (1974): Niche overlap and diffuse competition. *Proceedings of the National*
683 *Academy of Sciences, USA*, **71**, 2141-2145.
- 684 Pompanon F, Deagle BE, Symondson WOC, Brown DS, Jarman SD, Taberlet P (2012) Who
685 is eating what: diet assessment using next generation sequencing. *Molecular Ecology*,
686 **21**, 1931-1950.
- 687 Pourmand N, Karhanek M, Persson HHJ, Webb CD *et al.* (2006) Direct electrical detection of
688 DNA synthesis. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences, USA*, **103**, 6466–
689 6470.
- 690 Racey PR, Swift SM, Rydell J, Brodie L (1998) Bats and insects over two Scottish rivers with
691 contrasting nitrate status. *Animal Conservation* **1**, 195–202
- 692 Ratnasingham S, Hebert PDN (2007) BOLD: The Barcode of Life Data system. *Molecular*
693 *Ecology Notes*, **7**, 355-364.
- 694 Razgour O, Clare EL, Zeale MRK, Hammer J, Baerholm Schnell I, Rasmussen M, Gilbert,
695 TP, Jones G (2011) High-throughput sequencing offers insight into mechanisms of
696 resources partitioning in cryptic bat species. *Ecology and Evolution*, **1**, 556 – 570.
- 697 Richards GC (1990) The spectacled flying-fox, *Pteropus conspicillatus* (Chiroptera:
698 Pteropodidae), in North Queensland – 2. Diet, seed dispersal and feeding ecology.
699 *Australian Mammalogy*, **13**, 25-31.
- 700 Ricklefs RE, Schluter D (1993) *Species diversity in ecological communities: historical and*
701 *geographical perspectives*. University of Chicago Press, Chicago.
- 702 Rothenburg JM, Hinz W, Rearick TMD., Schultz J. *et al.* (2011) An integrated semiconductor
703 device enabling non-optical genome sequencing. *Nature* **475**, 348–352.

- 704 Ruedi M & Mayer F (2001) Molecular Systematics of Bats of the Genus *Myotis*
705 (Vespertilionidae) Suggests Deterministic Ecomorphological Convergences.
706 *Molecular phylogenetics and evolution*, **21**, 436-448.
- 707 Schluter D (2001) Ecology and the origin of species. *TRENDS in Ecology & Evolution*,
708 **16**, 372-380.
- 709 Santana SE, Dumont ER, Davi JL (2010) Mechanics of bite force production and its
710 relationship to diet in bats. *Journal of Functional Ecology*, **24**, 776-784.
- 711 Schluter D, Price TD, Grant PR (1985) Ecological Character Displacement in Darwin's
712 Finches. *Science*, **227**, 1056-1059.
- 713 Schnitzler, H-U, Kalko, EKV (2001) Echolocation by insect-eating bats. *BioSciences*, **51**,
714 557-569.
- 715 Schnitzler H-U, Moss CF, Denzinger A (2003) From spatial orientation to food acquisition in
716 echolocating bats. *Trends in Ecology & Evolution*, **18**, 386-394.
- 717 Siemers BM, Stitz P, Schnitzler H-U (2001) The acoustic advantage of hunting at low heights
718 above water: behavioral experiments on the European 'trawling' bats *Myotis*
719 *capaccinii*, *M. dasycneme* and *M. daubentonii*. *The Journal of Experimental Biology*,
720 **204**, 3843-3854.
- 721 Siemers BM, Schnitzler, H-U (2004) Echolocation signals reflect niche differentiation in five
722 sympatric congeneric bat species. *Nature*, **429**, 657-661.
- 723 Siemers BM, SM Swift (2006). Differences in sensory ecology contribute to resource
724 partitioning in the bats *Myotis bechsteinii* and *Myotis nattereri*. *Behavioral Ecology*
725 *and Sociobiology*, **59**, 373-380.
- 726 Shiel CB, McAney CM, Sullivan C, Fairley JS (1997) Identification of arthropod fragments in
727 bat droppings. Occasional Publication 17, The Mammal Society, London.

- 728 Simmons NB (2005) Order Chiroptera. In: *Mammal species of the World: a taxonomic and*
729 *geographic reference* (eds Wilson DE Reeder DM), pp. 312–529. 3rd ed. Smithsonian
730 Institution Press, Washington D.C.
- 731 Simpson EH (1949) Measurement of Diversity. *Nature*, **163**, 688.
- 732 Stadelmann B, Jacobs DS, Schoemann C, Ruedi M (2004) Phylogeny of African *Myotis* bats
733 inferred from cytochrome b sequences. *Acta Chiropterologica*, **6**, 177-192.
- 734 Stadelmann B, Lin LK, Kunz TH, Ruedi M (2007). Molecular phylogeny of New World
735 *Myotis* Chiroptera, Vespertilionidae) inferred from mitochondrial and nuclear DNA
736 genes. *Molecular phylogenetics and evolution*, **43**, 32-48
- 737 Symondson WOC (2002) Molecular identification of prey in predator diets. *Molecular*
738 *Ecology*, **11**, 627 – 641.
- 739 Taake KH (1992) Strategien der Ressourcennutzung an Waldgewässern jagender
740 Fledermäuse. *Myotis*, **30**, 7-73.
- 741 Wimsatt WA (1969) Transient behavior, nocturnal activity patterns, and feeding efficiency of
742 vampire bats (*Desmodus rotundus*) under natural conditions. *Journal of Mammalogy*,
743 **50**, 233-244.
- 744 Whitaker JO (1972) Food habits of bats from Indiana. *Canadian Journal of Zoology*, **50**, 877-
745 883.
- 746 Whitaker JO, McCracken GF, Siemers BM (2009) Food habitat analysis of insectivorous bats.
747 In: *Ecological and behavioural methods for the study of bats* (eds Kunz TH ParsonsS),
748 pp. 567-592. 2nd ed. The John Hopkins University Press, Baltimore.
- 749 Ward JV (1992) *Aquatic Insect Ecology, Vol. 1. Biology and Habitat*. Wiley, New York.
- 750 Warren RD, Waters DA, Altringham JD, Bullock DJ (2000) The distribution of Daubenton's
751 bats (*Myotis daubentonii*) and pipistrelle bats (*Pipistrellus pipistrellus*)
752 (Vespertilionidae) in relation to small-scale variation in riverine habitat. *Biological*
753 *Conservation*, **92**, 85-91.

754 Zeale MRK, Butlin RK, Barker GLA, Lees DC, Jones G (2011) Taxon-specific PCR for DNA
755 barcoding arthropod prey in bat faeces. *Molecular Ecology Resources*, **11**, 236 – 244.
756

For Review Only

Fig. 1 Plot of maximal weightlifting performance (N) against wing loading [Nm⁻²] in *M. dasycneme* and *M. daubentonii*. Each point represents the max value of ten measurements under the same conditions and settings. Additionally the Pearson correlation of maximal measured weightlifting performance and wing loading shows a strong negative correlation.

Fig. 2 Plot of the maximal measured bite force against the upper tooththrow length (CM³) from *M. dasycneme* (circles) and *M. daubentonii* (triangles). Additionally the result of Spearman rank correlation of these two parameters is given, indicating a significant positive correlation.

757
758
759
760
761
762

Fig. 3 Plot of a non-metric two-dimensional ordination scale (NMDS) based on the presence-absence prey data derived from the morphological diet analysis on *M. dasycneme* (circle) and *M. daubentonii* (cross) (n= 206, stress = 0.132).

763

764

765

766

767

768

769

Table 1 Values of body mass and forearm length taken from live bats and wing morphology measurements, taken from pictures, for *M. dasycneme* and *M. daubentonii* (mean ± SD).

Variable	<i>Myotis dasycneme</i>		<i>Myotis daubentonii</i>	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
	n = 10	n = 4	n = 11	n = 5
Body mass	17.51 ± 0.6	16.95 ± 0.3	10.125 ± 0.6	12.12 ± 1.3
Forearm length	4.687 ± 0.036	4.6725 ± 0.008	3.754 ± 0.03	4.095 ± 0.23
Wing loading	13.793 ± 0.739	11.86 ± 0.35	11.839 ± 0.68	13.08 ± 1.28
Wingtip shape index	1.746 ± 0.152	1.273 ± 0.141	1.135 ± 0.073	1.923 ± 0.412

Table 23 Taxa, identified in the diet of *Myotis dasycneme* (Mdas) and *M. daubentonii* (Mdau), which were assigned to MOTU utilising the BOLD search system (V.3). The confidence levels (Conf) signify (1a) perfect match to one genus or species (>99%), (1b) match to one genus or species (>98%), (2) match to more than one species, of which only one was a local species, (3) match >98% to several species of different genera or to reference sequences only identified to family level. In the species columns (Mdas/Mdau) 1 stands for presence and 0 for absence of prey.

Order	Family	Species	Conf	Mdas	Mdau
Diptera	Anthomyiidae	<i>Delia florilega</i>	1b	0	0
		Chaoboridae	3	1	1
		Chironomidae	3	1	1
		<i>Conchelopodia melanops</i>	1b	0	1
		<i>Cryptochironomus supplicans</i>	1b	1	1
		<i>Cryptochironomus sp.</i>	1b	0	1
		<i>Dicrotendipes tritonus</i>	1b	1	1
		<i>Microtendipes brevitarsis</i>	1a	1	1
		<i>Paracladopelma winnelli</i>	1q	0	1
		<i>Paratanytarsus tenuis</i>	1b	0	1
		<i>Procladius nigriventris</i>	1a	0	1
		<i>Procladius signatus</i>	1b	0	1
		<i>Procladius sp.</i>	3	1	1
		<i>Tanytarsus brundini</i>	1a	0	1
		<i>Tanytarsus mendax</i>	1a	0	1
		<i>Xenochironomus xenolabis</i>	1a	0	1
		unknown	1b	0	1
	Chloropidae	<i>Aedes sp.</i>	3	1	0
	Culicidae	<i>Anopheles sp.</i>	1b	1	1
		<i>Hilara quadrifasciata</i>	1b	0	0
	Empididae	<i>Atophthalmus inustus</i>	3	1	0
	Limoniidae	<i>Euphylidorea sp.</i>	1a	1	0
		<i>Helius flavus</i>	1b	0	1
		<i>Limnophila pictipennis</i>	1a	1	1
		<i>Limonia nubeculosa</i>	1b	1	1
		<i>Molophilus sp.</i>	1a	0	1
		<i>Pseudolimnophila lucorum</i>	3	0	1
		unknown	3	1	1
	Pediciidae	unknown	3	1	1
	Psychodidae	<i>Simulium sp.</i>	1b	0	1

	Simuliidae	<i>Rachispoda lutosa</i>	3	0	1
	Sphaeroceridae	unknown	3	0	1
	Stratiomyidae	unknown	3	1	0
	Syrphidae	<i>Nephrotoma scalaris</i>	1b	0	1
	Tachinidae	<i>Tipula scripta</i>	1a	0	1
	Tipulidae	<i>Tipula sp.</i>	3	0	1
Lepidoptera	Coleophoridae	<i>Coelophora kuehnella</i>	1a	0	0
	Crambidae	<i>Acentria ephemerella</i>	1a	1	1
		<i>Herpetogramma sp.</i>	2	1	0
		<i>Scoparia sp.</i>	3	1	1
	Elachistidae	<i>Agonopterix sp.</i>	3	1	1
		<i>Semioscopis sp.</i>	2	0	1
	Erebidae	<i>Laspeyria flexula</i>	1a	1	0
	Geometridae	<i>Hydriomena impluviata</i>	1a	0	1
		<i>Idaea biselata</i>	1b	0	0
	Momphidae	<i>Mompha epilobiella</i>	1a	0	1
	Noctuidae	<i>Apamea monoglypha</i>	1a	1	0
		<i>Elaphria sp.</i>	2	1	0
		<i>Hoplondrina blanda</i>	1a	0	1
		<i>Leucania sp.</i>	3	1	0
		<i>Noctua sp.</i>	3	1	1
		<i>Nonagria typhae</i>	1a	1	0
	Pterophoridae	<i>Geina sp.</i>	2	1	1
	Tortricidae	<i>Acleris forsskaleana</i>	1a	1	0
		<i>Epinotia demarniana</i>	1a	1	1
		<i>Epinotia sp.</i>	3	0	1
Ephemeroptera	Baetidae	<i>Baetis fuscatus</i>	1a	1	0
	Caenidae	<i>Caenis horaris</i>	1b	1	1
		<i>Caenis sp.</i>	3	1	1
	Ephemerellidae	unknown	3	1	1
	Heptageniidae	<i>Eurylophella sp.</i>	2	1	0
		<i>Heptagenia dalecarlica</i>	2	1	1
Trichoptera	Goeridae	<i>Goera pilosa</i>	1a	0	0
	Leptoceridae	<i>Athripsodes albifrons</i>	1a	0	1
		<i>Athripsodes cinereus</i>	3	1	1
	Limnephilidae	<i>Ceraclea sp.</i>	1b	1	1

		<i>Limnephilus stigma</i>	1b	0	1
	Molannidae	<i>Molanna albicans</i>	1a	1	1
		<i>Molanna angustata</i>	1b	0	1
	Phryganeidae	<i>Agrypnia varia</i>	1a	1	1
Neuroptera	Chrysopidae	<i>Nineta sp.</i>	3	0	1
	Hemerobiidae	<i>Hemerobius pini</i>	1a	0	1
		<i>Hemerobius sp.</i>	3	0	1
Hemiptera	Corixidae	<i>Callicorixa praeusta</i>	1a	0	1
		<i>Paracorixa concinna</i>	1a	0	1
		<i>Sigara falleni</i>	1a	1	0
		<i>Sigara striata</i>	1a	1	0
Coleoptera	Carabidae	<i>unknown</i>	3	0	1
	Scarabaeidae	<i>Copris sp.</i>	2	0	1
Plecoptera	Perlodidae	<i>Clioperla sp.</i>	1a	1	1

Table 34 Bray-Curtis Index and Hamming Distance values calculated on the molecular presence-absence diet data of *Myotis dasycneme* (Mdas) and *M. daubentonii* (Mdau) and the associated sexes (F = female; M = male).

Bray-Curtis Index	Hamming Distance					
		Mdas_F	Mdas_M	Mdau_F	Mdau_M	Mdas_total
	Mdas_F		65	118	61	
	Mdas_M	0.80		121	46	
	Mdau_F	0.78	0.85		115	
	Mdau_M	0.81	0.82	0.85		
	Mdau_total					117 0.703

799

800 Table 45 Simpsons diveristy and Species richness (=number of prey) calculated from the morphological dietary data.

	<i>Myotis daubentonii</i>		<i>Myotis dasycneme</i>	
	female	male	female	male
Simpson's Index	0.81	0.79	0.77	0.69
	0.82		0.75	
Species richness	12	14	10	90
	16		12	
Pianka's Index	0.97			

801

802

803

804

805

806

807

808

809

810

811

812

813

814

815

816

Table 56: Prey occurrence in the morphologically analysed diet of *M. dasycneme* and *M. daubentonii*. We tested data with generalized liner model (GLM) and Tukey post-hoc test. Bold p values indicate significant differences and values in italics almost significant cases ($p < 0.1$).

Prey	Prey occurrence			
	<i>M. dasycneme</i> (<i>n</i> = 84)	<i>M. daubentonii</i> (<i>n</i> = 122)	<i>z</i>	<i>p</i>
Diptera	1.2%	8.2%	1.647	<i>0.099</i>
Nematocera	17.9%	26.2%	0.264	0.792
Chironomidae	95.2%	82.0%	-2.628	0.008
Chironomid Pupae	17.9%	11.5%	-1.709	<i>0.088</i>
Tipulidae	9.5%	10.7%	0.264	0.792
Brachycera	4.8%	11.5%	1.772	<i>0.076</i>
Corixidae	6.0%	5.7%	1.647	0.948
Gerridae	0.0%	0.8%	0.003	0.997
Trichoptera	46.4%	50.8%	0.619	0.536
Lepidoptera	14.3%	12.3%	-0.416	0.678
Ephemeroptera	0.0%	1.6%	0.005	0.996
Neuroptera	1.2%	4.1%	1.146	0.252
Coleoptera	1.2%	4.9%	1.337	0.181
Hymenoptera	0.0%	3.3%	0.009	0.993
Aphidoidea	2.4%	4.1%	0.661	0.509
Aranea	0.0%	0.8%	0.003	0.997