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4 Time-varying habitat selection analysis: A model and applications for studying diel,

- 5 seasonal, and post-release changes
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- 17
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20 Abstract

21 Resource selection functions are commonly employed to evaluate animals' habitat selection, 22 e.g., the disproportionate use of habitats relative to their availability. While environmental 23 conditions or animal motivations may vary over time, sometimes in an unknown manner, 24 studying changes in habitat selection usually requires an a priori segmentation of time in 25 distinct periods. This limits our ability to precisely answer the question 'when is an animal's 26 habitat selection changing?'. Here, we present a straightforward and flexible alternative 27 approach based on fitting dynamic logistic models to used/available data. First, using 28 simulated datasets, we demonstrate that dynamic logistic models perform well to recover 29 temporal variations in habitat selection. We then show real-world applications for studying 30 diel, seasonal, and post-release changes in habitat selection of blue wildebeest (Connochaetes 31 taurinus). Dynamic logistic models allow to study temporal changes in habitat selection in a 32 framework consistent with resource selection functions, but without the need to segment time 33 in distinct periods, which can be a difficult task when little is known about the process 34 studied, or may obscure inter-individual variability in timing of change. These models should 35 undoubtedly find their place in the movement ecology toolbox. We provide R scripts to 36 facilitate their adoption. We also encourage future research to focus on how to account for 37 temporal autocorrelation in location data, as this would allow statistical inference from 38 locations data collected at a high frequency, an increasingly common situation.

39

40 Introduction

Changes in environmental conditions consistently challenge animals in their lives, leading
them to regularly adjust their behavior. One of the important ways animals do so is by using
the landscape they live in differently, i.e., by relocating themselves or selecting habitats
differently. This is most clearly exemplified by migrations, which occur in response to

45 seasonal changes in weather and/or resource availability (Dingle 2014). Changes at smaller 46 time-scales also occur, such as when animals shift habitats in response to forage depletion or 47 day/night alternation in predation risk (Courbin et al. 2019). Naturally, discovering and 48 understanding such changes in space use and habitat selection is a key goal of ecologists. 49 Over time, habitat selection analysis (HSA) conducted using the resource selection 50 function (RSF) approach (Boyce et al. 2002) has become the standard framework to study 51 changes in animals' habitat selection. RSF analyses statistically compare the environmental 52 characteristics of used locations collected over a period of time with the characteristics of 53 locations available during that period. As such, a RSF estimates the average strength of 54 selection for the various habitats considered over the period of interest. How this period is 55 defined is up to the researcher, but strongly affects the results and the associated 56 interpretations (Mayor et al. 2009). As the within-period variability in selection is averaged, 57 finer-scale temporal dynamics (e.g., day/night changes when the period covers weeks or 58 months) in selection are overlooked, and the mean selection strength estimated might 59 represent an average that is not meaningful. This would be the case if, for instance, the study 60 period encompasses two different phases in an animal's habitat selection behavior without the 61 researcher being aware of it.

62 Segmenting time to define biologically relevant periods over which to conduct HSA 63 may be difficult, and often involves somewhat arbitrary decisions with unknown consequences. This is true for even well studied periods like seasons (Basille et al. 2013) or 64 65 day-night periods (Richter et al. 2020). Starts and ends of seasons vary between years, and 66 can only be roughly defined without ancillary data. Some seasons like spring or fall are also 67 clearly periods of environmental changes during which patterns of habitat selection are unlikely to be constant. Animal needs and motivations, and thus habitat selection (Roever et 68 69 al. 2014) may also change at unpredictable (for the researcher) times, such as when they

70 disperse (Delgado et al. 2009). This again makes segmentation of time into distinct periods 71 difficult, or even irrelevant if one is interested in the dynamics of the change itself. This issue 72 has been recognized before and various suggestions have been offered, from using a 73 combination of movement metrics and habitat use information to define periods (but without estimating habitat selection) (Basille et al. 2013), to integrating time as one of the predictors 74 75 in habitat-selection models (but with a constraint on the shape of the time-dependence) 76 (Picardi et al. 2021), or using continuous-time movement models (but with a complex 77 implementation) (Hooten et al. 2014). There is currently no simple yet flexible approach to 78 describe the temporal dynamics of habitat selection that underlie the long-term, averaged, 79 pattern revealed by RSF analyses.

80 Recent developments of multi-state step-selection functions (SSF) (Nicosia et al. 81 2017; Prima et al. 2022) now allow one to segment a movement trajectory, without a priori, 82 in periods differing by the way the animal moves and selects habitats. Each period represents 83 times when the animal is in one of a generally limited number of possible behavioral states. 84 Being SSF models, they do not estimate habitat selection at the same scale than RSF models: they focus on establishing whether habitats can explain that some 'steps' (generally over 85 86 minutes or hours) are more likely than others. Thus, while useful (see examples in Prima et 87 al. 2022), multi-state SSFs cannot answer the question as to whether the selection revealed by 88 a RSF analysis represents a selection constant over time, an average measure of a fluctuating 89 pattern of selection, or even whether contrasted selection patterns during a period of interest 90 cancel out in the RSF estimation.

Here, we present how dynamic logistic regression models allow one to easily estimate
the temporal dynamics of habitat selection that underlie the long-term, averaged, pattern
revealed by RSF analyses, without *a priori* segmentation of time into distinct periods.
Dynamic logistic regression models are commonly used to analyze binary time series in

95 survival analysis (Martinussen and Scheike 2006), but can be applied to other data sources 96 (Fahrmeir 1992). First, we use simulated movement data to demonstrate that dynamic logistic 97 regression models can adequately recover time-varying habitat selection coefficients. We also 98 highlight the influence of parameters, whose values are under the researcher's control, on the 99 estimation process. Second, we illustrate the usefulness of the approach by applying time-100 varying HSA on blue wildebeest (Connochaetes taurinus) tracking data, showing how one 101 can describe temporal variations of animal habitat selection such as diel, seasonal, and post-102 release changes. The relevant R scripts are provided to facilitate the adoption of the method 103 by ecologists.

104 Methods

105 Dynamic logistic models for time-varying HSA

106 General principles of dynamic logistic models

Here, we briefly describe the discrete-time state space model developed by Fahrmeir (1992)
to estimate time-varying coefficients from generalized linear models, and especially logistic
models. Generally, discrete-time state space models relate observations over time to hidden
parameters, with hidden parameters following a Markovian transition model (Auger-Méthé et
al. 2021). Applied to dynamic logistic regressions in the context of time-varying HSA, such a
model can be formulated using the following equations:

- 113 (equation 1) $logit(p_t) = \beta_{t,0} + \beta_{t,1}x_{t,1} + \dots + \beta_{t,n}x_{t,n}$
- 114 (equation 2) $\beta_t = \beta_{t-1} + v_t$, with $v_t \sim N(0, \boldsymbol{Q})$

115 with $p_t = Pr(y_t = 1)$ the probability of the binary response variable y_t being one (i.e., used

116 versus available), $(\beta_{t,0}, \dots, \beta_{t,n})$ the hidden parameter vectors (i.e., time-varying selection

- 117 coefficients), $(x_{t,1}, \ldots, x_{t,n})$ the covariates (i.e., environmental layers), v_t the error process
- 118 (i.e., sequence of independent random variables), Q the covariance matrix of the Markov
- 119 chain that contains values that will affect the smoothness of the estimated time-series of

habitat selection coefficients. Here, following Fahrmeir (1992) and Christoffersen (2021; 2022), we used a simple first order random walk model for the state equation (equation 2). See Christoffersen (2021) for details on second-order random walk model formulation. The covariance matrix Q is a symmetric matrix of n+1 dimension, with initial values chosen by the experimenter (see the "Implementation in the context of HSA" section to determine initial values) and then estimated during the fitting process (see below).

The model coefficients and the values of the covariance matrix over time are estimated from the EM algorithm described by Fahrmeir (1992). First, the E-step procedure recursively iterates prediction, correction, and smoothing steps to approximate and maximize posterior mode estimations of model coefficients, using the generalized extended Kalman filter and smoother algorithm described by Fahrmeir and Kaufmann (1991). Second, the Mstep procedure automatically updates over time the covariance matrix. A more comprehensive description of the EM algorithm is provided by Christoffersen (2021).

133 Implementation in the context of HSA

134 To conduct time-varying HSA using dynamic logistic models, the following steps are 135 required. First, as in RSF analyses, a sample of locations that could be considered 'available' 136 is drawn. This can be, for instance, locations sampled randomly within the animal home range. Each used location ($y_t = 1$) obtained at time t is paired with N random locations 137 $(y_t = 0)$. Each used and available location is then characterized using environmental 138 variables or any other variable of interest $(x_{t,1}, \ldots, x_{t,n})$. Finally, the time-varying parameters 139 $(\beta_{t,1},\ldots,\beta_{t,n})$ are estimated by fitting a dynamic logistic model, with type of location (used 140 vs. available) as response variable y_t and the time series $x_{t,n}$ as predictors (cf. equation 1). 141 142 Note that caution is required when estimating time-varying habitat selection 143 coefficients from location data collected at relatively high frequency. Classical RSF and the model presented here do not account for temporal autocorrelation in location data. In 144

particular, it is assumed that, within the time interval between two locations, the animal could relocate anywhere in the area in which random locations are drawn. When this is not the case, estimates of habitat selection coefficients are unbiased but their standard errors are biased downward, i.e., are too small. In this situation, one may either subsample data to a lower frequency to obtain a valid statistical inference, or remain within the framework of a descriptive analysis aiming at exploring data, for instance for gaining insights on the possible existence of frequent habitat selection changes.

Here we fit the dynamic logistic model using the "ddhazard" function from the *dynamichazard* R package by Christoffersen (2021), which implements the method described by Fahrmeir (1992). We provide in "online appendix" the script needed to run a time-varying HSA on a simulated trajectory (Dejeante, Valeix, and Chamaillé-Jammes 2023); the model fitting takes about 3s on this dataset, on PC with an Intel(R) Xeon(R) CPU E5-1650 0 @ 3.20GHz.

158 General guidelines to initialize the wiggliness parameter (Q)

159 To fit a dynamic logistic model, one needs to first provide initial values to fill in the 160 covariance matrix, diagonal at initialization, and initiate the estimation process. Here, we 161 provided the same initial values for all diagonal elements (referred to as Q hereafter). As this initial value can greatly affect the wiggliness of the model (see Results), we also refer to Q as 162 163 the wiggliness parameter. While using caution is thus required when choosing the initial 164 value of O, our results show that this value can be increased until (1) the estimates of O after fitting converge towards a similar value (Appendix S1: Figure S1) and (2) the estimated 165 166 coefficients of habitat selection converge to a similar value too (Appendix S1: Figure S2). 167 Hence, we encourage users of the model to test several initial values for Q. One way to select among them is by looking at the correlations between the estimated values of Q after fitting 168

and/or the correlations between the time series of the estimated time-varying coefficients

170 (Appendix S1).

171 Evaluation of the accuracy of dynamic logistic models for time-varying HSA

172 To assess the ability of our approach to detect shifts in habitat selection patterns, we (1)

173 simulated animal trajectories emerging from time-varying selection for one environmental

174 variable, and (2) fitted dynamic logistic models on the simulated data to compare the

175 estimated coefficients with the theoretical values used in the simulations.

176 Landscape and movement simulation

177 For simplicity, animal trajectories were simulated on one habitat layer (500×500 cells), with 178 values that did not vary over time. To mimic patchy landscapes, we used spatially correlated 179 Gaussian random fields, which attribute a continuous value ranging from 0 to 1 to each cell, 180 using the localGibbs R package (Michelot, Blackwell, and Matthiopoulos 2019). Following 181 Michelot, Blackwell, and Matthiopoulos (2019), we then simulated animal trajectories over 182 500 time steps using a local Gibbs movement model. For each time t, 1000 potential locations 183 were uniformly generated within a 2×100-pixel radius around the current location, and the 184 location at time t+1 was sampled among them with probabilities proportional to the strength of selection for potential locations. This strength of selection was determined by the value of 185 186 the habitat layer at these locations, and by the model coefficient describing how the strength 187 of selection changes with values of the habitat variable. An important benefit of using a local 188 Gibbs model is that the coefficient of habitat selection used in the simulation model is theoretically equal to the one that should be estimated by a RSF fitted on the data (Michelot, 189 190 Blackwell, and Matthiopoulos 2019). The local Gibbs model, however, does not allow one to 191 directly simulate animal trajectories with time-varying habitat selection coefficients. Hence, 192 at each time t, we changed the value of the coefficient of the local Gibbs model to generate 193 the location at time t+1, based on the location and on the coefficient at time t.

194 Scenarios of temporally-changing habitat selection

195 To be able to test whether changes in habitat selection strength could be robustly recovered 196 by dynamic logistic models, we built scenarios that differed in terms of how often the 197 model's coefficient of habitat selection changed over time. We did so by randomly sampling, in the [-5, 5] range, and either changing every 20 steps (referred as "frequent change" 198 199 scenario) or every 250 steps (referred as "rare change" scenario), the model's habitat 200 selection coefficient. To avoid having sudden, step-like, changes in habitat selection, we then 201 used spline regressions to smooth the variations of habitat selection over time. For each 202 scenario, we generated 100 trajectories per simulated landscape, and replicated this on 100 203 different landscapes. We then tested our ability to recover the temporal changes in the 204 model's habitat selection coefficient by fitting a dynamic logistic regression model to each 205 trajectory as presented above, drawing 100 available locations at each time-step within the 206 99% utilization distribution location-based kernel of each simulated trajectory. We also 207 assessed to what extent the model's estimation was affected by the value of the wiggliness 208 parameter O. We did so by fitting, for each dataset of each scenario, a set of models with different values of Q, ranging from 0.01 (i.e., low wiggliness) to 2 (i.e., high wiggliness). For 209 210 each value of Q, we then averaged the estimated coefficients over each set of 100 simulated 211 trajectories per landscape, and fitted a linear regression with the mean estimated coefficient 212 as response and theoretical coefficients, which were used in the simulations, as predictors, 213 adding a random intercept with replication number. A slope near 1 would indicate that a dynamic logistic model is able to estimate the temporal changes in the habitat selection 214 coefficient correctly, and an intercept near 0 would indicate that the estimations are not 215 216 biased.

In addition, to demonstrate that the time-varying HSA approach reveals the temporal
dynamics of the selection process that is commonly studied using RSF analyses, we averaged

the time-varying coefficients estimated from 5000 trajectories (of 500 time-steps each)
covering a broad range of selection patterns and landscape composition, and compare these
values with the coefficients estimated by a conventional RSF analysis on the same
trajectories.

223 Time-varying HSA: applications

224 To illustrate some applications of time-varying HSA, we analyzed wildebeest movement 225 datasets collected in Hluhluwe-iMfolozi Park (South Africa). There, surface-water 226 availability, which is high during the wet season (October-March) as temporary waterholes 227 are filled up by the rains, becomes low in the dry season (April to September), with water 228 remaining available only in a few rivers. Since wildebeests are water-dependent grazers that 229 preferentially forage in open grasslands, we used the distance to the closest main river and the 230 habitat openness as relevant habitat variables to demonstrate the use of dynamic logistic 231 models. For each study below, we fitted the models with a relatively high value for Q(Q=2), 232 as simulations showed that high wiggliness in the estimates lead to better results (see Results 233 section). We used the *amt* R package to generate random points and extract the values of

234 predictors at used and available locations (Signer, Fieberg, and Avgar 2019).

235 Short-term temporal variations: diel changes in habitat selection

We used tracking data collected on one wildebeest over one month in the dry season, at a fix rate of one location every 15 minutes. In the context of the model presented here, such data are highly autocorrelated and estimated standard errors and confidence intervals are likely biased downward. Interpretation of results should therefore be done with caution. Habitat selection coefficients remain however estimated without bias, and we included the analysis here to show how it allows exploring changes in habitat selection at short time scales. Other analyses, more statistically robust, are presented below.

243 Following the practical implementation of time-varying HSA described above, we 244 estimated the habitat selection of this wildebeest by (1) generating, for each time t, 100 245 random locations within its home range (99% utilization distribution location-based kernel), 246 (2) extracting the environmental characteristics of used and random locations, and (3) fitting a dynamic logistic regression to compare the habitat openness and the distance to the closest 247 248 main river between the used and available locations over time. A preliminary visual 249 inspection of the GPS tracking data suggested day/night relocations of the wildebeest 250 (Appendix S2: Figure S1). To check whether these changes were associated with changes in 251 habitat selection, we estimated the temporal autocorrelation of the time-varying habitat 252 selection coefficients.

253 Long-term temporal variations: seasonal changes in habitat selection

254 We used tracking data collected on one wildebeest over one year at a fix rate of one location 255 every 15 minutes. To avoid issues related to the temporal autocorrelation in location data, and 256 because the temporal scale of the analysis does not require locations to be collected at such a 257 high frequency, we subsampled our dataset to one location per day and one location per night. 258 A preliminary visual inspection of the spatial data showed that the individual moved mostly 259 westward and then eastward during the period (Appendix S2: Figure S2). Hence, in addition 260 to habitat openness and distance to the closest river, we added longitude to the model's 261 predictors. We generated 10 random locations per time t within its home range to fit the time-262 varying HSA. To provide an example of how one can subsequently delineate temporal 263 periods that are homogeneous in terms of habitat selection, we further segmented the time series of each model's coefficients separately, using the segmentation method described, and 264 265 implemented in the segclust2d R package, by Patin et al. (2020).

266 Event-based variations: post-release changes in habitat selection

267 We used the tracking data of three wildebeest simultaneously introduced in the park in 268 October 2020. Data were collected over the 100 days following the release date, at a fix rate 269 of one location every hour. As in the previous analysis on the long-term temporal variations 270 of wildebeest's habitat selection, we subsampled the dataset to one location per night and one location per day to avoid issues with the temporal autocorrelation in location data. We then 271 272 estimated wildebeest's habitat selection drawing 100 random locations, for each time t, 273 within their individual home ranges. To incorporate the dispersal of the released individuals 274 into HSA, we added longitude and latitude to model's predictors. Hence, we fitted a dynamic 275 logistic model for each individual, using habitat openness, distance to the closest river, 276 longitude, and latitude as predictors.

277 Results

278 Theoretical evaluation

279 In general, we found that dynamic logistic models allowed us to adequately recover the 280 temporal changes in the coefficients of habitat selection used in the simulations. When the 281 true coefficients did not change often ('rare change' scenarios), the wiggliness parameter had 282 little impact and estimations were always good (Figure 1a-b; Appendix S1: Figure S3). When 283 the true coefficients did change often ('frequent change' scenarios), it became critical to use high values of the wiggliness parameter to obtain estimates matching the theoretical 284 285 coefficients (Figure 1c-d; Appendix S1: Figure S3). Importantly, the effect of the wiggliness 286 parameter tend to stabilize at large values of Q (Appendix S1: Figure S4), making it safe to 287 use large values when investigating large and frequent changes in habitat selection.

The average of the time-varying coefficients was nearly equal to the coefficient estimated by a conventional RSF (Figure 2a), demonstrating that the time-varying HSA approach addresses the same selection process as the one studied by conventional RSF analyses, while providing more information as it describes the temporal dynamics of 292 selection. Also, it can reveal whether the coefficients of a RSF are biologically relevant -

293 when time-varying selection coefficients have uni-modal distributions (Figure 2b) - or not -

294 when time-varying selection coefficients have multi-modal distributions (Figure 2c), and RSF

295 coefficients represent a statistical average that never represents the true selection process.

296 Short-term temporal variations: diel changes in habitat selection

297 A time-varying HSA conducted with a dynamic logistic model suggested that the wildebeest's 298 selection for open habitats and rivers varied greatly over the month of the study (Figure 3). In 299 particular, the wildebeest's selection for open habitats apparently changed across the 300 day/night cycle, as the auto-correlation period of the coefficient was approximately 24h 301 (Appendix S2: Figure S3). Open habitats seemed to be strongly selected during night-time, 302 but not selected, and sometimes even avoided, during daytime (Figure 3a). Such day/night 303 shifts were not noticeable for the selection of areas close to rivers (Figure 3b), but there 304 seemed to be variations over periods of 3 or 4 days. Contrary to the diel variations in the 305 selection of open habitats, such variations would be hard to detect using the common HSA 306 approach based on a segmentation of time into distinct periods.

307 Long-term temporal variations: seasonal changes in habitat selection

308 The time-varying HSA showed clear seasonal changes in the wildebeest's habitat selection, 309 which could then be separated in several periods according to the segmented time-series 310 (Figure 4). The existence and timing of some these periods were unpredictable *a priori*. For 311 example, this wildebeest maintained the same overall strength of selection for open habitats 312 from November to August, whereas this period covers months from both the dry and wet 313 seasons (Figure 4a). Also, we note that during the dry season (April to June) this wildebeest 314 did not preferentially use areas close to rivers, but selected areas close to rivers consistently from July to mid-August (green segment) and likely did back-and-forth trips to and away 315 316 from the rivers from mid-August to October (yellow segment) (Figure 4b).

317 Event-based variations: post-release changes in habitat selection

318 After their release, the three wildebeest generally selected open habitats, but their level of 319 selection differed between individuals (Appendix S2: Figure S4), particularly towards the end 320 of the study period (Figure 5a). Differences in the selection for areas close to rivers (Figure 321 5b) or in the longitude (Figure 5c) and latitude (Figure 5d) of the park also became apparent 322 at the end of the first month after release. Then, although the three wildebeest established in 323 different areas (see difference in selection for longitude and latitude), the selection of areas 324 close to rivers remained and was similar for two wildebeests (colored in green and yellow), 325 whereas the third one avoided the areas close to rivers (colored in purple).

326 Discussion

327 There is clear evidence that animals' habitat selection changes regularly and at different time-328 scales, from diel to seasonal shifts, or during key life-history events such as dispersal. 329 Unfortunately, ecologists have had limited and often unsatisfactory options to study these 330 changes. Most commonly, an *a prior* i segmentation of time into distinct periods of apparent 331 biological relevance is made, although this segmentation can sometimes be difficult to justify, 332 let alone to validate. The alternative approach of simply integrating time as predictor in a 333 RSF has limitations (see discussion in Picardi et al. 2021), and more statistically complex 334 approaches (Hooten et al. 2014) are unlikely to be broadly used. In this work, we propose a 335 novel approach based on dynamic logistic models (Fahrmeir 1992) to easily estimate 336 temporal changes in habitat selection, in a framework consistent with RSF. We demonstrate, using simulations, its general validity, while highlighting a point of attention (parameter *Q*). 337 We also showcase its use for the study of diel, seasonal, and post-release changes in habitat 338 selection. 339

340 With this time-varying HSA approach, one can simultaneously estimate both the 341 timing and the amplitude of habitat selection changes. Estimation of the timing of change

342 from the data is what makes this approach novel and attractive. Many times, *a priori* 343 segmentation of time into distinct periods requires expert knowledge or is based on ancillary 344 data (e.g., climate data) whose relevance for a particular dataset is not warranted. 'Letting the 345 data speak' allows revealing the actual pattern of change. This may be of particular importance, for instance, in the study of inter-individual variability, as the timing of change 346 347 can be one of the differencing variables, as evidenced in our post-release study case. As 348 recognized by Picardi et al. (2021), time-varying HSA opens a new avenue to broaden the 349 scope of the studies of inter-individual differences in space use, which has so far focused on 350 movement characteristics or habitat selection strength. More generally, even when the relevance of an *a priori* segmentation of time into distinct periods is easier to ascertain, such 351 352 as when comparing daytime to night-time habitat selection, time-varying HSA allows one to immediately identify unusual periods (e.g., night of the 27th of August, when the wildebeest 353 354 did not increase its selection for open habitat). These unusual periods may either be of interest (in such case, one would have to conduct one standard HSA per night to have 355 356 discovered this), or be 'noise' that should not affect the estimation of habitat selection 357 strength during more 'usual' periods (conversely to what occurs in a standard HSA).

358 Importantly, data-driven estimation of the timing of change in habitat selection makes it possible to derive 'segments' of homogeneous habitat selection, and opens the way to 359 360 estimate specific habitat selection 'modes' of animals defined by the strength of habitat 361 selection. Behavioral modes relevant to space use are commonly defined by movement characteristics such as speed and turning angles (Patin et al. 2020; McClintock and Michelot 362 2018), but do not integrate information about habitat selection. The use of segmentation-363 364 clustering algorithm such as segclust2d or hidden-Markov models on the time-series 365 coefficients obtained by time-varying HSA will allow one to extract habitat selection modes, and to estimate the duration and frequencies of such modes. This could complement very 366

recent works developing behavioral-mode detection approaches based on SSF (Prima et al.
2022; Nicosia et al. 2017; Klappstein, Thomas, and Michelot 2022), although by definition
the temporal scale of selection considered is much different.

370 Despite that, rigorously, conventional RSF models are not time-series models, our 371 approach is closer to the RSF than to the SSF framework. Indeed, by generating random 372 points within the whole animal's home range, the estimated time-varying coefficients 373 measure when an animal is spending time in a "rare" habitat relatively to its large-scale 374 availability. The selection process measured here is the fact that animals move and stay in 375 rare habitats over time, and not the 'step' selection resulting from animal's choice within the 376 steps allowed by the sampling rate. Hence, we make the biological and statistical assumption 377 that animal's habitat selection at time t depends on the history of animal's habitat selection up 378 to t (Fahrmeir 1994). An example of why such an assumption makes sense is animal 379 migration: once established in a new range, coefficients from a SSF (i.e., fine scale) would 380 not show a selection for this new range, while coefficient from a RSF (i.e., large scale) would 381 show a selection for such areas when considering the whole study area as available. 382 One common use of habitat selection modelling is to predict and map population 383 distribution within landscapes (Morris, Proffitt, and Blackburn 2016). How to best map 384 predicted space use from a time-varying habitat selection analysis is not obvious as 385 coefficients are, by definition, time-varying. However, one can perform a time-varying 386 habitat selection analysis to detect temporal periods of homogeneous habitat selection (as 387 done in this work), and use the average of coefficients to predict the distribution of space use 388 within the periods of interest, which for instance could be seasons. When habitat selection is

390 conventional RSF or from a time-varying HSA. A time-varying analysis, however, allows one

continuously changing, it does not make sense to predict a static distribution, either from a

391 to actually verify whether habitat selection is changing or not over the period of interest.

389

392 Results from the time-varying approach proposed here are to some extent sensitive to 393 the model's wiggliness. In particular, but without surprise, model allowing for little 394 wiggliness (small values of Q) can provide a poor fit to the data when habitat selection often 395 changes. Models allowing for high wiggliness generally perform much better, especially if habitat selection often changes. There was no obvious evidence of an optimum value of Q to 396 397 look for, as correlations between the estimates of habitat selection plateaued when increasing 398 Q values. Therefore, running a time-varying HSA with a high value for Q appears a safe way 399 to conduct robust analyses. Note however that dynamic logistic models do not account for the 400 temporal autocorrelation that could characterize the used locations if these were collected at a 401 high frequency, relatively to the movement of the animal. In such case, the estimated standard 402 errors of the models' coefficients would be biased downward (i.e., be too small), which could 403 lead to overconfident interpretations. Some movement modelling frameworks such as 404 integrated-SSF (Avgar et al. 2016), MCMC movement models (Michelot et al. 2020) or 405 continuous-time models (Michelot et al. 2019) naturally account for autocorrelation. These 406 models however estimate average habitat selection at the temporal scale of data collection 407 (SSF and MCMC models) or at a near-instantaneous scale (continuous-time models), which 408 may not be what ecologists are interested in when they focus on large-scale behavioral 409 decisions. Continuous-time models could have time-varying formulations (Michelot et al. 410 2021), but unfortunately fitting these models is computationally heavy and thus slow. The 411 RSF framework and dynamic logistic models remain therefore attractive. How to best account for temporal autocorrelation in location data in RSF models is currently being 412 413 studied (see Alston et al. 2023), and we encourage future research to focus on how to account 414 for temporal autocorrelation in dynamic logistic models. As the estimation of the coefficients themselves is not biased in presence of autocorrelation, the analysis of high-frequency data 415

with dynamic logistic models could still be useful to obtain a visual description of thetemporal trend in habitat selection, if interpreted with caution.

In conclusion, we think dynamic logistic models offer an easy yet powerful approach to conduct time-varying HSA, for both exploratory and inferential studies. Our work, in which we show real-world applications and provide R scripts, aims to facilitate the appropriation of the method by ecologists and enriches their statistical toolbox. Novel questions about how animals time their response to environmental changes can now be addressed.

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432 Conflict of interest statement

433 The authors declare no competing interests.

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- 534

535 Figure

536 Figure 1. Estimated coefficient of habitat selection (purple) according to the frequency of

537 change of the expected coefficient (yellow) and to the value of the model wiggliness

538 parameter Q. The estimated coefficient is averaged on 100 simulations. Lighter ribbons show

539 standard deviation, and darker ribbons show 95% confidence intervals.

540 Figure 2. Comparison between time-varying HSA and conventional RSF. (a) Relationship

541 between the coefficients of habitat selection estimated from time-varying HSA and averaged

542 over the time-series, to the RSF coefficient. Each dot shows the coefficients estimated from

543 the trajectory of one individual simulated over 500 time steps. (b-c) Examples of the

544 distribution of the time-varying coefficients. The vertical line shows the average value of the

545 time-varying coefficients, whereas the point and range above the distribution shows the RSF

546 coefficient and its 95% confidence interval.

Figure 3. Estimations of short-term temporal variations of wildebeest's selection for open habitats (a) and areas close to rivers (b). Positive coefficients indicate selection for open habitats or areas far from rivers. Ribbons show 95% confidence interval. Note, however, that location data used in this analysis were collected every 15-minutes, likely leading to confidence intervals biased downward (i.e., too small) because of autocorrelation. The selection coefficients are however unbiased. The night phases are shown by dark colors in the background.

Figure 4. Estimations of long-term temporal variations of wildebeest's selection for open habitats (a) and areas close to rivers (b). Positive coefficients indicate selection for open habitats or areas far from rivers. Ribbons show 95% confidence interval. Data used in this analysis were subsampled to one location per night and one location per day to avoid issues with autocorrelation. Common definitions of wet (blue) and dry (red) seasons are shown in the background in panels (c-d). Lines and ribbons are colored on a purple-to-yellow gradient,

with colors corresponding to segments of homogeneous habitat selection, as obtained withthe *segclust2d* approach.

Figure 5. Estimations of post-release variation of wildebeest's selection for open habitats, areas close to rivers, longitude, and latitude. Positive coefficients indicate selection for open habitats, areas far from rivers, or areas at greater longitude and latitude. Estimated coefficients (line) and 95% confidence intervals (ribbons) are colored per individuals. Data used in this analysis were subsampled to one location per night and one location per day to reduce the autocorrelation between the used locations.

- 569 Time-varying habitat selection analysis: A model and applications for studying diel,
- 570 seasonal, and post-release changes
- 571 Romain Dejeante; Marion Valeix; Simon Chamaillé-Jammes
- 572 Journal name: Ecology
- 573 Manuscript type: Statistical report
- 574 Appendix S1: Insights into Q, the wiggliness, and its initialization from computer
- 575 simulations
- 576 S1.1. General guidelines to initialize the wiggliness parameter Q

577 First, our results show that the value of Q can be increased until the estimated value of Q at 578 the end of the fitting process converge towards a similar value (Appendix S1: Figure S1). 579 Hence, we encourage users of the model to test several values of Q until the estimated value 580 has converged. 581





Figure S1. Influence of the initial value used to fill in the covariance matrix Q (initialization) on the estimated value of the value of Q relevant for the variance of beta (here referred to as Q(estimated)). Each point is the result of one time-varying HSA fitted to one trajectory simulated over 500 time steps.

- 587
- 588

589 Second, our results show that the value of Q can be increased until the estimated coefficients 590 of habitat selection converge towards a similar value (Appendix S1: Figure S2). Another way 591 to select among several initial values of Q is therefore to look at the correlations between the





Figure S2. Relationship between the coefficients of habitat selection estimated from models "i" and "j" implemented with different initial values used to fill in the covariance matrix (Q). These initial values are shown in the grey panels (0.1; 1; 2; 3; 4; 5). In this example, one should choose initial values of the covariance matrix larger than 1, since below 1 the estimated coefficients varied greatly from one model to another. When the estimated coefficients are greatly correlated together, the choice of the initial value to fill in Q is 'good enough' as it shows that the models have converged towards the same estimated coefficients.

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593

602 S1.2. Evaluation of dynamic logistic models initialized with several values of Q



Figure S3. Comparison between the estimated and expected coefficients of habitat selection,
according to the value of the wiggliness parameter *Q* used in the dynamic logistic model.
High-wiggliness models performed better than low-wiggliness models to accurately estimate
time-varying coefficients of habitat selection, both when habitat selection changes rarely and
frequently over time.



Figure S4. Relationship between the value of the model wiggliness parameter Q and the correlation between the expected time-varying selection strength and the average time-varying selection strength estimated on 100 replicates on 40 different landscapes, according to the frequency of change in habitat selection. Time-varying HSA was not sensitive to the choice of model wiggliness to estimate rare changes of habitat selection. On the contrary, high-wiggliness models performed better than low-wiggliness models to estimate frequent changes of habitat selection.

- 619 Time-varying habitat selection analysis: A model and applications for studying diel,
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624 Appendix S2: Applications of time-varying HSA on wildebeest examples



Figure S1. Illustration of the wildebeest's locations recorded during one month in the dry season, at a fix rate of one location every 15 minutes. Background shows the distance to the closest river. Locations collected during the night are colored in purple, whereas those collected during the day are in yellow.



Figure S2. Illustration of the wildebeest's locations recorded during one year, at a fix rate of
one location every 15 minutes and subsampled to one location per hour. Locations are
colored based on their collection time.



637 Figure S3. Temporal autocorrelation of the selection coefficient for open habitat $\beta(t)\beta(t +$

638 lag). Values close to 1 (resp. -1) indicate high auto-correlation, with similar selection

639 strength (resp. opposite selection strengths), while values close to 0 indicate low auto-

640 correlation.

641



Figure S4. Distribution of the habitat selection coefficients for (a) habitat openness, (b)
distance to the closest river, (c) longitude and (d) latitude. Each color shows the distribution
of the selection coefficients for one individual.