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## Multi-trophic occupancy modeling connects temporal dynamics of woodpeckers and beetle sign following fire --Manuscript Draft--

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<b>Keywords:</b>	Picoides arcticus; black-backed woodpecker; wildfire; Buprestidae and Cerambycidae; California; insect abundance
<b>Abstract:</b>	In conifer forests of western North America, wildlife populations can change rapidly in the decade following wildfire as trees die and animals respond to concomitant resource pulses that occur across multiple trophic levels. In particular, black-backed woodpeckers ( <i>Picoides arcticus</i> ) show predictable temporal increases then declines following fire that have been hypothesized to be a response to their main prey: woodboring beetle larvae of the families Buprestidae and Cerambycidae. Here, we pair woodpecker surveys over 10 years with surveys of woodboring beetle sign and activity, collected at 128 survey plots across 22 recent fires, to ask whether accumulated beetle sign indicates current or past black-backed woodpecker occurrence, and whether that relationship is mediated by the number of years since fire. We test this relationship using an integrative multi-trophic occupancy model. Our results demonstrate that woodboring beetle sign is a positive indicator of woodpecker presence 1–3 years following fire, an uninformative indicator from 4-6 years after fire, and a negative indicator beginning 7 years following fire. Woodboring beetle activity, itself, is temporally variable and dependent on tree species composition, with beetle sign generally accumulating over time, particularly in stands with diverse tree communities, but decreasing over time in <i>Pinus</i> -dominated stands where faster bark decay rates lead to brief pulses of beetle activity followed by rapid degradation of tree substrate and accumulated beetle sign. Altogether, the strong connections of woodpecker occurrence to beetle activity support prior hypotheses of how multi-trophic interactions govern rapid temporal dynamics of primary and secondary consumers in burned forests. While our results indicate that beetle sign is, at best, a rapidly shifting and potentially misleading measure of woodpecker occurrence, the better we understand the interacting mechanisms underlying temporally dynamic systems, the more successfully we will be able to predict the outcomes of management actions.
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2 and beetle sign following fire

3

4 Running title: Connecting woodpecker occurrence to prey sign

5

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16 **ABSTRACT**

17 In conifer forests of western North America, wildlife populations can change rapidly in the  
18 decade following wildfire as trees die and animals respond to concomitant resource pulses that  
19 occur across multiple trophic levels. In particular, black-backed woodpeckers (*Picoides arcticus*)  
20 show predictable temporal increases then declines following fire that have been hypothesized   
21 be a response to their main prey: woodboring beetle larvae of the families Buprestidae and  
22 Cerambycidae. Here, we pair woodpecker surveys over 10 years with surveys of woodboring  
23 beetle sign and activity, collected at 128 survey plots across 22 recent fires, to ask whether  
24 accumulated beetle sign indicates current or past black-backed woodpecker occurrence, and  
25 whether that relationship is mediated by the number of years since fire. We test this relationship  
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27 beetle sign is a positive indicator of woodpecker presence 1–3 years following fire, an  
28 uninformative indicator from 4–6 years after fire, and a negative indicator beginning 7 years  
29 following fire. Woodboring beetle activity, itself, is temporally variable and dependent on tree  
30 species composition, with beetle sign generally accumulating over time, particularly in stands  
31 with diverse tree communities, but decreasing over time in *Pinus*-dominated stands where faster  
32 bark decay rates lead to brief pulses of beetle activity followed by rapid degradation of tree  
33 substrate and accumulated beetle sign. Altogether, the strong connections of woodpecker  
34 occurrence to beetle activity support prior hypotheses of how multi-trophic interactions govern  
35 rapid temporal dynamics of primary and secondary consumers in burned forests. While our  
36 results indicate that beetle sign is, at best, a rapidly shifting and potentially misleading measure  
37 of woodpecker occurrence, the better we understand the interacting mechanisms underlying



38 temporally dynamic systems, the more successfully we will be able to predict the outcomes of  
39 management actions.

40


41

42 **Keywords:** *Picoides arcticus*; black-backed woodpecker; wildfire; Buprestidae and



43 Cerambycidae; California; insect abundance


## 44 INTRODUCTION

45 Dead and dying trees are the key resource driving post-fire biodiversity pulses in the  
46 western United States, as fire unlocks hundreds of years of stored energy in the form of cellulose  
47 and other plant tissue [1]. Fire-killed trees attract insects – particularly woodboring beetles of the  
48 families Cerambycidae and Buprestidae – which lay their eggs on or in the bark of dead trees.  
49 For many years after a fire, woodboring beetle larvae feed on the accessible wood tissue,  
50 forming "galleries" underneath the bark [2]. Beetle larvae are in turn a desirable food resource,  
51 and their presence attracts woodpeckers of multiple species, which nest and forage in high  
52 densities in recent post-fire forests [3,4]. The nest holes of woodpeckers subsequently attract and  
53 shelter many other wildlife species as well, including owls, flying squirrels, and a variety of  
54 secondary cavity-nesting passerine birds [5].

55 Food resource availability can predict abundance or occurrence of predators, but only if  
56 food resource availability is a primary limiting factor of population size [6,7]. Different bird  
57 populations show evidence both for [8–10] and against [11] population limitation due to specific  
58 resource availability, and knowledge of the factors limiting species presence can be important for  
59 conservation and management.  This is especially true for species of conservation concern like  
60 the black-backed woodpecker (*Picoides arcticus*), a species which is closely associated with  
61 post-fire conifer forests in western North America. Black-backed woodpeckers are known to  
62 forage primarily on the larvae of woodboring beetles [4], although recent dietary analysis  
63 indicates a wider dietary breadth that commonly includes insects of the orders Diptera, Araneae,  
64 and Hymenoptera [12]. Nevertheless, activity and abundance of woodboring beetles declines  
65 with time since fire [13], mirroring a temporal pattern of occupancy and abundance that has also  
66 been well-documented in black-backed woodpeckers [14,15], and suggesting that woodboring

67 beetle larvae abundance may fundamentally be driving the post-fire dynamics of black-backed  
68 woodpeckers.

69 Finding further similarities in spatial and temporal patterns of both woodboring beetles  
70 and black-backed woodpeckers could further clarify the degree of linkage between black-backed  
71 woodpecker population size and beetle prey abundance.  Links between black-backed  
72 woodpeckers and their beetle prey would also suggest that monitoring for one may provide  
73 inference on the abundance of the other. If a strong link exists, it could enable more efficient  
74 assessment of cross-trophic, post-fire biodiversity from relatively simple, standard surveys. For  
75 example, beetle surveys could be used as a proxy for woodpecker abundance in some cases. 

76 Post-fire temporal dynamics of both woodpeckers and woodboring beetles could also  
77 depend on forest composition. Ray et al. (2019) documented that beetle activity varied by tree  
78 species, with trees of genus *Pinus* decaying more quickly and thus harboring larger numbers of  
79 woodboring beetles in the first few years following fire. Dominant tree species has been  
80 hypothesized to impact occurrence patterns of black-backed woodpeckers [14], but a mechanistic  
81 relationship tying woodpeckers to particular tree species as a function of time since fire has  
82 never been clarified. 

83 In 2018, we surveyed for both larval woodboring beetles and black-backed woodpeckers  
84 at 128 points arrayed across 22 fires that burned sometime in the previous ten years. Using beetle  
85 larvae sign to create a cumulative index of ‘food availability’, we ask the following two  
86 questions: 1) do food resources predict black-backed woodpecker occurrence? and 2) do  
87 different tree species differentially provide foraging resources for black-backed woodpeckers in  
88 burned forests? We provide a novel multi-trophic occupancy modeling framework to answer

89 these questions and connect tree species, beetle larvae surveys, and woodpecker detections  
90 across burned forests throughout the decade after fire.

91

## 92 **METHODS**

### 93 *Study area and survey methods*

94 We conducted black-backed woodpeckers surveys as part of a long-term project to monitor bird  
95 occupancy and trends following forest fire in montane forests of eastern California. Our study  
96 area comprised ten contiguous National Forest units within the Sierra Nevada and Southern  
97 Cascades ecoregions of California (Fig. 1), with forest types dominated by Sierra mixed conifer  
98 (primarily *Pinus ponderosa*, *P. lambertiana*, *Abies concolor*, *Pseudotsuga menziesii*, *Calocedrus*  
99 *decurrens*, and *Quercus kelloggii*) and eastside pine (*Pinus ponderosa* dominated with some *P.*  
100 *jeffreyi*). Higher elevation areas contain larger proportions of firs (*A. concolor* and *A. magnifica*)  
101 and *Pinus contorta*. In this study region, we randomly selected 50 fires to visit in 2018 that met  
102 our sampling criteria of having burned within the previous 10 years and containing at least 50 ha  
103 of conifer forest that burned at mid- or high-severity in one of the ten target National Forest  
104 units. Many of these fires had been surveyed for black-backed woodpeckers one or more times  
105 during the preceding decade, yielding data which we also used in this study. At each of the 50  
106 fires, we randomly generated a target starting location within the fire perimeter, and crews  
107 established black-backed woodpecker survey transects beginning as close as possible to the  
108 target location. Each transect consisted of approximately 20 survey points, located a minimum of  
109 250 m from each other to minimize double-counting of individuals. All surveys included a 6-  
110 minute broadcast survey (subdivided into three 2-minute detection intervals), during which  
111 electronic broadcasts of black-backed woodpecker vocalizations and territorial drumming

112 (obtained from The Macaulay Library of Natural Sounds, Cornell Laboratory of Ornithology;  
113 recorded by G.A. Keller) were played for 30 seconds, followed by a 1.5-minute silent  
114 observation period. At alternating points, broadcast surveys were preceded by a 7-minute passive  
115 survey (subdivided into detection intervals of 3, 2, and 2 minutes, respectively). We followed a  
116 removal methodology where call broadcasts were suspended after the first detection. We  
117 conducted surveys in the morning hours (0530–0930) between 4 May and 18 July each year.

118

119 **Fig. 1.** Locations of the 22 fires (red dots) surveyed for woodboring beetles and black-  
120 backed Woodpeckers within U.S. National Forest units in California.

121

122 In 2018, we also conducted targeted woodboring beetle surveys at a subset of 22 of the  
123 50 fires visited for black-backed woodpecker surveys. We used preliminary results from our  
124 2018 black-backed woodpecker surveys to select equal numbers of fires to survey for  
125 woodboring beetles in each of 3 categories: fires where we detected black-backed woodpeckers  
126 at > 50% of survey points; fires where we detected black-backed woodpeckers at < 50% of  
127 points; and fires where we detected no black-backed woodpeckers. At each fire we randomly  
128 selected six woodpecker survey points at which to conduct woodboring beetle surveys. Up to  
129 three of those points were drawn from points where Black-backed Woodpeckers had been  
130 detected earlier that summer; the remaining points were drawn from the points at which black-  
131 backed woodpeckers were not detected that year.

132 Woodboring beetle surveys involved assessing the six closest snags to each selected  
133 black-backed woodpecker survey point for larvae activity and sign, and overall condition. Larvae  
134 activity and sign were assessed on and under each of two 15 cm x 15 cm bark samples that were

135 removed from the tree, one from the north side of the trunk and one from the south side of the  
 136 trunk, taken at the DBH line. Each bark sample was given a single, holistic woodboring beetle  
 137 activity score determined by presence/absence of activity by sample quadrant on bark exterior,  
 138 interior and sapwood (frass/boring dust, exit/entrance holes, galleries, and presence of larvae).  
 139 Tree species and physical characteristics (DBH, tree height, high/low bark char heights, needle  
 140 presence and color) were collected at each snag. Detailed data collection procedures are provided  
 141 in Ray et al. (2019).

142 Our analysis dataset consisted of surveys for black-backed woodpeckers and beetle  
 143 activity at 128 points located within 22 fires (Table 1). While beetle surveys were conducted  
 144 only in 2018, fires ranged in their number of years since fire (1–10) and in the number of years  
 145 they had been surveyed previously for black-backed woodpeckers prior to 2018 (28 points  
 146 surveyed in 0 prior years, 24 points in 1 year, 6 points in 2 years, 24 points in 3 years, 6 points in  
 147 4 years, 12 points in 5 years, 11 points in 6 years, 12 points in 7 years, and 5 points in 8 years).  
 148 We used woodpecker survey data from all previous visits – in addition to our 2018 woodpecker  
 149 and beetle surveys – to model changing woodpecker occurrence over time as a function of beetle  
 150 sign evident in 2018.

151

152 **Table 1.** Fires surveyed for both black-backed woodpeckers and woodboring beetles.  
 153 Beetle surveys were conducted in 2018 and woodpecker surveys were conducted in  
 154 2018 and up to 8 additional years prior.

Fire Name	Year Burned	U.S. National Forest Unit	No. of Beetle Survey Points	Black-backed Woodpecker Survey Years
Aspen	2013	Sierra	6	2014, 2015, 2016, 2017, 2018
Bald	2014	Lassen	6	2015, 2016, 2017, 2018

Barry Point	2012	Modoc	6	2013, 2014, 2015, 2018
Clark	2016	Inyo	6	2017, 2018
Cold	2008	Plumas	6	2012, 2013, 2014, 2016, 2017, 2018
Cougar	2011	Modoc	6	2012, 2014, 2015, 2018
Cove	2017	Modoc	6	2018
Fox	2008	Plumas	6	2011, 2013, 2014, 2015, 2016, 2017, 2018
Frog	2015	Modoc	6	2016, 2017, 2018
George	2012	Sequoia	5	2013, 2014, 2015, 2016, 2017, 2018
Granite	2009	Sequoia	6	2010, 2011, 2013, 2014, 2015, 2016, 2017, 2018
Lion	2009	Sequoia	6	2010, 2011, 2014, 2013, 2015, 2016, 2017, 2018
Minerva 5	2017	Plumas	6	2018
Onion 2	2008	Lassen	5	2010, 2011, 2012, 2013, 2014, 2015, 2016, 2017, 2018
Owens River	2016	Inyo	6	2017, 2018
Peak	2012	Plumas	6	2015, 2016, 2017, 2018
Pier	2017	Sequoia	6	2018
Railroad	2017	Sierra	6	2018
Rough	2015	Sierra	4	2017, 2018
Scotch	2008	Plumas	6	2009, 2010, 2012, 2013, 2014, 2015, 2018
Soup 2	2016	Modoc	6	2017, 2018
Steele	2017	Modoc	6	2018

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159 *Analytical Approach*


160 We developed a hierarchical model in a Bayesian context to jointly model both the dynamics of  
161 beetle activity intensity over time within our plots, as well as the occurrence – accounting for  
162 imperfect detection – of black-backed woodpeckers at those same plots. The model largely  
163 follows the structure of a single-species occupancy model [16], where woodpecker observations  
164 of detection or non-detection,  $y_{jkt}$ , for survey interval  $k$  at site  $j$  (where sites are individual  
165 survey points) in year  $t$ , are assumed to be imperfectly observed representations of the true  
166 occurrence status,  $z_{jt}$  (present or absent), which is constant across all  $k$  survey intervals (i.e.,  
167 closure is assumed within the <17-minute survey period) but can change from year to year.  
168 Observed occurrence of black-backed woodpeckers,  $y_{jkt}$ , is thus modeled as

169 
$$y_{jkt} \sim \text{Bernoulli}(z_{jt}p_{jkt}), \quad (1)$$

170 where  $p_{jkt}$  is the probability of detection for a given survey at a site. Similarly, the true  
171 occurrence status of a site in year  $t$ ,  $z_{jt}$ , is modeled as

172 
$$z_{jt} \sim \text{Bernoulli}(\psi_{jt}), \quad (2)$$

173 where  $\psi_{jt}$  is the probability of occurrence at a site.

174 The probabilities of woodpecker detection and occurrence are both modeled as logit-  
175 linear functions of *a priori* hypothesized covariates.  Following previous work studying black-  
176 backed woodpeckers with this survey methodology [14,15,17], we expected detection,  $p_{jkt}$ , to  
177 vary as a function of an intercept and the linear additive combination of a categorical covariate  
178 representing the survey type (passive = 0, broadcast = 1), giving

179 
$$\text{logit}(p_{jkt}) = \alpha_0 + \alpha_{type} \text{type}_k. \quad (3)$$

180 The probability of woodpecker occupancy of a survey point was modeled as a function of  
181 six covariates: (1) elevation, (2) latitude, (3) snag density, (4) intensity of beetle larvae activity



182 (as indirectly measured by cumulative beetle sign since the fire; modeled as a latent variable, see  
 183 below), and (5) an interaction between years-since-fire and the intensity of beetle larvae activity  
 184 (with the hypothesis that cumulative beetle sign becomes less predictive over time). Snag counts  
 185 were conducted immediately after completing woodpecker surveys and consisted of counting all  
 186 snags of different size classes (10-30, 30-60, and >60 cm dbh) within 50 m of each survey point.  
 187 Size-specific snag counts were aggregated in the field into different categories ( $\leq 5$ , 6-15, 16-30,  
 188 31-50, 51-100, >100), which were converted to numerical quantities (1, 6, 16, 31, 51, 101,  
 189 respectively) for analysis [15]. Counts across all three size classes were summed in order to  
 190 calculate snag density (snags/ha). The linear additive model for occupancy in the first year of  
 191 surveys can be described as

$$192 \quad \text{logit}(\psi_{j,t=1}) = \beta_0 + \beta_{elev} \text{elev}_j + \beta_{lat} \text{lat}_j + \beta_{snag} \text{snag}_{jt} + \beta_{beetle} \text{intensity}_{jt} +$$

$$193 \quad \beta_{age \times beetle} \text{age}_{jt} \text{intensity}_{jt}, \quad (4)$$

194 where  $\beta$  represents intercept and slope parameters. To account for pseudoreplication and  
 195 temporal autocorrelation derived by sampling sites repeatedly in consecutive years, we added a  
 196 temporal autocorrelation term [18],  $\phi$ , which was multiplied by the true occurrence status in year  
 197  $t-1$ , resulting in the following model for additional post-fire years,

$$198 \quad \text{logit}(\psi_{j,t>1}) = \beta_0 + \beta_{elev} \text{elev}_j + \beta_{lat} \text{lat}_j + \beta_{snag} \text{snag}_{jt} + \beta_{beetle} \text{intensity}_{jt}$$

$$199 \quad + \beta_{age \times beetle} \text{age}_{jt} \text{intensity}_{jt} + \phi z_{j,t-1}$$

$$200 \quad . \quad (5)$$

201 As 2018 was the last year of surveys used in this dataset, and also the only year with *in situ*  
 202 beetle activity surveys, all surveys conducted in 2018 held the temporal index of  $t=10$ . Surveys  
 203 in previous years ( $t = 1, \dots, 9$ ) were treated as missing data if no surveys occurred at a site in that  
 204 survey-year.

205 A novel feature of our multi-trophic model is that we treat cumulative beetle larvae sign  
 206 at a survey point in a given year (intensity<sub>jt</sub>) as a latent (i.e., indirectly observed), continuous  
 207 variable. We are then able to model beetle larvae sign as a function of different environmental  
 208 variables hypothesized to relate to beetle activity and to account for the known dynamic that  
 209 beetle sign generally accumulates over time even though overall activity may decline. Thus, we  
 210 hypothesized that the intensity of beetle sign at a site in a given year (intensity<sub>jt</sub>) varies as a  
 211 function of: (1) the number of years since fire; (2) the proportion of sampled trees per point that  
 212 were of the genus *Pinus*; (3) and an interaction between the proportion of pines and years since  
 213 fire. Based on previous work [13], we hypothesized that beetle sign increases over time (as sign  
 214 is generally cumulative and lasting), but that pines would have greater activity in early post-fire  
 215 years and lower activity in later post-fire years (as pine bark generally decomposes faster than  
 216 bark of other trees in our study areas). We thus modeled beetle sign intensity as,

$$217 \quad \text{logit}(\text{intensity}_{jt}) = \gamma_0 + \gamma_{age} \text{age}_{jt} + \gamma_{pine} \text{pine}_j + \gamma_{age \times pine} \text{age}_{jt} \text{pine}_j. \quad (6)$$

218 We fit this model to observed data collected in 2018, by treating the total sum of beetle sign  
 219 scores across all surveyed trees per point (max = 6) as a binomially distributed variable, as  
 220 follows,

$$221 \quad \text{activity}_j \sim \text{binomial}(\text{intensity}_{j,t=10}, \text{numTrees}_j * 8), \quad (7)$$

222 where the maximum activity score is a product of the number of trees sampled per point  
 223 (numTrees<sub>j</sub>) and the maximum potential activity score per tree (i.e., 8).


224 We fit the model to the data with JAGS [19] using the R statistical programming  
 225 language version 4.0.2 (R Core Team, 2019) and the package ‘R2jags’ [21]. We used vague  
 226 priors (i.e., normal with  $\mu = 0$ ,  $\tau = 0.1$ ). We ran three chains of 50,000 iterations thinned by 50  
 227 with a burn-in of 50,000, yielding a posterior sample of 3,000 across all chains. Convergence

228 was checked visually with traceplots and confirmed with a Gelman-Rubin statistic  $< 1.1$  [22] .  
229 Inference on parameters was made using 95% Bayesian credible intervals (95 CI).

230

## 231 **RESULTS**

232 *Do food resources predict recent black-backed woodpecker occurrence?*

233 We found no temporally consistent relationship between woodpecker occupancy and the  
234 intensity of beetle sign ( $\beta_{beetle} = 0.74$ , 95% CI = -2.33, 3.88), but a strong interactive  
235 relationship of beetle sign intensity with fire age on woodpecker occupancy ( $\beta_{age \times beetle} = -0.88$ ,  
236 95% CI = -1.38, -0.40).  This strong relationship indicates that in the first few years following  
237 fire, beetle sign is a positive indicator of black-backed woodpecker occupancy, but by 10 years  
238 after fire, beetle sign is a negative indicator of black-backed woodpecker occupancy (Fig. 2).

239

240 **Fig. 2.** Black-backed woodpecker occupancy as a function of an index of intensity of  
241 woodboring beetle sign, with the relationship differing depending on the number of  
242 years since fire (only 5 years shown, for clarity). Solid lines represent posterior means  
243 and ribbons represent partial 95% credible intervals representing uncertainty only in the  
244 interaction between beetle sign and years since fire.

245

246 *Do different tree species differentially provide foraging resources for black-backed woodpeckers  
247 over time in post-fire forests?*

248 Consistent with our hypotheses, beetle sign was higher in plots with a greater proportion of pine  
249 trees ( $\gamma_{pine} = 0.36$ , 95% CI = 0.20, 0.53) and also generally increased over time following fire  
250 ( $\gamma_{age} = 0.30$ , 95% CI = 0.20, 0.32). However, we found a strong negative interaction between


251 these two variables on beetle sign intensity ( $\gamma_{\text{ageXpine}} = -0.62$ , 95% CI = -0.74, -0.49), such that  
252 beetle sign increases over time in plots that are primarily trees other than of the genus *Pinus*, but  
253 actually decreases over time when plots are mostly pine trees (Fig. 3).

254

255 **Fig. 3.** Index of intensity of woodboring beetle sign as a function of the number of years  
256 post-fire and the percentage of trees of the genus *Pinus* sampled in each plot. Solid  
257 lines represent posterior means and ribbons represent 95% credible intervals around  
258 the predicted intensity index.

259

#### 260 *Additional findings*

261 We found positive associations of occupancy with higher elevation and latitude, a weak positive  
262 association of occupancy with snag density (controlling for beetle activity), and a strong effect of  
263 survey type (passive vs. broadcast surveys) on detectability (Table 2). 

264

265

266 **Table 2.** Posterior estimates of model parameters. Slope parameters with 95%  
 267 Bayesian credible intervals that do not cross zero suggest strong relationships and are  
 268 highlighted in bold.

Response	Parameter	Estimate	Lower 95% CI	Upper 95% CI
Woodpecker detection	Intercept	-5.16	-7.19	-3.74
-	<b>Survey type</b>	5.43	3.93	7.51
Woodpecker occupancy	Intercept	-1.59	-3.18	-0.08
-	Beetle sign	0.74	-2.33	3.88
-	<b>Beetle sign * fire age</b>	-0.88	-1.38	-0.40
-	<b>Elevation</b>	1.19	0.78	1.69
-	<b>Latitude</b>	0.98	0.60	1.46
-	Snag density	0.15	-0.01	0.31
-	<b>Temporal autocorrelation</b>	0.94	0.16	1.74
Beetle activity	Intercept	-0.13	-0.22	-0.04
-	<b>Proportion of pines</b>	0.36	0.19	0.54
-	<b>Years since fire (fire age)</b>	0.26	0.20	0.32
-	<b>Proportion of pines * fire age</b>	-0.62	-0.74	-0.49

269

270

271 **DISCUSSION**

272 We found strong relationships between woodpecker occurrence and the intensity of beetle sign;  
 273 however, the magnitude and direction of these relationships changes rapidly over time. In  
 274 particular, beetle sign 1–3 years post-fire appears to be a good indicator of occupancy by black-  
 275 backed woodpeckers during that time period – perhaps even a better indicator than snag density  
 276 (which is often used as a spatial indicator of woodpecker occupancy within fires; [14,17,23].

277 However, between 4–7 years post-fire, the signal from beetle sign becomes muddled, with little  
278 to no relationship between beetle sign and woodpecker occupancy. By 10-years post-fire, the  
279 relationship has reversed, with areas of high beetle sign showing lower black-backed  
280 woodpecker occupancy.

281         The likely reason behind this inverse relationship is that beetle activity sign should  
282 monotonically accumulate over time in the first decade following fire (until trees decay so much  
283 that sign deteriorates), even if beetle activity, itself, strongly declines with time [24,25]. For  
284 example, a particular tree may only contain large numbers of beetle larvae for the first 3–4 years  
285 following fire, but may continue to accumulate beetle activity sign gradually for a full decade.  
286 Consequently, by 10 years post-fire, the accumulated sign of woodboring beetles may be a better  
287 indicator of past – rather than present – black-backed woodpecker occurrence.

288         The expected pattern of accumulation of beetle sign is compounded by temporal  
289 dynamics of beetle activity and wood decay that differ by tree species. In the middle elevations  
290 of the Sierra Nevada, where the majority of canopy conifers are either of the genus *Pinus* or  
291 *Abies* (with patches of *Pseudotsuga* and *Calocedrus*), woodboring beetle temporal dynamics can  
292 differ markedly by tree species [13], as different tree genera decay and fall at different rates,  
293 while also subject to variation owing to tree size and local conditions [26–28]. Trees of the genus  
294 *Pinus* generally have vascular tissue that quickly becomes suitable for feeding larvae following  
295 mortality, leading to rapid post-fire colonization by woodboring beetles [27]. As part of the  
296 decay process, pine bark sloughs off relatively quickly, as the vascular tissue dries out or is  
297 completely consumed by beetle larvae. This leaves a hardened tree bole exposed to the elements  
298 and unsuitable for larvae, vastly reducing the role of *Pinus* trees as beetle larvae reservoirs  
299 several years after death. Vascular tissue of other trees such as those of the genus *Abies*, by

300 comparison, does not become suitable for woodboring beetles as quickly following death [27] –  
301 possibly due to different under-bark microclimates or differences in host volatile attraction [13] –  
302 so plots with primarily non-*Pinus* trees show patterns of beetle intensity that increase over time,  
303 rather than decrease (Fig. 3). The temporal difference in beetle suitability between *Pinus* and  
304 *Abies* trees may be further exacerbated by the long-term fate of snags of each. *Pinus* snags tend  
305 to fall over after death – possibly due to destabilization by a woodboring beetle that targets pine  
306 roots interacting with appropriate decay microclimate and fungi [28] – which could limit beetle  
307 colonization and woodpecker foraging, while *Abies* snags tend to snap half-way or near the  
308 crown, providing longer-term foraging resources [29–32].

309         As a methodological note, we were able to uncover these relationships due to the  
310 development of a novel multi-trophic occupancy model. Multi-species occupancy models  
311 primarily either treat multiple detected species as occurring independently in a random-effects  
312 framework [33,34] or directly interacting with the occupancy and/or detectability of other  
313 species in frameworks meant to model just a handful of species [35,36]. In both cases, however,  
314 models generally assume that all included species are detected or surveyed through the same type  
315 of method and at identical spatial and temporal sampling scales. In our system, woodpecker  
316 occurrence (measured via point counts) is potentially influenced by woodboring beetle  
317 abundance, which is assumed to be unaffected by woodpecker occurrence; but critically,  
318 woodboring beetle abundance is indirectly assessed via accumulating beetle sign from up to six  
319 trees at each woodpecker survey point. Thus, our model integrates survey data on two trophic  
320 levels [37] within a hierarchical system where abundance of the lower trophic level potentially  
321 impacts the occurrence of the higher trophic level. Such a model structure could be easily

322 generalized to other multi-trophic systems, where survey assessment of each trophic level  
323 generally follows different methodologies each with its own unique observation process.

324

## 325 **Conclusions**

326         Rapid and reliable survey methodologies are critical for land managers tasked with  
327 making decisions following fire across large land expanses. While systematic bird surveys (e.g.  
328 point counts) are well established monitoring tools, woodboring beetle surveys in post-fire areas  
329 have held an intriguing allure due to their potential to provide multi-trophic inference on both  
330 insects and their predators (e.g., woodpeckers). Our beetle survey methods – which integrated  
331 assessments of frass, boring dust, exit and entrance holes, galleries, and direct counts of larvae –  
332 are comprehensive yet complicated by the cumulative nature of nearly all of these forms of  
333 beetle sign (larvae counts being the exception). This accumulation of sign interacts with the  
334 decomposition and decline of the structural integrity of snags, which ultimately leads to a  
335 complex and non-linear relationship of beetle sign with woodpecker occurrence (Fig. 2).  
336 Ultimately, based on these results, beetle sign in general should not be used as a proxy for  
337 woodpecker abundance after 2 or 3 years following fire, and may also not be a good proxy for  
338 beetle abundance after that point (although we did not directly assess beetle abundance). In the  
339 initial 1–2 years following fire, when rapid management decision-making is often most critical,  
340 however, beetle sign may be a reliable method for assessing immediate multi-trophic responses  
341 to post-fire conditions. Nevertheless, given the non-linear temporal dynamics of black-backed  
342 woodpeckers in post-fire forests [15], combined with the apparent shifting usage of tree species  
343 with time since fire both for woodboring beetles and their predators (i.e., from *Pinus* to *Abies*),  
344 the portions of burned forests that harbor high beetle and/or black-backed woodpecker



345 abundances immediately after fire may not sufficiently sustain black-backed woodpecker  
346 populations over the longer term. Together, these results imply that management activities for  
347 black-backed woodpeckers should account not only for where woodpeckers are when post-fire  
348 forest management actions are implemented (i.e., usually within 1–3 years following fire), but  
349 also consider, as feasible, where the woodpeckers are likely to go in the near future given a  
350 shifting mosaic of tree mortality and prey availability.

351 The nuanced but strong relationship between woodpecker occurrence and beetle activity  
352 sign ultimately corroborates that black-backed woodpecker populations in western forests  
353 depend heavily on woodboring beetle abundance, a keystone consideration for the management  
354 and conservation of black-backed woodpeckers. While this is perhaps an unsurprising finding  
355 given prior work in this system and species [1,17,24,38,39], its confirmation is not trivial, as  
356 many bird species do not show such prey-dependence [7] and black-backed woodpecker diets  
357 show a great diversity of insect prey [12]. While many previous studies have shown strong  
358 positive relationships between black-backed woodpeckers and availability of dead trees  
359 [14,17,39–42], we found no effect of snag density on woodpecker occupancy while  
360 simultaneously accounting for beetle sign (Table 2). Snag density has long been considered a  
361 proxy for food availability in this system [42], even though snags are also used predominantly  
362 for nesting [43,44]. Our results thus confirm what has long been indirectly hypothesized about  
363 black-backed woodpeckers, that their fine-scale spatial distribution is strongly impacted by the  
364 spatiotemporal dynamics of prey availability, which itself varies non-linearly over time  
365 following fire and as a function of forest tree composition.

366

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373

374 **Author Contributions**

375 MT, BW, RS, DC, and SS conceived the ideas and designed methodology; BW, RS, and  
376 DK oversaw data collection; MT analyzed the data; MT and GM led the writing of the  
377 manuscript. All authors contributed critically to the drafts and gave final approval for  
378 publication.

379

380 **Data Accessibility**

381 Input data and model code in JAGS language are available from the Dryad Digital  
382 Repository <URL to be filled in upon acceptance> (Tingley et al., XXXX).

383

384

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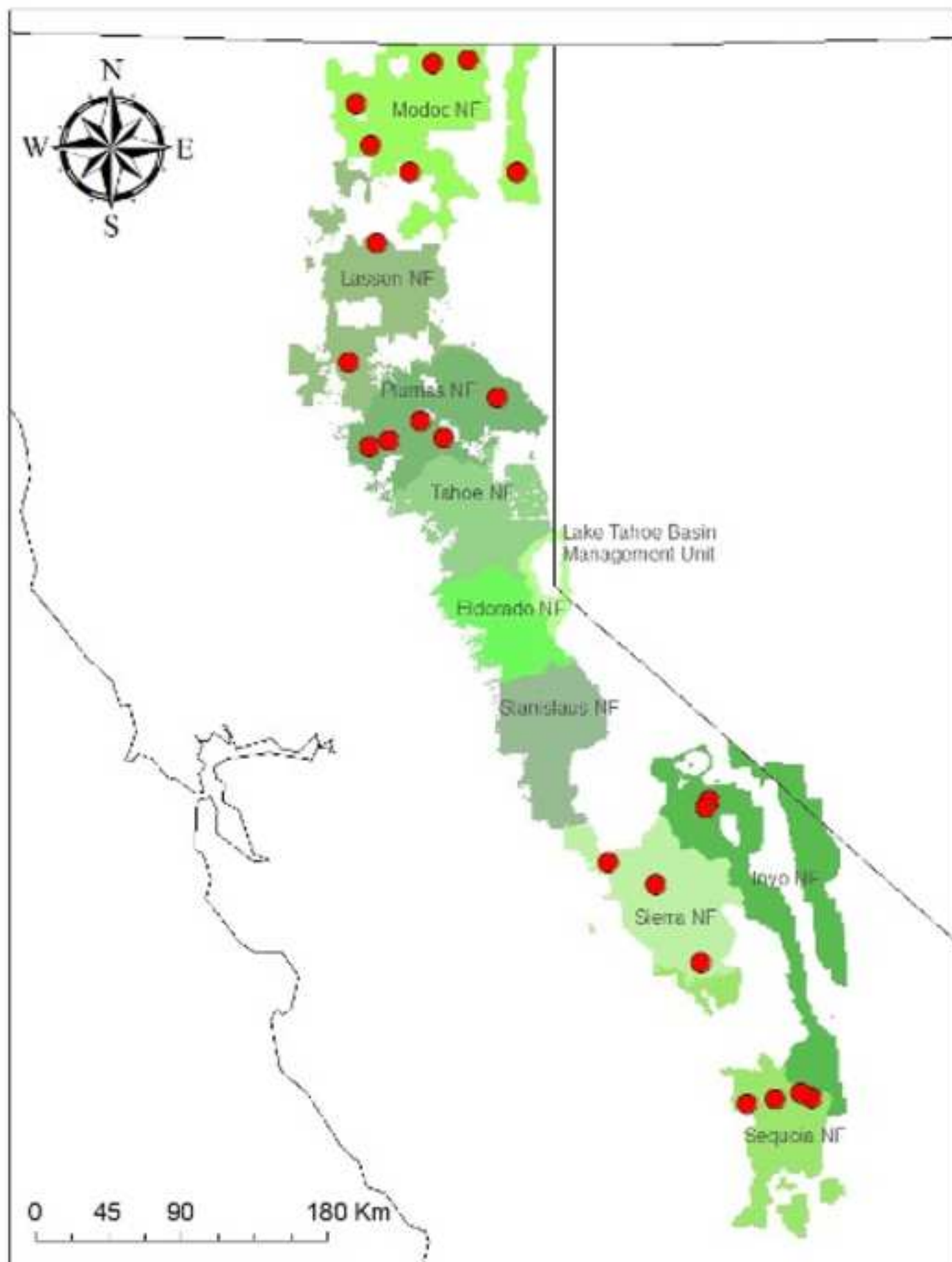
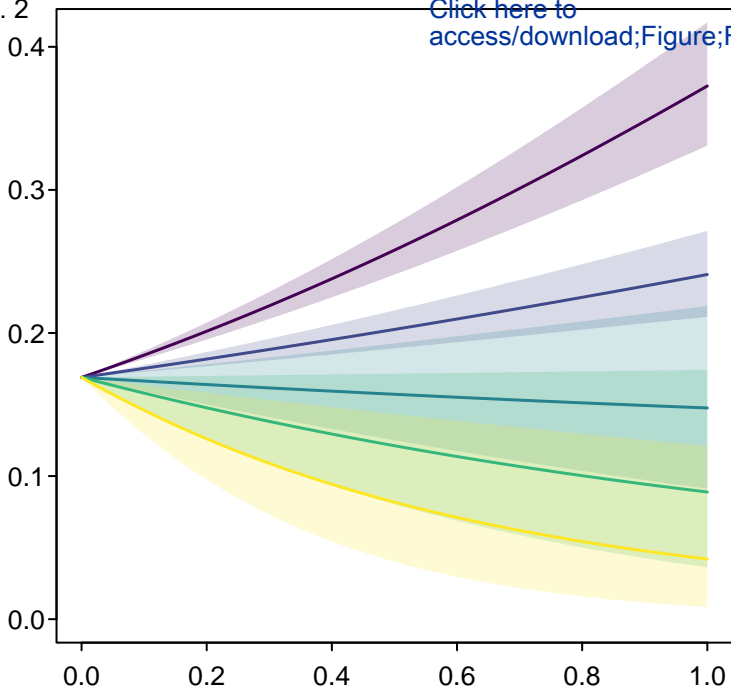


Fig. 2

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Woodpecker Occupancy ( $\psi$ )

Beetle Intensity Index

Years  
since fire

- 1
- 3
- 5
- 7
- 10



Fig. 3

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Beetle Intensity Index

0.8  
0.7  
0.6  
0.5  
0.4  
0.3  
0.2

2

4

6

8

10

Time since fire (yrs)

% *Pinus*





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