



Title	Early successional habitats created through plantation harvesting benefit the Gray Nightjar (<i>Caprimulgus jotaka</i>) : An 8-year survey in central Hokkaido, northern Japan
Author(s)	Kawamura, Kazuhiro; Yamaura, Yuichi; Nakamura, Futoshi
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1 **Title**

2 Early successional habitats created through plantation harvesting benefit the Gray
3 Nightjar (*Caprimulgus jotaka*): An 8-year survey in central Hokkaido, northern Japan

4
5 **Authors**

6 Kazuhiro Kawamura^{1,2*}, Yuichi Yamaura³, Futoshi Nakamura²

7
8 **Affiliations**

- 9 1. Department of Wildlife Biology, Forestry and Forest Products Research Institute, Matsunosato 1,
10 Tsukuba, Ibaraki 305-8687, Japan
- 11 2. Department of Forest Science, Graduate School of Agriculture, Hokkaido University, Kitaku Kita
12 9 Nishi 9, Sapporo, Hokkaido 060-8589, Japan
- 13 3. Shikoku Research Center, Forestry and Forest Products Research Institute, 2-915
14 Asakuranishimachi, Kochi-shi, Kochi 780-8077, Japan

15
16 ***Corresponding author:** Kazuhiro Kawamura, Email: kawamurak@ffpri.affrc.go.jp, phone: +81-
17 29-928-8259

18 **Abstract** (204/250 words)

19 Early successional habitats and their associated species have been decreasing globally. In contrast,
20 plantations have been expanding and their young stages (stand age ≤ 10 years) can serve as early
21 successional habitats. The Gray Nightjar (*Caprimulgus jotaka*), a nocturnal bird species, breeds and
22 forages in early successional habitats surrounded by forests; its populations have declined since the
23 1970s in Japan. Because nightjars are more abundant in warmer areas across Hokkaido, northern
24 Japan, habitat creation through plantation harvesting was expected to promote nightjar abundance or
25 occupancy in this region. To explore the effects of plantation harvesting on nightjar occupancy, we
26 conducted an 8-year playback survey in a plantation landscape in central Hokkaido. We considered
27 the effects of elevation as a surrogate for temperature. The results indicated that increasing young
28 forest cover within 500 m of the centroid of each site enhanced nightjar occupancy, whereas
29 elevation negatively affected occupancy. Therefore, at lower elevations, we predict a larger increase
30 in occupancy probability with increasing young forest cover following plantation harvesting. Our
31 results suggest that young forest creation in landscapes can contribute to Gray Nightjar conservation.
32 To effectively create early successional species habitats through plantation harvesting, it is important
33 to consider climate and elevation in the target area.

34

35

36 **Keywords** (5/5 words): *Abies sachalinensis*, clear-cut, disturbance-dependent species, forest
37 management, retention forestry

38

39 **Main text**

40

41 **Introduction**

42 Plantations have been expanding worldwide (FAO 2020), many replacing natural forests (Puyravaud
43 et al. 2010; Hua et al. 2018). Compared with natural forests, plantations have simpler composition
44 and structure, leading to lower species richness and abundance of organisms (Brockerhoff et al.
45 2008; Chaudhary et al. 2016). Plantations are sometimes converted from open lands (Lindenmayer et
46 al. 2019; Iezzi et al. 2020; Ueno et al. 2022), and their young stages (stand age ≤ 10 years) can serve
47 as alternative or superior habitats for species that prefer early successional habitats created by
48 disturbances (Schlossberg and King 2009; Yamaura et al. 2012a; Ohwaki et al. 2018; Ram et al.
49 2020). As early successional species have decreased globally (Swanson et al. 2011; King and
50 Schlossberg 2014), plantation harvesting has been expected to contribute to their conservation
51 (Yamaura et al. 2012a, 2012b; Iezzi et al. 2020).

52 However, the effects of harvesting on early successional species vary spatially. For example,
53 biological responses to habitat management can be contingent on climate (Amano et al. 2011; Betts
54 et al. 2019; Spake et al. 2020), which affects organisms directly via physiological processes (such as
55 maintaining body temperature for animals: Cooper et al. 2006; Camacho 2013), and indirectly via
56 prey resources, vegetation, or land uses (Huston and Wolverton 2009; Yamaura et al. 2011).
57 Temperature can be critical for determining species distributions in mountainous regions, because it
58 changes greatly with elevation (Sergio and Pedrini 2007; Jarzyna et al. 2021). Large-scale, rapid
59 changes in climate due to global warming, coupled with land use change, have threatened many
60 species (Oliver and Morecroft 2014; Díaz et al. 2019). Therefore, it is important to consider the
61 effects of climate or elevation on the distribution or habitat selection of target species for effective
62 conservation by managing habitats.

63 In Japan, conifer plantations largely replaced natural forests and grasslands from the 1950s to
64 the 1980s (Yamaura et al. 2012b; Ueno et al. 2022), and now account for 41% of the total forest area
65 (Forestry Agency 2017). In the decades following plantation expansion, this forestry decline
66 prevented the creation of young forests (Yamaura et al. 2012b). Semi-natural grasslands and
67 farmlands have been degraded or lost as a result of agricultural intensification and forest transition

68 from abandoned farmland (Koshida and Katayama 2018; Ushimaru et al. 2018). Furthermore, natural
69 disturbances such as wildfires, landslides, floods, and avalanches are suppressed by humans
70 (Ushimaru et al. 2018; Ohwaki 2018). These land-use changes cause population declines in early
71 successional species (Yamaura et al. 2009; Nakamura 2011; Ohwaki 2018). Recently, large-scale
72 clear-cutting of mature plantations has been conducted to increase the domestic wood supply in
73 Japan (Forestry Agency 2021), potentially enhancing the recovery of early successional species
74 (Yamaura et al. 2012a, 2012b).

75 The Gray Nightjar (*Caprimulgus jotaka*) is a nocturnal bird species that breeds in open lands
76 surrounded by forests, including young plantations after harvesting and planting (Fujimaki 1973;
77 Tada 2022). The breeding range of this species across Japan contracted by 57% between 1978 and
78 2002 (Amano and Yamaura 2007). In a previous study, we reported that nightjars were more
79 abundant in warm areas across Hokkaido, northern Japan (Kawamura et al. 2016), where plantation
80 harvesting was anticipated to promote nightjar abundance or occupancy. In this study, we conducted
81 an 8-year playback survey for the Gray Nightjar in 18 plantations, 15 of which were harvested before
82 or during the study period, and three natural forests, for a total of 21 stands in central Hokkaido. We
83 analyzed the effects of stand harvesting and surrounding young forest cover on nightjar occupancy,
84 as well as the effects of elevation as a surrogate of temperature.

85

86

87 **Materials and Methods**

88 **Study area and sites**

89 This study was conducted from 2015 to 2022 at sites established in the Retention Experiment for
90 Plantation Forestry in Sorachi, Hokkaido (REFRESH project: 43°34'37"–43°39'26"N, 142°05'27"–
91 142°09'33"E). In this experiment, we have been investigating whether retaining some canopy trees in
92 harvested Todo fir (*Abies sachalinensis*) plantations might enhance the multifunctionality of the
93 plantations, including the habitat functions of plants, insects, and birds (Yamaura et al. 2018). The
94 study sites were located at the foot to mid-slope of Mt. Irumukeppu (864 m a.s.l.) in landscapes
95 dominated by Todo fir plantations (Fig. 1). Sites were selected in five harvesting types: clear-cutting
96 (CC); small (SS), medium (SM), and large (SL) amounts of single-tree retention; and group retention

97 (GR). We also had two types of control site: unharvested mature plantation (PC) and natural forest
98 (NC). Each treatment had three replicates, for a total of 21 stands.

99 PC sites were dominated by planted Todo firs with stand ages of 48–51 years in 2015. NC sites
100 consisted mainly of linden (*Tilia japonica*), Mongolian oak (*Quercus crispula*), and painted maple
101 (*Acer pictum*). In the SS, SM, and SL sites, 10, 50, and 100 sparsely distributed broadleaved trees/ha
102 were retained, respectively; these mainly consisted of birch (*Betula platyphylla*, *Betula ermanii*, and
103 *Betula maximowicziana*), linden, and Mongolian oak. In each GR site, one unharvested patch of
104 Todo firs (60 m × 60 m: 0.36 ha) was retained at the center of the harvested area. From 2014 to 2016,
105 one site per harvesting type was harvested each year (Appendix S1). Todo fir seedlings had been
106 planted the next spring after harvesting, and weeding had been conducted once or twice annually
107 (Akashi et al. 2017; Yamaura et al. 2018).

108 We did not survey sites undergoing harvesting operations in 2015 and 2016 (Appendix S1).
109 Thereafter, we surveyed all sites in each year except 2021 (and except NC3 in 2022: Appendix S1).
110 For five plantation sites, we surveyed before and after harvesting. As unharvested sites, eight
111 plantations (CC3, GR3, SS3, SM3, SL3, PC1, PC2, and PC3) and three natural forests (NC1, NC2,
112 and NC3) were surveyed and only PC and NC sites were surveyed on multiple years (Appendix S1).
113 The area of each site was 5.0–8.2 ha (Appendix S1), and the distance between sites was at least 200
114 m, except for one pair (SM2 to SS3, Fig. 1; Akashi et al. 2017; Yamaura et al. 2018). The elevation
115 range for all sites was calculated by averaging the values in a 10 m digital elevation model, as 236–
116 506 m (Fig. 1).

117

118 **Bird survey**

119 To examine Gray Nightjar occupancy, we conducted a playback survey (Bibby et al. 2000). In each
120 survey year, we visited each site three times during the Gray Nightjar breeding season, from late
121 May to early August (Saiki 2016). Surveys were conducted between 19:30 and 03:30, when Gray
122 Nightjars are active, avoiding rain and strong winds (> 5 m/s). The male territorial call of the Gray
123 Nightjar was broadcast for 5 min at the edge of each site and any nightjar callbacks within the next 5
124 min were recorded (i.e., 10 min/survey). In 2022, the survey consisted of three repetitions of 2 min of
125 playback and 1 min of recording, plus an additional 1 min of recording at the end, for a total of 6 min

126 of playback and 4 min of recording, corresponding to the sampling method used in our ongoing
127 study. We recorded the number and location of any individual calling in each site and a 50 m buffer
128 zone around each site, and considered these individuals as users of the site.

129 Kawamura et al. (2016) used a similar survey method and found that the detection probability of
130 each territorial individual per survey was ~ 0.65 and remained constant regardless of the survey
131 season and time of day. We surveyed most sites within one night for each visit. Therefore, we judged
132 that differences among survey seasons or survey conditions were relatively small and that nearly all
133 individuals could be detected within three visits to each site. For playback, we used speakers [(2015–
134 2020) PDX-B11: Yamaha, Hamamatsu, Japan; (2022) SoundLink Revolve+ II: Bose Corporation,
135 Framingham, MA, USA] connected to players (iPhone 5s or iPhone SE: Apple, Cupertino, CA,
136 USA). Although speaker and player models varied, the nightjars responded similarly to playback
137 through different devices, and the amplitudes were nearly identical (66.8 dB for PDX-B11 and 66.7
138 dB for SoundLink Revolve+ II at 5 m from the speaker) and audible throughout each site (Kawamura
139 and Yamaura, personal observation).

140

141 **Environmental variables**

142 *Harvesting treatment and forest type*

143 As a categorical variable at the stand scale, we considered the harvesting treatment (i.e., harvested
144 vs. not harvested). Although retained trees may provide perches for nightjars (Winiger et al. 2018;
145 Camacho 2014) and different harvesting types (i.e., CC, SS, SM, SL, and GR) may have different
146 conservation roles, we treated all harvesting types as a single category. This was because the Gray
147 Nightjar prefers both sparse forests and clear-cut areas (Yamaguchi and Mitarai 2018; Tada 2022)
148 and nightjar occupancy or abundance was too low to examine the effects of harvesting types or the
149 proportion of retained trees. The other categorical variable at the stand scale was forest type
150 (plantation vs. natural forest).

151 *Young forest cover in landscapes*

152 We considered that the young forest cover (stand age ≤ 10) surrounding each site could affect
153 nightjar occupancy. This was because the Gray Nightjars observed in this study were expected to use

154 the areas surrounding the study sites, considering that the territories (i.e., defended areas for
155 breeding) of the closely related European Nightjar (*Caprimulgus europaeus*) have a radius of
156 approximately 200 m and their home range has a radius of several kilometers (Alexander and
157 Cresswell 1990; Sharps et al. 2015). Furthermore, windthrow occurred in forests adjacent to some
158 sites, immediately followed by harvesting and planting in these sites (Fig. 1, Appendix S1).
159 Kawamura et al. (2016) detected the effects of forest cover within 4 km (home range scale) of each
160 sampling site on nightjar abundance. However, since the large (e.g., 3.0 km radius) buffers of YFC
161 overlapped well (Holland et al. 2004), we used YFC within 500 m (500 m YFC; i.e., territory scale)
162 from the centroid of each site (Fig. 1). This was performed using the ArcGIS Desktop v10.6 software
163 (ESRI, Redlands, CA, USA). Forest data were obtained from Hokkaido Government Opendata CC-
164 BY4.0 (<https://www.pref.hokkaido.lg.jp/sr/dyr/DOP.html> [date of data acquisition: March 31, 2016,
165 in Japanese] and <https://www.pref.hokkaido.lg.jp/sr/srk/98818.html> [date: December 31, 2019, in
166 Japanese]). The 500 m YFC was calculated for each survey year, but the young forests created by
167 harvesting or windthrow after the date of the original data acquisition were not reflected. Therefore,
168 we revised the data when we found young forests in the field.

169 *Elevation*

170 We used elevation as a surrogate for temperature at the local scale (Fig. 1, Appendix S2). Elevation
171 was calculated by averaging the 10 m digital elevation model provided by the Geospatial Information
172 Authority of Japan (https://fgd.gsi.go.jp/download/ref_dem.html (in Japanese)). The 500 m YFC and
173 elevation were standardized prior to model runs. The 500 m YFC, elevation, and the area of sites
174 were not strongly correlated ($|r| < 0.5$).

175

176 **Statistical analyses**

177 We analyzed using the R v4.1.0 software (R Core Team 2021). To examine the effects of young
178 forest creation through plantation harvesting on nightjar occupancy, we used generalized linear
179 mixed models, using the ‘glmer’ function in the *lme4* package (Bates et al. 2015). Our analyses
180 involved two steps: the harvest/non-harvest model, examining the effects of harvesting treatment
181 (plantation harvesting at the stand scale); and the young forest cover model, analyzing the effects of

182 500 m YFC (young forests mainly created by plantation harvesting). Because the harvesting
183 treatment and 500 m YFC were not independent (i.e., harvested survey stands had more young forest
184 cover, they were not incorporated into the model simultaneously.

185 *Harvest/non-harvest model*

186 We constructed models, where the response variable was nightjar occurrence/non-occurrence in each
187 site in each year and the explanatory variables were the harvesting treatment and elevation. We
188 assumed that the response variable followed a binomial distribution, and used a complementary log-
189 log link function (cloglog). Thus, we modeled the probability that at least one individual occurs at
190 each site assuming that nightjar abundance followed a Poisson distribution (Kajihara et al. 2016).
191 This method allowed us to correct nightjar occupancy for site area differences by considering the
192 proportional increase in abundance with the area of site i [i.e., setting $\log(Area_i)$ as an offset term].
193 To account for pseudoreplication associated with repeatedly surveying the same sites, we used site
194 ID as a random intercept (i.e., random site effect). We constructed models for all possible
195 combinations of the explanatory variables and selected the model with the lowest AIC as the best
196 model (Burnham and Anderson 2002), using the ‘dredge’ function in the *MuMIn* package (Bartoń
197 2022). We calculated the 95% confidence intervals of the coefficients of each explanatory variable in
198 the best models using the ‘confint.merMod’ function (method = “profile”). We interpreted the effect
199 of an explanatory variable as significant when the interval did not overlap with zero. The effect of
200 forest type was confounded with that of harvesting treatment because most plantation sites were
201 harvested and all surveyed natural forests were unharvested controls. Forest type was therefore
202 excluded from the explanatory variables.

203 *Young forest cover model*

204 Using the same method, we also conducted the analysis with 500 m YFC, forest type, and elevation
205 as explanatory variables. In contrast to the harvest/non-harvest model, forest type was included as an
206 explanatory variable in this model because the VIFs of 500 m YFC and forest type were below 10
207 (5.10 for 500 m YFC and 6.22 for forest type: Dormann et al. 2013). We interpreted the effect of
208 young forest creation through harvesting on nightjar occupancy considering the results of both the
209 harvest/non-harvest model and the young forest cover model.

210 *Consideration of the effect of site area and the annual variation in nightjar occupancy*

211 Although we assumed that the nightjar abundance was directly proportional to the area of site i
212 ($Area_i$) and set the offset term to $\log(Area_i)$ [i.e., the coefficient of $\log(Area_i)$ was fixed at 1], the
213 coefficient of $\log(Area_i)$ could exceed 1 if Gray Nightjars preferred larger harvested areas. In our
214 preliminary analysis, we extracted data only from harvested sites and constructed a model using
215 $\log(Area_i)$ and elevation as explanatory variables. The results showed a coefficient of $\log(Area_i)$ of
216 -0.40 , with a wide confidence interval (Appendix S3). Therefore, we used $\log(Area_i)$ only as an
217 offset term in our analyses, assuming a small area effect of harvesting on nightjar occupancy.

218 In our preliminary analysis, we considered annual variation in nightjar occupancy in addition to
219 the random site effect, by including the survey year as a random intercept (random year effect) in the
220 models. However, the random year effect did not explain the variation in our data, and intercept and
221 coefficient estimates were nearly identical to those for the model that did not include a random year
222 effect (Appendix S4). Therefore, only the random site effect was considered in our analyses.

223

224

225 **Results**

226 During the 8-year study period, we detected Gray Nightjars in seven of the 21 sites (Fig. 1). Five of
227 these sites were harvested, including one clear-cutting site (CC2), two single-tree retention sites (SS2
228 and SL1), and two group retention sites (GR1 and GR3). The earliest nightjar occurrence after
229 harvesting was the following year (GR3), and the latest was 6 years later (CC2) (Appendix S1).

230 Nightjars also occurred in two unharvested natural forest sites, although they only began to occupy
231 NC2 after windthrows occurred in adjacent forest areas (the 500 m YFC was relatively low at both
232 sites: Appendix S1, Fig. 2). Nightjars were detected in multiple years at four sites (GR3, SS2, SL1,
233 and NC2) and in GR3 during four consecutive years after harvesting (Appendix S1). The only site
234 where multiple individuals occurred during a single visit was SS2, where two individuals were
235 detected in 2017; one of these individuals may have also called back in the neighboring site, GR3.

236 Other occurrences in the same year were not considered to be in the territory of the same individual
237 because the calling locations were >700 m apart.

238

239 **Harvest/non-harvest model**

240 In the best model, harvesting treatment and elevation were included as the explanatory variables
241 (Appendix S5). There was a single competing model (i.e., the second-ranked model with $\Delta AIC < 2$)
242 that had the elevation as an explanatory variable (Appendix S5). The coefficient of harvesting
243 treatment in the best model was estimated to be positive, but the difference in nightjar occupancy
244 between harvested and unharvested sites was not significant at the 5% level (Table 1a). Elevation
245 negatively affected occupancy (Table 1a, Fig. 1).

246

247 **Young forest cover model**

248 The young forest cover model showed a positive effect of YFC and a negative effect of elevation.
249 The best model contained 500 m YFC, elevation, and forest type as explanatory variables (Table 1b).
250 Nightjar occupancy was higher in areas with higher 500 m YFC and lower elevation (Table 1b, Fig.
251 2). Occupancy tended to be low in plantation sites compared to natural forest sites (Table 1b).
252 Although we did not use the interaction term between 500 m YFC and elevation, the absolute
253 increment in occupancy probability at plantation sites with increasing 500 m YFC was predicted to
254 differ greatly according to elevation (Fig. 2). In 5 ha plantation sites where the 500 m YFC was 0%,
255 occupancy probability was almost zero across the elevation range. As the 500 m YFC increased to
256 25% (~20 ha increase in young forest), the occupancy probability increased to 0.94 and 0.25 in areas
257 with low (236 m) and medium (383 m) elevation, respectively. In contrast, in high-elevation sites
258 (506 m), occupancy probability increased only slightly (0.04).

259

260

261 **Discussion**

262 **Positive effects of young forest cover within 500 m**

263 Nightjar occupancy was enhanced by increasing young forest cover (mainly young plantations,
264 including the harvested survey sites) within 500 m. These results indicate that young forest creation
265 through plantation harvesting can contribute to Gray Nightjar conservation. The Gray Nightjar tends
266 to nest in young plantations (Fujimaki 1973; Tada 2022), and assuming a similar territory range to
267 the European Nightjar, its territory is likely contained within an area of 500 m (Bowden and Green

268 1994; Sharps et al. 2015). Open environments near forests are also suitable for the visual detection of
269 insects flying from mature forests (e.g., large moths) and for catching these prey insects in the air
270 (Sierro et al. 2001; Evens et al. 2018, 2020). Studies have shown that European Nightjars frequently
271 forage near their nests during the incubation period (Alexander and Cresswell 1990; Cross et al.
272 2005) and that foraging sites near the nests are superior in terms of low commuting costs (Sharps et
273 al. 2015; Evens et al. 2018). Therefore, forested areas with high young forest cover provide suitable
274 nesting and foraging environments.

275 In western Tokyo, central Japan, Yamaguchi and Mitarai (2018) reported that nightjar
276 occupancy within 250 m increased with increased clear-cutting area, exceeding 0.5 in sites with a
277 clear-cut area of > 4.3 ha (0.5–27.9 ha). Young forest creation through clear-cutting also positively
278 affects European Nightjar occupancy, although the minimum area for occupation differs among
279 studies (0.7 ha: Wichmann 2004; 1 ha: Scott et al. 1998; 10 ha: Ravenscroft 1989). In this study, the
280 maximum area of harvested survey stands was 8.2 ha and the effects of the stand harvesting
281 treatment were not significant. However, nightjar occupancy increased more clearly in sites where
282 young forest cover within 500 m exceeded 10% (7.9 ha). These results suggest that harvesting stands
283 (5.8–8.2 ha in our case) only would not provide sufficient habitat and surrounding young forests also
284 contribute to nightjar occupancy. Thus, in landscapes where forestry is active, multiple harvested
285 stands would support nightjar occupancy.

286 287 **Broadleaved natural forests and retention cutting stands as habitats**

288 Natural forests tended to be preferred by nightjars over plantations, although only three natural forest
289 sites were surveyed. Given that young forest cover, including harvested plantations, positively
290 affected nightjar occupancy, our results indicate a poor habitat function of unharvested plantations.
291 This finding is supported by those of a previous study conducted in eastern Hokkaido (Toyoshima et
292 al. 2013), which occasionally detected early successional birds in stands older than 60 years in
293 natural forests, but not in mature plantations. Nightjars did not prefer mature plantations with a high
294 tree density. Nightjars were also found in harvested sites with retention rates of 10–100 broadleaved
295 trees/ha and in a site with a retained Todo fir patch (0.36 ha). Retention cutting areas generally
296 harbor fewer early successional species than clear-cutting areas because of their smaller open spaces

297 (Fedrowitz et al. 2014). However, both the Gray Nightjar and European Nightjar prefer sparse forests
298 as habitats (Sierro et al. 2001; Winiger et al. 2018; Tada 2022), and the Red-necked Nightjar
299 (*Caprimulgus ruficollis*) selects areas near tall vegetation as refuges from predators when descending
300 to the ground (Camacho 2014). Future studies should investigate the habitat function of natural and
301 sparse managed forests for early successional species. For nightjars with a large home range and
302 wide range of habitat uses, the interactive effects of forest type with landscape variables are also
303 needed for evaluation (Knight et al. 2021b).

304

305 **Negative effects of elevation**

306 Nightjars were more abundant in areas with lower elevation. By contrast, no elevation effect on
307 nightjar occupancy was detected in a previous study conducted in warmer regions of Japan
308 (Yamaguchi and Mitarai 2018); thus, our results were likely a reflection of temperature effects. The
309 negative impacts of cool conditions have been reported for nocturnal insectivores (European
310 Nightjar: Morris et al. 1994, bats: Rydell et al. 1996; Davy et al. 2022). There are two possible
311 explanations for this finding. First, the availability of flying insects (e.g., moths) as prey resources
312 tends to be lower under cooler conditions (Turner et al. 1987; McGeachie 1989; Roy et al. 2001). In
313 this area, elevation was the most important determinant of understory plant communities, with a
314 negative impact on their species richness (Akashi et al. 2022). Second, nocturnal flying vertebrates
315 may be physiologically sensitive to temperature; for example, the Red-necked Nightjar prefers warm
316 roads on cold nights (Camacho 2013; De Felipe et al. 2019). Although nightjar occupancy may also
317 be influenced by other environmental factors correlated to elevation, such as young forest cover at
318 larger scales (Kawamura et al. 2016), pastures, or farmlands (Evens et al. 2021), cool areas tend to
319 restrict the distributions of Caprimulgidae species, which evolved in the tropics and share similar
320 morphology and foraging ecology (Cleere and Nurney 1998).

321

322 **Implications for forest management and conservation**

323 Despite the moderate spatial extent of our study region (6 × 12 km), there were spatial differences in
324 the nightjar occupancy increment with increasing young forest cover. The absolute increment in
325 nightjar occupancy with young forest creation was predicted to be larger in areas with lower

326 elevation, according to nightjar distribution model results for Hokkaido. The determining factors of
327 species distribution and the degree of these effects can vary regionally (Crosby et al. 2019; Knight et
328 al. 2021a). For example, Knight et al. (2021b) demonstrated that the disturbance type and time since
329 disturbance were important factors for determining the nesting habitat use of the Common
330 Nighthawk (*Chordeiles minor*) and their habitat usage duration in disturbed areas was longer in
331 landscapes with a higher proportion of pine forests. The area effects of harvesting itself and
332 landscape/climate-dependent area effects on nightjar occupancy may be detected using sites with
333 wider ranges of each environment. Nevertheless, our results provide valuable insights for designing
334 conservation strategies for early successional species. Considering the effects of climate, elevation,
335 and landscape on conservation target species is essential to implement plantation harvesting for
336 effective habitat creation and promoting biodiversity conservation efforts in balance with timber
337 production.

338

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346

347

348 **Declaration of interest statement**

349 None declared.

350

351

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540

541 **Table and Figures**

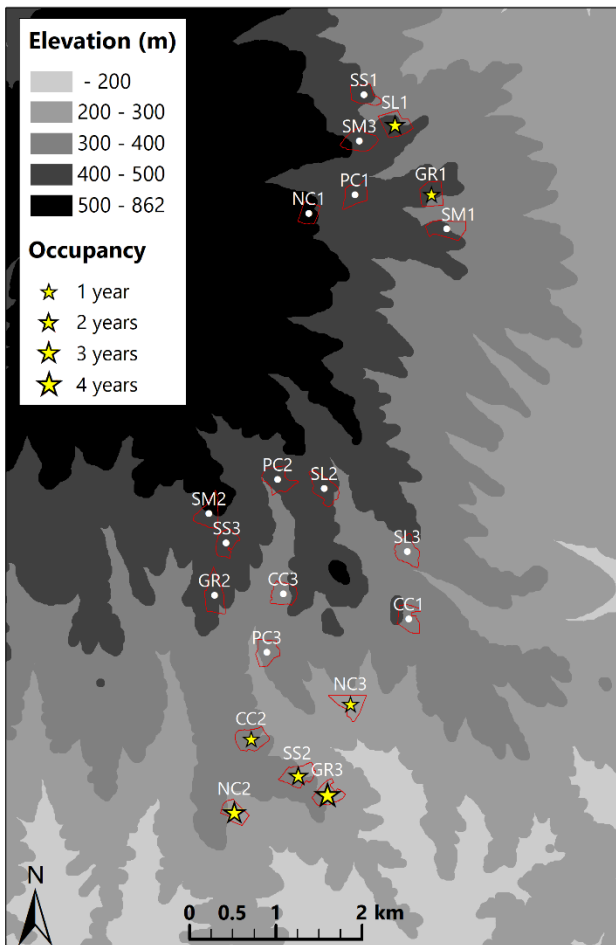
542 **Table 1.** Parameter estimates of the best (a) harvest/non-harvest and (b) young forest cover models.
 543 For each model, R^2 was calculated using the ‘r2beta’ function in the package *r2glmm* (Jeager 2017).
 544 Abbreviations: Harvest, the categorical explanatory variable of harvested sites compared to non-
 545 harvested sites; 500-m YFC, young forest cover within 500 m; Plantation, the categorical
 546 explanatory variable of plantations compared to natural forests; 95%CI.l and 95%CI.u, lower and
 547 upper 95% confidence interval limits, respectively. The intercept represents (a) non-harvested forests
 548 and (b) natural forests. Bold indicates the significance of the explanatory variable at the 5% level.
 549 The Δ AIC (i.e., AIC difference from the best model) of the second-rank model was (a) 1.44 for the
 550 harvest/non-harvest model and (b) 2.02 for the young forest cover model. These second-rank models
 551 contained fewer explanatory variables (see details in Appendix S5).

552

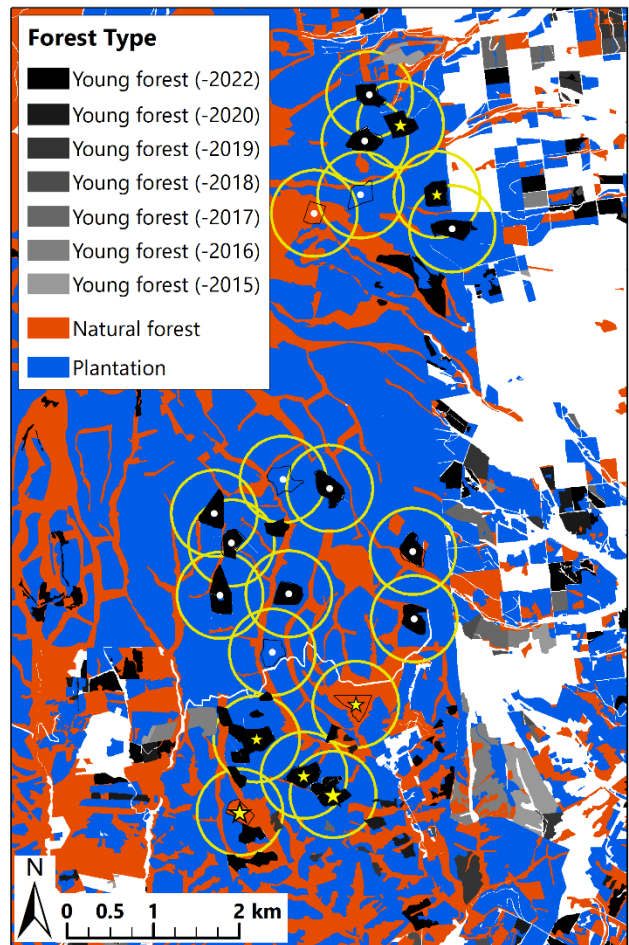
	Variables	Estimates	SE	z value	Wald p	95%CI.l	95%CI.u
	R^2	0.21				0.10	0.36
(a)	Intercept	-6.37	1.12	-5.68	< 0.001		
	Harvest	1.47	0.86	1.70	0.089	-0.08	4.06
	Elevation	-1.83	0.51	-3.57	< 0.001	-3.38	-0.95
	R^2	0.16				0.07	0.31
(b)	Intercept	-3.07	1.45	-2.11	0.035		
	500-m YFC	1.96	0.92	2.13	0.033	0.66	4.65
	Elevation	-1.09	0.54	-2.02	0.044	-2.40	-0.04
	Plantation	-3.33	2.08	-1.60	0.110	-9.36	-0.07

553

(a)



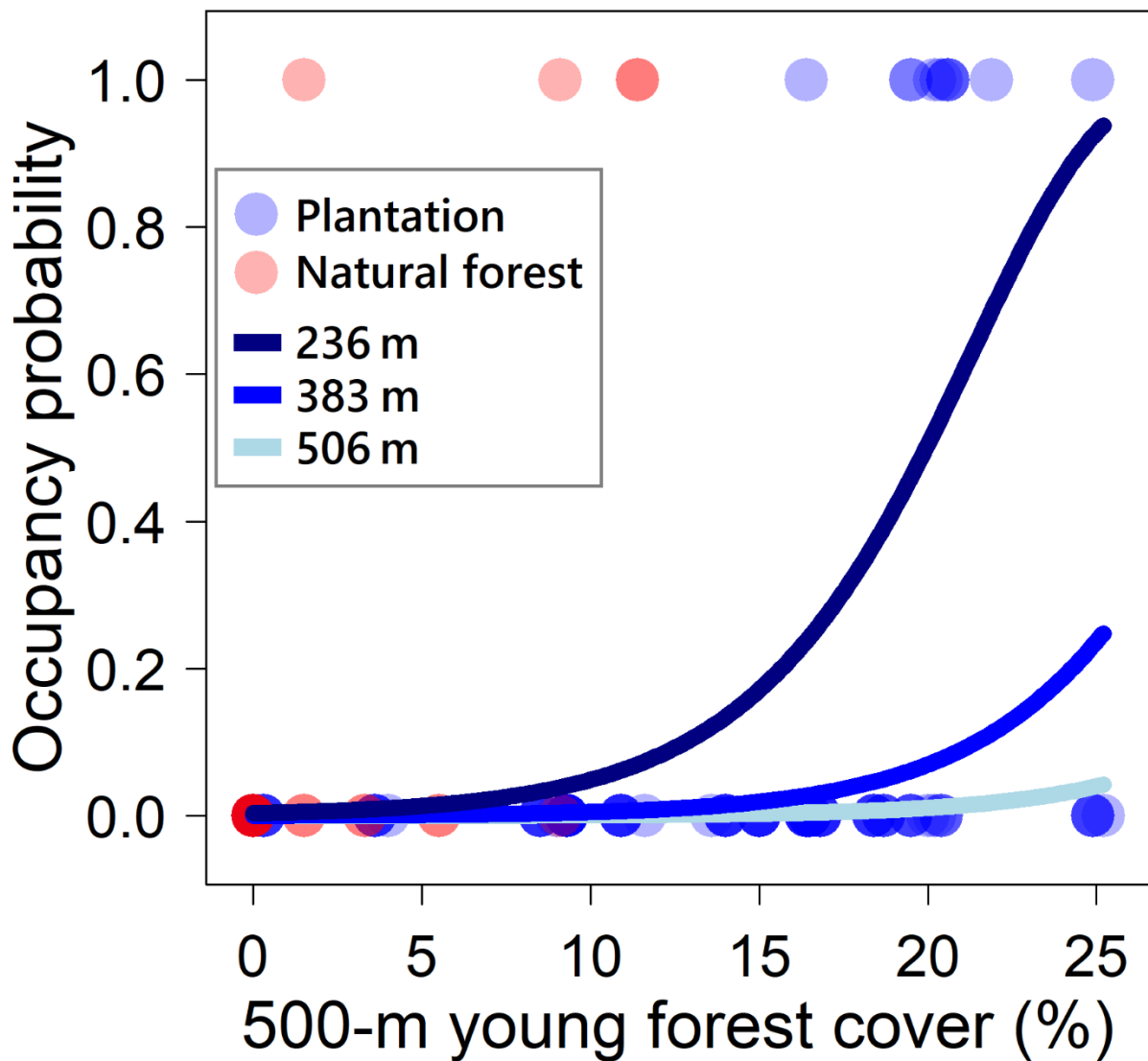
(b)



554

555 **Fig. 1.** Map of the study area. Symbols at the center of each site indicate nightjar occupancy status;
556 the size of the star indicates the number of years in which nightjars occurred, and white circles
557 indicate no occurrence. Shading represents differences in (a) elevation and (b) forest type. In young
558 forests, lighter colors indicate higher stand age. For example, “Young forest (–2016)” indicates that
559 these stands were treated as young forest stands until 2016 and thereafter as > 10-year-old stands.
560 The yellow circles around each site represent 500-m radius zones.

561



562

563 **Fig. 2.** Estimated relationship between nightjar occupancy probability and explanatory variables in
 564 the young forest cover models. Solid lines are predictions by the best performing models; colors
 565 indicate different elevations. Blue and red translucent circles represent the observed values in
 566 plantation and natural forest sites, respectively. Site area differed among these observed values, and
 567 was fixed to 5 ha for predictions.

568 The English in this document has been checked by at least two professional editors, both native
569 speakers of English. For a certificate, please see:

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571