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1 **MULTISCALE ASSESSMENT OF THE IMPACTS OF ROADS AND**
2 **CUTOVERS ON CALVING SITE SELECTION IN WOODLAND CARIBOU**

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20 **ABSTRACT**

21 Woodland caribou (*Rangifer tarandus caribou*) populations are declining worldwide, and
22 predation is considered their most important limiting factor in North America. Caribou
23 are known to reduce predation risk by spacing themselves away from predators and
24 alternative prey. This strategy is now compromised by forestry activities that reduce the
25 amount of suitable caribou habitat and trigger an increase in densities of alternative prey
26 and predators. Our objective was to investigate the influence of predation risk and food
27 availability on selection of a calving location by woodland caribou at three different
28 spatial scales (from coarse to fine: annual home range, calving home range, and forest
29 stand scales) in the boreal forest of Québec, Canada. Using GPS telemetry, we identified
30 calving locations and assessed those using Resource Selection Functions. We determined
31 habitat characteristics using digital ecoforest and topographic maps at the annual and
32 calving home range scales, and with vegetation surveys at the forest stand scale. Caribou
33 selected calving locations located at relatively high elevation and where road density was
34 low, both at the annual and calving home range scales. Within the annual home range
35 scale, they also selected calving locations where the proportion of young and old cutovers
36 was lower than in random areas of similar size. At the forest stand scale, females calved
37 away from roads and young cutovers, using stands where the basal area of black spruce
38 and balsam fir trees was low. At this fine scale, females still selected calving locations
39 located at a relatively high elevation and where the availability of food resources was
40 lower than in random areas located within the same habitat type. The selection of a
41 calving location was driven by predation risk from the largest to the finest spatial scale.
42 Therefore, our results suggest that females may not be able to lower predation risk at
43 larger scales, despite general avoidance of roads and cutovers. We recommend
44 amalgamating all forestry activities within intensive management zones in order to
45 spatially isolate large patches of suitable calving habitat from anthropogenic
46 disturbances. If not possible, we recommend concentrating forestry activities in low-lying
47 areas since caribou consistently selected for relatively high elevations at all scales.

48

49 **Keywords:** calving, cutovers, hierarchical habitat selection, Québec, woodland caribou.

50

51 **1. Introduction**

52 Caribou (*Rangifer tarandus*) populations are declining worldwide (Vors and
53 Boyce, 2009; Festa-Bianchet et al., 2011) and the southern limit of their range has
54 regressed northwards since the 19th century (McLoughlin et al., 2003; Vors et al., 2007).
55 Causes of this decline include hunting and poaching (Bergerud, 1971), habitat alteration
56 and loss (Nellemann and Cameron, 1996; Vors et al., 2007), cumulative impacts of
57 anthropogenic activities (Johnson et al., 2005), and predation (Seip, 1991; Gustine et al.,
58 2006). Predation is usually considered to be the most important proximal factor limiting
59 caribou populations (McLoughlin et al., 2003; Festa-Bianchet et al., 2011) and its effects
60 appear exacerbated by habitat alteration (Wittmer et al., 2007; Courbin et al., 2009).

61 Forest management that involves logging and the development of a dense forest
62 road network intensifies predation pressure on caribou (James and Stuart-Smith, 2000;
63 Vors et al., 2007). In addition to reducing the availability of preferred caribou winter
64 habitat, i.e., old-growth coniferous forest (Mahoney and Virgl, 2003; Bowman et al.,
65 2010), logging increases the proportion of early successional stands which are favourable
66 to moose (*Alces alces*; Potvin et al., 2005) and thus triggers a numerical response in wolf
67 (*Canis lupus*), the main predator of adult caribou (Seip, 1991; Gustine et al., 2006). Early
68 successional stands are also favourable to black bear (*Ursus americanus*; Brodeur et al.,
69 2008) which is recognized as an important predator of caribou calves (Mahoney and
70 Virgl, 2003; Pinard et al., 2012). Caribou appear able to reduce predation risk by wolves,
71 the predator with which it co-evolved, through spatial segregation (James et al., 2004) but
72 their calves suffer from black bear predation in regions where there is a significant human
73 footprint (Mahoney and Virgl, 2003; Pinard et al., 2012). Some authors have also
74 suggested that wolf-avoidance strategies displayed by caribou could result in an increased
75 exposure to predation risk by bear (Faille et al., 2010; Pinard et al., 2012; St-Laurent and
76 Dussault, 2012). If true, the wolf avoidance strategy used by caribou is potentially
77 maladaptive due to recent increases in bear density across caribou range.

78 Habitat selection is a hierarchical process (Johnson, 1980) through which an
79 animal aims to reduce the influence of limiting factors depending on their relative
80 importance, and the most important limiting factors likely drive selection patterns at
81 larger spatial scales (Rettie and Messier, 2000; Dussault et al., 2005). During the calving

82 period, female caribou select habitats that minimize predation risk, such as old-growth
83 coniferous forests (Lantin et al., 2003; Mahoney and Virgl, 2003), open lichen woodlands
84 and peatlands (McLoughlin et al., 2005; Hins et al., 2009), and areas located at high
85 elevation or in rugged terrain (Nellemann and Cameron, 1996; Pinard et al., 2012).
86 Females avoid cutovers and other regenerating areas (Hins et al., 2009), as well as cabins
87 and roads (Vistnes and Nellemann, 2001; Carr et al., 2011; Pinard et al., 2012). Such
88 anthropogenic features are known to be associated with higher predator occurrences
89 (Whittington et al., 2011), which results in higher predation risk (James and Stuart-Smith,
90 2000).

91 There have been few descriptions of calving site selection at a fine spatial scale,
92 and available studies yielded variable conclusions. For example, Carr et al. (2007) found
93 that female caribou were seeking a high density of mature trees, as well as thick
94 vegetation ground cover; Pinard et al. (2012) did not find any selection of concealment
95 cover, but showed avoidance of black spruce stands with a high basal area. Nevertheless,
96 both studies found that female caribou were selecting calving sites located at a high
97 elevation relative to surrounding areas. Both wolves and moose are known to use low
98 elevations and slopes as travel routes (Bergerud et al., 1984; Seip, 1991; Dussault et al.,
99 2007; Leblond et al., 2010; Tremblay-Gendron, 2012; Lesmerises et al., 2012). Thus,
100 high elevation can be used as a suitable strategy to maintain separation from wolves and
101 moose as well as to detect an oncoming predator and escape more efficiently (Chekchak
102 et al., 1998; Carr et al., 2007). It is possible that the selection of high elevations at larger
103 spatial scales decreases predation risk sufficiently so that caribou may switch selection
104 pattern toward the second most important limiting factor at a finer scale, food. Food can
105 also be a limiting factor guiding the selection of calving sites because energy
106 requirements are high during the last stages of gestation (McEwan and Whitehead, 1972)
107 and during lactation (Chan-McLoed et al., 1994). The abundance of terrestrial lichens,
108 forbs, and grasses, sources of food for lactating females (Bergerud and Nolan, 1970;
109 Bergerud, 1972), was shown to be important for calving site selection (Lantin et al.,
110 2003; Carr et al., 2007). We believe that a tradeoff between caribou food acquisition and
111 predation risk could explain regional disparities in calving site selection at a fine spatial
112 scale (Gustine et al., 2006; Panzacchi et al., 2010).

113 Our objective was to assess calving site selection of woodland caribou (*R. t.*
114 *caribou*; hereafter referred as caribou) at multiple spatial scales. We investigated the joint
115 influence of elevation and forestry activities on calving site selection by caribou, two
116 variables frequently reported to reduce and increase predation risk, respectively (Landers
117 et al., 1979; Bergerud et al., 1984). Assuming that predation by wolves is likely perceived
118 by caribou as their main limiting factor, we hypothesized that female caribou will select,
119 at larger spatial scales, calving sites located at high elevation and away from roads, where
120 predation risk by wolves have been shown to be lower (Bergerud et al., 1984; James and
121 Stuart-Smith, 2000; McPhee et al., 2012). We also predicted that, at finer spatial scale,
122 female caribou will select habitat types allowing them to find suitable food resources, the
123 second most important limiting factor. Because caribou diet in spring is diversified
124 (Bergerud and Nolan, 1970; Bergerud, 1972) and that energy requirements are high
125 during the last stages of gestation (McEwan and Whitehead, 1972) and during lactation
126 (Chan-McLoed et al., 1994), we expected calving sites to support relatively high
127 availabilities of forbs, grasses, and lichens. Further, we examined the potential trade-off
128 between predation risk and food availability by parturient caribou (Barten et al., 2001;
129 Gustine et al., 2006). Considering that caribou are known to reduce predation risk (Rettie
130 and Messier, 2000), we expected them to seek food resources away from cutovers,
131 especially at lower altitude where predators were shown to thrive in our study area
132 (Tremblay-Gendron, 2012; Lesmerises et al., 2012).

133

134 2. Study area

135 The study area (27,168 km²) was located 125 km north of Saguenay (Québec,
136 Canada; 48°28'-50°59' N, 69°59'-72°15' W). The northern part of the study area is
137 characteristic of the black spruce (*Picea mariana*) – moss (*Bryophyta*) domain, while the
138 southern part is transitional between the black spruce – moss and the balsam fir (*Abies*
139 *balsamea*) – white birch (*Betula papyrifera*) domains (Robitaille and Saucier, 1998). The
140 understory of the black spruce – moss domain is mainly composed of mosses, ericaceous
141 shrubs, and forbs (mostly *Cornus canadensis*, *Clintonia borealis*, and *Maianthemum*
142 *canadense*). The most common tree species are black spruce, balsam fir, jack pine (*Pinus*
143 *banksiana*), white birch, and trembling aspen (*Populus tremuloides*). Within the balsam

144 fir – white birch domain, the most abundant tree species are balsam fir, white birch, white
145 spruce (*Picea glauca*), and black spruce as well as trembling aspen. Topography is
146 characterized by low rolling relief ranging between 250 and 900 m (Robitaille and
147 Saucier, 1998). Mean annual temperature varied between -2°C and 0°C, and mean annual
148 precipitation ranged between 1,000 mm and 1,300 mm, 30% to 35% of which fell as
149 snow, while mean daily temperature during the calving period (21st May – 20th June)
150 varied between 10°C and 16°C (Robitaille and Saucier, 1998).

151

152 **3. Methods**

153 *3.1. Capture and determination of calving site*

154 Between 2004 and 2011, we captured a total of 38 female caribou using a net-gun
155 fired from a helicopter (Potvin and Breton, 1988), and equipped them with GPS collars
156 (Lotek 2200L or 3300L, Telonics TGW-3600). We programmed the GPS collars to
157 attempt location fixes every 4 hours. Capture and handling procedures were approved by
158 the Animal Welfare Committee of the Université du Québec à Rimouski (certificate no.
159 CPA-30-08-67). Following Pinard et al. (2012), we examined the movement pattern of
160 each female during the calving period (21st May – 20th June) to assess the location of its
161 calving site. Typically, females increase movement rates (from one to ten times) a few
162 days prior to calving (Bergerud et al., 1990), and then suddenly become sedentary for
163 approximately 3 days post-calving (Ferguson and Elkie, 2004) because of the restricted
164 mobility of the new-born calf (Pinard et al., 2012). The movement rate of females then
165 slowly increases (Ferguson and Elkie, 2004) as their calves become more agile. When we
166 observed this movement pattern for a female during a given calving season, we estimated
167 the calving site location as the centroid of all GPS locations recorded during the period of
168 restricted mobility (~ 3 days). Because our method did not allow us to find the placenta
169 or other evidence of the parturition site, we use the term “calving location” to account for
170 the fact that we could not accurately determine the true calving site.

171

172 *3.2. Data analysis*

173 As habitat selection is a hierarchical process and scale of selection may reveal the
174 influence of different limiting factors (Rettie and Messier, 2000), we assessed calving

175 location selection by female caribou at three different spatial scales: the annual home
176 range scale, the calving home range scale, and the forest stand scale. At the annual home
177 range and calving home range scales, we used 1:20,000 digital ecoforest maps, published
178 by the Ministère des Ressources naturelle et de la Faune du Québec, to describe caribou
179 habitat. We updated these maps annually to include habitat modifications resulting from
180 forestry practices and natural disturbances. Minimum mapping unit size was 4 ha for
181 forested polygons and 2 ha for non-forested areas (e.g., water bodies, bogs). Based on
182 previous studies (Hins et al., 2009; Leblond et al., 2011), we combined polygons
183 available on ecoforest maps into 8 habitat types (Table 1) known to be important for
184 caribou. We also created a digital elevation model using topographic maps.

185 We contrasted habitat use and availability by comparing the calving location with
186 10 locations randomly distributed within each individual annual home range (for the
187 annual home range scale) or calving (21st May – 20th June) home range (for the calving
188 home range scale) based on simulations obtained using the Pitman efficiency of the
189 Mantel-Haenszel test for stratified data (Mandrekar and Mandrekar, 2004). We defined
190 home ranges using 100% MCP (Mohr, 1947), because kernel estimation provides biased
191 estimates when animals exhibit site fidelity behaviour (Hemson et al., 2005) such as
192 caribou in our study area (Faille et al., 2010). MCPs are known to overestimate home
193 range size by including unused habitats (Grueter et al., 2009). However, our objective
194 was not to assess home range size but habitat selection, and MCPs were more likely to
195 provide the desired contrast between used and available habitat types to highlight habitat
196 selection. To consider the influence of the surrounding environment on habitat selection
197 and match the accuracy of calving location, we calculated the elevation, proportions of
198 coniferous stands, open lichen woodlands, peatlands, young (≤ 5 years-old) and old (6 –
199 40 years-old) cutovers as well as road density, within 829-m radius circular buffers
200 centered on each calving and random location. We used an 829-m buffer size as it
201 represented the median daily distance traveled by females during the calving period. We
202 conducted all spatial analyses using ArcGIS 10.0 (ESRI Inc., Redlands, California,
203 USA).

204 For the forest stand scale, we conducted vegetation surveys in the field that
205 allowed us to investigate fine scale habitat characteristics that cannot be assessed on

206 ecoforest maps but that might be crucial for the calving location selection. We contrasted
207 habitat use and availability by comparing vegetation characteristics found at the calving
208 location with three random locations distributed within the same habitat type (see Table
209 1) in the calving home range of each female. We measured visual obstruction provided
210 by vegetation (i.e., lateral cover) below 1 m above ground level in the four cardinal
211 directions, shrub density in three 4 m² plots spaced 15 m apart along a north – south axis,
212 basal tree area using a factor 2 prism, and percent ground cover of forbs, grasses, and
213 terrestrial lichens in three 1 m² plots spaced 15 m apart along a north – south axis. We
214 conducted vegetation surveys during the calving period in 2010 and 2011 to measure
215 environmental conditions experienced by females at that time of the year. Specifically for
216 the forest stand scale, we overlaid calving locations on ecoforest maps and removed
217 calving events from our analysis when a major disturbance occurred after a calving event
218 but before field surveys were conducted (2010 and 2011).

219

220 3.3. *Statistical analysis*

221 We used Resource Selection Functions (RSF; Manly et al., 2002) to assess
222 calving location selection at each spatial scale. We conducted conditional logistic
223 regressions using the library *Survival* in R 2.13.0 (R Development Core Team, 2011) to
224 compare the calving location (use) to random locations (availability), and used a
225 combination of female – year to define the conditional stratum. Prior to statistical
226 analyses, we assessed multicollinearity between independent variables using the variance
227 inflation factor, and confirmed that multicollinearity was absent from our dataset
228 (VIF<10; Graham, 2003). We performed model selection (Burnham and Anderson, 2001)
229 and evaluated different candidate models (see below) using the Quasi-likelihood under
230 Independence Criterion (QIC; Pan, 2001), since conditional logistic regression provides
231 pseudo-likelihood estimates (Pan, 2001). We used model averaging for models with a
232 $\Delta \text{QIC} < 2$.

233 We considered five hierarchically-structured candidate models for the annual and
234 calving home range scales as well for the forest stand scale (each containing different
235 variables). The ELEVATION, NATURAL, ROAD, CUTOVER, and COMPLETE
236 models (see Table 2 for model description) allowed us to assess the joint influence of

237 cutovers and elevation on calving location selection. As we expected that caribou might
238 experience trade-off between predation risk and food availability (Barten et al., 2001;
239 Gustine et al., 2006), we added elevation \times % young cutovers and elevation \times % old
240 cutovers interactions in more complex models.

241 We determined the fit of the best supported model at each spatial scale by using a
242 k-fold cross-validation (Boyce et al., 2002). We calculated parameter estimates using
243 80% of the strata (i.e., female – year combination), and applied the resulting equation to
244 calculate the logit values of the remaining 20%. We then ranked logit values in each
245 stratum and summed the number of real calving locations (used) in each rank. We
246 calculated a Spearman correlation between the rank and the number of real calving
247 locations (used) in each rank (Leblond et al., 2011), and repeated this procedure 1000
248 times.

249

250 **4. Results**

251 We identified and analyzed 51, 55, and 48 different calving locations at the annual
252 home range, calving home range and forest stand scales, respectively. The number of
253 calving locations differ among scales since we discarded calving locations where a major
254 disturbance occurred between the calving event and field surveys (forest stand scale), and
255 we were not able to define annual home ranges when a female died during a calving year.
256 At the larger spatial scales, i.e., the annual and calving home range scales, the most
257 parsimonious model was the ROAD model (Table 3). However, we conducted model
258 averaging at the annual home range scale because the CUTOVER model was equivalent
259 to the ROAD model (Δ QIC $<$ 2, Table 3). At both scales, females selected calving
260 locations at high elevations with a low road density (Table 4). Moreover, females
261 selected coniferous stands while avoiding young and old cutovers at the annual home
262 range scale, and peatlands at both the annual and calving home range scales (Table 4).
263 The validation procedure indicated that the most parsimonious models were robust to
264 cross-validation ($r_s \pm$ SD; annual home range scale = 0.76 ± 0.11 and calving home range
265 scale = 0.70 ± 0.14).

266 At the forest stand scale, 43 of the 48 calving locations were in coniferous stands,
267 3 in old cutovers, and 2 in peatlands. The best supported model from the candidate set

268 was the COMPLETE model (Table 3). At this fine scale, females still selected calving
269 locations away from roads and we found a tendency toward selection of higher elevations
270 (Table 4). Caribou response to young cutovers changed with elevation (Table 4). At a
271 relatively low elevation, the distance to young cutover did not have a strong influence on
272 calving location selection, while females selected calving location farther from young
273 cutovers more frequently than randomly expected at higher elevations (Figure 1).
274 Females also avoided calving in areas where lateral cover was dense and basal area of
275 mature trees, especially balsam fir, was high (Table 4). Finally, females selected calving
276 locations where the abundance of forbs, terrestrial lichens, and grasses was lower than
277 their availability at random sites (Table 4). The most parsimonious model at the forest
278 stand scale was also robust to cross-validation ($r_s \pm SD = 0.74 \pm 0.24$).

279

280 **5. Discussion**

281 Our objective was to investigate calving location selection by caribou at three
282 different spatial scales. Our results were consistent with the hypothesis that predation was
283 the primary limiting factor guiding calving location selection at large spatial scales.
284 Further, our results indicate that food availability did not influence calving location
285 selection at a finer spatial scale, providing limited support to the hypothesis that caribou
286 could limit predation risk at large scale and select for food availability at fine scale
287 (Rettie and Messier, 2000).

288 At the annual home range scale, calving females selected coniferous stands and
289 avoided young and old cutovers. Previous studies have suggested that female caribou
290 avoid calving in areas supporting a high vegetation biomass, such as cutovers, as they
291 perceive those habitats as more risky (Gustine et al., 2006). Conifer stands, on the other
292 hand, are recognized as suitable caribou habitat (Mahoney and Virgl, 2003; Hins et al.,
293 2009) that may favor spatial segregation between caribou and their predators and
294 alternative prey (James et al., 2004; Bowman et al., 2010). Roads and elevation, two
295 variables associated with predation risk, were also the two most important variables
296 driving selection of calving location at large spatial scales (Bergerud et al., 1984; Pinard
297 et al., 2012). Although we did not directly assess wolf predation risk, roads and other
298 linear corridors are known to facilitate wolf's movements across the landscape (James

299 and Stuart-Smith, 2000; Whittington et al., 2005), and caribou were shown to have a
300 higher probability of crossing a wolf's path along roads (Whittington et al., 2011),
301 resulting in increased predation risk (James and Stuart-Smith, 2000). Higher elevation
302 could help caribou to detect oncoming predator and escape more efficiently (Chekchak et
303 al., 1998; Carr et al., 2007) in addition to segregate from wolves (Bergerud et al., 1984;
304 Seip, 1991). Although variation in elevation in Québec is not as important as in other
305 parts of the caribou range (e.g. British Columbia or Alberta), studies conducted in the
306 same study area or close to our study area demonstrated that wolves (Tremblay-Gendron,
307 2012; Lesmerises et al., 2012) and moose (Dussault et al., 2007; Leblond et al., 2010)
308 strongly react to elevation or differences in elevation, preferring to use lower elevation
309 and gentle slope to move through the landscape. These findings, in addition to calving
310 females not showing strong selection toward food-rich habitat types, support the
311 hypothesis that predation is the main limiting factor influencing calving site selection at
312 large spatial scales (Gustine et al., 2006; Pinard et al., 2012).

313 The influence of elevation and roads on calving site selection was also present at
314 the smallest spatial scale investigated (Carr et al., 2007; Pinard et al., 2012), suggesting
315 that caribou could not sufficiently attenuate predation risk through habitat selection at
316 larger scales. In addition, females selected calving locations supporting a low basal area
317 of black spruce (Pinard et al., 2012) and balsam fir at the finest spatial scale. In
318 agreement with Pinard et al. (2012) but contrary to Carr et al. (2007), they also selected
319 calving locations with a low percentage of lateral cover. We hypothesize that the
320 enhanced visibility in these stands could help caribou detecting predators more rapidly
321 (Poole et al., 2007).

322 Caribou selected calving locations away from cutovers regardless of the elevation
323 and, contrary to our prediction, displayed stronger avoidance towards cutovers at high
324 elevations. We hypothesize that the capacity of caribou to avoid cutovers may be fully
325 expressed at high elevation, where cutovers are less ubiquitous, and that caribou are
326 forced to use areas with more abundant cutovers at lower elevation. A *post-hoc* analysis
327 demonstrated that the proportion of cutovers in the landscape is lower at higher
328 elevations (35.4% at < 650 m and 28.7% at > 650 m), but that suitable coniferous stands
329 are more common (42.5% at < 650 m and 52.7% at > 650 m). Females were also found to

330 select calving locations where the abundance of food resources (i.e., terrestrial lichens,
331 grasses, and forbs) was lower compared to random areas located in similar habitat types.
332 This finding suggests that food resources were clearly not an important variable in the
333 selection of a calving location, and predation risk remained the most important limiting
334 factor at fine spatial scale.

335 Females avoided peatlands at the calving home range scale, which is surprising
336 because this habitat type was previously reported to be selected (Rettie and Messier,
337 2000; Mahoney and Virgl, 2003), presumably because peatlands favor spatial segregation
338 from predators (James et al., 2004; McLoughlin et al., 2005). In our case, we argue that
339 peatlands were avoided because females selected areas located at higher relative
340 elevations to calve while peatlands are found on flat terrain at lower elevations relative to
341 the surrounding environment. Moreover, peatlands in our study area were a relatively rare
342 habitat type (2.1%) and were much smaller in size (average 6 ha) than the bog – fen
343 complexes found elsewhere in the caribou range (e.g., Newfoundland, Alberta). Given
344 the low abundance and size of peatlands in our study area, we believe that this may have
345 limited the capacity of caribou to use this habitat type to segregate from predators and
346 alternative prey.

347 We benefited from previous studies conducted in the same study area to develop a
348 more comprehensive understanding of caribou selection of a calving location. Faillie et al.
349 (2010) found that female caribou display range fidelity, especially during the calving
350 period. Nevertheless, fidelity to a calving location could be detrimental to calf survival in
351 cases where females continue to select a formerly suitable calving habitat that has
352 changed following major disturbances. If habitat selection is constrained by range fidelity
353 or is not sufficient to mitigate the influence of a dominant limiting factor, we could
354 expect responses to take place at other biological scales (*sensu* Johnson and St-Laurent,
355 2011), such as the physiological scale or the energetic balance. A companion study
356 recently demonstrated that caribou suffer physiological stress in response to
357 anthropogenic disturbances associated with forestry activities (Renaud, 2012). In addition
358 to demonstrating the negative influence of roads at all spatial scales, these studies suggest
359 that females could not completely escape road and cutover influence at any scale, and are
360 likely being forced to calve in suboptimal environments.

361

362 5. Management implications

363 Caribou selected particular habitat features to calve (Table 4). Our findings add
364 further support to earlier research which reported that woodland caribou are trying to
365 avoid predation at the coarsest spatial scale (Bergerud et al., 1990; Rettie and Messier,
366 2000), especially during the calving period (Hins et al., 2009; Pinard et al., 2012). We
367 demonstrated that anthropogenic disturbances originating from forestry activities, namely
368 roads and cutovers, are avoided at large spatial scales by females when seeking a calving
369 location. These anthropogenic features are decreasing the quality of caribou calving
370 habitat, as the distribution of roads and cutovers is known to shape predation risk across
371 the landscape by increasing black bear and wolf density both locally and regionally
372 (Landers et al., 1979; Potvin et al., 2005; Seip, 1991). Avoidance of roads and cutovers
373 was still detectable at the finest spatial scale investigated, suggesting that females were
374 not able to mitigate the negative influence of such disturbances at larger scales. In order
375 to reduce the negative impacts of roads and cutovers during this critical phase of the
376 caribou life cycle, we recommend conserving large tracts of mature forest exempt from
377 anthropogenic disturbances, where caribou may find suitable and safe calving locations
378 (Courtois et al., 2007, 2008; Lesmerises, 2011). In regions where such large, undisturbed
379 areas are no longer available, we suggest concentrating logging activities in low-lying
380 sectors to facilitate spatial segregation between caribou and predators (Bergerud et al.,
381 1984; Pinard et al., 2012). We believe that such strategies would limit overlap between
382 suitable calving locations and anthropogenic features originating from forestry activity,
383 helping to maintain sustainable woodland caribou populations within highly managed
384 landscapes.

385

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Table 1. Description of the different habitat types used to assess calving location selection by woodland caribou in Saguenay – Lac-Saint-Jean (Québec, Canada) between 2004 and 2011.

Habitat type	Description	Availability within the study area (%)
<i>Forested habitat types</i>		
Coniferous	Coniferous stands with dominant tree strata \geq 50-yr-old	45.3
Mixed and deciduous	Mixed and deciduous stands with dominant tree strata \geq 50-yr-old	4.1
Open lichen woodland	Coniferous forest with low tree density and usually terrestrial lichens	0.7
Peatlands	Poorly drained open areas (bogs and fens)	2.1
<i>Disturbed habitat types</i>		
Young cutover	Cutovers aged \leq 5-yr-old	7.8
Old cutover	Cutovers aged 6 to 40-yr-old	28.5
<i>Non-forested habitat types</i>		
Water bodies	Lakes and rivers	9.3
Others	Others non-forested areas	2.1

Table 2. Descriptions of the candidate models at the annual home-range scale, calving home-range scale, and forest stand scale used to assess the effect of elevation and anthropogenic disturbances on calving location selection by caribou in Saguenay – Lac-St-Jean (Québec, Canada) between 2004 and 2011.

Model	Variables
<i>Annual and calving home-range scales</i>	
ELEVATION	Elevation
NATURAL	ELEVATION + % coniferous + % open lichen woodland + % peatlands
ROAD	NATURAL + road density
CUTOVER	ROAD + % young cutovers + % old cutovers
COMPLETE	CUTOVER + Elevation × % young cutovers + Elevation × % old cutovers
<i>Forest stand scale</i>	
ELEVATION	Elevation
NATURAL	ELEVATION + basal area of black spruce, balsam fir, white birch + lateral cover + density of black spruce shrubs + % ground cover of forbs, grasses, lichens
ROAD	NATURAL + distance to the nearest road
CUTOVER	ROAD + distance to the nearest young cutover + distance to the nearest old cutover
COMPLETE	CUTOVER + Elevation × distance to the nearest young cutover + Elevation × distance to the nearest old cutover

Table 3. Results of the model selection process (see Table 2 for descriptions) to assess calving location selection by female caribou at the annual home-range scale, calving home-range scale, and forest stand scale in Saguenay – Lac-St-Jean (Québec, Canada) between 2004 and 2011. Candidate models are listed with their Log-likelihood (LL), number of parameters (K), the difference in Quasi-likelihood under Independence Criterion compared to the best model (Δ QIC), and the model weight (w_i).

Model	LL	K	Δ QIC	w_i
<i>Annual home-range scale (n=51)</i>				
ELEVATION	-99.49	1	37.00	0.00
NATURAL	-85.63	4	13.73	0.00
ROAD	-77.88	5	0.00	0.58
CUTOVER	-77.38	7	1.70	0.25
COMPLETE	-77.07	9	2.38	0.17
<i>Calving home-range scale (n=55)</i>				
ELEVATION	-114.85	1	21.45	0.00
NATURAL	-111.28	4	19.74	0.00
ROAD	-101.11	5	0.00	0.82
CUTOVER	-100.68	7	3.51	0.14
COMPLETE	-99.88	9	6.30	0.04
<i>Forest stand scale (n=48)</i>				
ELEVATION	-59.14	1	17.75	0.00
NATURAL	-50.84	9	13.00	0.00
ROAD	-45.87	10	2.39	0.20
CUTOVER	-44.92	12	2.80	0.16
COMPLETE	-42.73	14	0.00	0.64

Table 4. Mean (\pm SE) used and availability in the dataset and the coefficients of the variables included in the best supported models, or in the averaged model at the annual home-range scale, to assess calving location selection by female caribou at the annual home-range scale, calving home-range scale, and forest stand scale in Saguenay – Lac-St-Jean (Québec, Canada) between 2004 and 2011. Each variable is presented with its coefficient (β), robust standard error (SE), and 95% confidence interval of odds ratio.

Variable	Use (mean \pm SE)	Availability (mean \pm SE)	β	SE	95% confidence interval	
					Lower limit	Upper limit
<i>Annual home-range scale (n=51)</i>						
Elevation (m)	652 \pm 10	591 \pm 4	0.016	0.003	1.010	1.023
% coniferous	0.599 \pm 0.037	0.386 \pm 0.011	2.193	1.336	0.613	131.165
% open lichen woodland	0.018 \pm 0.007	0.031 \pm 0.003	-2.510	2.656	>0.001	16.809
% peatlands	0.014 \pm 0.002	0.030 \pm 0.003	-			
Road density (km/km ²)	0.399 \pm 0.111	1.162 \pm 0.052	14.048	7.719	>0.001	4.258
% young cutovers	0.067 \pm 0.023	0.086 \pm 0.008	-0.925	0.289	0.222	0.709
			-0.360	0.457	0.279	1.747

	0.156 ±	0.319 ±				
% old cutovers	0.026	0.013	-0.497	0.708	0.147	2.518
<hr/>						
<i>Calving home-range scale (n=55)</i>						
Elevation (m)	652 ± 9	616 ± 3	0.022	0.005	1.013	1.031
	0.596 ±	0.529 ±				
% coniferous	0.036	0.011	-0.163	0.995	0.121	5.969
	0.016 ±	0.015 ±				
% open lichen woodland	0.007	0.002	-0.533	2.678	0.003	111.714
	0.014 ±	0.024 ±		-		
% peatlands	0.002	0.002	17.350	6.871	<0.001	0.021
	0.417 ±	0.862 ±				
Road density (km/km ²)	0.108	0.048	-1.385	0.378	0.119	0.525
<hr/>						
<i>Forest stand scale (n=48)</i>						
Elevation (m)	655 ± 9	634 ± 5	0.015	0.009	0.998	1.032
Lateral cover below 1m (%)	79 ± 3	80 ± 1	-0.025	0.013	0.952	1.000
Basal area of black spruce trees (m ² /ha)	15.5 ± 2.1	16.8 ± 1.2	-0.037	0.017	0.933	0.995
Basal area of balsam fir trees (m ² /ha)	3.5 ± 0.9	6.4 ± 0.72	-0.099	0.037	0.842	0.974
Basal area of white birch trees (m ² /ha)	0.5 ± 0.4	0.3 ± 0.1	-0.056	0.067	0.829	1.078
Black spruce shrub density (stems/4m ²)	7.6 ± 0.9	7.3 ± 0.6	0.041	0.031	0.980	1.107
Forbs ground cover (%)	16.7 ± 2.6	16.3 ± 1.6	-0.014	0.015	0.959	1.015

Grass ground cover (%)	3.4 ± 0.9	3.2 ± 0.8	-0.055	0.028	0.896	0.998
Terrestrial lichens ground cover (%)	2.8 ± 1.1	4.7 ± 1.1	-0.065	0.028	0.887	0.990
Distance to the nearest road (km)	1.7 ± 0.3	1.4 ± 0.1	1.621	0.663	1.371	18.678
Distance to the nearest young cutover (km)	2.1 ± 0.3	1.8 ± 0.2	-5.277	2.376	<0.001	0.537
Distance to the nearest old cutover (km)	1.1 ± 0.2	1.1 ± 0.1	-3.479	4.142	<0.001	103.395
Elevation × Distance to the nearest young cutover	-	-	0.008	0.003	1.001	1.015
Elevation × Distance to the nearest old cutover	-	-	0.004	0.006	0.993	1.016

Figure 1. Relationship between the relative occurrence probability of a caribou calving location and the elevation \times distance to nearest young cutover interaction, as predicted by the COMPLETE model at the forest stand scale from data collected in Saguenay – Lac-St-Jean (Québec, Canada) between 2004 and 2011. We fitted 3 curves originating from the COMPLETE model to investigate the influence of the distance to the nearest young cutover using the 1st, 2nd, and 3rd quartile of the distance to nearest young cutover values, i.e., 0.399 km, 1.621 km, and 2.629 km, respectively.

