

1     The influence of LiDAR acquisition time lag on bird species distribution  
2                      models

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4     **Abstract**

5     This is the abstract.  
6        It consists of two paragraphs.

7     **Keywords:** Avian, Boreal, Forestry, LiDAR

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7     **1. Introduction**

8     LiDAR has the potential to improve bird models by providing high resolution structural covariates  
9     which, when paired with bird monitoring data, can give insight into bird-habitat relationships [1]. However,  
10    LiDAR acquisitions do not always coincide in time with point count surveys. It is unclear how much this  
11    temporal misalignment can influence bird distribution models that use LiDAR derived predictor variables.  
12    As disturbance-succession cycles change vegetation structure, eventually LiDAR metrics will no longer reflect  
13    ground conditions. Their usefulness as explanatory variables will degrade [2]. Here, we evaluated how time  
14    lag between LiDAR acquisitions and bird surveys influenced model robustness for early successional, mature  
15    forest, and forest generalist birds.

16    The composition and structure of forests are changing in response to climate change, shifts to natural  
17    disturbance regimes, and increasing industrial development [3]. Predictive models linking field observations  
18    to environmental variables can reveal how birds respond to these changes [4–7]. Broadly known as species  
19    distribution models (SDMs), this family of statistical methods predict bird distributions by comparing habitat  
20    where individuals were observed against habitat where they were absent [8]. SDMs and resulting predictive  
21    distribution maps are used to understand bird habitat preferences and the drivers of broad scale population  
22    declines and have applications in conservation management planning and environmental impact assessments  
23    [5,9].

24    Many factors influence the predictive capacity of SDMs, but the inclusion of ecologically relevant spatial  
25    covariates are key drivers of model accuracy [10–12]. Bird SDMs often rely on categorical predictors derived  
26    from digital maps delineating land cover, vegetation composition, and human footprint. While useful, they  
27    often miss key forest features driving habitat selection, namely those related to vegetation structure.

28    Vegetation structure influences the abundance, distribution, and behavior of birds [14]. The height  
29    and density of vegetation influence where birds perch, feed, and reproduce [1] by mediating microclimates,  
30    providing shelter from weather [15], concealment from predators [16], and creating habitat for insect prey  
31    [17]. Light Detection and Ranging (LiDAR) can characterize these three-dimensional forest structures [18].  
32    Common LiDAR derived metrics correspond with vegetation height, cover, structural complexity, and density  
33    of forest strata [14,19–22]. Used as predictor variables, LiDAR metrics can improve the predictive power of  
34    bird SDMS [26].

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35 Publicly funded regional LIDAR data and space-based sensors like NASA's Ice, Cloud and Land Elevation  
36 Satellite-2 (ICESat-2) and Global Ecosystem Dynamics Investigation (GEDI), have made large amounts of  
37 wall-to-wall structural data available to researchers [27–29]. However, LiDAR continues to be under-used in  
38 bird ecology. The limited temporal resolution of most LiDAR products may be a factor. LiDAR is often  
39 limited to a single season, with long multiyear gaps between repeat surveys. Temporal misalignment between  
40 wildlife surveys and LiDAR is common.

41 Temporal misalignment occurs when wildlife surveys and LiDAR acquisitions are done at different times  
42 [2]. It's unclear how much temporal misalignment influences the performance of LiDAR based SDMs.  
43 Disturbance-succession cycles drive changes in vegetation structure, and eventually, LiDAR gathered over a  
44 season will no longer reflect ground conditions. This can occur when the surveyed forest transitions between  
45 stages of stand development, e.g. from stand initiation to stem exclusion [30,31]. Temporal misalignment can  
46 impact the power of bird SDMs as successional changes in forest structure influence habitat selection by  
47 birds [32].

48 Consider Canada's boreal forests. It is a dynamic successional mosaic driven by forestry, fire, and energy  
49 exploration [3,33]. The landscape is a patchwork of early to late successional stands with distinct structural  
50 characteristics [34] and bird communities [35]. In early successional forests, bird communities are dominated  
51 by species that nest and forage in open vegetation, wetlands, and shrubs, along with some habitat generalists.  
52 As trees regenerate and the stand's structural properties change, open habitat species give way to species  
53 associated with corresponding forest age classes and strata [36].

54 Thus, succession occurring between LiDAR and wildlife surveys may influence SDM performance. Con-  
55 sequently, LiDAR's usefulness as a source of explanatory variables can degrade as temporal misalignment  
56 increases. For researchers pairing LiDAR covariates with long-term wildlife survey data, this can lead to a  
57 trade-off: (1) minimize temporal misalignment by reducing the sample size to survey data gathered near the  
58 time of the LiDAR acquisition, or (2) maximize sample size and risk sacrificing model power.

59 To inform this trade-off, we addressed the question of how much temporal misalignment is acceptable  
60 in LiDAR based SDMs. Our objectives were to (1) evaluate how the time lag between LiDAR acquisitions  
61 and bird surveys influence the performance of SDMs across a gradient of 0 to 15 years, (2) compare the  
62 influence of temporal misalignment on models for early successional, mid-successional, mature forest, and  
63 forest generalist birds, and (3) assess how differences in resultant predictive distribution maps correlate with  
64 forest age.

65 The effects of temporal misalignment on SDMs will likely vary by habitat type (e.g. forest age, disturbance  
66 history, and dominant vegetation) and the life history characteristics of the study species. We predicted  
67 that the performance of SDMs will decrease with increased temporal misalignment and that the magnitude  
68 of change will vary according to the habitat associations of the focal species. We predicted that (1) SDMs  
69 for early successional specialists, Mourning Warbler (*Geothlypis philadelphus*) and White-throated Sparrow  
70 (*Zonotrichia albicollis*), would be most affected by temporal misalignment because of faster vertical growth  
71 rates of establishment trees and loss of dense shrub layers [37–39]. (2) SDMs for mid-seral species like  
72 American Redstart (*Setophaga ruticilla*) that are associated with dense midstory vegetation, would see  
73 moderate declines in performance as temporal misalignment increases due to self-thinning during the stem  
74 exclusion stage of succession [31,40]. And (3) mature forest associates, Black-throated Green Warbler  
75 (*Setophaga virens*), will be least effected by temporal misalignment as the processes effecting mature forest  
76 canopy structure (insect defoliation and windthrow) happen at too small a scale to effect overall model  
77 performance [2,41]. For all species, we predicted that differences in distribution maps will be negatively  
78 correlated with forest age.

## 79 2. Methods

80 Our methodological workflow is illustrated in Figure 1. Analyses were done using R statistical software [R-  
81 base?]. We built SDMs using bird data from the Calling Lake Fragmentation project [Schmiegelow1997?].

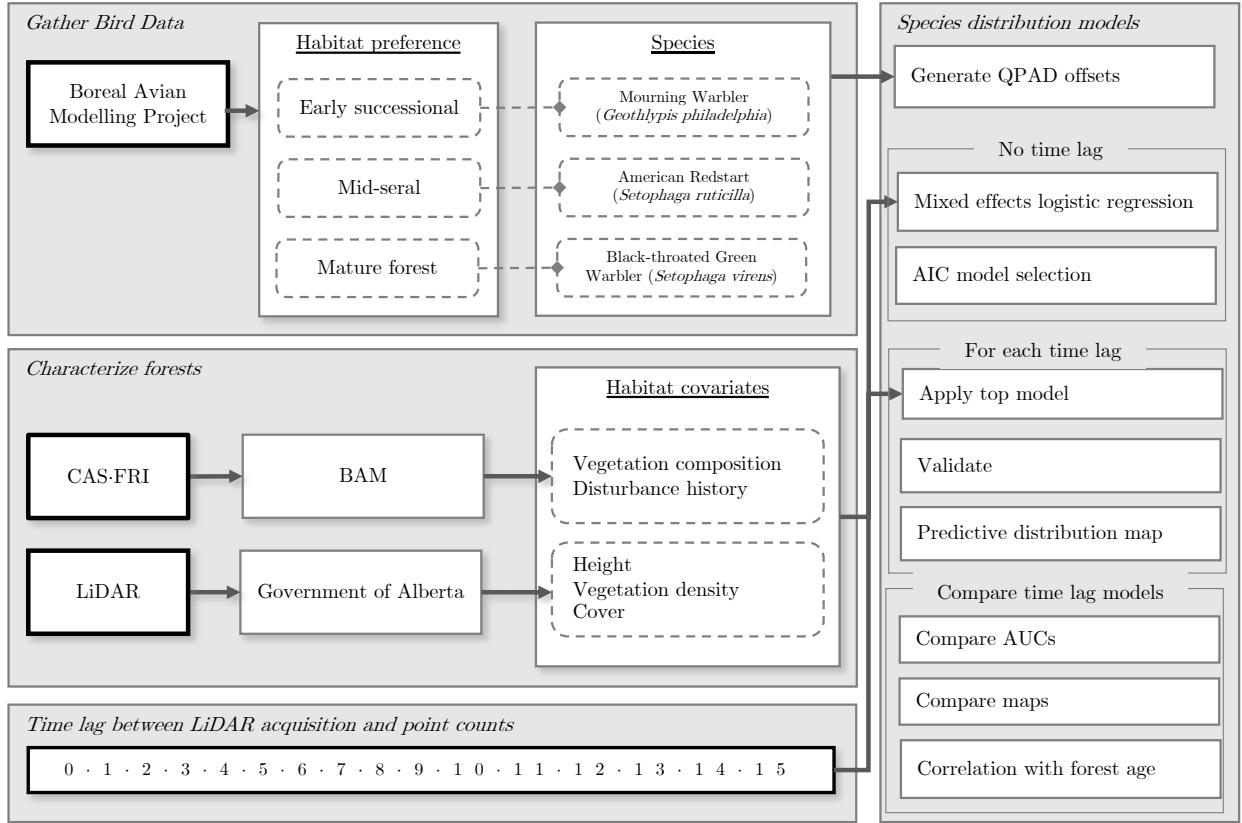


Figure 1: Conceptual diagram of our methodology. SDM methods were repeated at every time lag for each species. SDMs were compared using AUC and correlation between predictive maps.

### 82 2.1. Study area

83 We used bird survey data from the Calling Lake Fragmentation Experiment [Schmiegelow1997?].  
 84 Surveys were conducted across  $\approx 14,000$  ha of boreal mixedwood forests near Calling Lake, in northern  
 85 Alberta, Canada ( $55^{\circ}14'51''$  N,  $113^{\circ}28'59''$  W) (Figure 2). The experiment was designed to study the  
 86 long-term impacts of forest harvesting on birds [36,42,Schmiegelow1997?]. The study's experimental  
 87 harvest treatments have led to a landscape patchwork of early- to mid- successional stands surrounded by  
 88 tracts of unharvested mature forests. When the experiment began in 1994, the landscape was dominated  
 89 by older mixedwood forests composed of trembling aspen (*Populus tremuloides*), balsam poplar (*Populus*  
 90 *balsamifera*) and white spruce (*Picea glauca*) and treed bogs containing black spruce (*Picea mariana*) and  
 91 larch (*Larix laricina*). Understory vegetation in the mixedwood forests was composed mostly of alder (*Alnus*  
 92 *spp.*) and willow species (*Salix spp.*).

### 93 2.2. Bird data

94 As part of the Calling Lake Fragmentation Experiment, long term bird monitoring via annual repeated  
 95 point counts was done for 20 consecutive breeding seasons (from 1995-2015). As the experiment's study  
 96 area overlaps spatially with government wall-to-wall LiDAR coverage, there is an opportunity to study the  
 97 impacts of LiDAR/wildlife survey temporal misalignment on bird SDMs.

98 We used detection data from 187 stations where consecutive annual point counts were conducted from  
 99 zero to sixteen years of the LiDAR acquisition date. Stations were spaced  $\approx 200$  m apart. At each station,  
 100 three to five morning point count surveys were conducted over each breeding season (May 16 to July 7)  
 101 between sunrise and 10:00 h. Observers recorded the species detected during each five minute point count

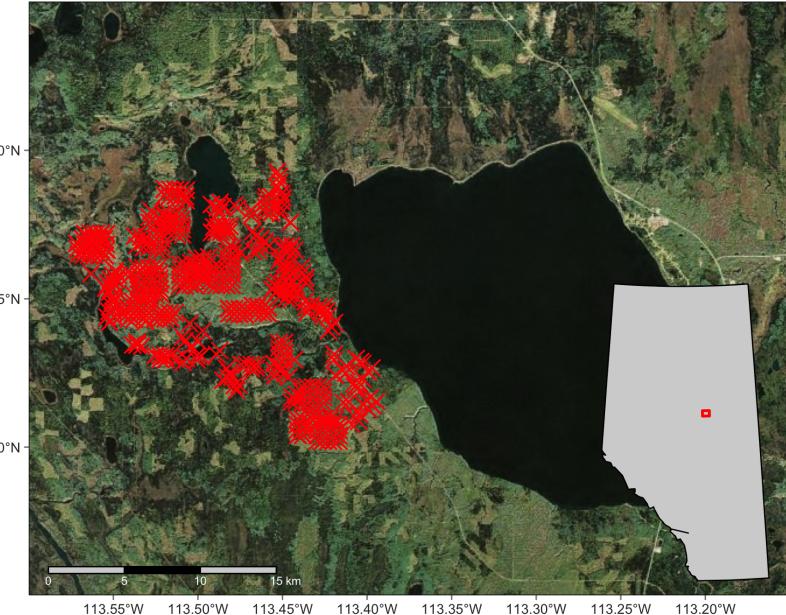


Figure 2: Locations of point count survey sites from the Calling Lake Fragmentation Study near Calling Lake, Alberta (@Schmiegelow1997). Repeat point counts were conducted during the breeding seasons from 1993 and 2015.

102 interval within sampling radii of 50 and 100 meters. Please see Schmiegelow et al. -[Schmiegelow1997?] for  
103 further information on the Calling Lake Fragmentation Experiment's study design and point count protocols.

104 We performed our time lag analysis on seven bird species associated with different nesting and foraging  
105 guilds, forest strata, habitat structures, and forest age classes (TABLE). [EltonTraits2021?].

106 Species were selected that exhibited low variability in the total number of detections each year across the  
107 16 years modelled ( $CV < 0.5$ ). To ensure that the selected species was abundant enough to model, we chose  
108 species that were detected in  $> 10\%$  of all point count events. Variability of detections between years

109 The seven selected species included early successional specialists: mature forests species, habitat generalist  
110 ... American Redstart (*Setophaga ruticilla*), Black-throated Green Warbler (*Setophaga virens*), and  
111 Swainson's Thrush (*Catharus ustulatus*), Mourning Warbler (*Geothlypis philadelphica*), White-throated  
112 Sparrow (*Zonotrichia albicollis*), , Winter Wren (*Troglodytes hiemalis*).

113 Based on this, we selected Black-throated Green Warbler (BTNW), a mature forest species; Swainson's  
114 Thrush (SWTH) a forest generalist; and Mourning Warbler (MOWA) an early-seral specialist. YBSA  
115 Yellow-bellied Sapsucker AMRE American redstart (mid seral) WTSP White throated sparrow (early)

116 To minimize the influence of forest edges and adjacent differently aged forest, we excluded point count  
117 stations with high variation of forest age classes within a hundred meter radius ( $SD > 5$  yrs)

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