

Geographic origins and population genetics of bats killed at wind-energy facilities

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Abstract. An unanticipated impact of wind-energy development has been large-scale mortality of insectivorous bats. In eastern North America, where mortality rates are among the highest in the world, the hoary bat (*Lasiurus cinereus*) and the eastern red bat (*L. borealis*) comprise the majority of turbine-associated bat mortality. Both species are migratory tree bats with widespread distributions; however, little is known regarding the geographic origins of bats killed at wind-energy facilities or the diversity and population structure of affected species. We addressed these unknowns by measuring stable hydrogen isotope ratios ($\delta^2\text{H}$) and conducting population genetic analyses of bats killed at wind-energy facilities in the central Appalachian Mountains (USA) to determine the summering origins, effective size, structure, and temporal stability of populations. Our results indicate that ~1% of hoary bat mortalities and ~57% of red bat mortalities derive from non-local sources, with no relationship between the proportion of non-local bats and sex, location of mortality, or month of mortality. Additionally, our data indicate that hoary bats in our sample consist of an unstructured population with a small effective size (N_e) and either a stable or declining history. Red bats also showed no evidence of population genetic structure, but in contrast to hoary bats, the diversity contained in our red bat samples is consistent with a much larger N_e that reflects a demographic expansion after a bottleneck. These results suggest that the impacts of mortality associated with intensive wind-energy development may affect bat species dissimilarly, with red bats potentially better able to absorb sustained mortality than hoary bats because of their larger N_e . Our results provide important baseline data and also illustrate the utility of stable isotopes and population genetics for monitoring bat populations affected by wind-energy development.

Key words: eastern red bat; hoary bat; *Lasiurus borealis*; *Lasiurus cinereus*; migration; population genetics; stable isotopes; wind turbine.

INTRODUCTION

Growing concern over greenhouse gas emissions associated with energy production from the combustion of fossil fuels (IPCC 2014) has prompted a proliferation of renewable-energy production in the United States and abroad (Tabassum-Abbasi et al. 2014). Despite the environmental benefits associated with renewable-energy development (Jaber 2013), recent studies also highlight potential negative impacts on wildlife and the environment (e.g., Saidur et al. 2011, Armstrong et al. 2014). A largely unanticipated impact of utility-scale wind-energy development has been widespread mortality of bats (Kunz et al. 2007, Kuvlesky et al. 2007, Cryan and Barclay 2009). Survey data suggest mortality rates of up to 41 bats/turbine/yr in Europe (Rydell et al. 2010) and

70 bats/turbine/yr in North America (Arnett et al. 2008), with the highest rates along forested ridgelines. Collectively, estimates are that ~600,000 bats were killed by interactions with wind turbines at utility-scale wind farms in the USA in 2012 (Hayes 2013), which is similar to fatality estimates in Europe on the basis of number of fatalities per MW of installed net energy production (Voigt et al. 2015). As the primary predators of night-flying insects, bats limit the spread of insect-borne plant and animal pathogens and prevent billions of dollars of crop damage each year (Feldhamer et al. 2004, Boyles et al. 2011). Thus, understanding the potential impact of wind-energy development on bat populations is a high priority for conservation and ecosystem services.

Whereas survey data demonstrate the capacity of wind turbines to kill bats, the population-level impacts of such mortality are less clear. Bats are long-lived and exhibit low annual reproductive rates (Barclay and Harder 2003), which may make it difficult for their populations to recover from sustained mortality. Understanding the impacts of

Manuscript received 26 March 2015; revised 9 November 2015; accepted 1 December 2015. Corresponding Editor: S. Oyler-McCance.

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turbine mortality on bats requires detailed information on their population biology where turbine development is occurring, such as migration pathways and geographic extent of regional habitat use, and the genetic diversity and demographic history of populations. Currently, these data are lacking for many affected species (Kunz et al. 2007), yet such information may be useful to policy, conservation, and resource-management decisions.

Stable hydrogen isotope ratios ($\delta^2\text{H}$) are an excellent tool for inferring the geographic origins of migratory wildlife (Rubenstein and Hobson 2004) that may not be residents of the region in which they are sampled and that are not amenable to traditional methods of population monitoring (Holland and Wikelski 2009, Taylor et al. 2011). For example, positive relationships exist between $\delta^2\text{H}$ values of non-exchangeable hydrogen in hair ($\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{hair}}$) and amount-weighted $\delta^2\text{H}$ values of precipitation for various species of bats (Cryan et al. 2004, Britzke et al. 2009, Fraser et al. 2012, Popa-Lisseanu et al. 2012, Sullivan et al. 2012, Pylant et al. 2014), which provides a solid basis for using $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{hair}}$ values to identify potential summering regions of individuals of unknown geographic origin. If turbine-killed bats are primarily from populations that summer around wind-energy sites, then deceased individuals should have $\delta^2\text{H}$ values characteristic of local precipitation. However, because the most common species of bats killed by wind turbines in North America (*Lasiurus cinereus*, *L. borealis*, and *Lasiorycteris noctivagans*) are migratory, prior studies suggest that turbines may be killing large numbers of individuals during long-distance annual migrations (e.g., Johnson et al. 2003, Baerwald et al. 2014). If turbine-killed bats summer far from the site of mortality, then they should have $\delta^2\text{H}$ values distinct from those of the site of mortality (Voigt et al. 2012, Lehnert et al. 2014). Although $\delta^2\text{H}$ -based assignments are often coarse, differences in the ratios of local to non-local bats across wind-energy facilities or adjacent regions may help to elucidate important migratory pathways and corridors and advance understanding of population dynamics (Voigt et al. 2012, Lehnert et al. 2014), thus aiding conservation of migratory bats (Roscioni et al. 2013).

The genetic diversity and population structure of impacted bat species may affect how resilient their populations are to sustained mortality, and their capacity for long-term adaptation. For example, species with small effective population sizes (N_e) contain low levels of genetic diversity that may limit their evolutionary potential to respond to selection and avoid inbreeding. Thus, increased mortality on such species by wind turbines or other factors may represent a greater conservation concern to environmental managers and decision makers compared to species with larger N_e . Population genetic analysis can also elucidate historical trends in N_e of impacted species, with those exhibiting historical or contemporary declines in N_e more at risk from sustained mortality compared to species for which N_e has been stable or increasing. Additionally, the existence of population genetic structure may create conservation concerns if genetically distinct subpopulations vary in their

exposure to wind-turbine mortality (e.g., depending on geographic location, use of certain migration routes, etc.). This could have the effect of removing unique diversity (rare or private alleles) from the species-wide gene pool.

Here we report the combined application of stable hydrogen isotope and population genetic analyses to assess the biological impacts of wind-energy development on two species of lasiurine bats, *L. cinereus* (hoary bat) and *L. borealis* (eastern red bat), which collectively comprise nearly 75% of mortalities at wind-energy facilities in North America (Arnett et al. 2008). We address two key questions: (1) Is turbine mortality impacting bats summering locally or individuals from a broader geographic extent? (2) What is the effective size and temporal stability of bat populations experiencing mortality and do these populations exhibit subpopulation structure? We address these questions, and their implications, using samples obtained from utility-scale wind-energy facilities in the central Appalachian Mountains of the eastern United States, a region exhibiting some of the highest rates of turbine-associated bat mortality in the world (Arnett et al. 2008).

METHODS AND MATERIALS

Sample collection and sites

Hair and tissue samples from hoary ($n = 246$) and red ($n = 144$) bats were obtained from carcasses collected at wind-energy facilities in the central Appalachian Mountains between April and October in 2003 and 2009–2011 (Fig. 1, Table 1). These facilities are located in the Appalachian and Ridge and Valley physiographic provinces, which are regions dominated by forested plateaus, ridges, and agricultural activity in lowlands, with elevations across the provinces ranging from 152 to 1402 m above sea level (Woods et al. 1999). Samples from the Criterion Wind Project (28 turbines) in Maryland were obtained from the environmental consulting firm Western Ecosystems Technology and represent mortalities from 2011. Samples from two West Virginia facilities, the Mountaineer Wind Energy Center (44 turbines) and the Mount Storm Wind Farm (132 turbines) were obtained from the West Virginia Department of Natural Resources and represent mortalities from 2003 and 2009–2011, respectively. For samples from bats killed in Maryland and West Virginia, we determined the centroid of the wind turbines at each facility for geospatial analyses (see following section). Samples from wind-energy facilities throughout Pennsylvania were obtained from the Pennsylvania Game Commission (PAGC) and represent mortalities from 2011. In accordance with PAGC's Wind Energy Voluntary Cooperative Agreement, individual wind-energy facilities are not identified as sites of mortality; rather, samples are pooled across regional game units of Pennsylvania (text of Cooperative Agreement available online).⁵ Samples from the northeastern,

⁵<http://www.portal.state.pa.us/portal/server.pt?open=514&objID=613068&mode=2>

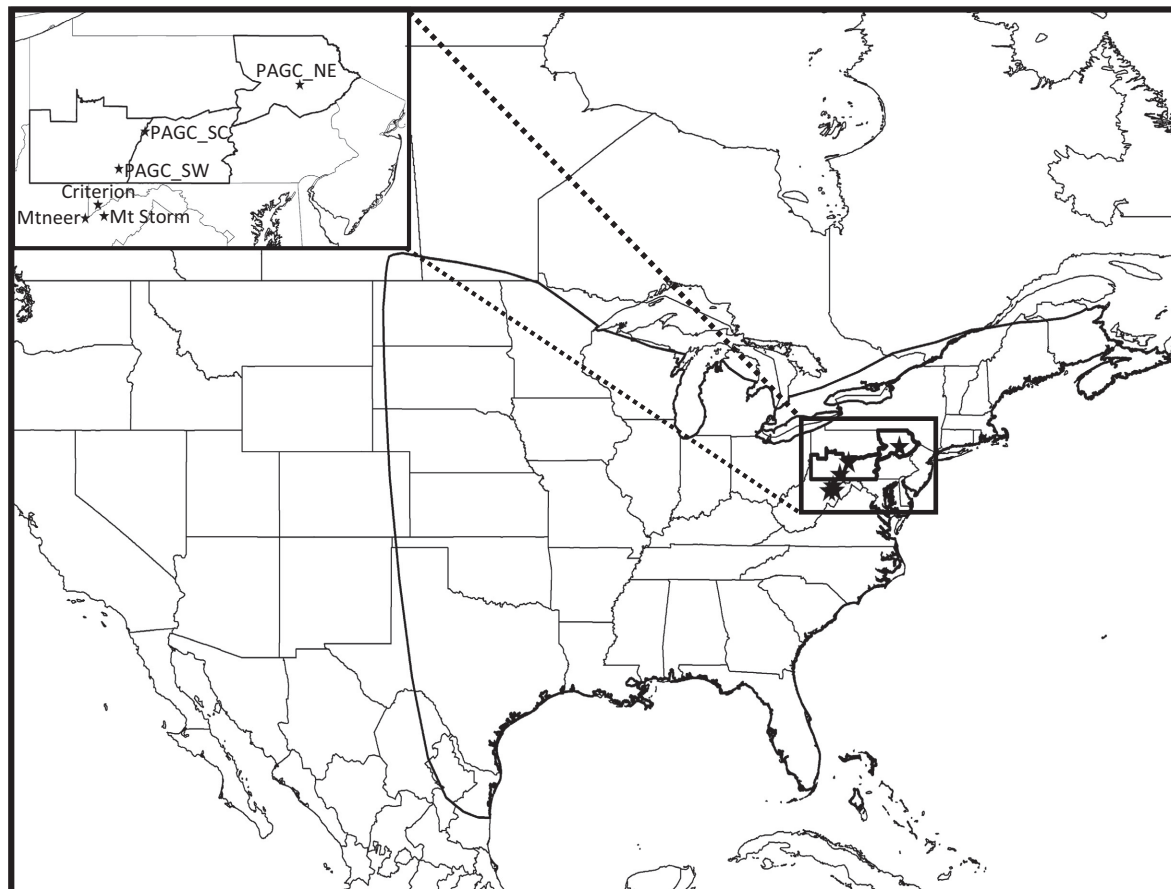


FIG. 1. Locations of wind-energy facilities contributing samples to this study. Pennsylvania, USA samples were pooled according to Pennsylvania Game Commission (PAGC) regional game unit designations (PAGC_NE, northeast; PAGC_SC, southcentral; PAGC_SW, southwest). Maryland, USA samples were from the Criterion Wind Project. West Virginia, USA samples were from the Mountaineer Wind Energy Center (Mtneer) and Mount Storm Wind Farm (Mt Storm). Locations shown for PAGC regional game units represent most wind-energy facilities operational at the time of this study and do not necessarily represent individual facilities. The solid line represents the known range of *Lasiurus borealis*. The range of *Lasiurus cinereus* spans the majority of the extent of North America that is shown.

TABLE 1. Number of bats obtained by year and wind-energy facility.

State (USA)	Project	Year	<i>Lasiurus cinereus</i>	<i>Lasiurus borealis</i>
West Virginia	Mountaineer	2003	30	–
West Virginia	Mount Storm	2009	12	6
West Virginia	Mount Storm	2010	13	15
West Virginia	Mount Storm	2011	19	31
Pennsylvania	northeast	2011	18	–
Pennsylvania	southcentral	2011	29	–
Pennsylvania	southwest	2011	5	–
Maryland	Criterion	2011	120	92
			246	144

Notes: Names and locations for individual wind-energy facilities in Pennsylvania were not provided. Samples were pooled according to regional game unit designations. “–” indicate no data.

southcentral, and southwestern game units were included in this study. For samples from bats killed in Pennsylvania, we determined the centroid of the wind turbines in operation at each facility within each of the three game units

at the time of sample collection. We calculated a probability of origin for each of the centroid values and then averaged these values to produce a single probability-of-origin value for the game unit from which each bat

originated (see below). All samples were stored at -20°C prior to analysis, with tissue samples preserved in 95% ethanol.

Isotope and geospatial analysis

Hair samples were cleaned as in Coplen and Qi (2012) using 1:200 Triton X-100 detergent (Sigma-Aldrich, Saint Louis), nano-pure water, and 100% ethanol. They were then air dried. We followed the Coplen and Qi (2012) protocol, so that our samples were cleaned in the same fashion as our standards (see following section) based on the principle of identical treatment (Meier-Augenstein et al. 2013). We measured $\delta^2\text{H}$ values of non-exchangeable hydrogen in hair keratin using a comparative equilibration approach (Wassenaar and Hobson 2003). Approximately 0.3 mg of cleaned, homogenized hair from each sample, as well as international standards (USGS42, Tibetan hair, and USGS43, Indian hair; Coplen and Qi 2012) and an internal keratin standard (porcine hair and skin, Spectrum Chemical product # K3030; Spectrum Chemical, New Brunswick, New Jersey, USA), was exposed to ambient air for >72 h prior to analysis to allow for equilibration of exchangeable hydrogen in keratin. The capsules were sealed and placed in a zero-blank autosampler (Costech Analytical, Valencia, California, USA). The autosampler was purged with helium and the samples and standards were analyzed for $\delta^2\text{H}$ using a ThermoFisher high temperature conversion/elemental analyzer (TC/EA) pyrolysis unit interfaced with a ThermoFisher Delta V+ isotope ratio mass spectrometer (ThermoFisher Scientific, Bremen, Germany) at the Central Appalachians Stable Isotope Facility (CASIF) at the Appalachian Laboratory (Frostburg, MD). Values of $\delta^2\text{H}$ are reported in parts per mil (‰) and were normalized to the Vienna Standard Mean Ocean Water-Standard Light Antarctic Precipitation (VSMOW-SLAP) scale using a two-point normalization curve with USGS42 and USGS43, whose $\delta^2\text{H}$ values of non-exchangeable hydrogen are -78.5‰ and -50.3‰ , respectively. The long-term analytical precision (1σ) of these standards at CASIF is 2.1‰ and 2.0‰, respectively. Our $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{hair}}$ values span a larger range (-122.7‰ to -8.8‰) than do USGS42 and USGS43, but prior studies suggest that linear extrapolation of normalization relationships for $\delta^2\text{H}$ values has minimal influence on values within $\sim 100\text{‰}$ of the range of the standards used for normalization, provided that at least two standards are analyzed (Kelly et al. 2009, Wiley et al. 2012). The long-term accepted $\delta^2\text{H}$ value of the internal keratin standard at CASIF is $-59.5\text{‰} \pm 2.3\text{‰}$.

Prior studies have typically used amount-weighted $\delta^2\text{H}$ values of growing-season precipitation or mean annual precipitation when developing transfer functions between $\delta^2\text{H}$ values of bat hair and precipitation for geospatial analysis (e.g., Fraser et al. 2012, Popa-Lisseanu et al. 2012, Cryan et al. 2014, Lehnert et al. 2014). Although hoary and red bats are thought to molt during June–August (Cryan et al. 2004, 2014, Pylant et al. 2014), the specific

months of precipitation that most strongly influence the food webs supporting them during the period of molt are unknown. Thus, we developed geostatistical models and maps of June–August $\delta^2\text{H}$ -precipitation ($\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{JJA}}$) values and mean annual $\delta^2\text{H}$ -precipitation ($\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{p}}$) values for North America using the online workspace IsoMAP (Bowen et al. 2014). The input precipitation isotope data used to build these isoscapes in IsoMAP come from the years 1980–2009 and include data from the Global Network of Isotopes in Precipitation, as well as other published and unpublished time series of precipitation isotope data. Elevation, latitude, and latitude² were used as independent variables in the models because elevation and latitude are strong predictors of $\delta^2\text{H}$ values of precipitation in North America (Bowen 2010). Because the isotopic composition of precipitation may also vary with longitude, for example due to orographic influences, we also included longitude as a predictor in initial models and found it did not contribute significantly to predicting spatial patterns of $\delta^2\text{H}$ in our data. Bowen (2010) also found little influence of longitude on spatial patterns of $\delta^2\text{H}$ values of precipitation in North America. The June–August model and map are available as IsoMAP jobs 41780 and 41783, and the mean annual precipitation model and map are available as jobs 46912 and 46922. We used these isoscapes to determine $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{JJA}}$ and $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{p}}$ values for museum specimens of 117 hoary bats (Cryan et al. 2014) and 64 red bats (Pylant et al. 2014) that were collected during the presumed period of summer molt (i.e., they have known summering locations) for which $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{hair}}$ values were also available. This was done to establish transfer functions that relate $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{JJA}}$ and $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{hair}}$ values, as well as $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{p}}$ and $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{hair}}$ values; these functions can then be used to predict $\delta^2\text{H}$ values of precipitation (and thus infer the geographic location of summering grounds) from $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{hair}}$ values of turbine-killed bats of unknown origin. In producing these transfer functions, we used reduced major axis regression because of symmetry between the dependent and independent variables (Smith 2009) and because both variables contain measurement uncertainty (McArdle 1988). During initial analyses we found that $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{hair}}$ values of the 117 hoary bats in Cryan et al. (2014) were more strongly correlated with $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{JJA}}$ ($R^2 = 0.49$, $P < 0.001$) than $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{p}}$ ($R^2 = 0.44$, $P < 0.001$), whereas the $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{hair}}$ values of the 64 red bats in Pylant et al. (2014) were more strongly correlated with $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{p}}$ ($R^2 = 0.41$, $P < 0.001$) than $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{JJA}}$ ($R^2 = 0.36$, $P < 0.001$). Thus, we used the relationship between $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{hair}}$ and $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{JJA}}$ values [$\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{hair}} = 0.874 (\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{JJA}}) - 41.8$] as a transfer function for hoary bats and the relationship between $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{hair}}$ and $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{p}}$ values [$\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{hair}} = 1.00(\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{p}}) + 8.17$] as a transfer function for red bats.

To prepare $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{hair}}$ values of turbine-killed bats for analysis in IsoMAP, they were rescaled to $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{JJA}}$ (hoary bats) or $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{p}}$ (red bats) values by rearranging the previous equations. We then used the IsoMAP assignment tool, which is based on a Bayesian probabilistic framework, to produce a likelihood-of-origin map for each bat using its

$\delta^2\text{H}$ value of precipitation and a standard deviation of that value. The standard deviation of $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{JJA}}$ and $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{p}}$ values used for these assignments was set at 16‰ and 10‰ for hoary and red bats, respectively. These values are the standard deviations of the residuals of $\delta^2\text{H}$ values of precipitation in the above equations relating $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{hair}}$ and $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{JJA}}$ or $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{p}}$ values for these species. Unlike Baerwald et al. (2014), we generated a likelihood-of-origin map for each bat rather than using the IsoMAP batch function to create a map of joint probability-of-origin values. We did not use the batch function, because such an analysis assumes that the sampled individuals represent one population with a shared geographic origin (Wunder 2012, Bowen et al. 2014), which may not be the case for migratory bats of potentially diverse geographic origins.

To quantify the accuracy of the likelihood-of-origin maps produced by IsoMAP (e.g., Appendix S1: Fig. S1), we first generated such maps for each of the 117 specimens of hoary bats (Cryan et al. 2004, 2014) and 64 specimens of red bats (Pylant et al. 2014) that were collected during the period of summer molt. These specimens served as training samples with known geographic origins that we used to determine the sensitivity of the assignment model. For each of these specimens, we calculated probability of origin maps (contour range = 0.1 to 0.95, at intervals of 0.05) using the Geospatial Modelling Environment. These maps represent continuous probability surfaces, with each contour interval (isopleth) containing all pixels up to a given probability that are predicted to contain the location of origin for an individual. For each individual in our training data set, we recorded the minimum isopleth contour that contained the known sampling location (e.g., Appendix S1: Fig. S2). In other words, we asked: what is the smallest likelihood of origin that contains the sampling location? We then fit multiple candidate functions to the distributions of these minimum isopleth values for hoary and red bats by numerically minimizing the negative log-likelihood using the mle2 function in the bbmle library (Bolker and R Development Core Team 2014) in R 3.1.0 (R Development Core Team 2014). We used Akaike's information criterion (AIC) to determine the model best supported by the data (Burnham and Anderson 2002). The distributions of these minimum isopleth values were best approximated by a beta distribution (AIC weight = 1.00) for hoary bats and a log-normal distribution (AIC weight = 1.00) for red bats (Fig. 2).

Using these distributions, we implemented a Monte Carlo simulation to estimate the probability that a turbine-killed bat was of local or non-local origin, as follows. For each turbine-killed bat of unknown origin, we randomly selected a value from the applicable distribution (beta or log-normal) of the minimum isopleth values for each species, and plotted that isopleth on a likelihood-of-origin map. All pixels within the selected isopleth were assigned a probability of origin value of 1, and those outside of the isopleth were assigned a value of 0. This procedure was repeated 10000 times per bat and

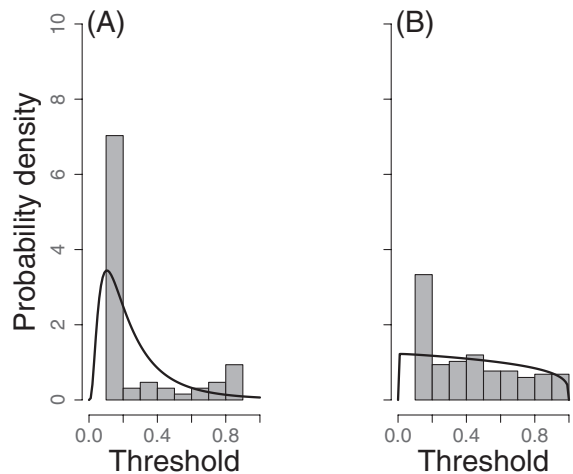


FIG. 2. Best-fitting probability density functions (black lines) vs. the observed density distributions of minimum isopleth contour values (gray bars) containing the sampling location for (A) 64 known-location *L. borealis* museum specimens (Pylant et al. 2014) and (B) 117 known-location *L. cinereus* samples (Cryan et al. 2014).

the average value of each pixel was calculated across bootstrapped replicates to create a continuous probability surface identifying that individual's most likely area of origin. We then extracted the average probability value for the location at which each bat was killed (i.e., the turbine site where the sample was collected). A value of 1 indicates that the minimum isopleth contour contained the location of mortality all 10000 times, whereas a value of 0 indicates that the minimum isopleth contour never contained the location of mortality. We applied a majority rule criterion, whereby bats with probability values >0.5 at the site of turbine mortality were considered to be summering locally (i.e., we cannot exclude the possibility that these bats summered near the site of their death; hereafter termed local), whereas bats with probability values ≤ 0.5 were considered to have summered elsewhere prior to being killed at a given turbine site (hereafter non-local). This procedure thus provides an estimate of probability of local origin that incorporates the uncertainty associated with estimating the geographic provenance for turbine-killed samples of unknown origin, and is based on the empirical sampling distribution of assignment probabilities determined from hoary and red bats with known summering origins. We also explored using more restrictive threshold probability values of <0.3 and >0.7 for distinguishing non-local vs. local bats (thus leaving bats with values of 0.3–0.7 as unclassified in regards to being non-local vs. local), respectively. Both threshold options yielded similar percentages of local and non-local bats and thus we only discuss results based on the 0.5 threshold. Further, we also explored sampling from the actual distributions of data instead of functions fit to the data, but this process had minimal influence on classification of bats as local vs. non-local (data not shown).

Statistical analysis of isotope data

Analysis of variance (ANOVA) on the derived probability values (i.e., of bats being local vs. non-local) was performed in R 3.1.0 (R Development Core Team 2014). We used the probability of origin values as the response variable to incorporate uncertainty in the correspondence between $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{JJA}}$ (hoary bats) and $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{p}}$ (red bats) values and likelihood of origin. We modeled the probability of local origin as a function of site ID (i.e., the location of mortality), the month of mortality, sex, and two-way interactions.

DNA extraction and PCR amplification

Total genomic DNA was extracted from one to two wing punches per bat carcass using Qiagen DNeasy Blood and Tissue kits (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany) and normalized to ~ 20 ng/ μL . Templates were used to amplify 14 microsatellite loci developed by Keller et al. (2014): LAS4206AC, LAS6266AG, LAS7831AC, LAS8539AC, LAS8830AC, LAS8843AC, LAS8953AC, LAS9084AC, LAS9141AC, LAS9290AC, LAS9524AC, LAS9555AG, LAS9613AC, and LAS9618AC, as well as one mitochondrial locus (cytochrome b, *cytb*). Primer sequences for *cytb* were obtained from Smith and Patton (1993). Microsatellite PCR reactions were carried out in 10- μL volumes using Qiagen Multiplex PCR kits following the methods described in Keller et al. (2014). Microsatellite PCR reactions were sent to either the Penn State Huck Genomics Core Facility or the University of West Virginia Genomics Core Facility for genotyping with an Applied Biosystems (ABI 3730XL; Applied Biosystems, Foster City, California, USA). Fragments were sized against the LIZ500 size standard using Peak Scanner v1.0 software (ThermoFisher, Waltham, Massachusetts, USA). We standardized genotypes from the different sequencing facilities by sending a subset of samples to both facilities. The scores from these samples were within 1 base pair (bp) or less of each other.

Mitochondrial PCR reactions were carried out in 15- μL volumes with reagent concentrations as follows: 1X PCR buffer solution (with 2.0 mmol/L MgCl_2 , 4.5 $\mu\text{mol/L}$ forward primer, 4.5 $\mu\text{mol/L}$ reverse primer, 1.2 mmol/L each dNTPs, 3 units of Taq polymerase, 1.2 μL template DNA (~ 20 – 30 ng) and brought up to volume with water. PCR reactions were run on a Mastercycler Pro (Eppendorf, Hamburg, Germany) under the following conditions: 94°C for 4 min; followed by 35 cycles of 94°C for 40 s; 50°C for 40 s; 72°C for 1 min; a final extension of 72°C for 10 min; then a 4°C hold. PCR reactions (Applied Biosystems; Foster City, CA) were Exosap cleaned and sent to the Penn State Huck Genomics Core Facility for bidirectional Sanger sequencing with an ABI 3730XL. Mitochondrial sequences were trimmed, contigs made from overlapping reads, and aligned using Geneious v5.5.5 (Biomatters Limited; Auckland, New Zealand).

Population genetic summary statistics

Microsatellite genotype scores were binned using Tandem (Matschiner and Salzburger 2009) and formatted for subsequent analyses using CONVERT (Glaubitz 2004). Summary statistics (e.g., number of alleles, allelic richness, and expected heterozygosity) were calculated using FSTAT v2.9.3.2 (Goudet 1995) and Arlequin v3.5.1.3 (Excoffier and Lischer 2010). Mitochondrial DNA diversity was estimated from the number of haplotypes, haplotype diversity, Watterson's Θ , per-site nucleotide diversity (π), and Tajima's D (Tajima 1989) using DnaSP (Librado and Rozas 2009).

During preliminary analyses, we discovered one potential hoary \times red bat hybrid, which was identified in the field as a hoary bat, yet clearly carried a red bat mtDNA haplotype. This individual also possessed intermediate ancestry coefficients from a STRUCTURE analysis of the nuclear microsatellite data (see following section) conducted on a combined two-species data set, with roughly equal assignment of its ancestry to each species (average assignment value per cluster: 0.536 and 0.464). Therefore, this individual likely represents a rare interspecific hybrid, and was removed from all subsequent analyses.

Analysis of population structure

We used Bayesian clustering analysis to test for the presence of more than one genetic subpopulation among turbine-killed bats using STRUCTURE version 2.3.4 (Pritchard et al. 2000). STRUCTURE estimates K , the number of genetic clusters, by imposing population structure on sample data while minimizing Hardy-Weinberg and linkage disequilibrium within each group. Because this approach does not require a priori knowledge of geographic populations, it is ideal for testing for the presence of genetic structure within the sample of bats killed by turbines that otherwise lack information on the geographic origin of their mating populations. We specified an admixture model with correlated allele frequencies, and inferred the admixture parameter, α , from the data. We evaluated a range of potential K values from 1–10 using 10 iterations per K , with a burn-in period of 50000 steps of the Monte Carlo Markov chain, followed by analysis over the next 200000 steps. STRUCTURE output was processed using STRUCTURE HARVESTER (Earl and Vonholdt 2012) to compute ΔK , an ad hoc estimate of the most probable number of K clusters based on the rate of change in the log probability of data between consecutive K values (Evanno et al. 2005). Ancestry coefficients among replicate runs for a given K were permuted using CLUMPP v1.1.2 (Jakobsson and Rosenberg 2007) and visualized using DISTRUCT v1.1 (Rosenberg 2004).

We tested for geographic structure in mtDNA sequence diversity and microsatellite allele frequencies using analysis of molecular variance (AMOVA; Excoffier et al.

1992) implemented in Arlequin v3.5.1.3 (Excoffier and Lischer 2010). We used AMOVA to test two hypotheses for genetic differentiation: (1) among wind-energy sites where bats were killed; and (2) between local vs. non-local bats as inferred from analysis of the $\delta^2\text{H}$ values of precipitation (derived from $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{hair}}$ values). Significance was assessed by 1000 permutations of the data.

Analysis of historical and contemporary effective population size

We modeled the historical demography and effective population sizes (N_e) for each species using approximate Bayesian computation (ABC) on a combined data set of microsatellite genotypes and mitochondrial sequence data. All ABC calculations were performed using DIYABC v1.0.4.43 (Cornuet et al. 2008). For both species, we evaluated three historical demographic scenarios that described the history of the sample: (1) a historically stable population (i.e., a population that exhibited no discrete change in size); (2) a population that exhibited one discrete change in size, such as a bottleneck or population expansion; and (3) a population that exhibited two discrete changes in population size. Bayesian prior values for all parameters are provided in Appendix S1: Table S1. Upper and lower bounds on the uniform prior for N_e were determined by first conducting a series of exploratory analyses to determine approximate prior values for each species that contained the full posterior probability. These prior values were then used in final analyses based on long runs.

We chose nine summary statistics to evaluate for ABC analysis, including four statistics for the microsatellite genotypes (mean number of alleles, mean genetic diversity, mean size variance, and mean M (number of alleles/range in allele); Garza and Williamson 2001) and five statistics for the mtDNA sequences (number of haplotypes, number of segregating sites, mean pairwise distance, Tajima's D (Tajima 1989), and mean minor allele frequency). Nuclear microsatellites were simulated using a generalized stepwise mutation model. The mtDNA sequences were simulated using a Kimura two-parameter model with 10% invariant sites and a gamma distribution of mutation rate heterogeneity among sites (Appendix S1: Table S1). We performed coalescent simulations of >7 million genealogies for each species (10 million for red bats and 7.3 million for hoary bats; numbers of simulations varied according to the size of the empirical data sets) by drawing values from the prior distributions for each parameter, and used the logistic regression method to estimate the posterior probability of each scenario (Cornuet et al. 2008). We then retained the top 1000 genealogies closest to the observed summary statistics and computed estimates of the demographic parameters from the posterior distributions.

While DIYABC attempts to estimate N_e by integrating information from both genomic data sets (nuclear microsatellites and mtDNA sequences), it also provides

separate estimates per genome of the composite parameter, Θ (equal to $XN_e\mu$, where μ is the per-generation mutation rate, and X is an inheritance scalar). To investigate overall agreement between the microsatellite and mtDNA data sets in their assessments of effective population size, we estimated N_e separately for nuclear and mtDNA loci using the genome-specific values of Θ from the ABC posterior distributions. We transformed Θ to N_e based on the corresponding inheritance scalar for each data set (four for nuclear microsatellites; one for haploid maternally inherited mtDNA), and the posterior estimate of the mutation rate from ABC. We then applied kernel density estimation using the density function in R, and took the modal value as our best estimate of N_e and the values that summed 95% of the probability distribution as Bayesian posterior credible intervals.

While none of the microsatellite loci showed the presence of null alleles in hoary bats, six loci indicated the presence of null alleles in red bats (Keller et al. 2014). Therefore, we also repeated the ABC analysis for red bats using a reduced data set of eight loci for which there was no evidence of null alleles.

RESULTS

Isotope data

Our data set included a small number ($n = 4$) of carcasses of juvenile hoary bats collected during July prior to the beginning of the fall migration period. Thus, these individuals were likely killed on their natal grounds within close proximity to the wind-energy facilities at which their carcasses were collected. In each instance, these juveniles were correctly classified as local using the threshold of 0.5 (each had probability values > 0.62). These results, along with prior studies based on museum specimens of hoary (Cryan et al. 2014) and red (Pylant et al. 2014) bats collected on their presumed summering grounds, provide confidence for using $\delta^2\text{H}$ data to infer whether bats killed at wind-energy facilities summer near or far from where they are killed.

Values of $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{hair}}$ ranged between -122.7‰ and -27.7‰ for hoary bats and between -76.2‰ and -8.8‰ for red bats (Appendix S1: Fig. S3). $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{JJA}}$ values ranged between -92.7‰ and 0‰ for hoary bats, and $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{p}}$ values ranged between -84.3‰ and -17.0‰ for red bats. The highest frequency of $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{JJA}}$ values for hoary bats occurred around -25‰ and the highest frequency of $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{p}}$ values for red bats occurred at -30‰ (Fig. 3). Using our Monte Carlo method to determine probability of local origin, we found that 243 (98.8%) of hoary bat samples and 62 (43.1%) of red bat samples had probability values of >0.5 and were thus considered local (Fig. 4). Inferences of the proportions of local bats were similar when using the more restrictive thresholds of <0.3 for non-local bats and >0.7 for local bats: 88 of 89 (98.9%) of hoary bats and 45 of 104 (43.3%) of red bats were classified as local. Based

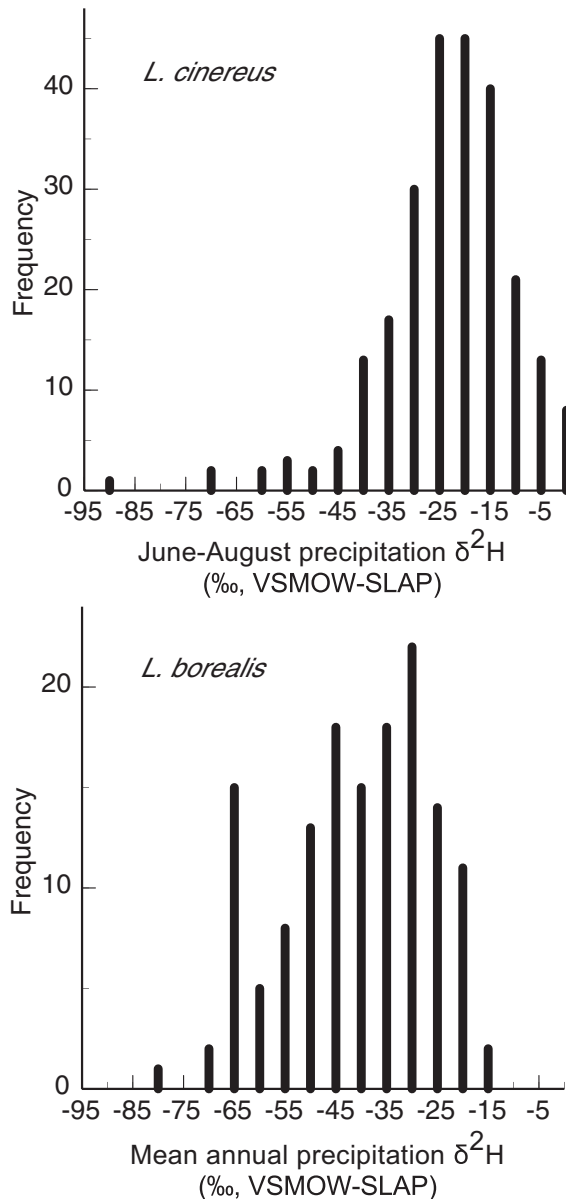


FIG. 3. Frequencies of stable hydrogen isotope ratios of precipitation for *L. cinereus* ($n = 246$) and *L. borealis* ($n = 144$).

on their relatively negative $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{JJA}}$ values, the three non-local hoary bats (using a threshold of 0.5) likely summered to the north of the wind-energy site at which they were killed. The relatively positive $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{p}}$ values for 81 of the non-local red bats (using a threshold of 0.5) suggest that the vast majority of non-local red bats likely summered to the south or west of our study sites or in coastal areas (Figs. 3 and Appendix S1: Fig. S1). Data for $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{p}}$ suggest that only one of the non-local red bats likely summered to the north of where it was killed. Neither sex, site ID, nor month of mortality influenced the probability of being local for either species (Appendix S1: Table S2).

Genetic diversity

Overall, 13 of the 14 nuclear microsatellite loci were polymorphic for both species (locus LAS9084AC was monomorphic in hoary bats), with the number of alleles per locus ranging from one to 35 for hoary bats and two to 46 for red bats (Appendix S1: Table S3). The average number of alleles and allelic richness were higher overall in red bats, but these differences were not statistically significant (Mann–Whitney test; $z = -1.14$; $P = 0.250$). Mitochondrial diversity was also higher in red bats, which exhibited a greater number of haplotypes (hoary bat, 58; red bat, 104), higher haplotype diversity (hoary bat, 0.871 ± 0.015 ; red bat, 0.991 ± 0.0032), and higher nucleotide diversity (π ; hoary bat, 0.00693 ± 0.00032 ; red bat, 0.00747 ± 0.00053). In addition, Tajima's D was negative for both species (hoary bat, $D = -1.553$; red bat, $D = -2.454$; Table 2), but only deviated significantly from neutral equilibrium for red bats, indicating an excess of low-frequency mutations typically associated with a history of population expansion.

Population structure

No evidence of population genetic structure was found for turbine-killed bats of either species, as determined by STRUCTURE analysis of the microsatellite genotypes. In both species, mean $\ln(\text{probability of data})$ was highest at $K = 1$, and generally decreased with increasing K (Fig. 5). A small degree of geographic structure in microsatellite allele frequencies was present among wind-turbine sites for red bats (AMOVA $\Phi_{\text{ST}} = 0.0288$, $P < 0.001$), although this structure was not evident for hoary bats, nor in the mitochondrial sequence data of either species (Table 3 and Appendix S1: Table S4). Red bats exhibited no geographic structuring in either microsatellite or mitochondrial sequence data by isotopic region of origin (local vs. non-local).

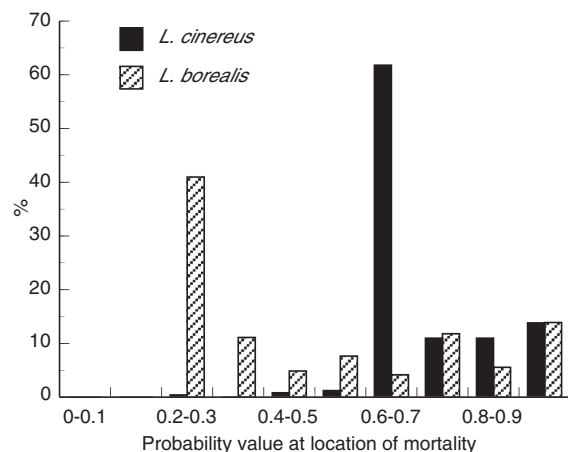


FIG. 4. Probability values at the location of mortality for *L. cinereus* and *L. borealis*.

TABLE 2. Summary of mtDNA cytochrome b (cytb) diversity.

Parameter	<i>L. cinereus</i>	<i>L. borealis</i>
Number individuals	240	141
Length (base pairs)	726	765
$N_{\text{haplotypes}}$	58	104
Haplotype diversity	0.871	0.991
Θ	0.0146	0.0312
π	0.00693	0.00747
Tajima's <i>D</i>	-1.553 (-1.589, 1.901)	-2.454 (-1.559, 2.061)

Notes: See *Methods and Materials: Analysis of historical and contemporary effective population size* for parameter definitions. Values of number of individuals differ from those reported in Table 1 due to lack of amplification for some individuals. Values in parentheses are the 95% credible intervals (CI) from 1000 coalescent simulations of a population in neutral demographic equilibrium; thus negative *D* values outside of the CI are evidence for demographic expansion.

Demographic scenarios and effective population size (N_e)

Three historical demographic scenarios were simulated in DIYABC using the combined data set of microsatellite and mitochondrial sequence data: (1) a historically stable population; (2) a population that exhibited one discrete change in size; and (3) a population that exhibited two discrete changes in size. For hoary bats, no one historical

scenario had a substantially higher probability than the others even though the observed data fell within the range of the simulations (Appendix S1: Fig. S4), indicating that even though the simulations captured the patterns of polymorphism in the observed data well, they were not able to discriminate among the competing demographic models. Therefore, we chose to use a model-averaging approach to estimate posterior

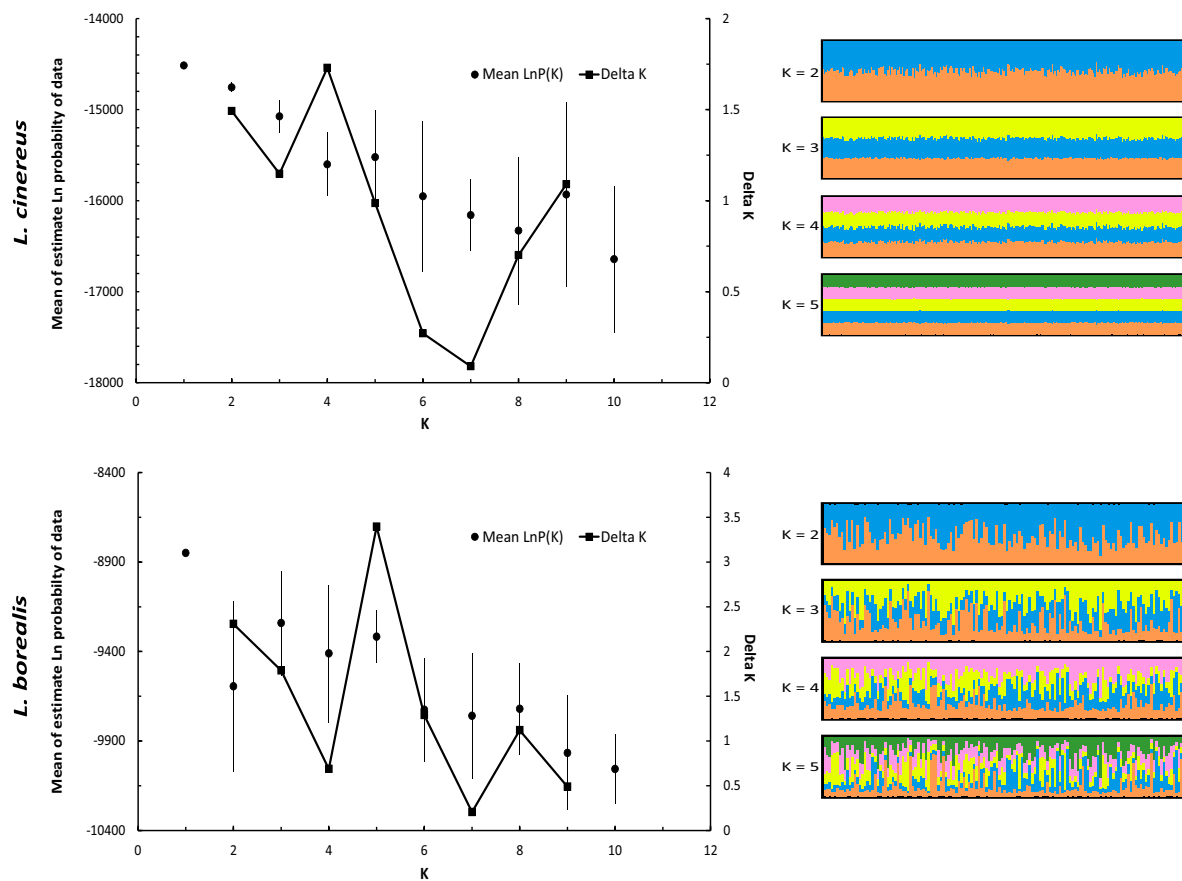


FIG. 5. Bayesian clustering analysis of population structure. Top panels represent results for *L. cinereus*, whereas bottom panels represent results for *L. borealis*. Results of model selection are in the left column, and ancestry assignments to clusters (*Q* values) for each individual are displayed in the right column.

TABLE 3. Summary analysis of molecular variance (AMOVA) results for each species by location of mortality and by isotopic region of origin (i.e., local vs. non-local).

Source of variation	Location of mortality		Isotopic region
	Percentage of variation (<i>L. cinereus</i>)	Percentage of variation (<i>L. borealis</i>)	Percentage of variation (<i>L. borealis</i>)
Microsatellite			
Among locations	0	2.88*	0.09
Within locations	100	97.12	99.91
Mitochondrial			
Among locations	-0.80	-0.31	-0.15
Within locations	100.80	100.31	100.15

Note: For this analysis, local bats are those with probability values >0.7, whereas non-local bats are those with probability values <0.3. As nearly all *L. cinereus* were found to be of local origin, these data were excluded from an analysis by region of origin. * $P < 0.001$.

parameters using the 1000 best simulations (i.e., those closest to the observed data) selected from across all three scenarios.

The ABC posterior estimate of the current N_e for hoary bats, which incorporated both the microsatellite and the mtDNA sequence data as well as variability in the mutation rates for both types of loci, was 6091 (95% credible interval [CI]: 2481–89913; Appendix S1: Fig. S5, Table 4). We also calculated N_e from the composite Θ parameters separately for microsatellites and mtDNA sequences. For this, we used the corresponding median posterior estimate of the mutation rates for each locus type from DIYABC ($\mu_{\text{mic}} = 5.76 \times 10^{-4}$, $\mu_{\text{seq}} = 1.19 \times 10^{-5}$), which were on par with values reported from the literature (Dallas 1992, Crawford and Cuthbertson 1996). The resulting N_e estimates ranged from 1600 to 6500, but with credible intervals that do not explicitly incorporate uncertainty in the mutation rates.

For red bats, scenario 3 showed high levels of posterior probability that clearly exceed the other two demographic scenarios (Appendix S1: Fig. S4). Scenario 3 described a population whose ancestral size underwent a bottleneck ~287000 generations ago (95% CI: 33300–488000) to less than 10% of the ancestral N_e , followed by a recent demographic expansion ~1580 generations ago that increased the population size dramatically (Appendix S1: Fig. S6). The posterior distribution for the current N_e integrated across both microsatellite and mtDNA data showed a modal value of ~3.6 million, suggesting an effective population size that is much larger than for hoary bats, but also estimated with low precision as evidenced by the wide posterior distribution (95% CI: ~423000 to 4.1 million; Appendix S1: Fig. S5, Table 4). Using the median posterior estimate of the microsatellite mutation rate from DIYABC ($\mu_{\text{mic}} = 2.37 \times 10^{-4}$), we calculated an estimated current nuclear N_e of ~335000 (95% CI: 55529 to

TABLE 4. Population genetic estimates of effective population size (N_e) for bats killed by wind turbines in the Central Appalachians, USA.

Data set	N_e Estimate	Lower 95% CI	Upper 95% CI
<i>L. cinereus</i>			
All loci			
Combined	6,091	2,481	89,913
mtDNA	6,526	0	63,418
msats	1,611	662	4,697
<i>L. borealis</i>			
All loci			
Combined	3,609,910	422,857	4,090,010
mtDNA	1,011,553	0	11,635,990
msats	334,986	55,529	2,605,573
Loci without null alleles			
Combined	3,787,759	596,954	3,993,906
mtDNA	789,041	18,637	14,021,859
msats	265,324	32,353	4,658,494

Note: N_e estimate derived from transformation of the composite parameter Θ ($= 4N_e\mu$ for nuclear microsatellites, $N_e\mu$ for mtDNA), using the μ values for each species estimated by DIYABC. Reported estimates reflect long-term evolutionary N_e based on rates of gene coalescence from approximate Bayesian computation (ABC). Estimates are given for the combined microsatellite and mtDNA sequence data as well as for each type of genetic data separately. For *L. borealis*, we also report N_e estimates for ABC models that excluded $n = 6$ loci which showed evidence of null alleles.

2.61 million; Appendix S1: Fig. S5, Table 4). Similarly, approximate mitochondrial N_e was calculated using the mtDNA sequence mutation rate from DIYABC ($\mu_{\text{seq}} = 1.19 \times 10^{-6}$) gave an estimate of ~1.0 million (95% CI: 0 to 11.6 million; Appendix S1: Fig. S5, Table 4). Red bat N_e showed low sensitivity to the presence of null alleles in the microsatellite data, with estimates based on a subset of eight loci with no null alleles producing very similar N_e estimates compared to the full data set (Table 4).

DISCUSSION

Hoary and red bats are the bat species most commonly killed at utility-scale wind-energy facilities in North America (Arnett et al. 2008). Overall, our results indicate that red bats killed at wind-energy facilities in the central Appalachians originate from both local and non-local sources, and currently represent a single diverse and unstructured population, with a very large N_e (in the range of 10^5 – 10^6 individuals). In stark contrast, hoary bat mortalities in the central Appalachians consist of predominantly local bats, originating from a population of substantially smaller N_e (in the range of 10^3 – 10^4 individuals) with reduced diversity.

For both species, it is important to note that our sampling of bats from central Appalachian wind-energy facilities likely encompassed only a small portion of the total summering range of each species, and thus would not capture the contribution of any larger-scale population structure or diversity that might exist outside of our study region. A recent range-wide study of red bats also concluded no population structure and an N_e of $\sim 10^5$ – 10^6 (Vonhof and Russell 2015), which suggests that diversity is well homogenized across the range of this species due to extensive mixing during migration and lack of female philopatry. Similarly, Korstian et al. (2015) also observed no genetic structure for red and hoary bats obtained from wind-energy facilities in Minnesota and Texas, which is similar to our results. However, Korstian et al. (2015) suggested that both red and hoary bats have large present-day N_e . Thus our conclusion of a much smaller N_e for hoary than red bats must be conservatively interpreted as pertaining only to the central Appalachian region. A more geographically extensive sample is required to assess N_e across the range of the hoary bat. Nevertheless, within the central Appalachian region where rates of wind-turbine mortality are among the highest reported (Arnett et al. 2008), our results suggest that red bats may be better able to absorb sustained mortality than hoary bats, and that continued mortality of hoary bats as the result of wind-energy development may have long-lasting impacts.

Local vs. non-local origins

Little is known about potential pathways and corridors used by migratory bats in North America or how wind-energy development may affect such patterns. Our

results indicate that ~57% of red bats killed are non-local (Fig. 4 and Appendix S1: Fig. S1) and likely represent individuals that summered at locations far from wind-energy facilities in the central Appalachian Mountains, whereas ~99% of hoary bats summered locally. The variation in the likelihood of local origin for these species may indicate differences in migratory pathways/corridors that they use when traveling to their summering and wintering grounds. Although such a conclusion requires future validation across a larger geographic extent, our $\delta^2\text{H}$ data suggest that mortality caused by wind-energy development affects red bats from across a broad area. In contrast, although the number of turbine-associated hoary (and red) bat mortalities peak during migratory periods (fall, in particular; Cryan and Barclay 2009), the bulk of hoary bat mortality appears to be composed of local bats originating near the site of mortality. Thus, although the spatial precision is coarse, the estimates of origin from our $\delta^2\text{H}$ data suggest interspecific differences in geographic provenance for two closely related species of bats that have similar life-history traits (Shump and Shump 1982a,b). The range of hoary bats is much larger than the range of red bats, yet our inference of origins suggests that hoary bats are more likely to be local than red bats. This might suggest that the bats in our sample from Central Appalachian wind-energy facilities come from a geographically restricted subpopulation of hoary bats, and may not be representative of the larger population. Overall, these results suggest that a given wind-energy facility may impact bats originating across a broad geographic extent, in agreement with recent studies in Germany (Voigt et al. 2012) and southwestern Canada (Baerwald et al. 2014).

Population genetic structure

The lack of genetic structure in our data suggests that wind-turbine mortality is affecting panmictic populations of hoary and red bats, at least within the central Appalachians (Fig. 5). The observed lack of structure suggests high historical gene flow and also that the potential genetic impacts of turbine-associated mortality (e.g., reduced genetic diversity) will largely affect the breeding population as a whole rather than disproportionately affecting specific subpopulations. Previous studies of both species also support an unstructured population (Korstian et al. 2015, Vonhof and Russell 2015). Unlike colonially roosting temperate bats that tend to exhibit highly structured populations due to restricted gene flow (e.g., Russell et al. 2005, Lack et al. 2010, Dixon 2011), lasiurine bats, although isolated from others for most of the year (Shump and Shump 1982a,b, Cryan 2003), come together during the fall migration period to mate. Thus gene flow occurs when bats converge during migration and is not necessarily limited to individuals summering within close geographic proximity. This is similar to patterns of nuclear population structure in the migratory noctule bat in Europe, which suggest

widespread gene flow as a result of male movement; however, unlike our results, noctule bats showed elevated population structure in mtDNA, likely due to female philopatry (Petit and Mayer 1999a).

Although no genetic population structure was apparent in the STRUCTURE analysis, red bats did exhibit a small amount of geographic structure in allele frequencies among sites (Table 3 and Appendix S1: Table S4). This small yet significant geographic population structure suggests that spatial segregation of red bats into different summering areas imposes temporary genetic differentiation among sites. However, such segregation does not result in long-term genetic differentiation within the breeding population since individuals converge again to mate.

Effective population size

For red bats, the DIYABC analyses revealed a large effective population with signatures of demographic expansion after a historical decline. The broad confidence intervals mean the timing of the expansion following the bottleneck is not precisely known; however, the range overlaps with the end of the last glacial period, a time when many species of plants and animals underwent similar population expansions (Hewitt 2000), including migratory bats (Petit et al. 1999b). The potential expansion in N_e of red bats was also captured by the negative Tajima's D observed for the mtDNA sequences (Table 2).

When coupled with the lack of genetic population structure, our data suggest that red bats currently represent a single, massive breeding population, with an effective population size in the hundreds of thousands to millions of individuals. Since the ratio of N_e to the census population size, N_c , is often substantially less than 1 (often ~ 0.1) (Frankham 1995), the number of red bat individuals is likely to be substantially higher. A similar conclusion was reached independently by Vonnhof and Russell (2015), who also used genetics to infer the effective population size of red bats in North America. Using a similar approach of applying nuclear microsatellite markers and mtDNA sequence data to several different coalescent-based estimators, Vonnhof and Russell (2015) found N_e values of 10^4 – 10^6 , but with intermediate estimates of $\sim 10^5$, similar to our coalescent estimates for red bats. It is important to note that Vonnhof and Russell (2015) sampled red bats from across most of this species range and across a broader geographic extent than ours; however, given the lack of genetic structure reported in both their study and ours, and the approximately similar values of N_e , it seems likely that our more geographically restricted sampling still captured a substantial portion of the diversity in this widely dispersing species.

In contrast to the large, expanded population size of red bats, our results from the central Appalachians suggest that hoary bats in our sample are less diverse, with a substantially smaller N_e (Table 4). Although the ABC analysis could not discriminate among a historical scenario of a temporally stable population vs. scenarios

that included one or more changes in N_e (Appendix S1: Fig. S4), the negative Tajima's D in the mtDNA data suggests some support for population expansion (Table 2). Overall, while it should be stressed that there was considerable uncertainty associated with the estimated N_e values, it appears that hoary bats killed at wind-energy facilities in the central Appalachians represent a relatively small effective population.

Given that hoary bats are a very widespread species with summer grounds that extend across the longitudinal breadth of North America, and that large numbers of hoary bats are killed by wind turbines each year, it is perhaps surprising that N_e for hoary bats in our sample is so small, especially relative to red bats. There are several factors that may reduce N_e when in fact a much larger census population size exists. For instance, the presence of overlapping generations, unequal sex ratios, and the occurrence of historical bottlenecks are some of the features that may reduce the N_e relative to the actual population size (Palstra and Ruzzante 2008, Hare et al. 2011, Waples et al. 2014). Some of these concerns may be especially pertinent for long-lived migratory tree bats.

It is also possible that the small N_e value for hoary bats could represent a regional subpopulation derived from a historically larger population that was not represented in our sample. Our sample of both species comes from a geographically restricted number of wind-energy facilities in the central Appalachian region (Fig. 1), and thus might have missed other genetic subpopulations of hoary bats that might exist outside our geographic region of sampling. Subpopulation structure is common among organisms that are widely distributed such as hoary bats, particularly those with expansive east-to-west distributions (e.g., Milot et al. 2000). If our sample of hoary bats is just one of multiple regional subpopulations distributed in different areas of North America, then sustained mortality in each subpopulation could decrease N_e at a faster rate than the same level of mortality occurring in an unstructured population. Consequently, a level of mortality that might not severely impact a panmictic population may be detrimental to the long-term stability of a genetically structured population. Potential support for the idea of regional subpopulations comes from Korstian et al. (2015) who reported similar and large N_e values for red and hoary bats in Minnesota and Texas, USA. Further investigation with more geographically widespread samples is required to assess the species-wide genetic diversity and effective population size of hoary bats across North America, and how wind-turbine mortality may affect the species as a whole.

Although our study focused on bats killed at utility-scale wind-energy facilities in eastern North America, the expansion of wind energy and the potential long-term impacts to bat populations is a global issue. Besides North America and Europe, wind-energy facilities in Australia and South Africa have also reported bat mortality (Aronson et al. 2013, Hull and Cawthen 2013). Understanding the potential biological impacts of

turbine-associated mortality to bats is often complicated by a lack of data. Studies such as ours can help to identify species or even subpopulations at particular risk of wind-turbine mortality. In addition to providing critical genetic data on two of the most commonly killed species in North America, our results provide a much-needed baseline for future monitoring and research. Overall, our results illustrate that stable isotopes and population genetics are powerful tools for assessing the population status of bats affected by wind-energy development.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We thank West, Inc., the Pennsylvania Game Commission, the West Virginia DNR, and numerous field technicians for providing samples, Robin Paulman for assistance with stable isotope analysis, Regina Trott for assistance with genetic analysis, and John Sherwell for discussion and support. We thank Robin Waples for helpful comments and discussion on N_e and Christian Voigt and two anonymous reviewers for helpful comments on an earlier version of the manuscript. This research was supported by the Maryland Department of Natural Resources (DNR) Power Plant Research Program and the EPA STAR Fellowship Program.

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SUPPORTING INFORMATION

Additional supporting information may be found in the online version of this article at <http://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1890/15-0541/supinfo>

DATA AVAILABILITY

Data associated with this paper are available: mtDNA sequence data can be found in Genbank (accession numbers KU722004-KU722384); microsatellite and isotope data is deposited in Dryad <http://dx.doi.org/10.5061/dryad.rr084>