

9-1993

## **Spatio-temporal Patterns of Landbird Migration on the Lower Delmarva Peninsula (Interim)**

B. D. Watts

S. E. Mabey

Follow this and additional works at: [https://scholarworks.wm.edu/ccb\\_reports](https://scholarworks.wm.edu/ccb_reports)



Part of the [Animal Sciences Commons](#), and the [Biology Commons](#)

---

**SPATIO-TEMPORAL PATTERNS OF LANDBIRD MIGRATION  
ON THE LOWER DELMARVA PENINSULA**

**INTERIM REPORT**

Written by:

Bryan D. Watts  
Center for Conservation Biology  
College of William and Mary

Sarah E. Mabey  
Department of Conservation and Recreation  
Division of Natural Heritage

Project sponsored by:

Virginia Department of Environmental Quality  
Virginia Coastal Resources Management Program

Virginia Department of Conservation and Recreation  
Division of Natural Heritage

Virginia Department of Game and Inland Fisheries  
Nongame and Endangered Species Program

September 1993



This paper is funded in part by a grant from the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration. The views expressed herein are those of the authors and do not necessarily reflect the views of NOAA or any of its sub-agencies.

Rec'd. by Dept. of  
Environmental Quality

FEB 26 1991

Public & Inter-  
governmental Affairs



SPATIO-TEMPORAL PATTERNS OF LANDBIRD MIGRATION  
ON THE LOWER DELMARVA PENINSULA

*INTERIM REPORT*

Written by

Bryan D. Watts  
Center for Conservation Biology  
College of William and Mary  
Williamsburg, VA 23185

Sarah E. Mabey  
Department of Conservation and Recreation  
Division of Natural Heritage  
Main Street Station, Suite 312  
Richmond, VA 23219

*September 1993*

AL-698.9. V8 W39 1993

## EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

Reported declines of neotropical migratory songbird populations have drawn the attention of the scientific community and the general public. While researchers and conservationists have focused their energies on understanding the behavioral and ecological dynamics of these population during the breeding and wintering season, migration ecology has remained largely neglected. Migration must be endured twice annually and is a particularly stressful event for birds. Comprehensive conservation efforts on behalf of migratory birds must include this critical phase of life if they are to succeed in protecting whole populations.

The two-year Northampton Migratory Bird Project (NMBP) was initiated under Northampton County's Special Area Management Plan (SAMP) to provide this rural, coastal county with sound scientific data to guide the development of enforceable policies that will protect and enhance migratory songbird habitat. Conserving migratory birds and their habitat in lower Northampton County will serve to generate the basis of a burgeoning nature tourism industry, help to protect water quality and moderate secondary impacts of coastal development.

Results from the first season of the study show some strong spatial and temporal patterns. In summary, our data indicate:

1. Long-distance migrants are most abundant during the first half of the migratory period while short-distance migrants are most abundant during the last half of the season.
  2. Bird activity was greater in the morning compared to the afternoon.
  3. If birds spatially redistribute during the course of a day, they do so very early in the morning.
  4. Many long- and short-distance migrants concentrate along the bayside and near the tip of the peninsula. Resident species tend to be least abundant near the peninsula tip.
  5. In general, there is no clear relationship between bird abundance and patch size.
  6. The majority of birds from both migrant groups were more abundant close to the forest edge than in the interior.
  7. Most species overutilized plots with relatively high vegetation density.
  8. Individual species were associated with particular vertical strata within the forest.
- The vertical distribution of species is in general agreement with associations known for the breeding and wintering seasons.

The results of the first year provide a critical step toward policy development and land use planning for the protection of migratory songbirds and their habitat in Northampton County, Virginia.

## INTRODUCTION

The recent surge of interest in neotropical migratory songbirds spans the realms of science, conservation and the general public and has provided a common ground for the interaction of these diverse circles. Reports of population declines for many eastern neotropical migratory songbird species (Hill and Hagan 1991, Askins et al. 1990, Robbins et al. 1989) have focused attention on the problems of temperate forest fragmentation and tropical deforestation (Hagan and Johnston 1992).

The general environmental degradation rapidly occurring in the birds' North American breeding grounds and their Latin American wintering grounds is indeed cause for concern. Fragmentation of temperate forests has been shown to negatively affect many migrant species by exposing them to higher predation pressure and cowbird nest parasitism (Hagan and Johnston 1992, Askins et al. 1990). Additionally, the restricted winter ranges of most neotropical migrants, mainly confined to eastern Central America and the Caribbean, translate into higher concentrations of birds per unit area. Thus, loss of specific tropical habitats may affect relatively large proportions of whole populations (Hagan and Johnston 1992, Keast and Morton 1980).

The threats to neotropical migrants during the breeding and wintering seasons reflect seasonal changes in vulnerability; but breeding and wintering constitute no more than two-thirds of a migrant's life. The migratory period also poses great ecological, behavioral, and physiological challenges to birds (Kaiser 1992, Winker et al. 1992a, Moore and Yong 1991, Gill 1990). Risks during migration are great. Birds that travel hundreds or thousands of kilometers need to rest and refuel. During these stop-overs, migrants must be able to overcome the obstacles of new and unknown habitats and unpredictable resources (e.g. food and cover) while maintaining or increasing fat reserves and avoiding predators. An understanding of this phase is also critical to comprehensive conservation efforts on behalf of migratory landbirds. Yet the ecology of migration remains inadequately studied and its relevance to conservation is only beginning to be recognized (Moore et al. *in press*).

Migratory landbirds employ a variety of migration strategies. The timing, routes and distances of migratory flight may differ from species to species and even from individual to individual (Gauthreaux 1982). During the spring and fall, migrants can be seen all over North America. There are, however, sites known to experience predictably heavy visitation by migrants. These stop-over concentration areas are generally related to major physiographic elements such as large peninsulas, bays, lakes, mountains, or ecological

barriers (e.g. the Gulf of Mexico).

Two factors combine to make stop-over concentration sites both ecologically interesting and critical to conservation. First, high densities of migrants increase the potential for direct and indirect competition and increase the relative importance of all available resources (Winker et al. 1992b, Moore and Yong 1991). It follows that loss of resources through human manipulation of the environment could affect a large proportion of the entire population. Second, the majority of the concentration sites in North America are found in coastal areas that are experiencing the fastest human population growth on the continent.

In this report we present an overview and results of the first phase of a two-year ecological study of fall migrants at a known stop-over concentration site on the lower Delmarva Peninsula (Northampton County, Virginia).

#### STUDY BACKGROUND AND JUSTIFICATION

Bounded by the Chesapeake Bay to the west and undeveloped Atlantic barrier islands to the east, the lower Delmarva Peninsula has long been recognized as a significant stop-over area for migrating birds of all kinds (Rusling 1936). This area is included in the Western Hemisphere Shorebird Reserve Network and is home to the Kiptopeke songbird banding and hawk observation station established by the Virginia Society of Ornithology 29 years ago. Giving further confirmation of the ecological value of the lower Delmarva for fall migrants, the U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service established the Eastern Shore National Wildlife Refuge at the peninsula tip specifically for the conservation of migratory birds.

Unlike the Cape May Peninsula to the north, intensive study of fall migrants on the lower Delmarva did not begin until 1991. A regional study of the geographic distribution of fall migrants on the Cape May and Delmarva peninsulas was initiated in that year (Mabey et al. *in prep.*). While some general regional patterns of migrant abundance were identified in that study, local landscape and habitat associations were obscured by the study's large scale geographic approach.

Stop-over concentrations on the lower Delmarva differ from other coastal concentration areas such as the northern Gulf Coast and the Cape May Peninsula for at least two reasons. First, neotropical migrants that stop on the Delmarva do not appear to face any immediate major ecological barriers that would necessitate extremely long non-stop flights.

Second, relatively more short-distance migrants (those birds that winter in southern U.S.) appear to use the Delmarva as a stop-over site than use the Cape May peninsula or the Gulf Coast (P. Kerlinger *pers. comm.*, M. Woodrey *pers. comm.*). Although this is likely to be a result of simple geography, the large numbers of short distance migrants add a unique dimension to stop-over ecology on the lower Delmarva. The presence of short-distance migrants increases the overall ecological value of Eastern Shore habitat and may provide more potential prey for raptor species. Interactions between short- and long-distance migrants during stop-over has never been thoroughly addressed (Winker et al. 1992b).

Further studies of stop-over ecology on the lower Delmarva will not only be important to a broader understanding of migration but will play a significant role in Northampton County's conservation initiatives. With the adoption of their comprehensive plan in 1990, Northampton officially recognized the value of the area's unique natural resources as the current and historical base of the county's economy and culture (Northampton County Joint Local Planning Commission 1990). Agriculture is the county's leading industry; in 1987, the county's 119 commercial farms generated \$43,085,703 (Northampton Co. Planning and Zoning Dept. 1989). Shell and finfishing are also critical to the local economy, representing an estimated 10-20% of Virginia's bay region industry. In 1988, the bay region brought in \$62,096,849 worth of seafood. Forestry has the potential for being the third most important economic base in the county but provided only \$500,000 directly to the community in 1988, although the estimated "value" of timber sales for that year is over fourteen million dollars (Northampton Co. Planning and Zoning Dept. 1989). There is also growth potential the nature- and historic-based tourism.

Land use patterns in Northampton County have remained relatively stable over the past century. In 1986 about 35% of land area was in cropland, 20% in forest, 39% in marsh/wetland, and only 5% was classified as urban, industrial, or other (Northampton Co. Planning and Zoning Dept. 1989). Agricultural lands do not appear to be increasing because the best soils are already in cultivation. Forestlands are decreasing slowly as they are transferred into "alternate uses", mostly home sites.

Rapid change in the landscape is, however, on the horizon. In eleven miles of bayside shoreline from the tip of the peninsula north, almost seven have already been subdivided for development. The majority of this land is forested and may be one of the most important areas for migrating landbirds on the entire Delmarva Peninsula (Mabey et al. *in prep.*). Northampton County will face a radical population shift as vacation and retirement homes are built over the next 5-10 years.



In keeping with the Northampton County comprehensive plan's commitment to managed growth, a Special Area Management Plan (SAMP) was initiated in 1992 with funding from the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration's (NOAA) Office of Coastal Resource Management. In the context of the SAMP, Northampton County has acknowledged migratory landbirds and their habitats to be of significant conservation value. By including neotropical migrants as a resource to protect and enhance through new, enforceable policies, Northampton County is recognizing the international importance of the Delmarva Peninsula as a stop-over concentration area as well as the integral role birds and their habitat play in the ecological health of the region. The SAMP seeks to control the cumulative and secondary impacts of coastal development by "maintaining maximum vegetation cover for wildlife habitat and nutrient removal from non-point runoff" and by steering development away from "sensitive wildlife habitat and groundwater recharge areas and toward areas with greatest carrying capacity" (Virginia Coastal Resources Management Program: Coastal Zone Management Act Section 309 Final Strategy, VACOE, Grant No. NA17OZ0359-01). The SAMP effort will also be directed toward increasing public access and promoting appropriate nature tourism for the area. To achieve its goals, Northampton County has identified the need for detailed scientific data that will classify sensitive wildlife areas and assess the value of native vegetation in relation to wildlife. The continuing project introduced here has been designed to fill that need.

## PROJECT OBJECTIVES

The overriding objective of our study is to determine distribution patterns and habitat associations of migrant landbirds on the lower Delmarva Peninsula. The strength and scope of many of the SAMP's policy goals will rest on answers to the following questions:

1. Are there any geographically defined concentrations of migrants within the lower Delmarva and where are they?
2. On a habitat level, what are the characteristics of forested areas (native vegetation) that are strongly associated with fall migrants?
3. Is there any biologically significant interaction between geographic and vegetation factors that are relevant to policy development?

## OVERVIEW OF FIELD DESIGN

### **Study Area**

The first research phase of this two-year project was conducted over an eleven week period from August 17 through October 30, 1992 on the lower Delmarva Peninsula (Northampton County, Virginia; Figure 1). The study area is confined to the mainland portion of the county from Eastville-Indiantown (Lat. 37° 21') south to the tip of the peninsula (Lat. 37° 07').

### **Forest Patch Inventory**

In order to determine the feasibility of various design options, an inventory of all forested patches within the study area was conducted in June of 1992. Infrared, aerial photographs (1:24000 scale) were used to delineate existing forest patches. A full-scale mylar overlay of forest patches was produced from photographs and reductions were produced from this image (reduced image shown in Figure 2). Each patch was individually coded and its area determined using an electromagnetic digitizing tablet. The maximum and minimum distance of each patch was then measured to the bayside, the seaside, and to the peninsula tip. All forest patches were then visited individually over a two-day period to determine forest type (pine, hardwood, mixed), approximate forest age (clearcut to mature), apparent understory density, residential status, and ease of access.

**Figure 1:** Map of Delmarva Peninsula, study area indicated in black. Study area extends 20 km from the tip of the peninsula to Cherrystone Inlet.

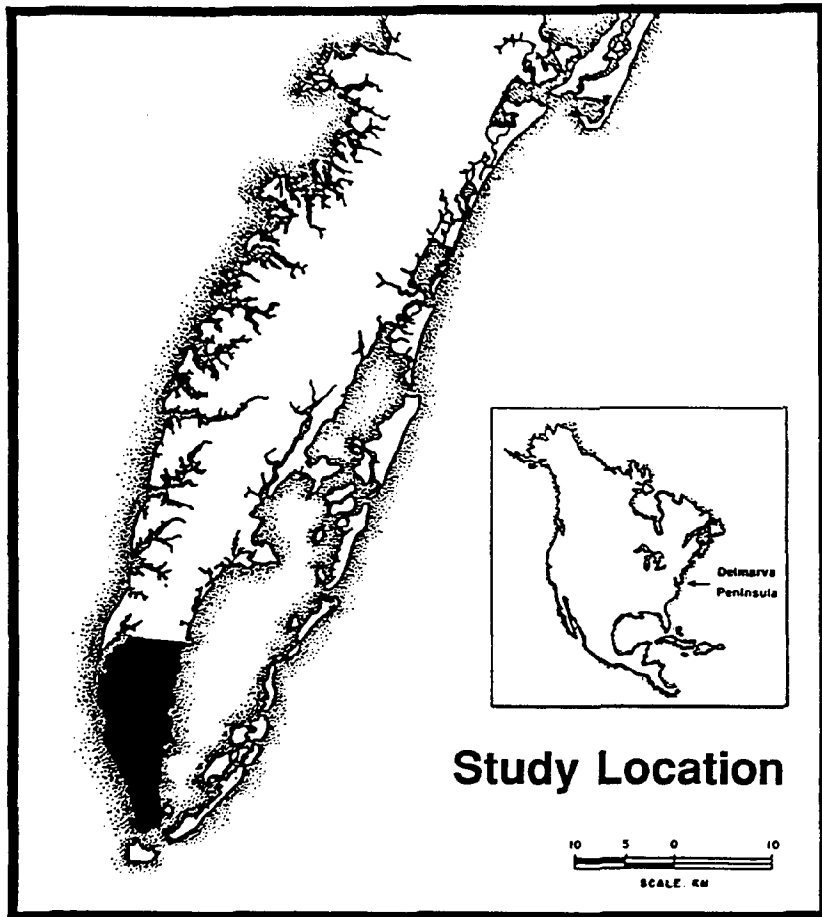


Figure 1

**Figure 2:** Configuration of forested patches (indicated in black) within the study area. Non-forested area is primarily agricultural land.

DISTRIBUTION OF FOREST PATCHES  
(Within Study Area)

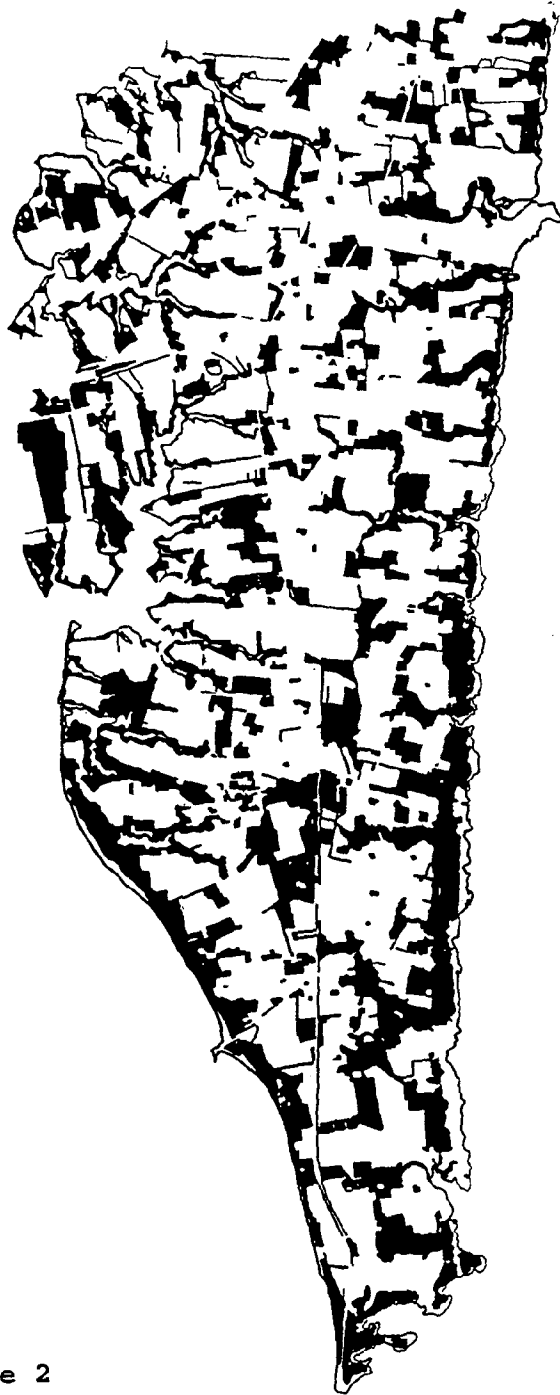


Figure 2

Over 250 forested patches were delineated within the study area (this does not include prominent forest bands near the tip on seaside and bayside margins). Over 85% of forest patches were less than 20 ha in size. In addition, greater than 90% of the forested acreage in the management area was pine dominated or pine/hardwood mix. Most patches were of cutting age (majority > 40 years old) and only 4 clearcuts were found over the entire area. The lack of variation in patch size, age class and forest type clearly limited opportunities to conclusively address particular habitat parameters. In fact, results from the inventory suggested that only pine or pine/hardwood patches are available in the quantities needed to complete a full design and those only in two size classes (4 - 8 ha and 9 - 13 ha).

### **Conceptual Design**

In terms of the broad range of objectives (geographic patterns needed for zoning ordinances, bird/vegetation relationships needed for vegetation ordinances), the spatial scales of concern range from individual layers of vegetation to the entire management area. Meeting the information needs of these objectives requires a design capable of collecting and integrating data over a broad area but with a fine level of resolution.

In addition to examining distribution patterns over the two focal scales (geographic, vegetation-level), we identified a series of intermediate scales relevant to the ultimate policy objectives of Northampton County's SAMP. We examined distribution patterns within 4 nested scales: 1) within vegetational strata, 2) within forest patches, 3) between forest patches, and 4) between geographic areas. Experimental units were balanced both within and between spatial levels using a hierarchical experimental design. This approach allows for the assessment of spatial patterns within a given scale and the simultaneous integration of patterns between scales. This was accomplished using a single type of information gathering unit designed to resolve distribution differences at the finest scale and then aggregating these units to reveal information over broader scales (Figure 3).

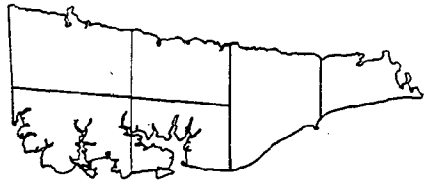
### **Design Implementation**

The sample units were 30 m fixed-radius plots. Survey plots were not two-dimensional, but rather cylinders extending from ground level up through the forest canopy. All birds detected were identified to species and placed in 2 m intervals up to 8 m (an 8 m height corresponds to the vertical limit of the vegetation measuring technique used, see below). Birds detected above 8 m were placed either in the canopy proper or in the remaining subcanopy depending on their vertical position (Figure 4). Six survey plots were

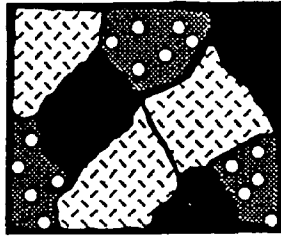
**Figure 3:** Conceptual model of nested design illustrating the four spatial scales included in study.



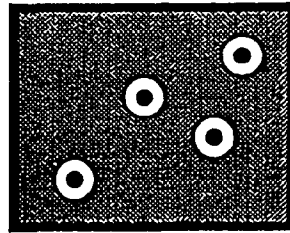
# Scaling Distribution



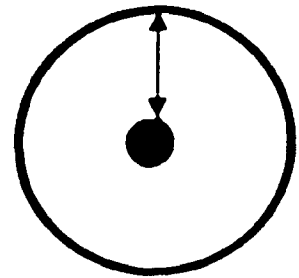
Geographic



Between Patch



Within Patch



Vegetational Strata

Figure 3

**Figure 4:** Illustration of cylindrical survey plot. Layers represent forest strata assigned to all birds detected.

# Diagram of Survey Plot

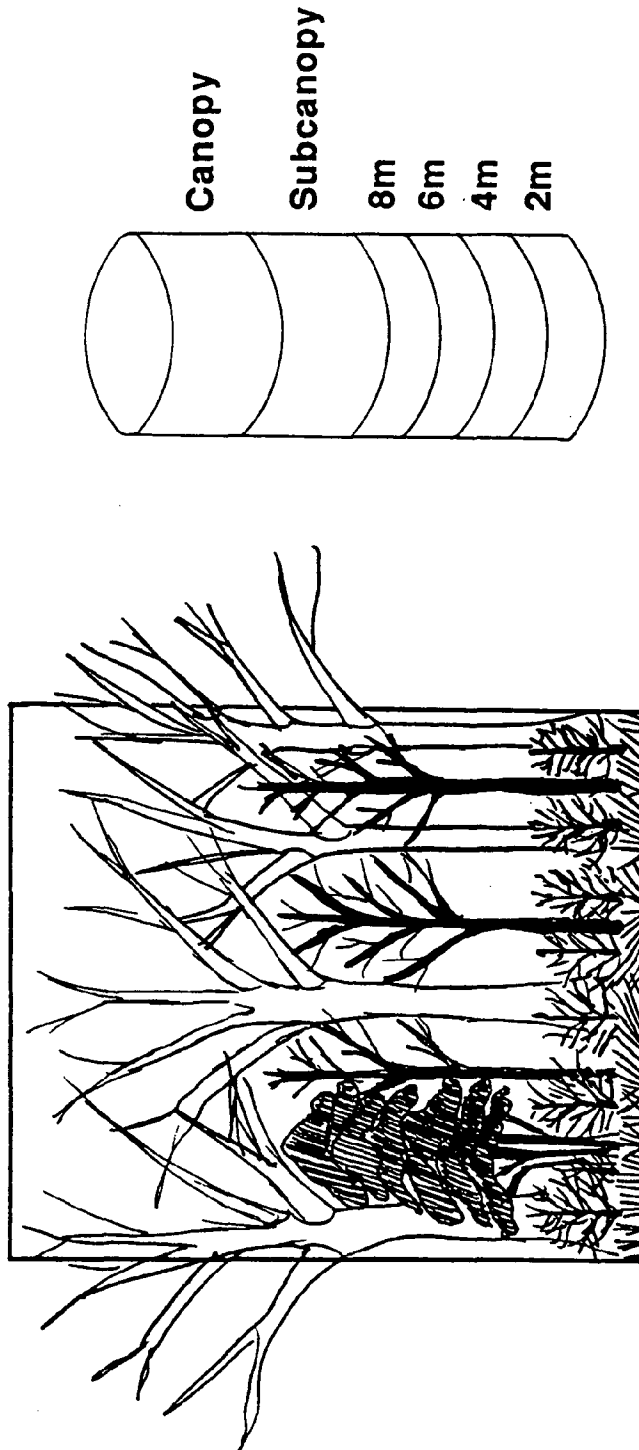


Figure 4

arranged along a "survey route" for all forest patches included in the study. In order to examine the distribution of birds within forest patches, the six survey plots were divided evenly between "edge" plots (survey plots with centers 30 m from edges such that plot edges were tangent to the forest edge) and "interior" plots (survey plots with centers positioned away from patch edges), (Figure 5).

Although there were many patch characteristics of interest, the forest patch inventory established that patch size was the most promising. Only two patch sizes were common and had a broad enough distribution to be included in the study. Twenty-four forest patches were chosen within the study area that were categorized as small (4 - 8 ha; 12 patches) or large (9 - 13 ha; 12 patches). As much as possible, forest type and age were controlled across the study area.

To examine broad-scale distribution patterns, the study area was divided into 6 "geographic zones" (Figure 6). Boundaries for these zones were established at 5 km intervals moving up the peninsula from the tip and the two upper zones where the peninsula widens were split down the center. Two spatial replicates of both small and large forest patches were chosen for study within each geographic zone (Figure 7). This approach allows us to detect true patch size and geographic patterns.

In summary, this design allows for the assessment of several different levels of spatial variation using a hierarchy of nested information. Birds detected are placed within vertical strata in points that are located either on patch edges or interiors, but occur within large or small patches that in turn are located within some larger geographic area.

**Figure 5:** Example patch map illustrating survey route, experimental plots, compass bearings, and dimensions.

# Within-Patch Distribution

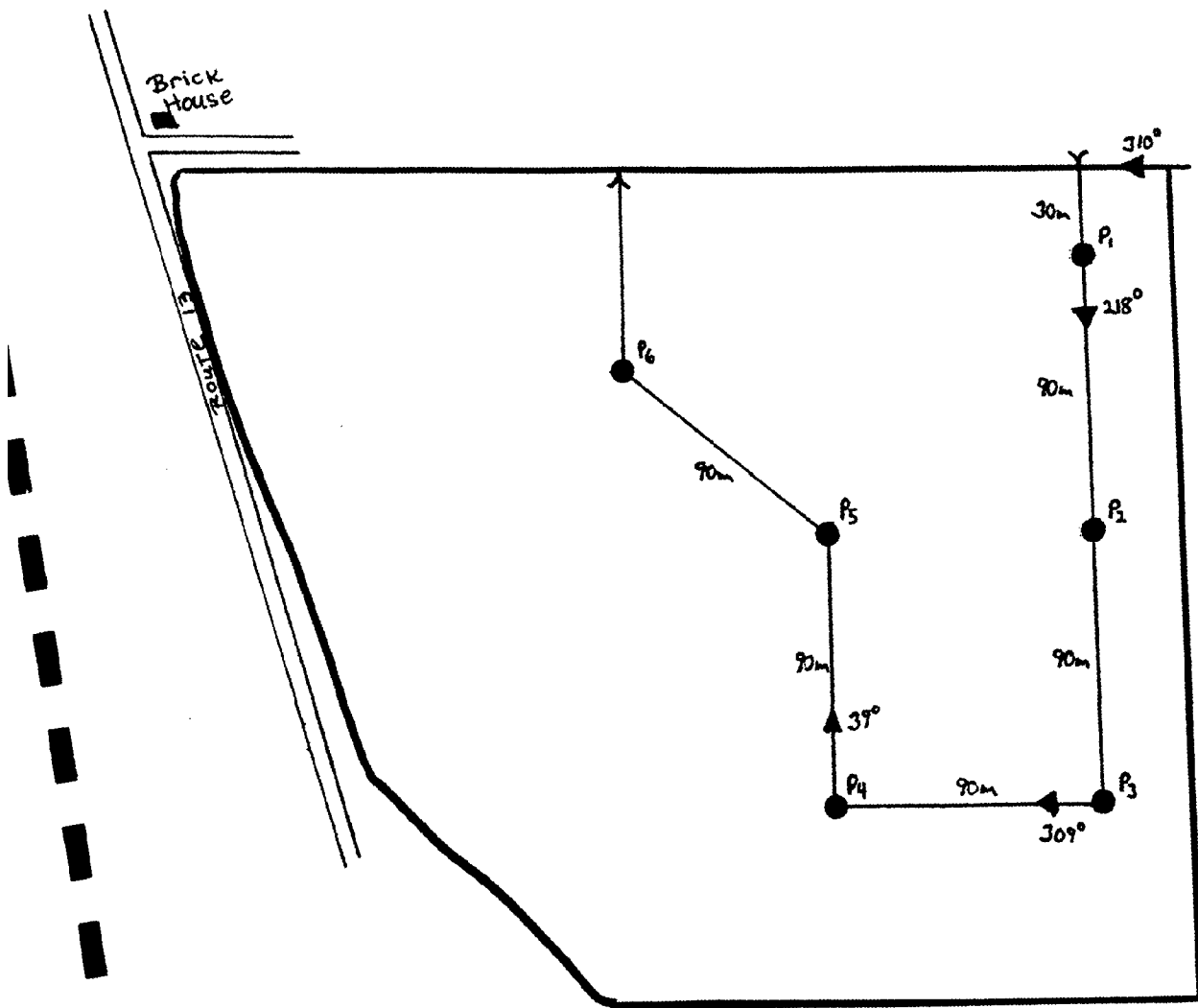


Figure 5

**Figure 6:** Delineation of six geographic zones within the study area. Zone boundaries are set at 5 km intervals from the peninsula tip.

LOCATION OF SIX GEOGRAPHIC ZONES

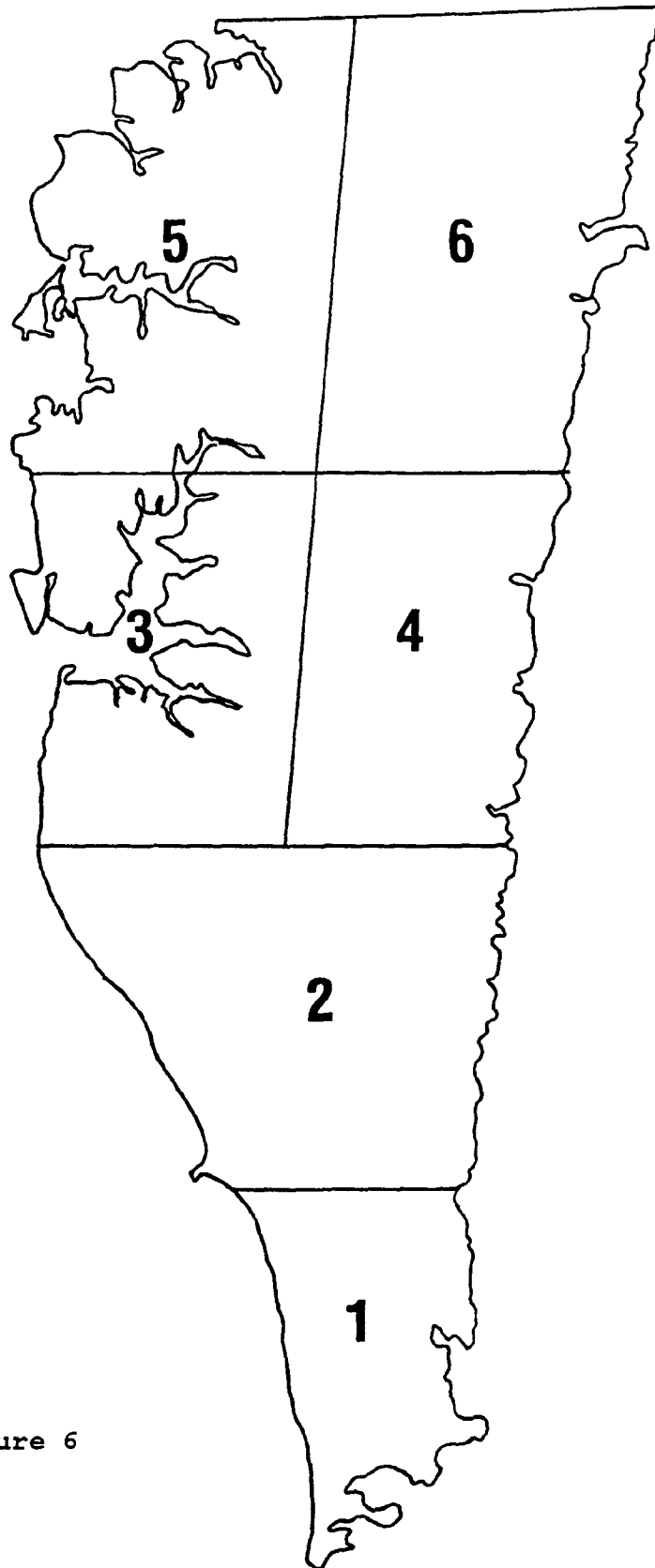


Figure 6



**Figure 7:** Illustration of geographic design indicating spatial replicates of small and large patches within zones. Configuration allows for separation of patch size and geographic effects.

# Between-Patch Distribution

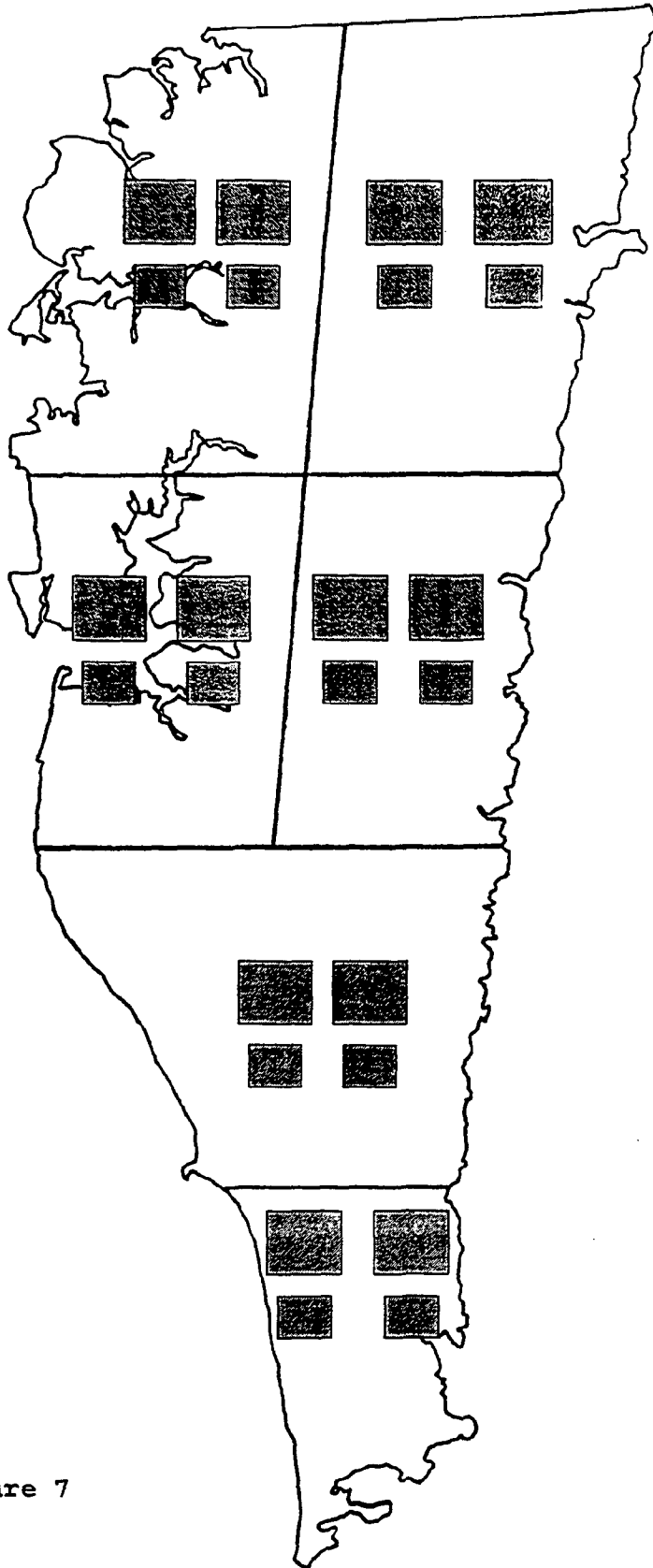


Figure 7

### **Additional Investigations**

To strengthen the geographic design, two additional investigations were conducted. As may be seen in Figure 2, Zones 1 and 2 have prominent forest corridors along their bay and seaside margins. The habitat along the bayside has long been recognized as an important corridor for reverse morning flight and is the focus of most development currently planned for the lower peninsula. In order to investigate the relative importance of the bayside habitats, six survey routes each containing 6 survey plots were located both within the bayside and the seaside corridors.

During the course of the forest inventory, 6 forest patches were located that were greater than 20 ha in size. Access to 4 of these "big" patches was obtained and they were used to investigate possible patch-size effects that may not be detected within the limited range of patch sizes used in the geographic design. Two 6-point routes were established within each of the 4 big patches.

### **FIELD METHODOLOGY**

Field work was conducted within lower Northampton County between 1 August and 31 October 1992. Initial site establishment and setup was completed for all patches by 15 August. Scaled field maps were produced from 1:24000 scale aerial photographs for all forest patches included in the study. Within each patch map, survey routes were drawn with three survey plots tangential to the forest edge (edge plots) and three plots > 60 m from the edge (interior plots), except in the few cases where the geometry of a patch was prohibitive. Plot centers were separated by a minimum of 75 m. Compass bearings and route dimensions were indicated on field maps to be used during setup (see Figure 5). Survey routes were established on the ground by using a compass for direction and pacing off transect dimensions. Routes were marked using colored flagging tape and plot centers were indicated with individually numbered wire flags. Plot perimeters were delineated with colored flagging tape for reference during surveys.

Surveys of experimental plots were conducted 4 d/wk between 17 August and 30 October. Because of the spatial and temporal dynamics of migration, it was essential that all patches for a given design be surveyed as close in time as possible. This practice reduced the influence of day to day changes in bird abundance on observed distribution patterns. Forest patches were divided into two groups: 1) patches included in the geographic design (24 survey routes), and 2) Bay/seaside forested corridors and big patches (20 survey routes).

Group 1 and 2 patches were surveyed on separate days such that each was surveyed 2 d/wk in an alternating fashion.

For survey purposes, patches within each group were subdivided into 6 subgroups. Six field observers were used to survey patches and patch subgroups were ordered in rounds (rounds are equivalent to 6 field days); each observer surveyed each patch during a round. This was done to gain maximum dispersion of observer bias.

All patches for a given day were surveyed once in the morning and again in the afternoon (i.e. an observer surveyed a set of patches in the morning and the same set later that day). Morning surveys began 0.5 hr after sunrise and were concluded within 4 hr. Afternoon surveys were timed to be completed at least 0.5 hr before sunset. The survey order of patches within subgroups was randomly determined to reduce the impact of time of day on distribution patterns. Surveys were not conducted during heavy winds or rain, however, we were able to complete all planned morning surveys (22 surveys/plot) and missed only 4 - 6 afternoon surveys (16 - 18 surveys/plot).

During each visit to a forest patch, observers walked along survey routes until reaching numbered survey plots. All experimental plots were quietly searched for a 5-min period and all birds detected were recorded within appropriate strata. Aural identification was allowed for resident species only. No playbacks or pishes were used because they inflate surveys within fixed areas, result in species-specific biases, and make placement of birds within strata invalid.

We quantified the vegetational characteristics of each study plot ( $N = 264$ ) by measuring vegetation volumes at 20 points within each plot. We measured vegetation in the first eight meters above the ground using the pole method described by Mills et al. (1989). This method records all vegetation within a series of 0.1 m radius cylindrical volumes centered around a pole marked into 0.1 and 0.5 m sections. At each of 20 points, we recorded the number of 0.1 m volumes in half meter layers above the ground that contained vegetation, and identified the plant in each case. Dead vegetation was noted separately. Data collected in this manner can be used to generate indices of total vegetation volume, volume in each half meter layer, and volumes of each plant species or floristic category.

## RESULTS

During the course of the 11-week study period nearly 10,800 point counts were conducted within forest patches. Surveys resulted in the detection of over 22,500 birds,

representant 119 species. Greater than 98% of the birds detected were identified to species. Remaining individuals could not be positively identified due to unavoidable circumstances (e.g. visual obstructions, poor visibility conditions, movement of birds away from the observer). All observations with positive identifications have been separated into five dependent variable groups:

1. All birds and species
2. Resident birds
3. Short-distance migrants
4. Long-distance migrants
5. Individual species with greater than 70 observations in the field.

For the purposes of this study, resident species are those that have stable, year-round populations in our study area. Short-distance migrants are those species that generally do not migrate south of North America and may have both breeding and wintering populations in our study area. Long-distance migrants spend the winter in tropical and subtropical America, generally south of the United States, and may have breeding populations in our study area. (See Appendix I for a complete list of species and their classifications.) We have attempted to classify these species based on ecological factors. It is, therefore, important to note that not all species fit cleanly into these groups. Some species (e.g. Yellow-rumped or Pine Warbler) have extensive winter ranges that stretch from Virginia to sub-tropical America while others (e.g. Blue Jay) may have resident individuals and short-distance migrants wintering within our study area.

Of the three bird categories used, long-distance migrants were the most diverse (62 species, 52.1 % of total) followed by short-distance migrants (31, 26.0%) and permanent residents (26, 21.8%). However, in terms of overall abundance, just the opposite pattern was observed. Permanent residents accounted for nearly half of all individuals detected (10,805, 48.6%) followed by short-distance (7,998, 36.0%) and long-distance migrants (3,416, 15.4%). Within individual migration categories, as well as for the entire species list as a whole, species were not equally abundant. All three bird categories were numerically dominated by relatively few species (see Figure 8 for species abundance curves). For example, 80% of the short-distance migrants were accounted for by only 4 species (including Blue Jay, Yellow-rumped Warbler, American Robin, and Golden-crowned Kinglet). Similarly, Carolina Wrens, Carolina Chickadees, Common Grackles, and Northern Cardinals combined represented over 70% of the resident birds detected. For long-distance migrants, the

**Figure 8:** Species abundance curves for resident, short-distance migrants, and long-distance migrants. Percent indicates the relative proportion of total observations accounted for by each species. Species rank is an ordering of the species within each group based on their absolute abundance (ordered from highest to lowest abundance).

# SPECIES ABUNDANCE CURVES

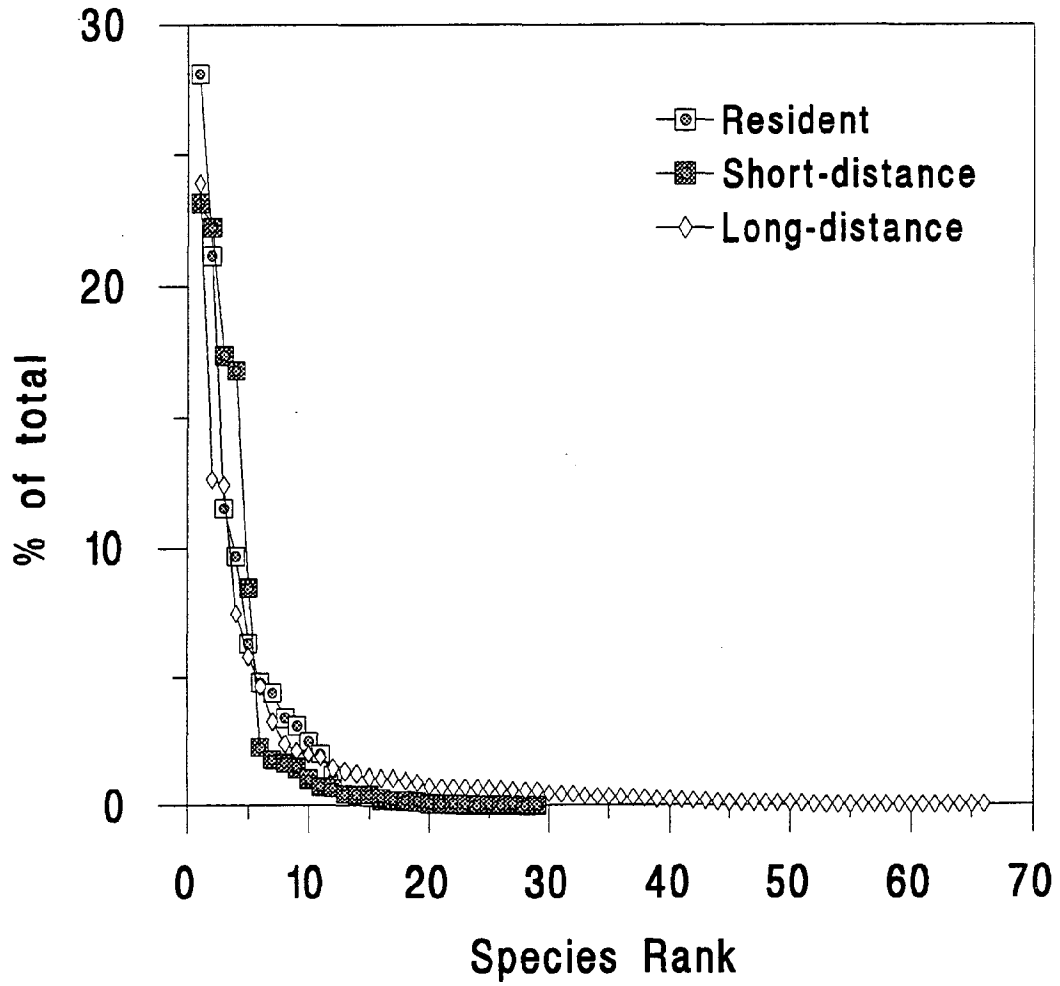


Figure 8

American Redstart was by far the most abundant species observed, representing nearly one quarter of the entire category.

Abundance patterns were used to select a representative subset of species for further analysis. All migrant species were included in subsequent analysis if they were detected 70 times or more. In addition, those resident species that were detected 70 times and were believed to be relatively sedentary were also included (see Appendix I). Those species that were relatively common but tend to move over large areas in flocks during the fall (e.g. Common Grackles, American Crows) were excluded. What follows is a series of temporal and spatial analyses of the three general migration groups and those individual species that were detected with enough frequency to stand alone.

### **Temporal Patterns**

*Seasonal* -- The frequency of detection for all bird groups and many of the individual species varied with season. Figure 9 illustrates the seasonal patterns in species richness and abundance for individual groups. If we split the field season into an early (weeks 1 - 6) and late period (weeks 7 - 11), all of the bird groups exhibit a significant seasonal patterns in detection frequency (all G-statistics  $> 200$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ). For the two migration groups, the patterns indicate that long-distance migrants tend to move through the study area early in the season, followed by short-distance migrants somewhat later in the fall. Nearly 95% of the short-distance migrants were detected after week 7 as compared to less than 25% for long-distance migrants. As with long-distance migrants, resident species were detected significantly more often in the early period compared to the late period. We believe that this pattern reflects a seasonal change in detectability (due to changes in activity levels) rather than a reduction in overall abundance.

Most of the individual species showed seasonal patterns similar to those of their respective groups. However, some exceptions did occur. Figures 10 - 12 present a general overview of seasonal patterns for selected species. All of the resident species were detected significantly more often during the early period (defined as above) than expected based on the number of surveys (all chi-squared statistics  $> 14.3$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ) except Red-bellied Woodpeckers. Red-bellied Woodpeckers were observed with significantly greater frequency during the late period (chi-squared statistic  $> 200$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ). All of the short-distance migrants were detected comparatively more often during the late period (all chi-squared statistics  $> 95$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ) with five of nine species having no observations during the early period. Seven of nine species of long-distance migrants were detected significantly more



**Figure 9:** Seasonal patterns in species richness and overall abundance for residents, short-distance migrants, and long-distance migrants. Percent indicates the relative proportion of total observations (for the entire field season) for each group accounted for during a given week. Week one is the third week of August and week 11 is the last week of October.

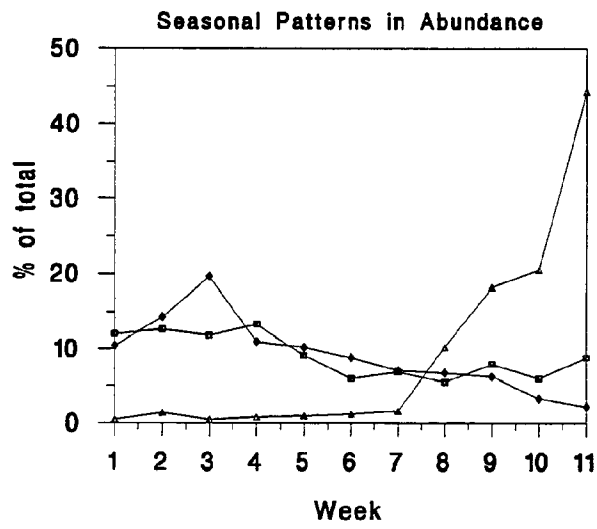
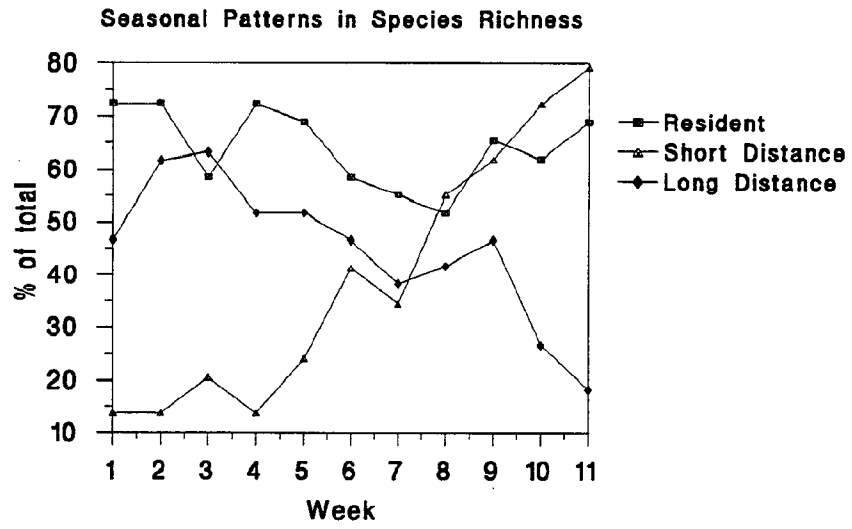


Figure 9

**Figures 10 - 12:** Seasonal patterns in detection rates for selected resident, short-distance migrants, and long-distance migrants. Percent indicates the relative proportion of total observations accounted for by a given week. Week one is the third week of August and week 11 is the last week of October.

## Seasonal Patterns in Detection Frequency For Selected Resident Species

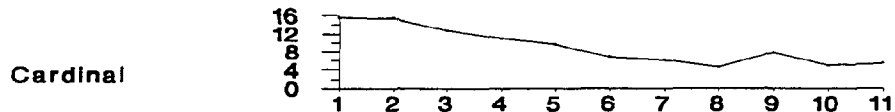
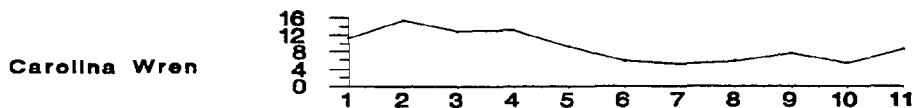
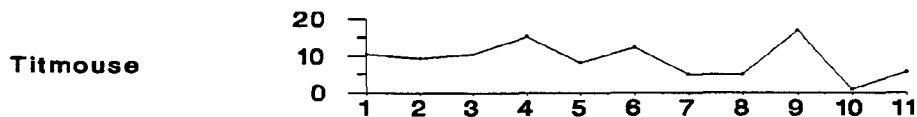
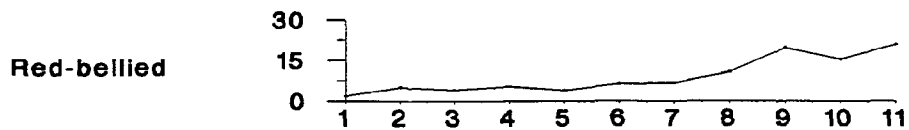


Figure 10

## Seasonal Patterns in Detection Frequency For Selected Short-distance Migrants

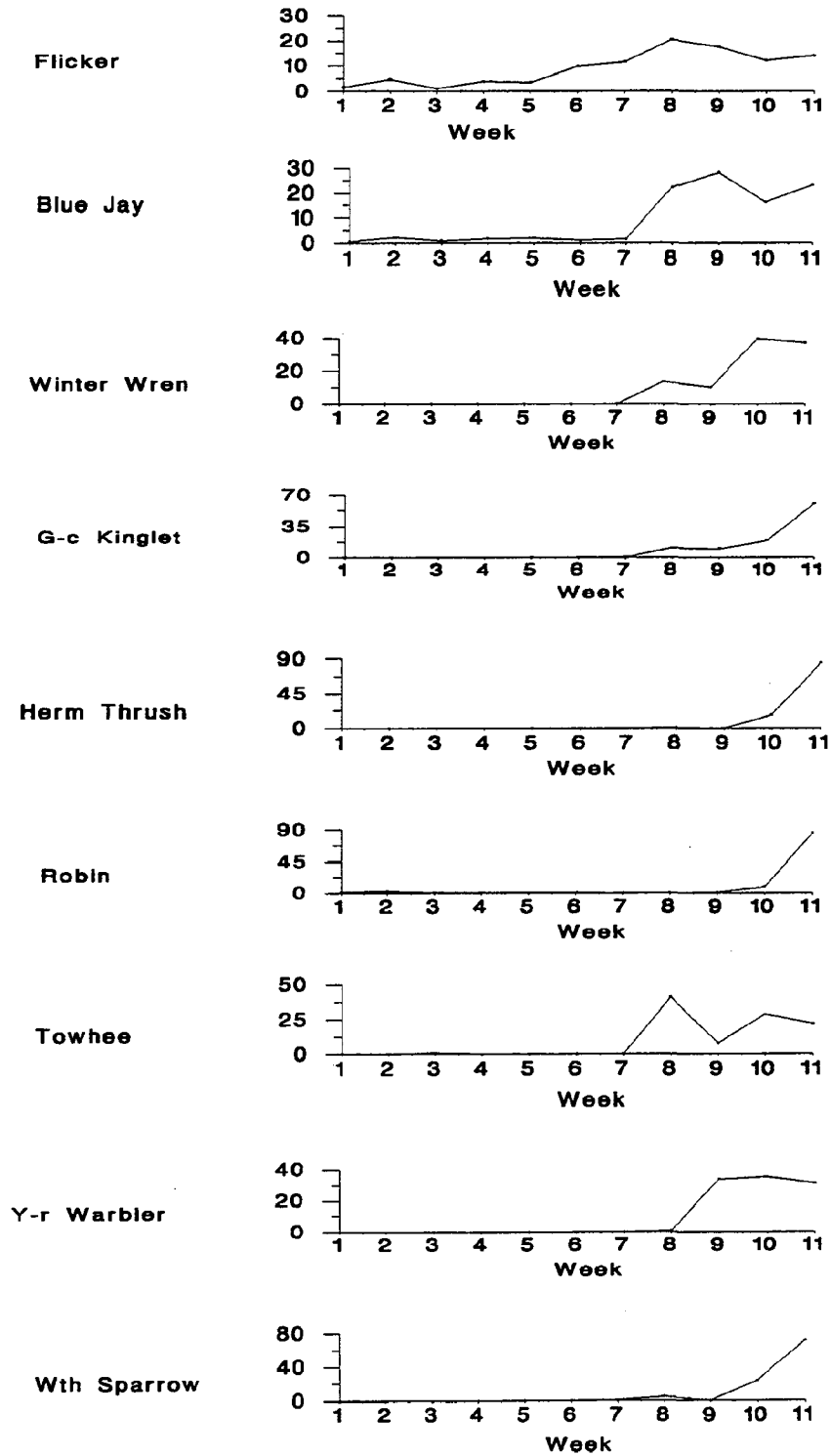


Figure 11

## Seasonal Patterns in Detection Frequency For selected Long-distance Migrants

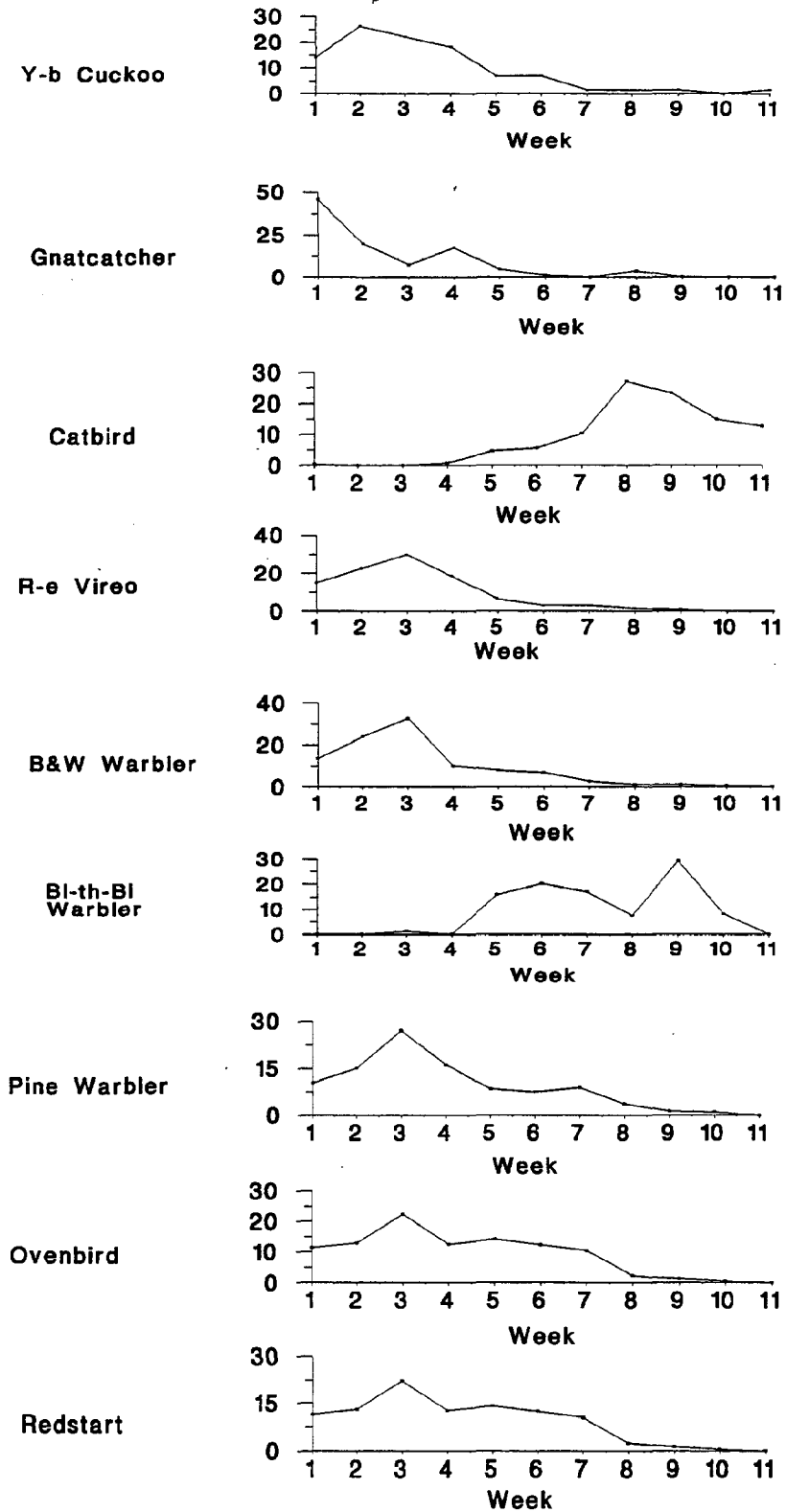


Figure 12

often during the early period (all chi-squared statistics  $> 46$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ) with only Black-throated -blue Warblers and Gray Catbirds moving through later in the season (both chi-squared statistics  $> 70$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ). An accounting of seasonal patterns for all species detected is presented in Appendix II.

*Daily* -- Despite a very strong morning bias in detection frequency for all three bird groups, none of the groups exhibited a significant time of day pattern (Table 1). This result is due to the high degree of site to site variation in detection frequency. In other words, although more birds were detected in the morning for all sites, the total number of birds detected varied considerably between patches.

Although 20 of 23 species were detected with higher frequency in the morning rather than afternoon survey periods, time of day had a statistically significant influence on relatively few of the species (see Table 1). Carolina Chickadee, Blue Jay, Golden-crowned Kinglet, Yellow-billed Cuckoo, and Pine Warbler showed a significant morning bias with Northern Flicker, Yellow-rumped Warbler, and Gray Catbird having notable trends. Carolina Wrens and Northern Cardinals showed a significant afternoon bias in detection frequency.

### **Spatial Patterns**

*Geographic Patterns* -- All three of the general bird groups showed distribution patterns on a geographic scale that were significantly different from that expected by chance (all chi-squared statistics  $> 90$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ), (see Figure 13). Both short- and long-distance migrants, as a whole, seemed to be concentrated within 10 km of the peninsula tip with relatively fewer birds detected with increasing distance away from the tip. This distribution pattern is consistent with the idea that migrants of both types are using habitats near the tip of the peninsula before crossing the mouth of the Chesapeake Bay. Resident birds, as a group, showed the opposite distribution and reached their highest densities in those areas farthest from the tip. A clear explanation of their tip-avoidance pattern is not readily apparent except that forested habitats with the lower, narrow portion of the peninsula may be of poor quality due to low soil moisture and frequent salt spray.

**Table 1:** Comparisons between morning and afternoon surveys for bird groups and selected species. Data for stands within the six geographic zones only were used in analysis.

Bird Group	Morning	Afternoon	F	P
	X ± S.E.	X ± S.E.		
<b>Resident</b>				
Red-bellied	7.0 ± 1.27	5.2 ± 0.93	1.36	NS
Chickadee	32.2 ± 2.22	20.3 ± 1.63	21.97	<0.001
Carolina Wren	15.8 ± 3.23	25.6 ± 1.89	34.72	<0.001
Cardinal	9.6 ± 1.96	10.4 ± 1.51	10.03	<0.01
Richness	10.8 ± 0.34	9.6 ± 0.35	0.32	NS
Abundance	173.3 ± 17.47	111.8 ± 16.51	0.17	NS
<b>Short-distance</b>				
Flicker	11.3 ± 2.23	6.6 ± 1.43	3.10	0.05 < <0.1
Blue Jay	31.3 ± 3.25	19.8 ± 3.10	6.51	<0.05
Winter Wren	1.2 ± 0.35	0.8 ± 0.24	0.94	NS
G-c Kinglet	22.1 ± 2.80	13.5 ± 2.39	5.49	<0.05
Hermit Thrush	2.3 ± 0.48	1.3 ± 0.58	1.91	NS
American Robin	16.5 ± 5.24	28.4 ± 8.06	1.53	NS
Y-r Warbler	28.8 ± 8.75	13.0 ± 2.84	2.92	0.05 < <0.1
R-s Towhee	1.0 ± 0.27	0.8 ± 0.26	0.11	NS
Wh-th Sparrow	2.9 ± 1.04	2.7 ± 0.94	0.02	NS
Richness	10.1 ± 0.60	8.9 ± 0.52	0.01	NS
Abundance	120.4 ± 14.52	97.5 ± 9.25	0.56	NS
<b>Long-distance</b>				
Y-b Cuckoo	0.8 ± 0.16	0.2 ± 0.09	4.36	<0.05
Gnatcatcher	0.6 ± 0.26	0.7 ± 0.28	0.05	NS
Gray Catbird	4.0 ± 1.03	2.0 ± 0.48	2.97	0.05 < <0.1
Red-eyed Vireo	2.8 ± 0.55	1.2 ± 0.27	7.10	<0.05
Bl&Wh Warbler	4.9 ± 0.77	4.0 ± 0.73	0.56	NS
Bl-th-bl Warbler	2.2 ± 0.40	1.5 ± 0.32	1.98	NS
Pine Warbler	6.7 ± 1.41	3.3 ± 0.79	4.47	<0.05
Ovenbird	1.5 ± 0.32	1.0 ± 0.16	1.66	NS
American Redstart	13.0 ± 3.41	8.8 ± 2.18	1.26	NS
Richness	14.9 ± 1.28	11.0 ± 0.60	1.05	NS
Abundance	48.6 ± 7.40	30.3 ± 3.78	0.277	NS



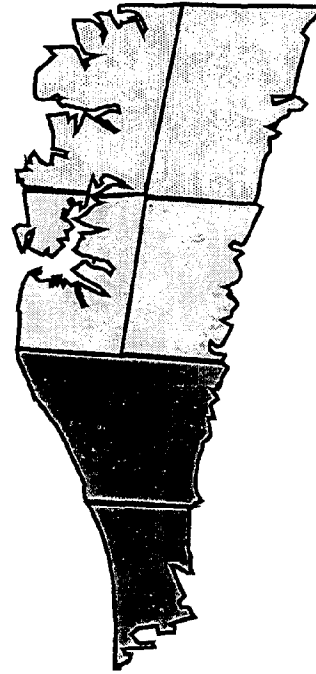
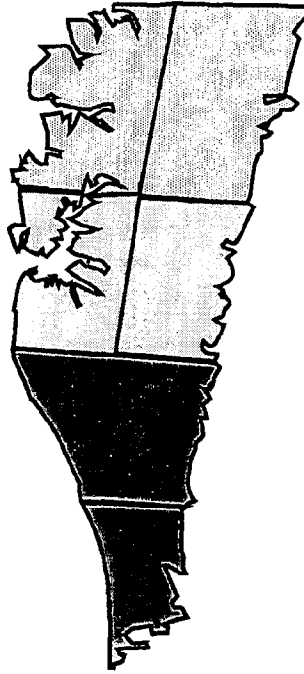
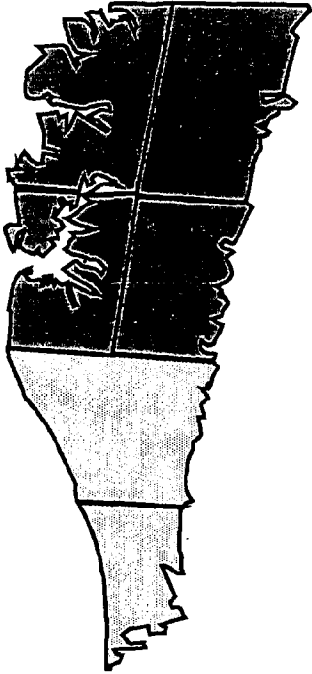
**Figure 13:** Geographic patterns for resident, short-distance migrants, and long-distance migrants. Percentage values indicate the relative proportion of birds within the entire study area that were accounted for by particular regions. The symbols \*\*\* beside group names indicate significance to the 0.001 level for Chi-squared statistics comparing observed distribution patterns with an expected even distribution.

# Geographic Patterns for Bird Groups

Resident \*\*\*

Short-distance \*\*\*

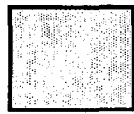
Long-distance \*\*\*



## Key to Color Codes for Geographic Maps



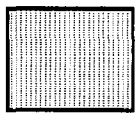
0 - 10%



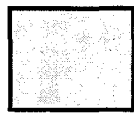
20 - 30%



40 - 50%



10 - 20%



30 - 40%



>50%

With relatively few exceptions, distribution patterns for the individual species examined were in agreement with their respective groups. All of the resident species were either evenly distributed across the study area (as was the case for Red-bellied Woodpeckers) or were skewed away from the tip (Figure 14). Most of the short-distance migrant species were concentrated near the tip with the notable exception of Golden-crowned Kinglets and Hermit Thrush that were distributed away from the tip and White-throated Sparrows that were evenly distributed (Figure 15). All of the long-distance migrants except Ovenbirds and Pine Warblers were concentrated near the tip (Figure 16). Both these exceptions were detected most frequently in the center of the study area.

With only one notable exception, none of the selected species exhibited an interaction between geographic distribution and time of day. This result indicates that very little directional redistribution occurred after the initiation of morning surveys. This is an important result that suggest that most migrants have reached their stop-over habitats by 7:00 AM and that morning surveys after this time give reasonable reflections of habitat utilization patterns. The result also suggest that the time of day effect discussed earlier is primarily caused by changes in activity levels (and related detection rates) rather than significant, within-day movements out of the study area.

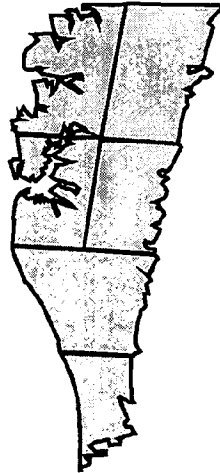
The Golden-crowned Kinglet was the only species that appeared to relocate throughout the day. This species showed a significant time of day effect, a significant distribution away from the tip, and a time of day by geographic distribution interaction. By examining the relative distribution of kinglets observed during the morning and afternoon survey periods, there appears to be a net redistribution of birds to the north. The combination of these distribution patterns seems to suggest the kinglets are moving to the north in the early morning (before 7:00 AM) and that they are continuing this movement later into the morning when compared to the other migrants.

Within the forested corridors along the edge of the peninsula, all three bird groups had significantly higher detection frequencies within the bayside plots (all chi-squared statistics  $> 100$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ). Long-distance migrants, as a whole, had the largest bias with nearly 65% detected along the bayside. Individual species exhibited all possible patterns but of the species with significant patterns, 75% were detected more frequently along the bayside (including Red-bellied Woodpeckers, Blue Jays, Chickadees, Titmice, Golden-crowned Kinglets, Robins, Black-and-white Warblers, Black-throated-blue Warblers, and Redstarts). Robins showed the greatest bias with over 95% of the individuals detected along the bayside.

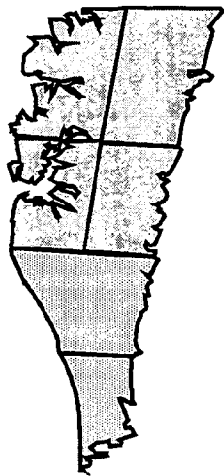
**Figures 14 - 16:** Geographic patterns for selected species. Percentage values indicate the relative proportion of birds within the entire study area that were accounted for by particular regions. Significance values (generated from Chi-square tests) are given by symbols located beside species names: no symbol indicates no significant difference from expected, (\*) indicates significance to the 0.05 level, (\*\*) indicates significance to the 0.01 level, and (\*\*\*) indicates significance to the 0.001 level.

# Geographic Patterns for Selected Resident Species

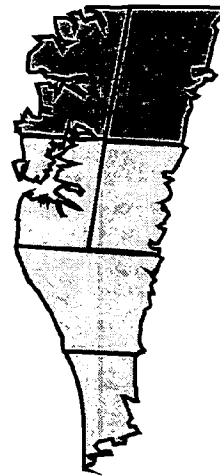
Red-bellied



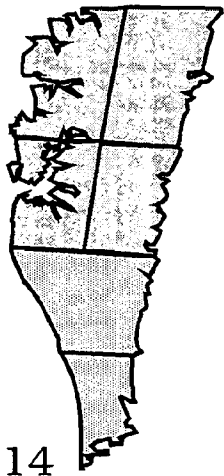
Chickadee \*\*\*



Titmouse \*



Car. Wren \*



Cardinal \*\*\*

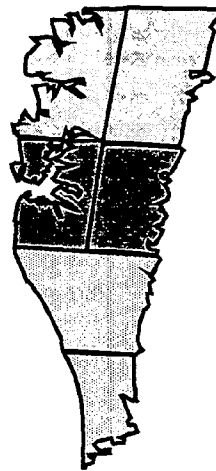


Figure 14

# Geographic Patterns for Selected Short-distance Migrants

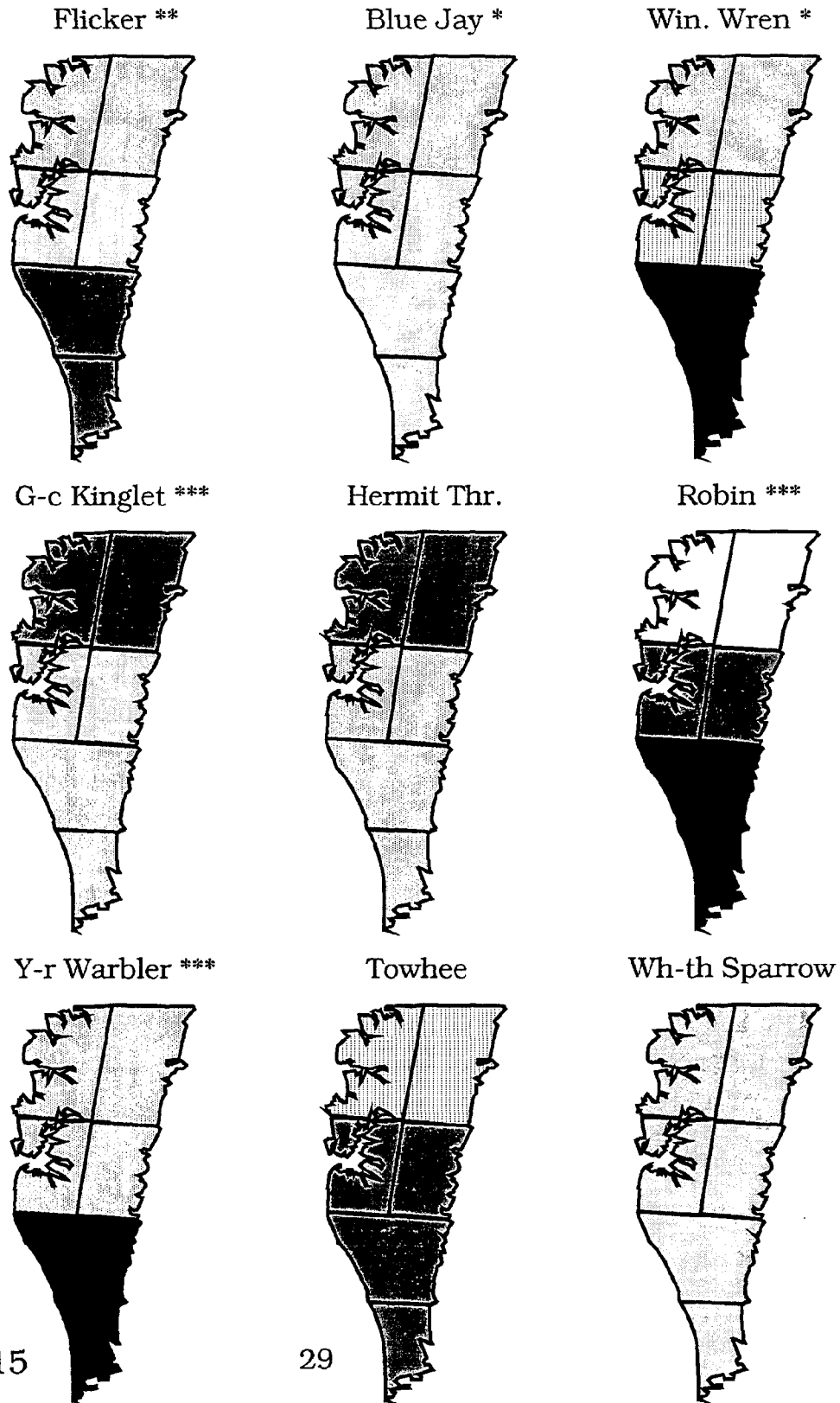


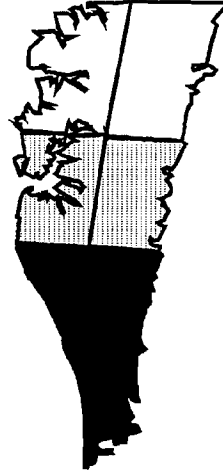
Figure 15

# Geographic Patterns for Selected Long-distance Migrants

Y-b Cuckoo \*



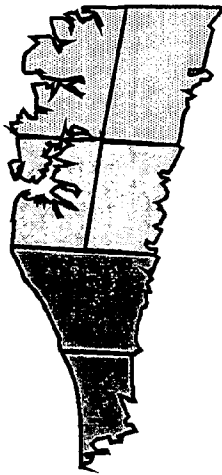
Gnatcatcher \*\*\*



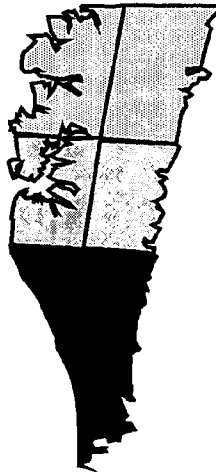
Catbird \*\*\*



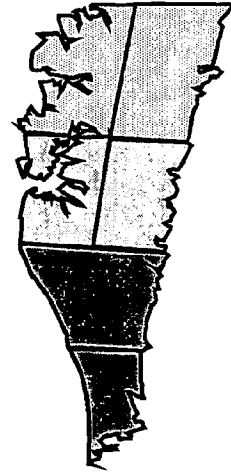
Red-e Vireo \*



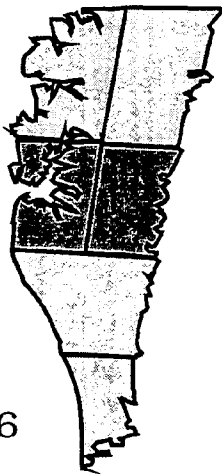
B&W Warbler \*\*\*



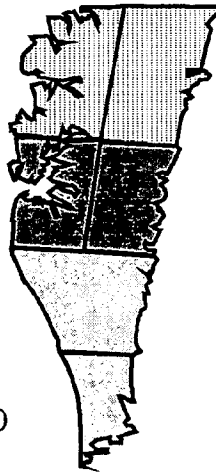
Bl-th-bl Warb. \*



Pine Warbler \*



Ovenbird \*



Redstart \*\*\*

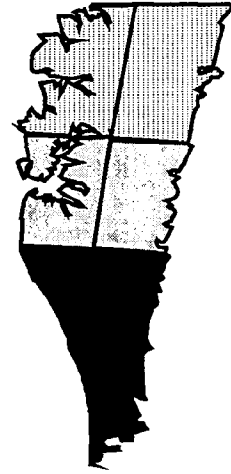


Figure 16

Some notable species also showed a significant bias for the seaside corridor (including Yellow-billed Cuckoos and Yellow-rumped Warblers).

*Influence of Patch Size* -- Within the relatively narrow range of patch sizes examined, patch size was not a significant determinant of patch use for any of the three bird groups (Table 2). Species richness and overall abundance was not influenced by patch size. Similarly, although many of the selected species exhibited a positive or negative trend in abundance with increasing patch size, relatively few patterns were statistically significant. Red-bellied Woodpeckers, Yellow-billed Cuckoos, and Red-eyed Vireos were the exceptions to this rule. These three species were detected with higher frequencies in larger forest patches when compared to smaller patches. This pattern suggest that the use of a given forest patch for these species is area-dependent. However, the biological significance of this pattern during migration remains unclear.

*Distribution within Patches* -- The location of census plots in relation to the edge or interior of forest patches had a significant influence on the number of species and individuals detected (Table 3). Overall, bird abundance and species richness were significantly higher within census plots that were positioned along patch edges. This pattern, along with the observation that many of the birds were detected directly along the edge, suggests that patch edges accounted for a disproportionate number of the total birds detected.

Consistent with the overall patterns of abundance, many of the selected species exhibited a significant edge/interior bias in distribution. All but two of these species were detected with higher frequency along patch edges and many were over twice as common there. Only Carolina Wrens and Black-throated-blue Warblers showed notable distributions away from patch edges.

*Influence of Vegetation Density* -- In order to examine the influence of vegetation density on space use, vegetation measurements were summed within the four 2 m vertical strata for each census point. Summary data for all four strata were then run through a principal component analysis to determine the dominant source of variation (in vegetation density) across all census plots. The PCA defined two distinct sources of variation including: 1) meters 0 - 4 hereafter referred to as understory, and 2) meters 4 - 8 hereafter referred to as subcanopy (Table 4). For this reason, the following analyses focus on vegetation data summarized for the understory and subcanopy categories.



**Table 2:** Descriptive statistics and results of one-way analysis of variance between small, medium, and large forest patches. Sample sizes = 12, 12, and 8 for small, medium, and large patches respectively.

Bird Group	Small	Medium	Large	F	P
	X ± S.E.	X ± S.E.	X ± S.E.		
<b>Resident</b>					
Red-bellied	5.2 ± 1.94	8.8 ± 1.55	12.3 ± 1.42	3.86	<0.05
Chickadee	33.0 ± 2.46	33.4 ± 3.61	34.5 ± 3.98	0.04	NS
Carolina Wren	43.2 ± 4.02	52.1 ± 4.88	48.6 ± 6.47	0.92	NS
Cardinal	17.8 ± 3.08	18.6 ± 2.56	11.6 ± 3.02	1.45	NS
Richness	11.0 ± 0.58	10.6 ± 0.38	10.8 ± 0.56	0.19	NS
Abundance	170.3 ± 26.00	176.3 ± 24.53	126.5 ± 18.91	1.03	NS
<b>Short-distance</b>					
Flicker	9.8 ± 3.29	12.7 ± 3.10	17.3 ± 3.30	1.16	NS
Blue Jay	32.7 ± 5.80	29.8 ± 3.20	19.6 ± 3.33	1.94	NS
Winter Wren	1.0 ± 0.51	1.3 ± 0.51	1.9 ± 0.74	0.54	NS
G-c Kinglet	23.3 ± 4.44	20.9 ± 3.58	17.9 ± 2.72	0.44	NS
Hermit Thrush	2.1 ± 0.75	2.5 ± 0.62	1.3 ± 0.25	2.91	NS
Am. Robin	18.2 ± 7.65	14.8 ± 7.47	8.5 ± 6.26	0.38	NS
Y-r Warbler	32.3 ± 9.94	25.2 ± 14.80	25.8 ± 6.69	0.12	NS
R-s Towhee	1.1 ± 0.43	0.8 ± 0.32	0.5 ± 0.33	0.53	NS
Wh-th Sparrow	2.0 ± 1.04	3.8 ± 1.82	0.9 ± 0.35	1.05	NS
Richness	10.0 ± 1.07	10.2 ± 0.60	8.5 ± 0.50	1.04	NS
Abundance	121.5 ± 23.33	119.3 ± 18.35	93.5 ± 9.98	0.52	NS
<b>Long-distance</b>					
Y-b Cuckoo	0.2 ± 0.17	1.0 ± 0.21	1.1 ± 0.40	4.64	<0.05
Gray Catbird	4.3 ± 1.66	3.8 ± 1.30	2.5 ± 0.89	0.35	NS
Red-eyed Vireo	1.3 ± 0.43	4.3 ± 0.82	4.6 ± 1.30	4.99	<0.05
Bl&Wh Warbler	4.4 ± 0.87	5.2 ± 1.31	7.9 ± 3.18	0.98	NS
BlThBl Warbler	1.7 ± 0.53	2.8 ± 0.57	1.8 ± 0.41	1.36	NS
Pine Warbler	5.7 ± 1.93	7.8 ± 2.10	5.1 ± 1.97	0.46	NS
Ovenbird	1.3 ± 0.31	1.6 ± 0.57	1.6 ± 0.48	0.12	NS
Am. Redstart	14.5 ± 6.39	11.6 ± 2.71	9.6 ± 3.48	0.25	NS
Richness	14.2 ± 2.32	15.6 ± 1.17	11.6 ± 1.21	1.13	NS
Abundance	45.6 ± 14.04	51.6 ± 5.48	46.0 ± 9.71	0.11	NS

Table 3: Results of Mann-Whitney U comparisons between edge and interior points. Sample sizes = 129 and 135 for edge and interior points respectively.

Bird Group	Edge	Interior	U	P
	X $\pm$ S.E.	X $\pm$ S.E.		
<b>Resident</b>				
Red-bellied	2.88 $\pm$ 0.256	2.27 $\pm$ 0.204	9095	NS
Chickadee	8.89 $\pm$ 0.527	8.42 $\pm$ 0.506	9095	NS
Carolina Wren	7.28 $\pm$ 0.641	8.67 $\pm$ 0.481	12698	<0.001
Cardinal	5.50 $\pm$ 0.446	2.49 $\pm$ 0.247	12350	<0.001
<b>Short-distance</b>				
Flicker	2.87 $\pm$ 0.325	2.27 $\pm$ 0.208	9267	NS
Blue Jay	8.59 $\pm$ 0.727	5.43 $\pm$ 0.427	11099	<0.001
Winter Wren	0.49 $\pm$ 0.080	0.31 $\pm$ 0.168	10345	<0.001
G-c Kinglet	4.78 $\pm$ 0.435	5.35 $\pm$ 0.560	8777	NS
Hermit Thrush	0.55 $\pm$ 0.117	0.44 $\pm$ 0.098	9231	NS
Am. Robin	6.29 $\pm$ 1.258	4.23 $\pm$ 1.077	10085	<0.05
Y-r Warbler	8.68 $\pm$ 1.403	4.80 $\pm$ 0.840	10405	<0.01
R-s Towhee	0.41 $\pm$ 0.092	0.12 $\pm$ 0.035	9615	<0.05
Wh-thr Sparrow	1.39 $\pm$ 0.375	0.02 $\pm$ 0.17	10889	<0.001
<b>Long-distance</b>				
Y-b Cuckoo	0.24 $\pm$ 0.044	0.30 $\pm$ 0.057	8453	NS
Gnatcatcher	0.26 $\pm$ 0.063	0.36 $\pm$ 0.094	8864	NS
Gray Catbird	1.46 $\pm$ 0.278	0.48 $\pm$ 0.096	10788	<0.001
Red-eyed Vireo	0.81 $\pm$ 0.101	0.66 $\pm$ 0.089	9345	NS
Bl&Wh Warbler	1.85 $\pm$ 0.237	1.39 $\pm$ 0.165	9840	0.05 < <0.1
BlThBl Warbler	0.52 $\pm$ 0.085	0.070 $\pm$ 1.393	7815	0.05 < <0.1
Pine Warbler	1.80 $\pm$ 0.318	1.42 $\pm$ 0.154	8463	NS
Ovenbird	0.51 $\pm$ 0.067	0.34 $\pm$ 0.051	9612	0.05 < <0.1
Am. Redstart	3.63 $\pm$ 0.758	2.53 $\pm$ 0.259	9136	NS
<b>Total Richness</b>	19.50 $\pm$ 0.510	16.42 $\pm$ 0.346	11573	<0.001
<b>Total Abundance</b>	102.83 $\pm$ 7.152	68.83 $\pm$ 2.842	11765	<0.001

**Table 4:** Results of principal components analysis of six forest strata categories for vegetation volume.

<b>Forest Strata Category</b>	<b>Eigenvalue</b>	<b>Percent of Variation</b>	<b>Cumulative Percent</b>
1 - 4 m	3.36985	56.2	56.2
4 - 8 m	1.69332	28.2	84.4
1 - 2 m	0.62787	10.5	94.9
2 - 4 m	0.29121	4.9	99.7
4 - 6 m	0.01554	0.3	100.0
6 - 8 m	0.00222	0.0	100.0

Across the set of census plots, vegetation density within both the understory and subcanopy varied by several fold. The overall density of vegetation was considerably higher in the understory compared to the subcanopy, however, vegetation density was skewed to low values for both strata. In order to examine the availability of vegetation conditions, the range of variation for both strata was subdivided into 10 discrete categories. A frequency distribution of census plots based on vegetation density was then generated for both the understory and subcanopy (Figure 17). These distributions indicate the number of points surveyed that fall within a given vegetation range and were used as the null distribution in testing for bird/vegetation relationships. In order to evaluate how vegetation density influenced plot use, the number of observations of selected species were summed for each plot and tested against the expected distribution based on the vegetation categories. Figures 18 - 20 illustrate the patterns in deviations between the observed and expected use of understory values.

Most of the selected species examined exhibited significant deviations from expected distribution patterns based on both the understory and subcanopy densities. However, deviation patterns were generally more easily interpreted with regards to the understory density. For residents, all but one species under-utilized plots with relatively low density understories and over-utilized areas with high density understories. This same general pattern was observed for both groups of migrants. Although a few species showed significant deviations that were not easily interpreted, only the Tufted Titmouse, Hermit Thrush, and Yellow-billed Cuckoo appeared to prefer areas with relatively low understory density. These general patterns seem to suggest that most species are selecting areas based on the characteristics of understory vegetation and that most species prefer areas where vegetation is relatively dense.

In comparison to the understory patterns, many of the species examined do not appear to be as selective for subcanopy characteristics (Figures 21 - 23). Many of the deviation patterns do not lend themselves to clear interpretation. However, some notable patterns were observed. Cardinals, Flickers, Blue Jays, Robins, Black-and-white Warblers, Pine Warblers, and Redstarts all seem to prefer high density vegetation in the subcanopy. Redstarts in particular showed a high preference for plots with relatively dense subcanopies. As with the understory vegetation, Tufted Titmice and Yellow-billed Cuckoos appear to prefer low density areas.

**Figure 17:** Frequency distribution for census plots across the observed range of density for understory and subcanopy vegetation. Understory refers to the area from ground level to a height of 4 m. Subcanopy refers to the area from 4 to 8 meters above the ground. Density categories presented indicate the midpoint for a range of density values. Density values indicate the sum of vegetation measurements within the understory and subcanopy for each census plot.

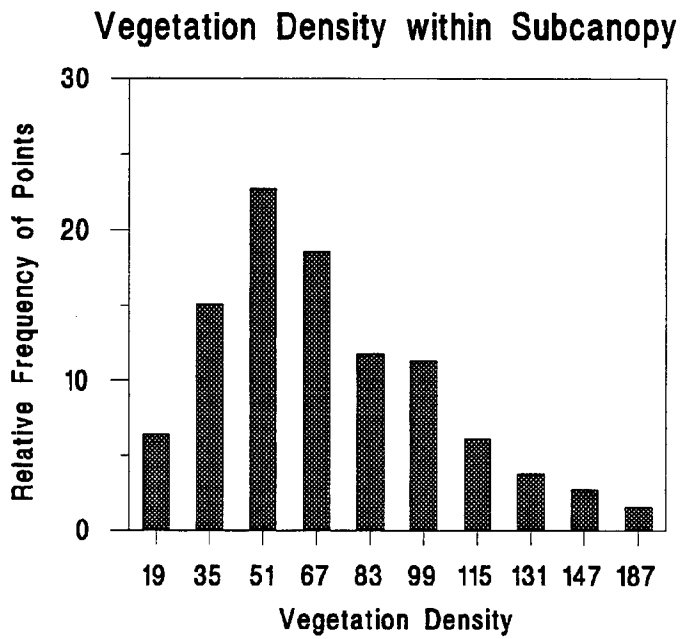
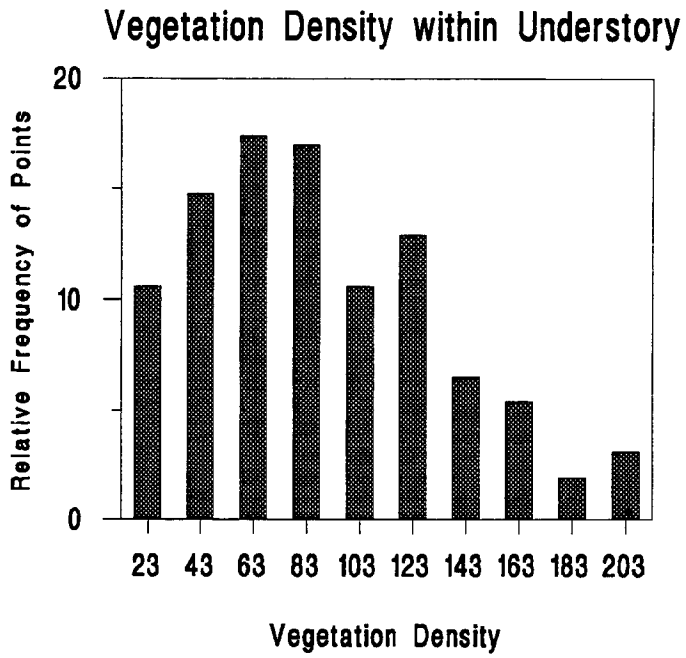


Figure 17

**Figures 18 - 20:** Deviation patterns for selected resident, short-distance migrants, and long-distance migrants. Bars indicate the difference between bird utilization patterns and those expected based on the availability of census points within a given range of understory density. Negative values indicate that points within the given vegetation range were underutilized relative to their availability. Positive values indicate that points within the given vegetation range were overutilized relative to their availability. Significance values (generated from Chi-square tests) are given by symbols located beside species names: no symbol indicates no significant difference from expected, (\*) indicates significance to the 0.05 level, (\*\*) indicates significance to the 0.01 level, and (\*\*\*) indicates significance to the 0.001 level.

## Space-use Across an Understory Gradient For Selected Resident Species

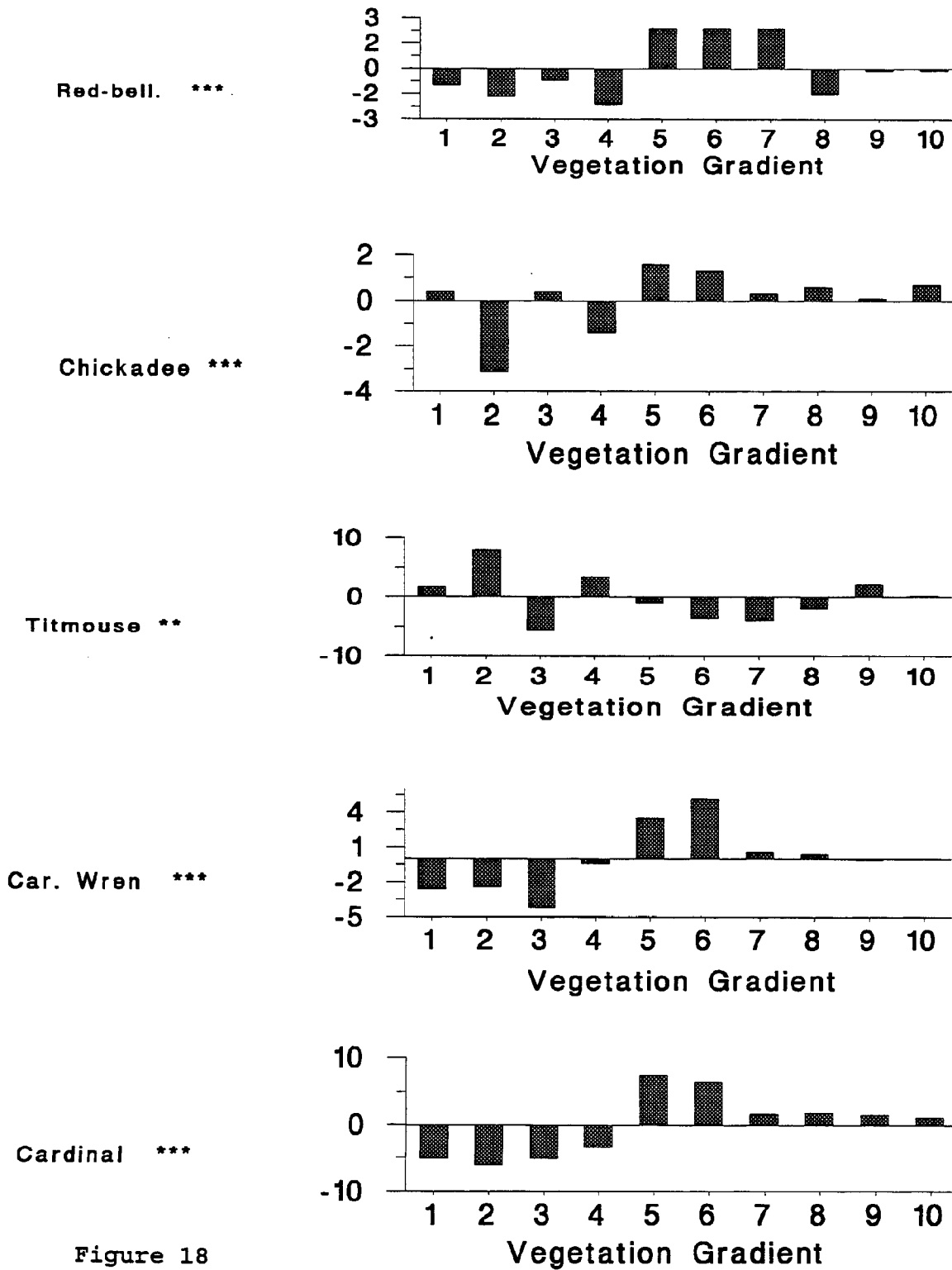


Figure 18



# Space-use Across an Understory Gradient For Selected Short-distance Migrants

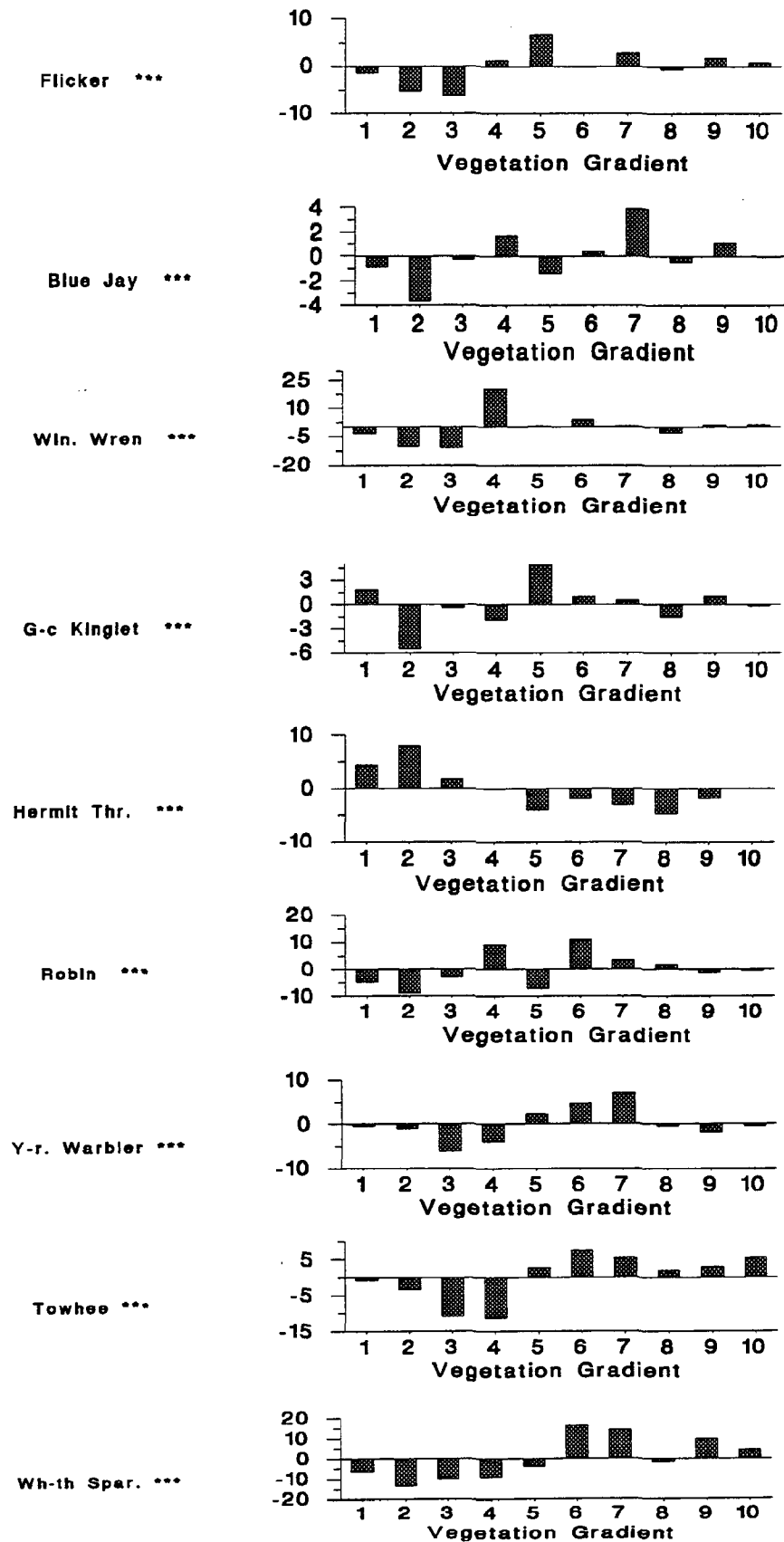


Figure 19

# Space-use Across an Understory Gradient For Selected Long-distance Migrants

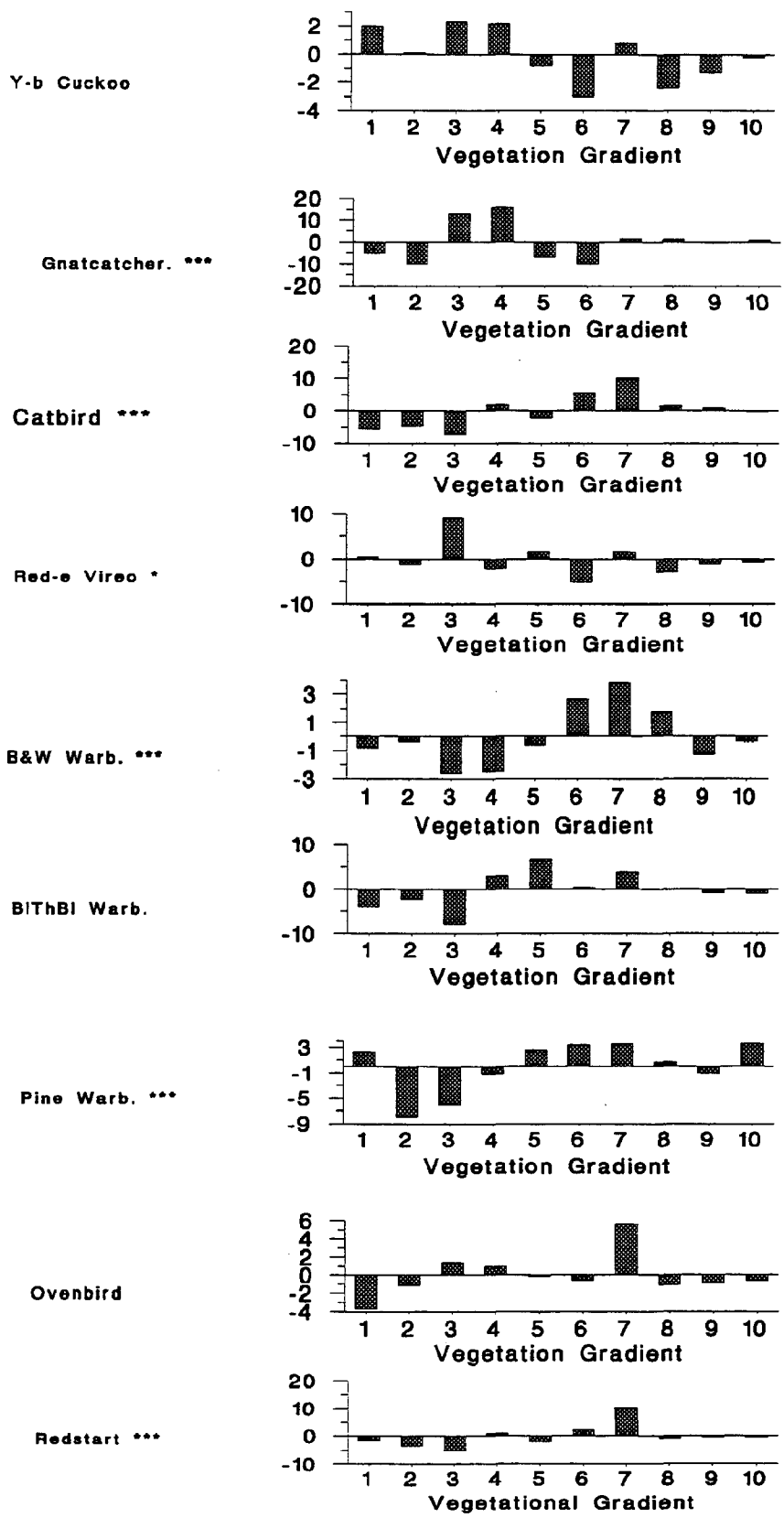


Figure 20

**Figures 21 - 23:** Deviation patterns for selected resident, short-distance migrants, and long-distance migrants. Bars indicate the difference between bird utilization patterns and those expected based on the availability of census points within a given range of subcanopy density (refer to Figure 17). Negative values indicate that points within the given vegetation range were underutilized relative to their availability. Positive values indicate that points within the given vegetation range were overutilized relative to their availability. Significance values (generated from Chi-squared tests) are given by symbols located beside species names: no symbol indicates no significant difference from expected, (\*) indicates significance to the 0.05 level, (\*\*) indicates significance to the 0.01 level, and (\*\*\*) indicates significance to the 0.001 level.

## Space-use Across a Subcanopy Gradient For Selected Resident Species

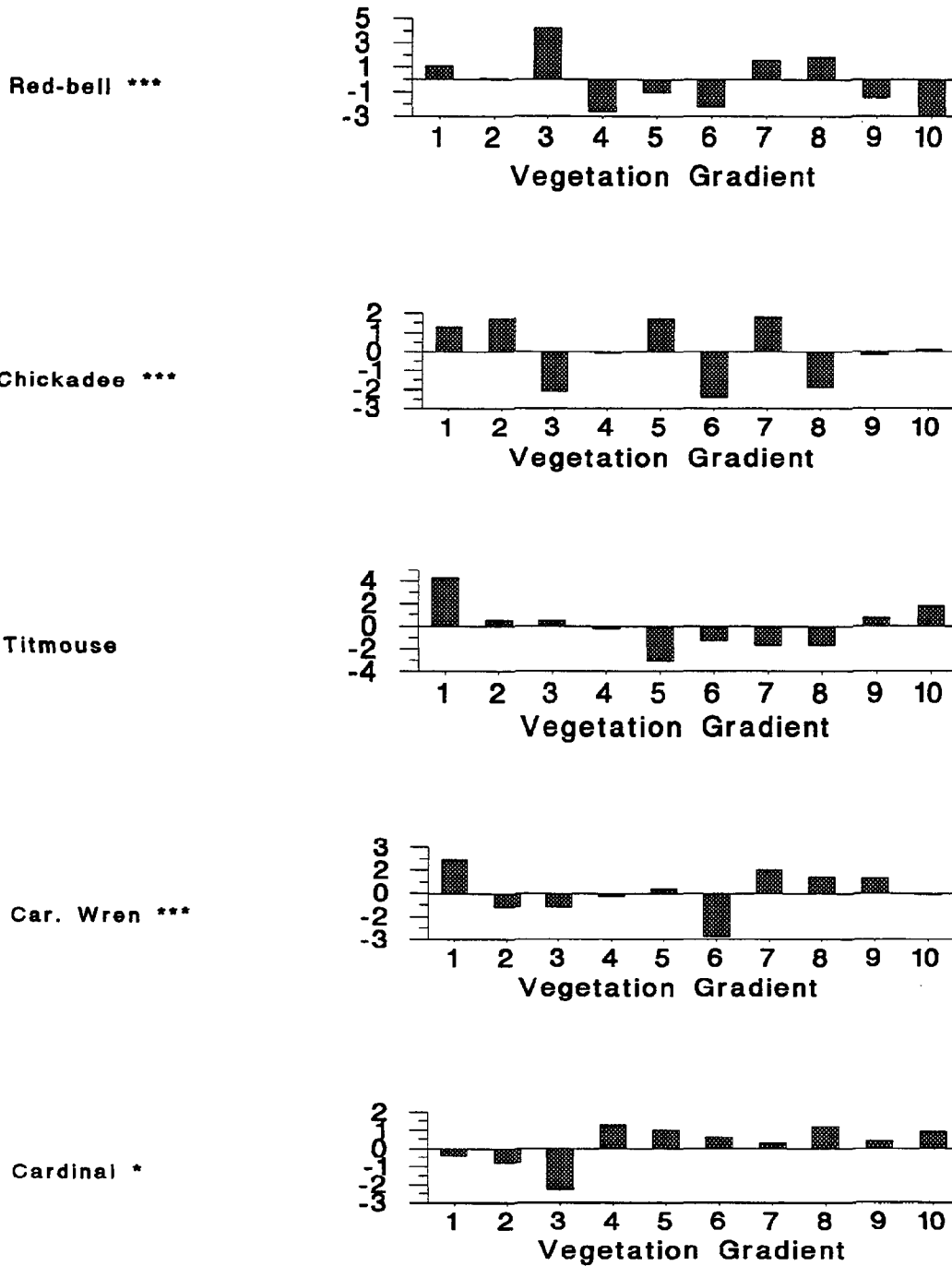


Figure 21

# Space-use Across a Subcanopy Gradient For Selected Short-distance Migrants

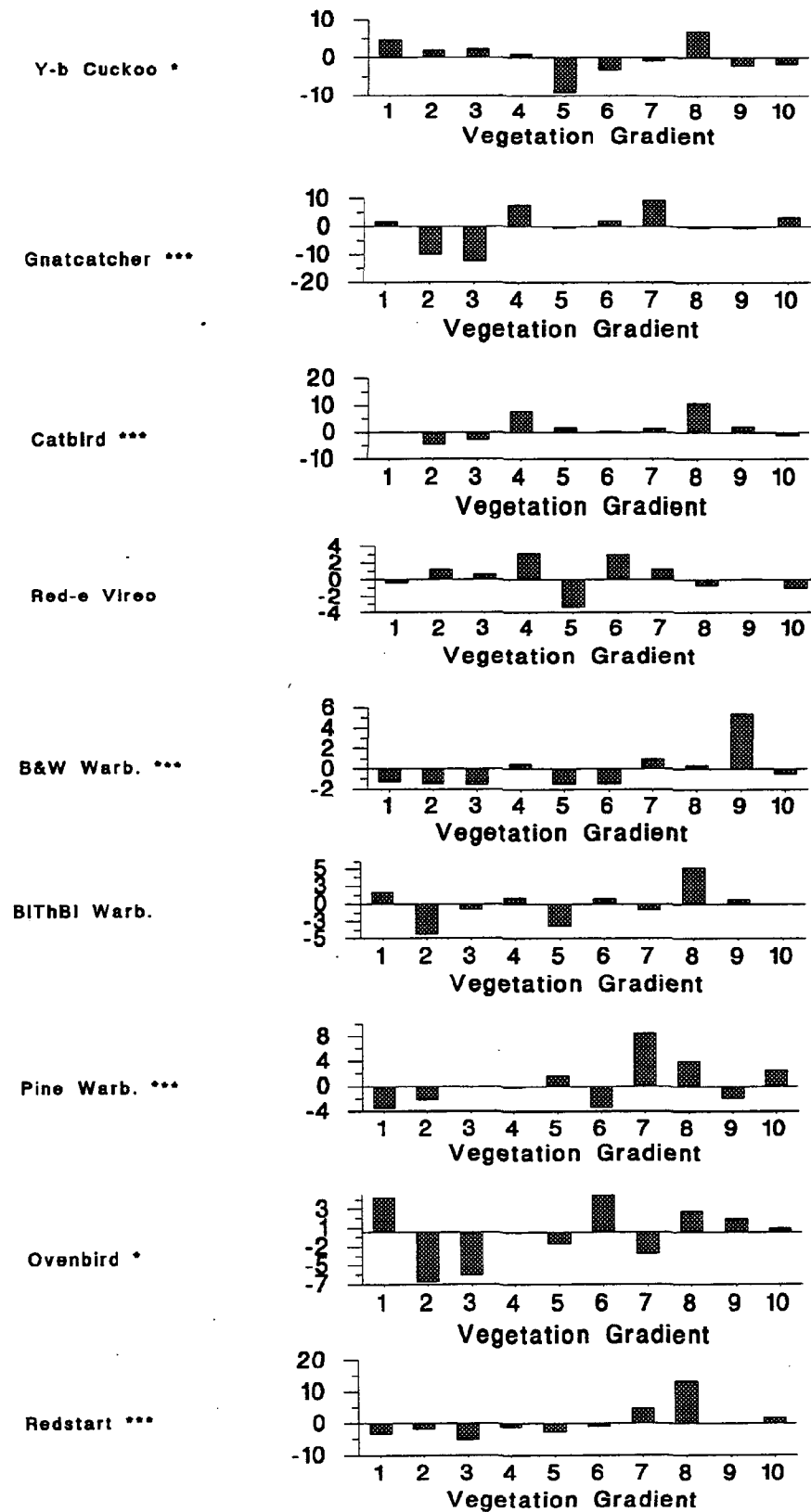


Figure 22

# Space-use Across a Subcanopy Gradient For Selected Long-distance Migrants

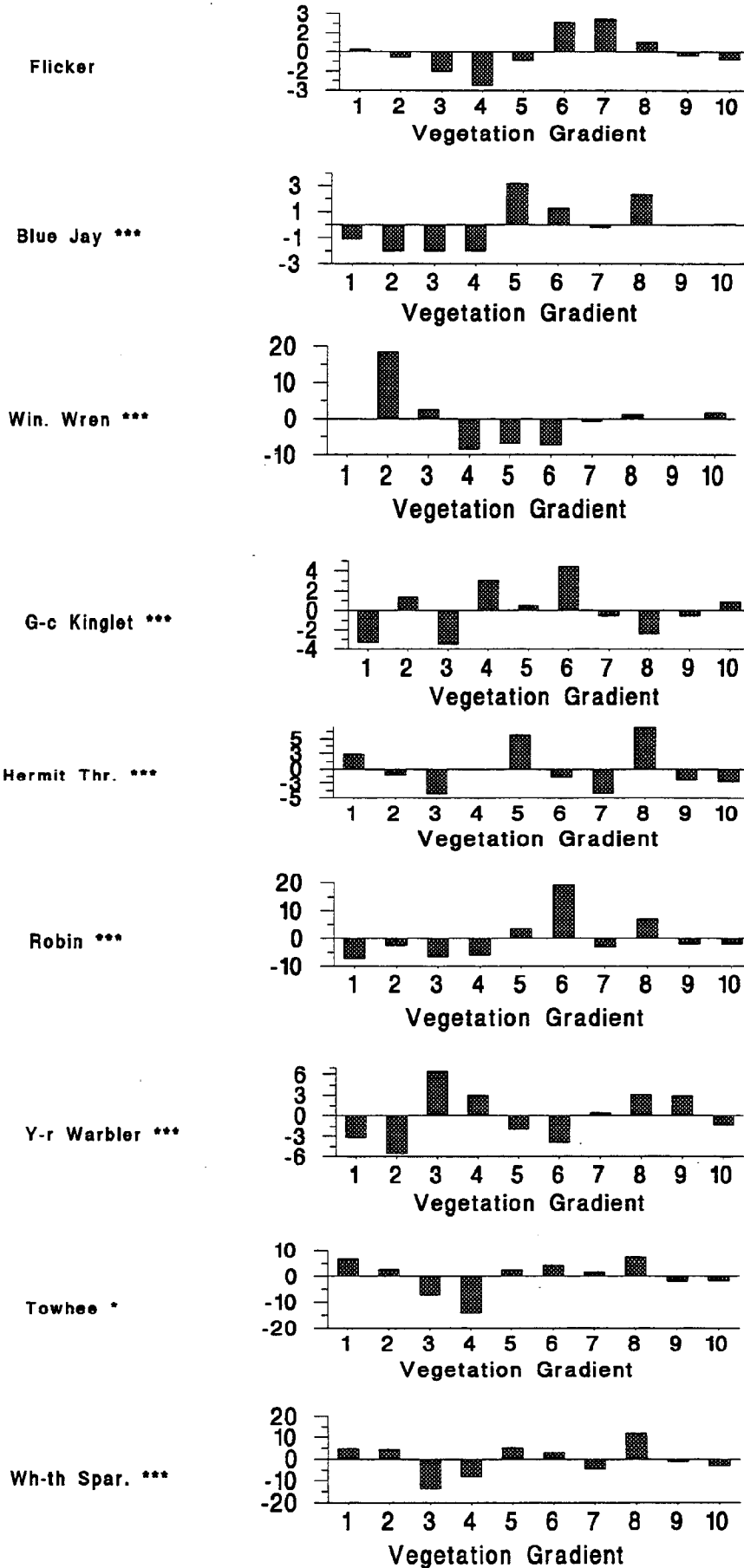


Figure 23

*Patterns in Strata Use* -- All of the selected species showed significant patterns in the use of vertical strata (Figures 24 - 26). Although intergrades do exist, species generally fall into four groups. These groups include: 1) canopy species, 2) subcanopy species, 3) understory species, and 4) ground species. The majority of the species would be considered subcanopy or understory species with relatively few being restricted to either the canopy or the ground. In general, strata use complements the patterns observed in vegetation associations. Most of the species that primarily use the understory or ground are found in plots containing high density understory vegetation. Likewise, many of the species that utilize the subcanopy seem to prefer areas with dense vegetation in the subcanopy.

**Figures 24 - 26:** Relative use of vertical strata by selected resident, short-distance migrants, and long-distance migrants. Strata categories included are as follows: 1 indicates 0 - 2 m above ground, 2 indicates 2 - 4 m above ground, 3 indicates 4 - 6 m above ground, 4 indicates 6 - 8 m above the ground, 5 indicates remaining subcanopy above 8 m, and 6 indicates the forest canopy. Significance values represent the results of Chi-square tests comparing observed strata use to an expected even distribution and are given by symbols located beside the species name: no symbol indicates no significant difference from expected, (\*) indicates significance to the 0.05 level, (\*\*) indicates significance to the 0.01 level, and (\*\*\*) indicates significance to the 0.001 level.



# Patterns in Vertical Distribution For Selected Resident Species

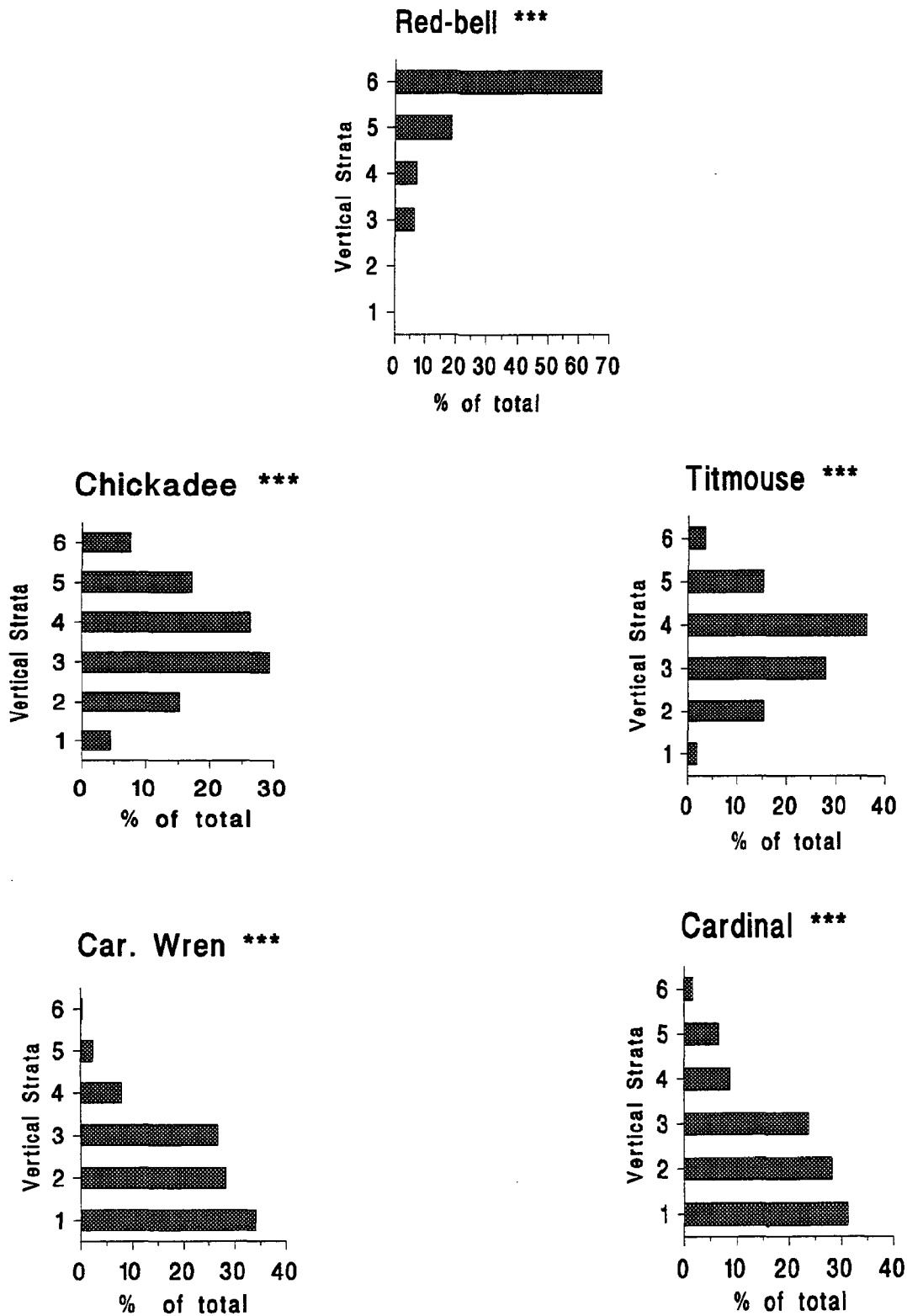


Figure 24

## Patterns in Vertical Distribution For Selected Short-distance Migrants

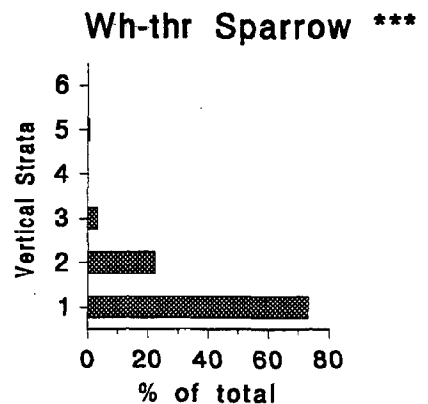
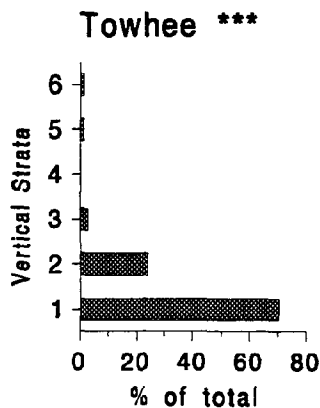
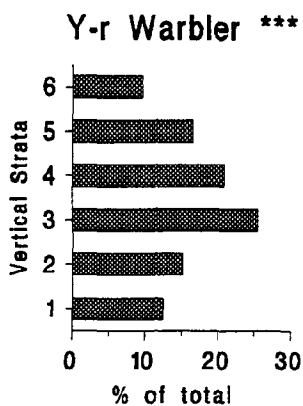
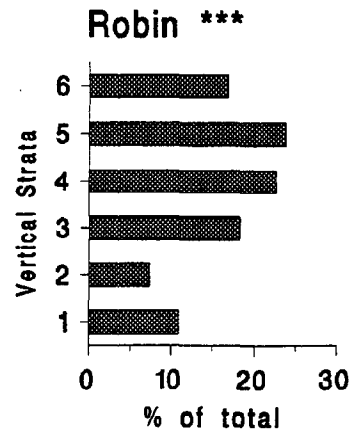
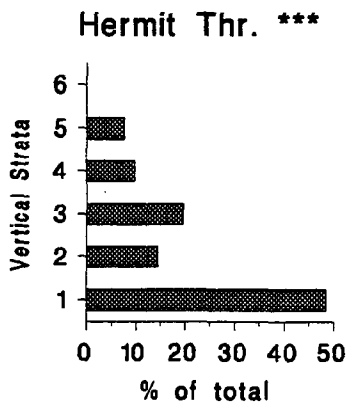
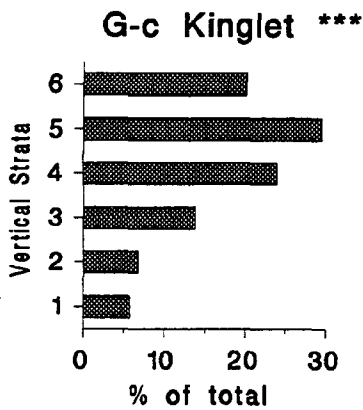
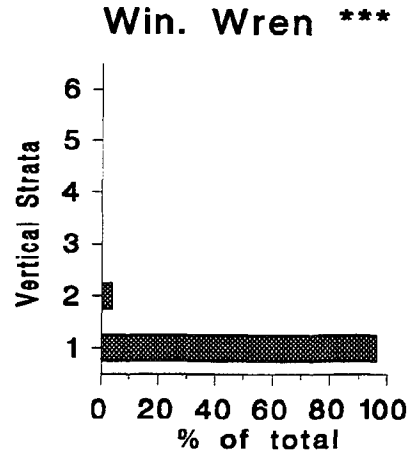
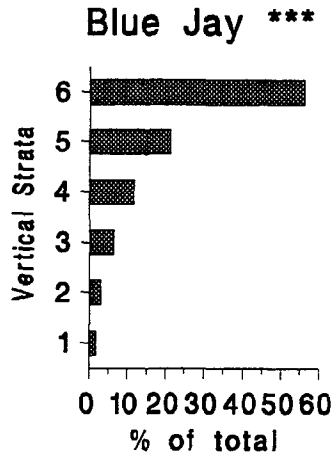
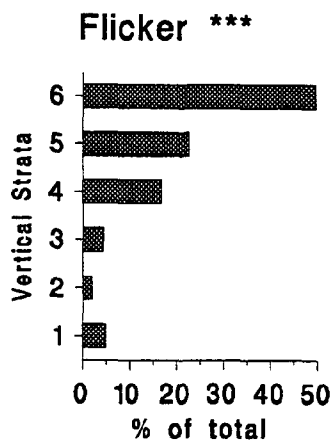


Figure 25

## Patterns in Vertical Distribution For Selected Long-distance Migrants

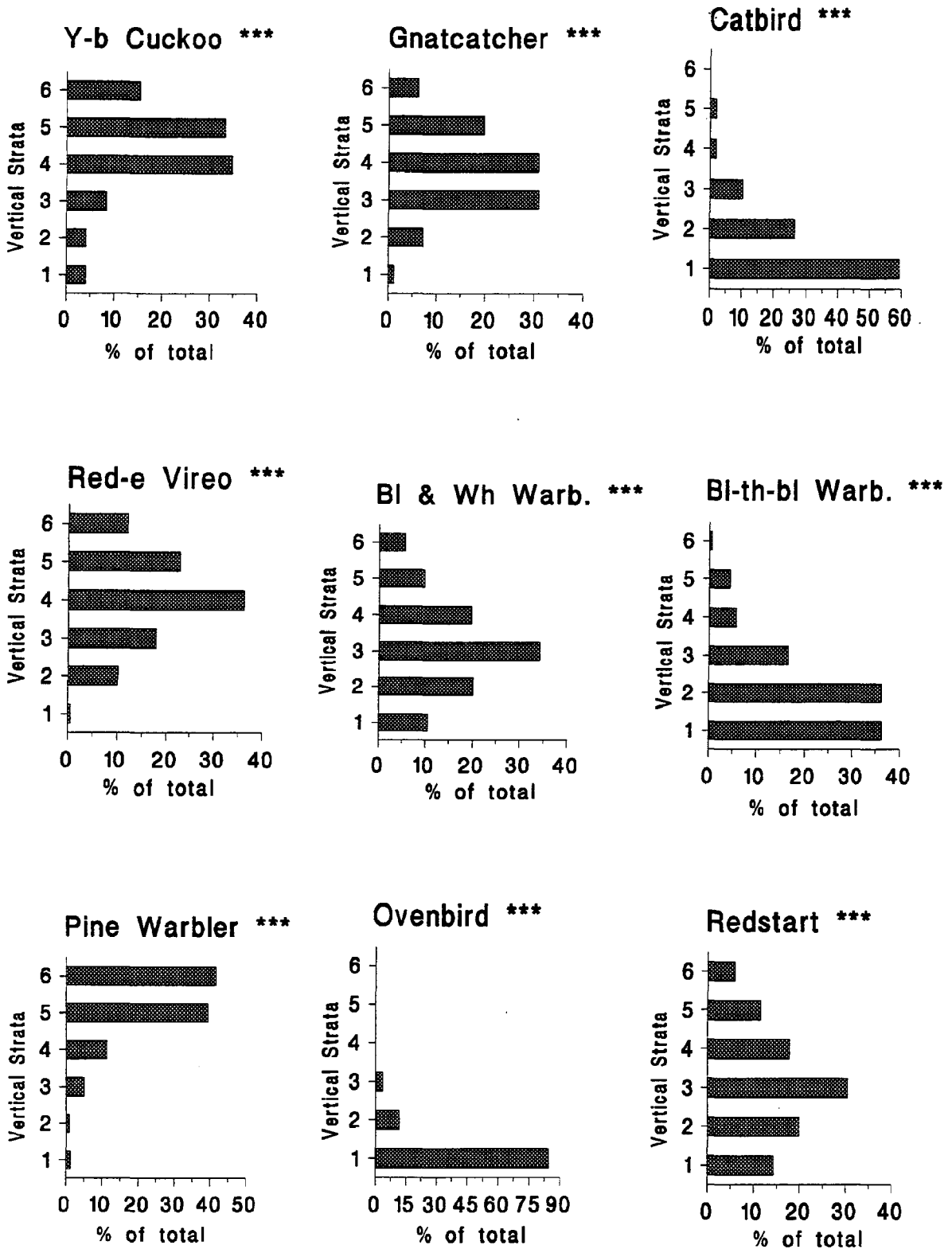


Figure 26

## DISCUSSION

Seasonal patterns of abundance were quite clear for all three groups of species. Neotropical migrants were more abundant during the first half of the migration season than they were later. Short-distance migrants display the opposite pattern. In fact, although our data indicate that we adequately covered peak movement periods for long-distance migrants, this was not the case for short-distance migrants. This result suggests that it will be necessary to continue sampling through mid-November in order to thoroughly incorporate the heaviest periods of movement for this group in our study. Detection of residents peaked late in the first half of the study period and then tapered off. This is likely due to dispersal of young and post-breeding behavioral changes that decrease the detectability of resident birds. These temporal patterns have important implication for planning tourism events around migration. A second year of data that covers the entire migration period will add to the reliability of predicting the peaks of fall migration.

On a geographic scale, we found that there was a trend towards highest abundances of both long- and short-distance migrants close to the peninsula tip. In contrast, residents tended to have the reverse distribution with their lowest densities close to the peninsula tip. Migrants were also found to be more abundant on the bayside of the peninsula while residents were more evenly distributed. These geographic distribution patterns will be fundamental to the SAMP's goal of directing further development away from sensitive wildlife areas. The development of zoning ordinances to protect native vegetation would also be facilitated by the delineation of areas with heaviest bird use in lower Northampton County. We will investigate these patterns further in the coming field season so that they can be more fully defined.

Within the parameters of our study, the size of a woodlot did not appear to have any strong relationship to the abundance of any of the bird groups or most individual species. Yellow-billed Cuckoo, Red-eyed Vireo, and Red-bellied Woodpecker all seemed to respond positively to larger woodlots and showed significant differences in abundance from small to large to big patches. The fragmented character of the lower Delmarva's landscape and the relatively similar size of all woodlots in the area may explain this result. It is possible that below a certain size, birds do not react to differences in forest area. An alternative hypothesis is that forest area alone is not as meaningful a parameter for most birds during migration as it appears to be during the breeding season.

Within forest patches, more birds were counted at edge plots than interior plots. Further, we found that most species were under-represented in plots with low density vegetation and appeared to be selecting for those plots with high density vegetation. Vegetation density differs between edge and interior plots only within the first two meters of the ground (Strata 1) where it is significantly higher for edge plots. Within plots, however, most species analyzed demonstrated strata associations that correspond to their known breeding and wintering behavior. These results will play an integral role in creating meaningful vegetation ordinances and Memoranda of Understanding (MOUs) between Northampton County and the Virginia Department of Transportation or power companies. After the completion of the study, results such as these will be shared with the public so that they may be incorporated into land management decisions of private citizens.

The future direction of this study will be guided by the results of the first year. Two principal themes will be pursued in the coming field season: a continuation of the current emphasis on spatial and temporal distributions and an investigation of possible underlying causes of these distributional patterns.

Although the importance of testing the resilience of the patterns identified in the first year should not be overlooked, the second field season will also allow us to move to a finer geographic scale. For example, observations suggest that migrant concentrations on the bayside of the lower Delmarva may be a "vener" phenomenon, occurring only within a thin section of woodlands directly adjacent to the coast. Detailed resolution of the distribution of fall migrants within the concentration areas of the bayside and peninsula tip will be highly beneficial to land use planning efforts.

Also of value to long-term planning for the protection of migrants and their habitats is an understanding of *why* the birds stop over on the lower Delmarva and *what* they need from these habitats. Obviously, the full scope of those questions is beyond the constraints of this study. However, data from the first year indicate that the relative importance of the lower Delmarva varies among species. Some species (i.e. American Redstart and Golden-crowned Kinglet) are extremely common in the area and are likely to be using the area for longer stop-overs than other species. We will address this further in the coming field season, focusing primarily on habitat use.

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Funding for this study was provided through grant # NA17OZ0359-01 from NOAA's Office of Coastal Resource Management and administered by the Virginia Department of Environmental Quality's Coastal Resources Management Program. This study would not have been possible without the support and hard work of numerous individuals and agencies. We thank Melissa Donoff, Peter Leimgruber, Debbie Orr, Sharon Torgersen, and Sean Smith for assistance in the field and Georgia Kratimenos and Daryl Thomas for both field assistance and help with the graphics. Thomas Smith and Karen Terwilliger assisted with management responsibilities. Toni Harrison, Pat Jarrell, and Faye McKinney provided critical administrative support. We appreciate the private landowners of Northampton County who generously gave us permission to work in their woodlots; Dr. George Oertel and the Oceanography Department of Old Dominion University for use of the Oyster Field Station; Sherman Stairs, Eastern Shore National Wildlife Refuge for access to refuge property; the staff of The Nature Conservancy's Virginia Coast Reserve for logistical support; and the Northampton County Planning Office for technical assistance.

## LITERATURE CITED

- Askins, R. A., J. F. Lynch, and R. Greenberg. 1990. Population declines in migratory birds in eastern North America. *Current Ornithology* 7:1-57.
- Gauthreaux, S. A. 1982. Ecology and evolution of migration systems. *Avian Biology* 6:93-168.
- Gill, F. B. 1990. *Ornithology*. Pp. 243-258. W. H. Freeman and Company, New York.
- Hagan, J. M. and D. W. Johnston. 1992. *Ecology and conservation of Neotropical migrant landbirds*. Smithsonian Institution Press, Washington, D.C.
- Hill, N. P. and J. M. Hagan, III. 1991. Population trends of some northeastern North American landbirds: A half-century of data. *Wilson Bull.* 103:165-182.
- Kaiser, A. 1992. Fat deposition and theoretical flight range of small autumn migrants in southern Germany. *Bird Study* 39:96-110.
- Keast, A. and E. S. Morton. 1980. *Migrant birds in the Neotropics: Ecology, behavior, and conservation*. Smithsonian Institution Press, Washington, D.C.
- Mills, G. S., J. B. Dunning, Jr., and J. M. Bates. 1991. The relationship between breeding bird density and vegetation volume. *Wilson Bull.* 103:468-479.
- Moore, F. R. and W. Yong. 1991. Evidence of food-based competition among passerine migrants during stopover. *Behavioral Ecology and Sociobiology*. 85-90.
- Moore, F. R., S. A. Gauthreaux, Jr., P. Kerlinger, and T. R. Simons. In press. Stopover habitat: Management implications and guidelines in *Proceedings: Status and management of neotropical migratory landbirds*. (D. Finch and P. Stangel, eds.). Rocky Mountain Forest and Range Station General Technical Report. Fort Collins, CO.

Robbins, C. S., J. R. Sauer, R. S. Greenberg, and S. Droege. 1989. Population declines in North American birds that migrate to the neotropics. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci.* 86:7658-7662

Rusling, W. J. 1936. The study of the habits of diurnal migrants, as related to weather and land masses during the fall migration on the Atlantic Coast, with particular reference to the hawk flights of the Cape Charles (Virginia) region. Unpubl. report.

Winker, K., D. W. Warner, and A. R. Weisbrod. 1992a. The Northern Waterthrush and Swainson's Thrush as transients at a temperate inland stopover site. Pp 384-402 *in* Ecology and conservation of Neotropical migrant landbirds (J. M. Hagan and D. W. Johnston, Eds.). Smithsonian Institution Press, Washington, D.C.

Winker, K., D. W. Warner, and A. R. Weisbrod. 1992b. Daily mass gains among woodland migrants at an inland stopover site. *Auk* 109:853-826.



**Appendix I:** List of species detected, their scientific names, and bird category in which they were placed. Bird categories are as follows: 1) permanent resident, 2) short-distance migrant, 3) long-distance migrant.

Common Name	Scientific Name	Category		
		1	2	3
Green-backed Heron	<u>Butorides Striatus</u>		x	
American Woodcock	<u>Scolopax minor</u>		x	
Common Bobwhite	<u>Colinus virginianus</u>	x		
Sharp-shinned Hawk	<u>Accipiter striatus</u>			x
Cooper's Hawk	<u>Accipiter cooperi</u>			x
Red-tailed Hawk	<u>Buteo jamaicensis</u>		x	
Broad-winged Hawk	<u>Buteo platypterus</u>			x
Bald Eagle	<u>Haliaeetus leucocephalis</u>	x		
Osprey	<u>Pandion haliaetus</u>			x
Turkey Vulture	<u>Cathartes aura</u>	x		
Black Vulture	<u>Coragyps atratus</u>	x		
American Kestrel	<u>Falco sparverius</u>		x	
Merlin	<u>Falco columbarius</u>			x
Northern Harrier	<u>Circus cyaneus</u>		x	
Great-horned Owl	<u>Bubo virginianus</u>	x		
Mourning Dove	<u>Zenaida macroura</u>	x		
Yellow-billed Cuckoo	<u>Coccyzus americanus</u>			x
Black-billed Cuckoo	<u>Coccyzus erythrophthalmus</u>			x
Chuck-will's Widow	<u>Caprimulgus carolinensis</u>			x
Ruby-throated Hummingbird	<u>Archilocus colubris</u>			x
Belted Kingfisher	<u>Ceryle alcyon</u>	x		
Red-headed Woodpecker	<u>Melanerpes erythrocephalus</u>	x		
Red-bellied Woodpecker	<u>Melanerpes carolinus</u>	x		
Yellow-bellied Sapsucker	<u>Sphyrapicus varius</u>		x	
Downy Woodpecker	<u>Picoides pubescens</u>	x		
Hairy Woodpecker	<u>Picoides villosus</u>	x		
Pileated Woodpecker	<u>Dryocopus pileatus</u>	x		
Northern Flicker	<u>Colaptes auratus</u>		x	
Eastern Wood Pewee	<u>Contopus virens</u>			x
Acadian Flycatcher	<u>Empidonax virescens</u>			x
Great-crested Flycatcher	<u>Myiarchus crinitus</u>			x
Least Flycatcher	<u>Empidonax minimus</u>			x
Yellow-bellied Flycatcher	<u>Empidonax flaviventris</u>			x
Eastern Phoebe	<u>Sayornis phoebe</u>			x
Eastern Kingbird	<u>Tyrannus tyrannus</u>			x
Tree Swallow	<u>Tachycineta bicolor</u>			x
Blue Jay	<u>Cyanocitta cristata</u>		x	
American Crow	<u>Corvus brachyrhynchos</u>	x		
Fish Crow	<u>Corvus ossifragus</u>	x		
Carolina Chickadee	<u>Parus carolinensis</u>	x		
Brown Creeper	<u>Certhia americana</u>		x	
Tufted Titmouse	<u>Parus bicolor</u>	x		

Appendix I: ----continued----

White-breasted Nuthatch	<u>Sitta carolinensis</u>	x	
Red-breasted Nuthatch	<u>Sitta canadensis</u>		x
Brown-headed Nuthatch	<u>Sitta pusilla</u>	x	
House Wren	<u>Troglodytes aedon</u>		x
Winter Wren	<u>Troglodytes troglodytes</u>		x
Carolina Wren	<u>Thryothorus ludovicianus</u>	x	
Ruby-crowned Kinglet	<u>Regulus calendula</u>		x
Golden-crowned Kinglet	<u>Regulus satrapa</u>		x
Blue-gray Gnatcatcher	<u>Polioptila caerulea</u>		x
Eastern Bluebird	<u>Sialia sialis</u>	x	
Wood Thrush	<u>Hylocichla mustelina</u>		x
Swainson's Thrush	<u>Catharus ustulatas</u>		x
Gray-cheeked Thrush	<u>Catharus minimus</u>		x
Hermit Thrush	<u>Catharus guttata</u>		x
Veery	<u>Catharus fuscescens</u>		x
American Robin	<u>Turdus migratorius</u>		x
Gray Catbird	<u>Dumetella carolinensis</u>		x
Mockingbird	<u>Mimus polyglottis</u>	x	
Brown Thrasher	<u>Toxostoma rufum</u>	x	
Cedar Waxwing	<u>Bombycilla cedrorum</u>		x
Eastern Meadowlark	<u>Sternella magna</u>		x
European Starling	<u>Sturnus vulgaris</u>	x	
White-eyed Vireo	<u>Vireo griseus</u>		x
Solitary Vireo	<u>Vireo solitarius</u>		x
Red-eyed Vireo	<u>Vireo olivaceus</u>		x
Warbling Vireo	<u>Vireo gilvus</u>		x
Philadelphia Vireo	<u>Vireo philadelphicus</u>		x
Blue-winged Warbler	<u>Vermivora pinus</u>		x
Golden-winged Warbler	<u>Vermivora chrysoptera</u>		x
Tennessee Warbler	<u>Vermivora peregrina</u>		x
Nashville Warbler	<u>Vermivora ruficapilla</u>		x
Northern Parula	<u>Parula americana</u>		x
Black-and-white Warbler	<u>Mniotilta varia</u>		x
Black-throated Blue Warbler	<u>Dendroica caerulescens</u>		x
Cerulean Warbler	<u>Dendroica cerulea</u>		x
Blackburnian Warbler	<u>Dendroica fusca</u>		x
Chestnut-sided Warbler	<u>Dendroica pensylvanica</u>		x
Cape May Warbler	<u>Dendroica tigrina</u>		x
Magnolia Warbler	<u>Dendroica magnolia</u>		x
Yellow-rumped Warbler	<u>Dendroica coronata</u>		x
Black-throated Greed Warbler	<u>Dendroica virens</u>		x
Yellow-throated Warbler	<u>Dendroica dominica</u>		x
Prairie Warbler	<u>Dendroica discolor</u>		x
Bay-breasted Warbler	<u>Dendroica castanea</u>		x
Blackpoll Warbler	<u>Dendroica striata</u>		x
Pine Warbler	<u>Dendroica pinus</u>		x
Palm Warbler	<u>Dendroica palmarum</u>		x
Mourning Warbler	<u>Oporornis philadelphia</u>		x

Appendix I: ----continued----

Connecticut Warbler	<u>Oporornis agila</u>		x
Kentucky Warbler	<u>Oporornis formosus</u>		x
Canada Warbler	<u>Wilsonia canadensis</u>		x
Wilson's Warbler	<u>Wilsonia pusilla</u>		x
Worm-eating Warbler	<u>Helminthos vermivorus</u>		x
Ovenbird	<u>Seiurus aurocapillus</u>		x
Louisiana Waterthrush	<u>Seiurus motacilla</u>		x
Northern Waterthrush	<u>Seiurus noveboracensis</u>		x
Common Yellowthroat	<u>Geothlypis trichas</u>		x
Yellow-breasted Chat	<u>Icteria virens</u>		x
American Redstart	<u>Setophaga ruticilla</u>		x
Blue Grosbeak	<u>Guiraca caerulea</u>		x
Rose-breasted Grosbeak	<u>Pheucticus melanocephalus</u>		x
Northern Cardinal	<u>Cardinalis cardinalis</u>	x	
Indigo Bunting	<u>Passerina cyanea</u>		x
Rufous-sided Towhee	<u>Pipilo erythrophthalmus</u>		x
Song Sparrow	<u>Melospiza melodia</u>		x
Field Sparrow	<u>Spizella pusilla</u>		x
Chipping Sparrow	<u>Spizella passerina</u>		x
White-throated Sparrow	<u>Zonotrichia albicollis</u>		x
White-crowned Sparrow	<u>Zonotrichia leucophrys</u>		x
Swamp Sparrow	<u>Melospiza georgiana</u>		x
Savannah Sparrow	<u>Passerculus sandwichensis</u>		x
Dark-eyed Junco	<u>Junco hyemalis</u>		x
Red-winged Blackbird	<u>Agelaius phoeniceus</u>	x	
Brown-headed Cowbird	<u>Molothrus ater</u>	x	
Common Grackle	<u>Quiscalus quiscula</u>	x	
Orchard Oriole	<u>Icterus spurius</u>		x
Northern Oriole	<u>Icterus galbula</u>		x
Scarlet Tanager	<u>Piranga olivacea</u>		x
Summer Tanager	<u>Piranga rubra</u>		x
American Goldfinch	<u>Carduelis tristis</u>	x	





Appendix II cont.

SPECIES	Week 1	Week 2	Week 3	Week 4	Week 5	Week 6	Week 7	Week 8	Week 9	Week 10	Week 11	TOTAL
Canada Warbler	2 (0.11)		5 (0.28)	1 (0.06)								8
Wilson's Warbler			1 (0.06)		1 (0.06)							2
Worm-eating Warbler	8 (0.45)	2 (0.11)	4 (0.23)		1 (0.06)							15
Ovenbird	4 (0.23)	5 (0.28)	21 (1.19)	10 (0.57)	33 (1.88)	20 (1.28)	3 (0.20)	9 (0.80)	1 (0.06)	5 (0.33)		111
Louisiana Waterthrush	7 (0.40)	1 (0.06)	1 (0.06)			1 (0.06)						10
Northern Waterthrush	6 (0.34)	3 (0.17)	9 (0.51)	1 (0.06)	4 (0.23)		1 (0.07)					24
Common Yellowthroat	2 (0.11)	4 (0.23)	5 (0.28)	4 (0.23)	9 (0.51)	6 (0.38)	4 (0.26)	3 (0.27)	5 (0.29)	3 (0.20)		45
American Redstart	91 (5.17)	104 (5.91)	180 (10.23)	101 (5.74)	115 (6.53)	99 (6.35)	84 (5.56)	19 (1.70)	11 (0.64)	4 (0.26)		808
Blue Grosbeak	2 (0.11)	4 (0.23)	7 (0.40)					48 (1.2)				13
Rose-breasted Grosbeak		2 (0.11)				2 (0.13)						4
Northern Cardinal	162 (9.20)	161 (9.15)	135 (7.67)	115 (6.53)	102 (5.80)	71 (4.55)	64 (4.24)	48 (1.29)	82 (4.77)	51 (3.36)	57 (3.24)	1048
Indigo Bunting	11 (0.63)	17 (0.97)	1 (0.06)		1 (0.06)							30
Rufous-sided Towhee			1 (0.06)					48 (4.29)	1 (0.06)	10 (0.66)	12 (0.68)	59
Song Sparrow								1 (0.09)				1
Field Sparrow							1 (0.07)	8 (0.71)				180
Chipping Sparrow										43 (2.83)	128 (7.27)	
White-throated Sparrow										1 (0.07)	2 (0.11)	3
White-crowned Sparrow									1 (0.06)	4 (0.26)	29 (1.65)	34
Swamp Sparrow								1 (0.06)				1
Savannah Sparrow								2 (0.18)		2 (0.13)	29 (1.65)	33
Dark-eyed Junco	2 (0.11)										12 (0.68)	44
Red-winged Blackbird	1 (0.06)										1 (0.06)	23
Brown-headed Cowbird												1246
Common Grackle	263 (14.94)	42 (2.39)	123 (6.99)	191 (10.85)	220 (12.50)	20 (1.28)	203 (13.44)	93 (8.30)	16 (0.93)	7 (0.46)	68 (3.86)	35
Northern Oriole		3 (0.17)	22 (1.25)	8 (0.45)				2 (0.18)				7
Scarlet Tanager			1 (0.06)		1 (0.06)							67
Summer Tanager	7 (0.40)	14 (0.80)	19 (1.08)	25 (1.42)	2 (0.11)							2
American Goldfinch		1 (0.06)										32
UID Flycatcher		1 (0.06)	3 (0.17)	2 (0.11)	2 (0.11)	5 (0.32)	8 (0.53)	7 (0.63)	1 (0.06)	3 (0.20)		38
UID Crow			9 (0.51)	1 (0.06)	1 (0.06)	1 (0.06)	13 (0.86)	5 (0.45)	3 (0.17)	5 (0.33)	1 (0.06)	46
UID Thrush	1 (0.06)	1 (0.06)	1 (0.06)	1 (0.06)	5 (0.28)	10 (0.64)	1 (0.07)		12 (0.70)	9 (0.59)	5 (0.28)	6
UID Vireo	1 (0.06)	2 (0.11)	2 (0.11)	1 (0.06)	1 (0.06)		1 (0.07)					194
UID Warbler	4 (0.23)	6 (0.34)	15 (0.85)	3 (0.17)	13 (0.74)	45 (2.88)	44 (2.91)	4 (0.36)	44 (2.56)	15 (0.99)	1 (0.06)	20
UID Sparrow							3 (0.20)	5 (0.45)		3 (0.20)	9 (0.51)	2
UID Tanager	2 (0.11)											168
UID Bird	12 (0.68)	6 (0.34)	5 (0.28)	10 (0.57)	11 (0.63)	13 (0.83)	50 (3.31)	7 (0.63)	17 (0.99)	15 (0.99)	22 (1.25)	18
UID Hawk					5 (0.28)	7 (0.45)	1 (0.07)		4 (0.23)		1 (0.06)	19
UID Kinglet								9 (0.80)			10 (0.57)	5
UID Owl				2 (0.11)			1 (0.07)		2 (0.12)			1
UID Accliter					1 (0.06)							9
UID Woodpecker	1 (0.06)	1 (0.06)		2 (0.11)	1 (0.06)	3 (0.19)		1 (0.06)				2
UID Waterthrush	1 (0.06)	1 (0.06)										

NOAA COASTAL SERVICES CTR LIBRARY



3 6668 14111971 1

