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Size matters in quantitative radar monitoring of animal migration: estimating monitored volume from wingbeat frequency

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Keywords:	aeroecology, environmental impact assessment, radar
Abstract:	<p>Quantitative radar studies are an important component of studying the movement of birds. Whether a bird is detected or not depends upon its size, because the object size ultimately determines the monitored volume of a radar beam. Consequently, an accurate quantification of bird movements recorded by small-scale radar requires an accurate determination of the monitored volume for the objects in question, although this has tended to be ignored.</p> <p>Here, we demonstrate the importance of sensitivity settings for echo detection on the estimated movement intensities of different sized birds. The amount of energy reflected from a bird and detected by the radar receiver (echo size) depends not only on the bird's size and on the distance from the radar antenna, but also on the beam shape and the bird's position within this beam. We propose a method to estimate the size of a bird based on the wingbeat frequency, retrieved from the echo-signal, independent of the absolute echo size. The estimated bird-size allows calculation of size-specific monitored volumes, allowing accurate quantification of movement intensities. We further investigate the importance of applying size-specific monitored volume to quantify avian movements instead of using echo counts.</p> <p>We also highlight the importance of accounting for size-specific monitored volume of small scale radar systems, and the necessity of reporting technical information on radar parameters. Applying this framework will increase the quality and validity of quantitative radar monitoring.</p>

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Running title: *RCS via WBF*

Title

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For Review Only

1 **Abstract**

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4 determines the monitored volume of a radar beam. Consequently, an accurate quantification of bird
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8 movement intensities of different sized birds. The amount of energy reflected from a bird and
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17 radar systems, and the necessity of reporting technical information on radar parameters. Applying
18 this framework will increase the quality and validity of quantitative radar monitoring.

19

20 **Keywords**

21 Avian migration, detection ranges, detection threshold, environmental impact assessment, MTR,
22 quantitative monitoring, radar cross section, remote sensing, sensitivity time control.

23

24 **Lexicon**

25 D_{max} [m]: Maximum distance (range) of detection. At D_{max} , the echo power received from an
 26 object falls below the detection threshold P_{rmin} . D_{max} primarily depends on the object's RCS, and
 27 radar properties such as the transmitted power P_t and antenna gain G_0 and wave length λ (cf. radar

28 equation in Lexicon, (Drake and Reynolds 2012) eq. 3.14b):
$$D_{max} = \sqrt[4]{\frac{P_t \cdot G_0^2 \cdot \lambda^2 \cdot RCS}{P_{rmin} \cdot (4\pi)^3}}$$

29 dB: The unit decibel expresses the logarithmic ratio on base 10 between the transmitted power (P_t)
 30 and the received power (P_r). A proper calibration of the radar system allows expression of the power
 31 in dBm, using a standard reference of 1 mW: $P_{r,dBm} = 10 \cdot \log_{10}(P_{r,W}/1_{mW})$

32 Echo signature: The echo intensity of an object varies during its transit of the radar beam. The echo
 33 signature represents the temporal variation in echo intensity (cf. P_r in Lexicon). Fine scale temporal
 34 variations in echo intensity are due to small changes in the object's aspect and reflectivity
 35 properties.

36 Echo size [dBm]: Maximal echo intensity of an object as measured by the radar receiver (cf. P_r in
 37 Lexicon) after removing low amplitude variations in echo intensity with a low pass filter. The echo
 38 size depends on object properties (size, aspect, reflecting properties, etc.), radar properties (wave
 39 length λ , transmitted power P_t , antenna gain G_0), the distance to the radar, and properties of the
 40 atmosphere.

41 G_0 [dB]: The antenna gain is a measure which describes the extent to which the antenna directs the
 42 beam towards the main beam axis (*sensu* Drake and Reynolds 2012).

43 λ [m]: Length of the electromagnetic waves, calculated as the speed of light (c , about $3 \cdot 10^8$ m * s⁻¹)
 44 divided by the emission frequency (f , e.g. 9.4 GHz): $\lambda = \frac{c}{f}$.

45 Mie region: The relationship between the object size and the RCS depends on the electromagnetic
 46 wave length λ and can be described in three regions: optical region if object diameter $\gg \lambda$, Mie
 47 region if object diameter $\approx \lambda$, Rayleigh region if object diameter $\ll \lambda$. The wave length of the 9.4 GHz
 48 radar system used in this study is 3.2 cm (see Lexicon "wave length"). While the RCS of objects larger
 49 than ten centimetres diameter is proportional to its size (optical region), the RCS of objects ranging
 50 from one to ten centimetre is not proportional to the object size (Mie region) (see e.g. (Drake and
 51 Reynolds 2012), p. 53). For instance, an object of 5 cm may produce an RCS of 25 cm² (5.64 cm
 52 diameter), where as an object of 5.5 cm diameter may produce an RCS of 15 cm² (4.37 cm diameter).
 53 This phenomenon progressively increases with decreasing object size, and is particularly strong for

54 objects between one to three centimetres with RCS up to four times the object size. In the Rayleigh
55 region, the decrease of RCS is steeper than the decrease of the object size.

56 Monitored volume: Also known as radar coverage or isoechoic contour, the monitoring volume
57 defines the maximal ranges for echo detection: the maximal detection distance D_{max} , as well as the
58 effective beam width (cf. $Width_{beam}$ in Lexicon). The monitored volume depends on the object size,
59 and increases with increasing object size.

60 MTR [bird * km⁻¹ * h⁻¹]: Migration Traffic Rate is a standardised measure of bird movements (Lowery
61 1951, Liechti et al. 1995). It describes the number of birds crossing a virtual transect line of one
62 kilometre within one hour. By considering flight altitude, subsets can be given for different height
63 intervals. For example, the MTR of a period between t_1 and t_2 is the sum of the MTR-factors (s.
64 below) multiplied by the ratio between an hour and the time period [hour] between t_1 and t_2 :

$$65 \quad MTR = \sum_{t_1-t_2} MTR_{factor} \cdot \frac{1}{t_1-t_2}.$$

66 MTR_{factor} : The MTR-factor is defined as the ratio between the one kilometre transect line and the
67 effective beam width $Width_{beam}$, at the object's distance and for the object's estimated size:
68 $MTR_{factor} = 1000/Width_{beam}$. For example, MTR_{factor} equals five for a 200 m $Width_{beam}$. The
69 MTR-factor indicates the individual contribution of each echo to the MTR: e.g. the sum of all MTR-
70 factors within an hour and a given height interval provides the MTR (cf. MTR in Lexicon). The MTR-
71 factor therefore accounts for the distance-dependent variation in monitored volume.

72 Object size [m²]: Visual profile produced by an object. Reflectivity properties and aspect of the object
73 in respect to the polarisation plane of the beam greatly influence the relationship between the
74 actual object size and the measured RCS.

75 $P_{r_{min}}$ [dBm]: The detection threshold defines the minimal echo size for detection (cf. STC).

76 P_t [W]: The transmitted power P_t represents the peak in power transmitted in pulse radar. Pulse
77 radar sequentially emits electromagnetic waves and then listens for the echoes. The electromagnetic
78 waves are created in a magnetron, and transmitted via the antenna.

79 Radar equation: The radar equation defines the main relationship between the echo power received
80 by the radar P_r [W], and properties of the radar (transmitted power P_t [W], antenna gain G_0 [dB],
81 wave length λ [m]), the illuminated object properties (i.e. RCS [m²]), and its *distance* [m] from the
82 radar antenna. The radar equation can be formulated as follows (Drake and Reynolds 2012) eq.

$$83 \quad 3.14a) \quad P_r = \frac{P_t \cdot G_0^2 \cdot \lambda^2 \cdot RCS}{64 \cdot \pi^3 \cdot distance^4}$$

84 Radiation pattern (antenna diagram): A diagram describing the transmission and receiving
85 characteristics of an antenna for a specific electromagnetic wave length (e.g. X-band). It describes
86 the direction (3D) dependent gain in transmitting and receiving power expressed in decibel (dB), as
87 measured by the manufacturer.

88 $RCS [m^2]$: The Radar Cross Section describes the reflectivity properties of an object. The RCS is
89 wavelength specific and depends among other things on the reflectivity properties of the object
90 (Eastwood 1967, Drake and Reynolds 2012). Following the radar equation (see Lexicon), the received
91 power P_r is the only object specific quantity measured by non-coherent radar transmitter.
92 Therefore, the RCS can be calculated by correcting the echo size (as a measure of P_r) by the distance
93 (Drake and Reynolds 2012, eq. 4.1): $RCS = \frac{P_r \cdot (4\pi)^3 \cdot distance^4}{P_t \cdot G_0^2 \cdot \lambda^2}$. We obtain a true RCS only for echoes
94 that transit through the centre of the beam; the RCS is underestimated for all other echoes.

95 $STC_{dist} [m]$: The Sensitivity Time Control is an adjustable sensitivity setting used to attenuate the
96 received power of signal close to the antenna. The STC sets a time (or distance, since time multiplied
97 by the speed of light gives a distance, e.g. 300 m is about 10^{-6} s) at which the signals are not
98 attenuated any more. In many radar systems available on the market such a STC filter is
99 implemented, as a distance-dependent function, generally unknown to the user. For proper
100 quantifications of small objects, the function should be based on the radar equation (Eastwood
101 1967). **STC filters usually act prior to the echo detection and can be further increased post-hoc.**

102 Waveguide attenuation [dB]: Attenuation of the transmitted and received power by the waveguide

103 $Width_{beam} [m]$: The effective beam width for echo detection depends on the object's reflective
104 properties and its distance from the antenna. The variation of the beam width with the distance
105 from the radar defines the monitored volume (Drake and Reynolds 2012). $Width_{beam}$ is calculated
106 for a given object size and distance from the radar antenna, given the following radar parameters
107 (transmitted power P_t , antenna gain G_0 , wave length λ , waveguide attenuation, radiation pattern
108 (see R-function "funMTRfactor" in Appendix F).

109

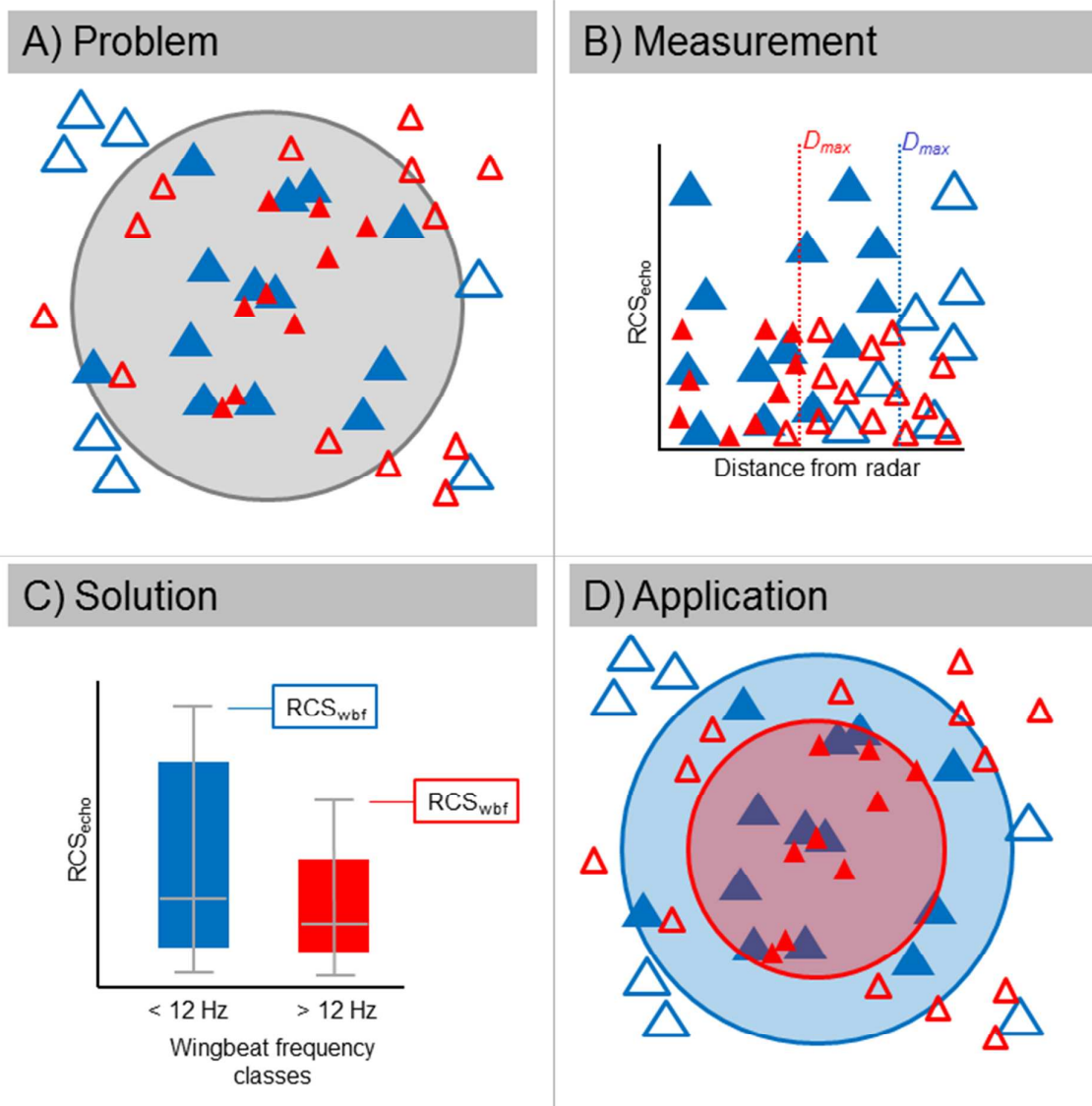
110 Introduction

111 The lowest one to two kilometres of the atmosphere host huge quantities of animal movements,
112 often invisible to the human eye (La Sorte et al. 2015, Hu et al. 2016, Chilson et al. 2017, Bruderer et
113 al. 2018). Increasing human aerial activities and the trend towards more and taller constructions
114 increase the collision and mortality risks of these animals aloft (Loss et al. 2015). Thus, there is an
115 increasing demand on monitoring these movements for environmental impact assessments (e.g. at
116 wind farms). Radar systems provide an ideal tool to monitor the temporal and spatial patterns of
117 animal movements locally (Bruderer 1997, Nilsson et al. 2018), as well as on a large scale
118 (Gauthreaux et al. 2003, Chilson et al. 2012, Nilsson et al. this issue). Therefore, the significance and
119 demand for quantitative radar studies on animal movements in the context of ecological or
120 environmental impact assessment studies has increased considerably (Bridge et al. 2011, Bauer and
121 Hoye 2014).

122 An accurate quantification of animal movements requires an adequate, but not easily accessible,
123 knowledge of the monitored volume (Schmaljohann et al. 2008, Drake and Reynolds 2012, Larkin
124 and Diehl 2012). In principal, radars transmit electromagnetic waves that propagate in a three-
125 dimensional beam along a main axis. The shape and extent of the beam defines the volume of air
126 monitored by the radar. The monitored volume can be estimated using the radar equation (see
127 Lexicon, (Eastwood 1967), requiring information on radar parameters and reflectivity properties of
128 the objects. Radar specific parameters (e.g. wave length λ , antenna shape) are readily provided by
129 the manufacturer, but the access to information on adjustable sensitivity settings for echo detection
130 [e.g. detection threshold $P_{r_{min}}$, sensitivity time control (STC_{dist}), see Lexicon] is not guaranteed. In
131 addition to radar properties, the monitored volume strongly depends on the object's size
132 (Schmaljohann et al. 2008). Large objects have a bigger monitored volume than smaller objects
133 (Figure 1a): they are detectable at greater distances along the beam axis, and at wider distances
134 from the beam axis, than smaller objects. However, the actual object size cannot be directly
135 measured by radar. Radar registers the maximal echo intensity (echo size, see Lexicon). Because the
136 echo size decays at a known rate with distance from the radar antenna (power law of four, see radar
137 equation in Lexicon), we can correct the echo size for its distance and obtain a best approximation
138 of the radar cross section (RCS, see Lexicon). The RCS is therefore the echo size corrected for the
139 distance along the main axis, but the RCS is related to the object size only for objects that transit
140 through the beam centre. Because the echo size decreases with increasing distance from the beam
141 axis, objects illuminated in the periphery of the beam will appear smaller (have smaller echo size)
142 than an object of the same size detected in the beam centre (Figure 1b). Therefore, the RCS is a
143 minimal measure of the object size.

144 The frequency at which birds flap their wings is highly correlated with their body size, with larger
145 birds flapping slower than small ones (Pennycuick 2001, Bruderer et al. 2010). This relationship has
146 also been shown in several insect groups (Drake and Reynolds 2012, Greenewalt 1962). The
147 wingbeat frequency of a target can be estimated from the variation in echo intensity over time (echo
148 signature, see lexicon) (Eastwood and Rider 1966, Bruderer et al. 2010, Bruderer and Joss 1969).
149 Therefore, we can use the wingbeat frequency to estimate the size of the target/object,
150 independently from the echo size (Figure 1c). The size distribution of measured targets can then be
151 used to accurately estimate of the size-specific monitored volume for different taxa (Figure 1d).

152 In this study, we analysed six million echoes detected with a vertical-looking radar system (Nilsson et
153 al. 2018), located at a range of sites along the avian African-Eurasian migratory flyway (from Sweden
154 in the north, United Kingdom in the west, to Israel in the south-east), such that birds from a wide
155 geographic range will have been sampled. We used features of the echo signature to classify each
156 echo into four echo-types (“passerine”, “wader”, “unidentified-bird”, and “non-bird”), and estimated
157 the WBF (Zaugg et al. 2008). We first illustrate the influence of adjustable sensitivity settings on the
158 number of detected bird and non-bird echo-types, and its consequences for the monitored volume.
159 We then propose a quantitative framework to estimate the object sizes for echoes with similar
160 wingbeat patterns, and test whether the estimated object sizes are consistent across large
161 geographical ranges that likely differ in the species composition of migratory birds. Finally, we
162 demonstrate the importance of accounting for size-specific monitored volume in order to accurately
163 quantify the height distributions of animal movements aloft. This result highlights the importance of
164 considering the size-specific monitored volume for each echo, and is an important step towards a
165 truly quantitative estimation of animal movements using radar systems.



166

167 Figure 1: Research scheme. A) Most radar studies assume a maximum detection distance (monitored volume, 168 grey disk) for all detected objects (filled symbols), irrespective of their size (object size: blue > red). However, 169 many small objects remain undetected (open symbols) within the maximum detection distance (red-open 170 symbols within the grey circle). B) Radars detect echoes with large RCS further away than echoes with small 171 RCS (maximal detection distance D_{max} indicated by the vertical dotted line with the respective colour). Because 172 the estimated RCS of objects decreases with increasing distance from the beam axis, the RCS of objects of 173 different size overlap in the low ranges. Therefore, the actual size cannot be directly measured, but C) the 174 wingbeat frequency (WBF) can be used to separate large from small birds (Pennycuik 2001). The upper range 175 of the RCS distributions (RCS_{wbf}) should be closest to the true RCS due to individuals flying across the centre 176 of the beam. D) Applying RCS_{wbf} results in size specific detection monitored volume (blue and red disks).

177

178 Methods

179 Echo detection, classification and wingbeat frequency

180 We used a modified X-band marine radar (Bridgemaster[®], 25 kW, 9.4 GHz, wavelength ca. 3.2 cm)
181 with a vertical-looking 20dB Horn antenna (17.5 ° nominal beam angle at -3 dB; Swiss BirdRadar
182 Solution AG, swiss-birdradar.com). We used 70 ns short-pulse emission for a range resolution of 10
183 m and a maximal detection range of 1500 m. An automated software detects objects passing
184 through the beam, and digitises the detected echo signals (sampling frequency = 425 – 450 Hz). The
185 digitizer converts the received signal into dBm based on calibration measurements with a signal
186 processing unit and a reference power of 1 mW. The echo signature describes the temporal variation
187 of the echo intensity (see Lexicon). The echo intensity is greatest when objects transit closest to the
188 beam centre. The echo intensity also varies in relation to changes in the aspect of the object, such as
189 the wingbeat movements of birds. To remove the small variations in echo intensity induced by
190 changes in aspect, we apply a low pass filter (Chebyshev type I filters of order 5 with nominal band-
191 pass limit set to 0.5 Hz) on the echo signature to identify the maximal echo intensity (hereafter
192 referred to as echo size [dBm]). Once corrected for the distance according to the radar equation, the
193 echo size is expressed as the radar cross section (RCS [m^2], see Lexicon), assuming objects have the
194 same reflectivity properties. The echo size and its related RCS can strongly depend on the aspect of
195 the animal in relation to the beam orientation (Edwards and Houghton 1959, Bruderer and Joss
196 1969, Mirkovic et al. 2016). Since vertical-looking radars illuminate animals from below (“ventral
197 aspect”), the influence of aspect variation in a low-pass-filtered RCS is low and thus neglected in this
198 study. For a given object size, the RCS is maximal when the object passes through the beam axis, and
199 minimal at the detection threshold at the periphery of the beam.

200 We used supervised learning to automate manual echo classification and manual assessment of
201 wingbeat frequency (WBF). A band-pass filter (Chebyshev type I filters of order 5 with nominal band-
202 pass limits set to 4 and 180 Hz) removed high frequency signal oscillations partly due to the 0.8 Hz
203 rotation of the antenna. We used features derived from the echo signature (detailed features in
204 Appendix Table A1) and trained random forest classifiers to group the echoes into four echo-types
205 (“passerine”, “wader”, “unidentified-bird”, and “non-bird”; Zaugg et al. 2008). Class probabilities are
206 calculated for each echo, and the class with the highest probability is assigned to the echo. We re-
207 classified echoes with class probabilities for passerine-type and wader-type lower than 0.5 as
208 unidentified-bird-type. Non-bird echoes are insects and other non-determined objects. We assessed
209 the WBF [Hz] with a random forest regression model trained with manually confirmed WBF values,
210 and features extracted from band-pass echo signatures (detailed features in Appendix Table A1). For

211 each estimated WBF, a credibility factor is provided as the proportion of regression trees reaching
 212 close consensus. Cross validation of estimated WBF with manually determined WBF based on expert
 213 knowledge shows Pearson correlation coefficient of 0.976 (on a subset of echoes with credibility
 214 factors ≥ 0.5). Because of the low-band pass filter (see above), the trained classifier cannot
 215 determine WBF below 4 Hz. We restricted the WBF range to 25 Hz for birds (maximal known WBF
 216 for European birds, see Bruderer et al. 2010) and to WBF with credibility factors larger than 0.5.

217

218 Data

219 We used data from 11 monitoring sites (Table 1): Sempach (Switzerland (CH), year round), Col de
 220 Bretolet (CH, autumn), Geneva (CH, spring), Moelle (Sweden (SE), autumn), Sivry (France (FR),
 221 autumn), Herzelee (FR, autumn), Upper Galilee (Israel (IL), spring), Arava (IL, spring and autumn),
 222 Lower Galilee (IL, spring and autumn), Carmel (IL, spring and autumn), and Falmouth (United
 223 Kingdom (UK), year round). During the course of these monitoring campaigns, the deployed radars
 224 registered 6,460,205 echoes, of which 660,200 were “passerine-type” echoes (79.5% with WBF),
 225 96,337 were “wader-type” echoes (97.8% with WBF), 1,136,481 were “unidentified-bird-type”
 226 echoes (44.1% with WBF), and 4,567,187 echoes were classified as “non-bird-type”. This latter
 227 category undoubtedly consisted largely of insects, which at times can be hugely abundant in the
 228 atmosphere (Drake and Reynolds 2012; Hu et al. 2016). We also note that wader-type echoes may
 229 also include echoes from bats (Bruderer and Popa-Lisseanu 2005). The WBF of bats range between 5
 230 to 12 Hz (similar values to the bird species classified as wader-type), and bats follow similar WBF-
 231 body size relationship as birds (Bullen and McKencie 2002, Norberg and Norberg 2012). Further
 232 knowledge on cross-validated echo signatures may enable disentanglement of wader-type bird-
 233 echoes from bat-echoes. The monitoring campaigns differed in sensitivity settings: STC_{dist} ranged
 234 from 100 m to 500 m, and detection threshold $P_{r_{min}}$ ranged from -100 dBm to -90 dBm.

235

236 Table 1: Overview of the 11 sites with radar monitoring: the geographic location (CH: Switzerland, SE: Sweden,
 237 FR: France, IL: Israel) and the monitoring period are provided, however the operation of the radar during these
 238 periods was not always continuous.

Site	Latitude, Longitude	Altitude [m asl]	Start	End	Monitoring days (hours)
Sempach (CH)	47.1, 8.2	450	Mar. 2016	Jun. 2017	504 (9707)
Geneva (CH)	46.2, 6.0	395	Mar. 2017	Jun. 2017	72 (1569)

Col de Bretolet (CH)	46.2, 6.8	1200	Aug. 2016	Oct. 2016	72 (1325)
Moelle (SE)	56.3, 12.5	70	Sep. 2015	Nov. 2015	62 (1384)
Herzeele (FR)	50.9, 2.5	10	Aug. 2016	Oct. 2016	59 (1124)
Sivry (FR)	48.8, 6.2	250	Oct. 2016	Nov. 2016	47 (967)
Upper Galilee (IL)	32.9, 35.2	350	Sep. 2015	Nov. 2015	66 (1417)
			Feb. 2016	May 2016	95 (2132)
Arava (IL)	30.7, 35.0	15	Mar. 2016	May 2016	81 (1911)
			Aug. 2016	Nov. 2016	79 (1795)
Lower Galilee (IL)	32.6, 35.4	115	Mar. 2016	Jun. 2016	77 (1799)
			Aug. 2016	Nov. 2016	92 (2168)
Carmel (IL)	32.6, 35.1	250	Aug. 2016	Nov. 2016	94 (2144)
Falmouth (UK)	50.2, -5.1	120	Mar. 2015	Mar. 2017	483 (5993)

239

240 **Analyses**241 *Influence of sensitivity settings and object size on monitoring volume*

242 Using calculations based on the radar equation (see Lexicon), we illustrate the influence of
 243 adjustable sensitivity settings (detection thresholds $P_{r_{min}}$: -93 dBm, -87 dBm) and object diameter (5
 244 cm or 15 cm) on the monitored volume, especially on the maximum detection distance (D_{max}), and
 245 on MTR-factors. The MTR-factor is the ratio between a 1-km transect line and the effective beam
 246 width at the distance of detection (see Lexicon). The MTR-factors thus account for size-specific and
 247 distance dependent variation in effective beam width, and represent contribution of each echo to
 248 MTR. We compute the effective beam width for each 1 m using an R-function based on the radar
 249 equation (Appendix F, R-function “funMTRfactor”) and the following parameter: STC_{dist} 300 m, P_t
 250 20 kW, and waveguide attenuation 0 dB. We further report the median of MTR-factors per 50 m
 251 distance bin.

252

253 *Influence of sensitivity settings on number of detected echoes*

254 We investigated the influence of adjustable sensitivity settings on the number of detected echoes
 255 for each echo-type. We applied the following post-hoc (i.e. after echo detection) sensitivity settings:
 256 $P_{r_{min}}$ of -90 dBm, -87 dBm, -83 dBm, and STC_{dist} of 500 m. We used all data monitored with a
 257 maximal $P_{r_{min}}$ -93 dBm and STC_{dist} 300 m and we report changes in number of echoes detected for
 258 each echo-type: passerine, and non-bird.

259 An increase of three dB of the detection threshold $P_{r_{min}}$ (a logarithmic scale) corresponds to a two
 260 fold increase in the required echoed energy for detection. With an increase of the detection
 261 threshold $P_{r_{min}}$, only echoes with an echo size larger than the post-hoc detection threshold remain
 262 in the dataset. Within the STC range, when the *distance* [m] of the object from the radar antenna is
 263 smaller than STC_{dist} [m], the effective threshold $P_{r_{min|stc}}$ [dBm] is higher than the detection
 264 threshold settings $P_{r_{min}}$ [dBm]:

$$265 \quad P_{r_{min|stc}} = \begin{cases} P_{r_{min}} - 40 \log_{10}(distance/STC_{dist}), & distance < STC_{dist} \\ P_{r_{min}}, & distance \geq STC_{dist} \end{cases} \quad (\text{Eq. 1})$$

266 While $distance < STC_{dist}$, the STC-function effectively sets a minimal RCS for detection RCS_{min} .
 267 Indeed, reformulating the STC-function in W (cf. dB in Lexicon) gives $P_{r_{min|stc,W}} = P_{r_{min,W}} \cdot \frac{STC_{dist}^4}{distance^4}$
 268 (Eq. 2); Eq. 2 inserted into the radar equation (cf. RCS in Lexicon) further gives: $RCS_{min} =$
 269 $\frac{P_{r_{min|stc,W}} \cdot (4\pi)^3 \cdot distance^4}{P_{t,W} \cdot G_0^2 \cdot \lambda^2} = \frac{P_{r_{min,W}} \cdot (4\pi)^3 \cdot STC_{dist}^4}{P_{t,W} \cdot G_0^2 \cdot \lambda^2}$ (Eq. 3). Therefore, RCS_{min} is independent on the
 270 detection distance. With an increase of the STC, only echoes with a RCS larger than or equal
 271 to RCS_{min} remain in the dataset.

272

273 *Determination of object size using wingbeat frequency*

274 We estimate the object size of birds for each echo type and WBF intervals of 2 Hz. We report the
 275 0.9- and 0.95-quantiles of the RCS distribution for each echo-type and 2 Hz WBF intervals
 276 [*object diameter* = $2 \cdot (RCS/\pi)^{1/2}$], assuming an ideal spherical shape]. The species composition
 277 likely differs between the different geographical areas, and during spring and autumn migration
 278 events. We investigated whether the geographical region influences the observed RCS distributions.

279 We used passerine-type echoes only because they are classified with high credibility, abundant on
 280 each site and cover the entire range of WBF. We tested the dependency of the 0.9-quantile of the
 281 RCS (transformed as *object diameter*, see above; using the 0.95-quantiles lead to quantitatively
 282 similar results) on WBF 2-Hz interval (as ordered factors), adding the site identity as a random
 283 intercept in linear mixed-effects models as implemented in the "lme4" R-package (Bates et al. 2015,
 284 R-version 3.4.3), assuming a Gaussian distribution of the residuals.

285

286 *Distance distribution corrected for size specific monitored volume*

287 To demonstrate the influence of MTR-factors on the estimate of migration intensity, we compared
 288 the distance distribution of the detected echoes with the distance distribution of MTR-factors. For
 289 each type of bird echo and WBF, we used the 0.90-quantile distribution of RCS (analyses with the
 290 0.95 quantile were quantitative similar). The calculation of MTR-factor for each echo requires the
 291 following information: the estimated object size (0.90-quantile distribution of RCS per echo type and
 292 2 Hz WBF interval, see Appendix Table A2), the distance (echoes are binned into 50 m distance
 293 intervals), the effective detection thresholds $P_{r_{min}}$ (see Eq. 1), the transmitted power P_t specified by
 294 the radar type, and the radiation pattern (see Lexicon) as provided by the antenna manufacturer
 295 (Appendix F, R-function “funMTRfactor”). We calculated the MTR-factors for all bird echoes
 296 registered with maximum $P_{r_{min}}$ of -93 dBm and STC_{dist} of 300 m, so that echo detection is based on
 297 a radar beam of the same shape.

298

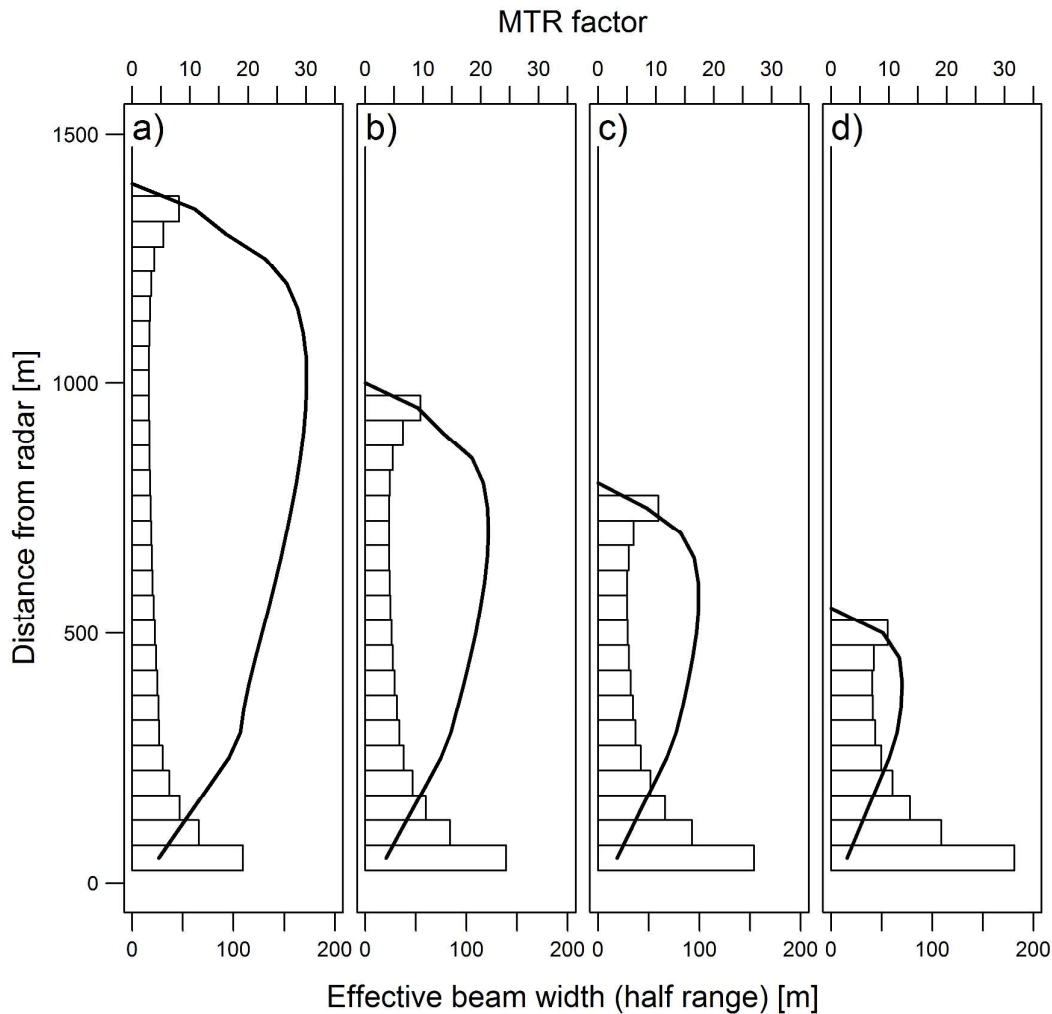
299

300 Results

301 *Influence of sensitivity settings and object size on monitoring volume*

302 An increase of the detection threshold by 6 dB reduced the effective beam area (planar projection of
 303 the monitored volume along the distance axis) by about 50% (Figure 2: $P_{r_{min}}$ -93 dBm vs. -87 dBm,
 304 see also Table A3 in Appendix). In particular, the maximal detection distance D_{max} decreased from
 305 1361 m ($P_{r_{min}}$ -93 dBm) to 949 m ($P_{r_{min}}$ -87 dBm) for objects of 15 cm, and from 765 m ($P_{r_{min}}$ -93
 306 dBm) to 527 m ($P_{r_{min}}$ -87 dBm) for objects of 5 cm (Table A3, Figure 2). In contrast, an increase of
 307 STC_{dist} from 300 m to 500 m only had a minor effect on the beam area (<10 %, Table 3) and does
 308 not affect the maximum detection distance as long as the object is large enough to be detected
 309 within the STC range.

310 The MTR-factors are inversely proportional to the effective beam width (see Lexicon). Setting higher
 311 detection threshold $P_{r_{min}}$ reduces the maximal detection distance D_{max} , and the MTR-factors above
 312 D_{max} are undefined and set equal to zero. Within D_{max} , setting higher detection threshold or STC
 313 reduces the effective beam width, therefore increases the MTR-factors at a given height. Similarly, at
 314 a given height, the MTR- factors of large objects are smaller than the MTR-factors of small objects.



315

316 Figure 2: Effective beam width (half-range, solid lines, bottom x-axis) and MTR-factors (bars, 50 m distance bin,
 317 top x-axis) in relation to the distance for a) -93 dB $P_{r_{min}}$ and 15 cm object diameter ($RCS = 0.0177 \text{ m}^2$), b) -87
 318 dB $P_{r_{min}}$ and 15 cm object diameter, c) -93 dB $P_{r_{min}}$ and 5 cm object diameter ($RCS = 0.0020 \text{ m}^2$), d) -87 dB
 319 $P_{r_{min}}$ and 5 cm object diameter. Further parameters to calculate the effective beam width: STC_{dist} 300 m, P_t
 320 20 kW, and waveguide attenuation 0 dB (see R-function in Appendix).

321

322 *Influence of sensitivity settings on number of detected echoes*

323 An increase of the detection threshold and STC lowers the measurement sensitivity and reduces the
 324 number of detected echoes (Table 2, Figure 3). Obviously, a reduction of the sensitivity increases the
 325 minimal RCS for detection RCS_{min} (Table 2). In terms of echo detection, the effects of an increase of
 326 the detection threshold or of the STC differ (Figure 3). By increasing the STC, small objects, especially
 327 echoes classified as non-bird type, are reduced considerably. The proportion of non-bird echoes

328 decreases from 59% (Table 2: STC_{dist} 300 m, $P_{r_{min}}$ -93 dBm) to less than 20% of the detected
 329 echoes (Table 2: STC_{dist} 500 m, $P_{r_{min}}$ -93 dBm). This 200 m increase of STC excluded 89% of the
 330 non-bird echoes, but only 28% of the passerines-type echoes. Increasing the detection threshold not
 331 only excludes small objects, it also reduces the monitored volume for any given object size. An
 332 increase in the detection threshold (-93 dBm to -90 dBm; Table 2) decreases the proportion of non-
 333 bird echoes to 42 % by excluding 67% of these echoes, but this also leads to an exclusion of 30% of
 334 the passerine-type echoes.

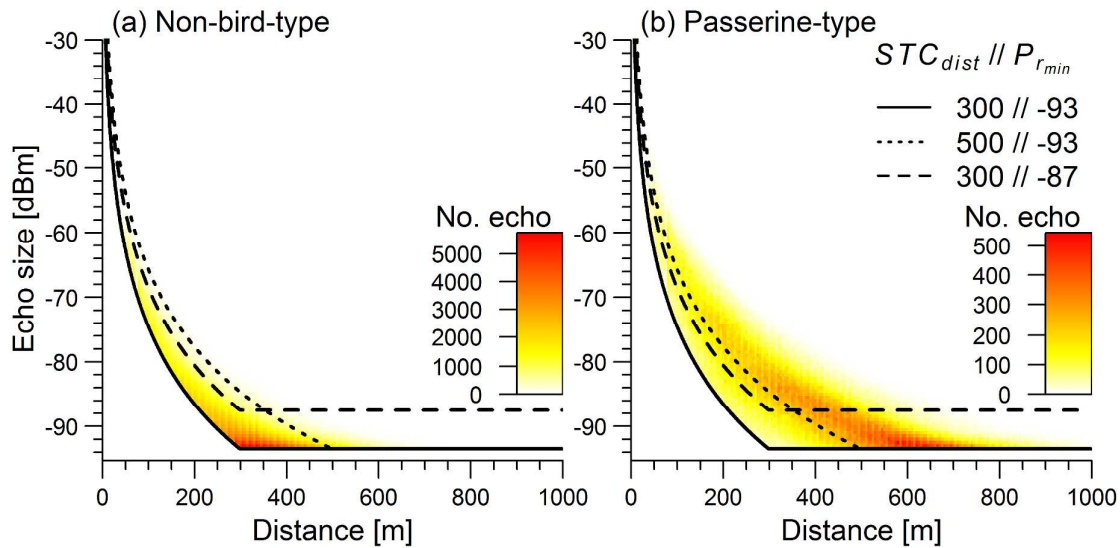
335

336 Table 2: Influence of sensitivity settings (STC_{dist} and $P_{r_{min}}$) on the minimal RCS for detection RCS_{min} , the
 337 number of echoes, and the proportion of passerine-type and non-bird-type echoes. The total number of
 338 echoes also include wader-type and unidentified-bird-type echoes.

STC_{dist} [m]	$P_{r_{min}}$ [dBm]	RCS_{min} [cm ²]*	N. echoes	Proportion of echoes	
				Passerine	Non-bird (Insect)
300	-93	0.36	2915284	0.181	0.589
300	-90	0.72	1330121	0.279	0.423
300	-87	1.43	664900	0.381	0.224
300	-83	3.60	282270	0.418	0.064
500	-93	2.77	1108448	0.342	0.171
500	-90	5.54	455769	0.369	0.047
500	-87	11.04	193102	0.265	0.020
500	-83	27.74	52868	0.085	0.015

339 *using antenna gain $G_0 = 20$ dB; transmitted power $P_{t,W} = 20$ kW; see Eq. 3.

340



341
 342 Figure 3: Echo size in relation to detection distance for a) non-bird-type echoes (mostly “insect”) and b)
 343 passerine-type echoes. Lines delimit distance dependent detection thresholds $P_{r_{min}|stc}$ (Eq. 1): i) STC_{dist} 300
 344 m and $P_{r_{min}}$ -93 dBm (solid line), ii) STC_{dist} 500 m and $P_{r_{min}}$ -93 dBm (dotted line), and iii) STC_{dist} 300 m
 345 and $P_{r_{min}}$ -87 dBm (dashed line). Note the different scale of the number of echo between non-bird-type and
 346 passerine-type echoes.

347

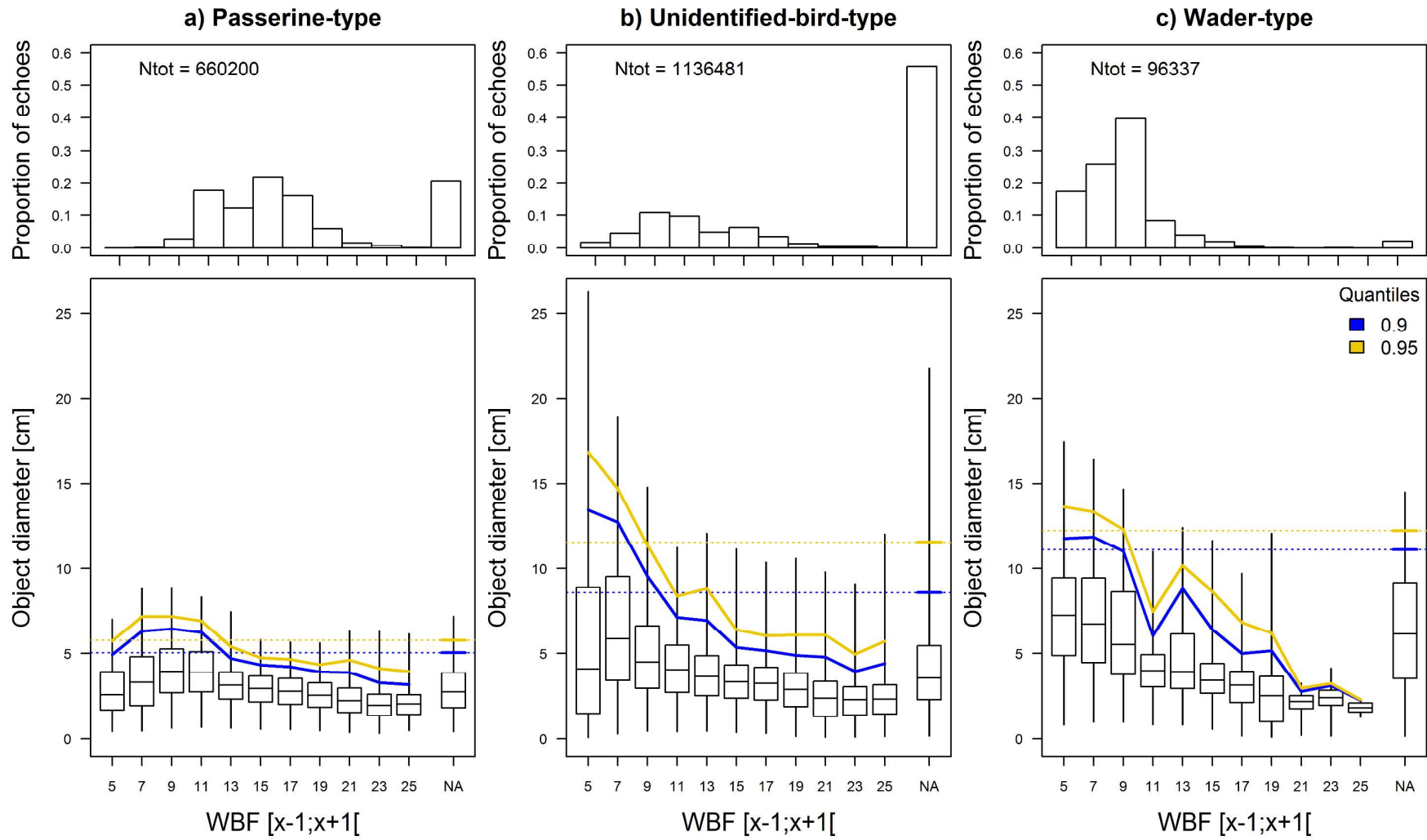
348 *Determination of object size using wingbeat frequency*

349 The RCS decreased with increasing WBF for all three types of bird echoes (Figure 4). Considering
 350 echoes with similar WBF, the median RCS is smallest for passerine-type, generally highest for wader-
 351 type, whereas unidentified birds tend to show intermediate median values. The 0.9-quantile
 352 distributions of RCS parallel the 0.95-quantile distributions.

353 Wader-type echoes with low WBF (4 – 10 Hz) typically fell within the 12 – 13 cm diameter range. The
 354 wader-type echoes with 11 ± 1 Hz WBF had smaller 0.95 (or 0.90) RCS quantiles than echoes with 13
 355 ± 1 Hz WBF. The relatively few wader-type echoes with WBF larger than 13 Hz only occurred in non-
 356 rotation mode and mostly occurred during night time. Passerine-type echoes with low WBF (4 – 12
 357 Hz) had 0.95 RCS quantiles of 7 – 8 cm diameters. We observed a marked decrease in RCS between
 358 11 Hz and 13 Hz WBF intervals. The RCS of passerines with WBF > 12Hz decreased steadily to a
 359 minimal 0.95-quantile diameter of 3.1 cm. Unidentified-bird-type echoes showed a steeper decrease
 360 in 0.95-quantiles between 5 Hz and 13 Hz WBF intervals than between 13 Hz and 25 Hz WBF
 361 intervals.

362 The 0.95-quantiles of RCS per 2 Hz WBF intervals for passerine-type echoes showed no differences
363 between study site (using the 0.90 RCS quantiles were quantitatively similar). Between-site variance
364 (0.22 ± 0.73) is about 20 times smaller than the averaged site value (Intercept 4.55 ± 0.08) and 10
365 times smaller than the decrease in RCS per two-Hertz (-2.34 ± 0.18 ; see also Figure S3 in Appendix E).
366

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[legend see next page]

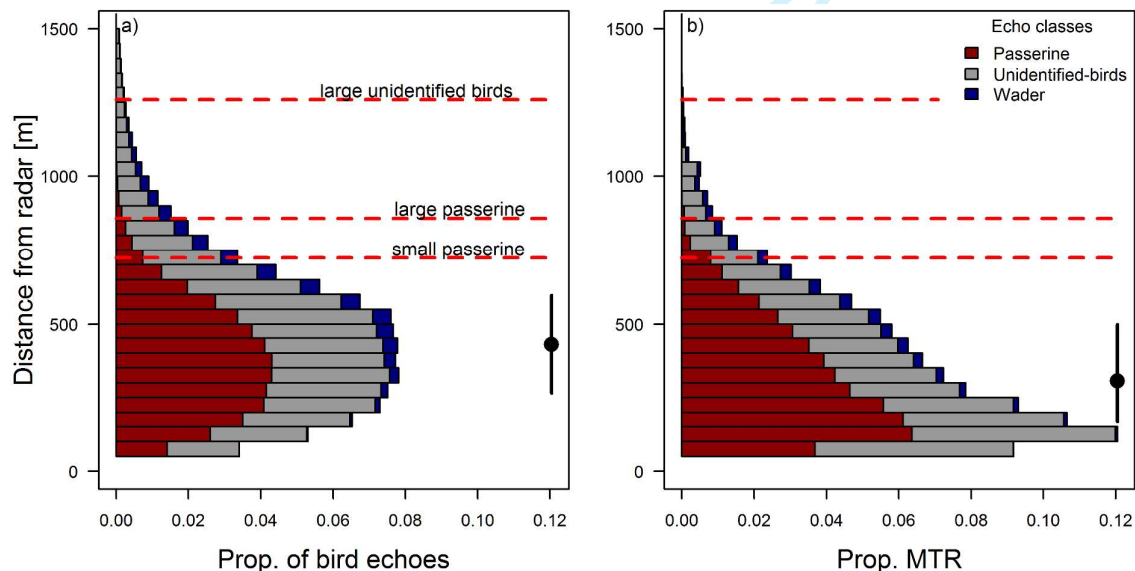
369 Figure 4: Distributions of registered object diameters (cm, $object\ diameter = 2 \cdot (RCS/\pi)^{1/2}$, assuming an
 370 ideal spherical shape) per 2 Hz WBF intervals for echoes of a) passerine-type, b) unidentified-bird-type, and c)
 371 wader type. Boxes show the 0.25 and 0.75 quantiles (vertical lines are the 0.01 and 0.99 quantiles). Coloured
 372 lines indicate the 0.9 (blue) and 0.95 (yellow) quantile of the distributions of object diameters per WBF-
 373 interval. Sample size (proportion of echo) indicated on top panels.

374

375 *Distance distribution corrected for object-size dependent beam width*

376 After correction for the monitored volume with MTR-factors, the height distribution of the MTR is
 377 lower than the height distribution of detected echoes (Figure 5). Fifty percent of the echoes were
 378 detected above the first 428 m (0.25-quantile: 266 m; 0.75-quantile: 597 m, Figure 5a), whereas 50%
 379 of the MTR occurred within the first 306 m (0.25-quantile: 167 m; 0.75-quantile: 499 m, Figure 5b).
 380 The lower distribution of MTR compared to the distribution of echo detection is due to the
 381 correction applied for a narrower beam width at short distance compared to mid-distances (Figure
 382 2). The distance distributions of MTR depend on the maximal detection distance D_{max} of the
 383 different taxa, as calculated with the 0.90 RCS quantiles (see Appendix Table A2), although some
 384 echoes are detected further. According to the assumed object size per taxa, D_{max} of large
 385 passerines (passerine-type with WBF < 12 Hz) is 858 m, and D_{max} of small passerines echoes
 386 (passerine-type with WBF > 12Hz) is 723 m (Figure 5). Beyond 723 m, the MTR-factors of passerine-
 387 type echoes with WBF > 12 HZ equals zero, and therefore beyond this limit movements of small-
 388 passerine are ignored.

389



390

391 Figure 5: Distance distributions of a) echoes and b) MTR (MTR- factors according to the 0.90 RCS quantile for
392 each echo type and WBF interval). Colours indicate echoes of different echo-types: red for passerine-type, grey
393 for unidentified-bird-type, and blue for wader-type. The vertical black lines indicate the 0.25- and 0.75-
394 quantiles, the dots indicate the 0.50-quantiles of the distance distributions. The horizontal red dashed lines
395 indicate the maximal detection distances D_{max} ($P_{r_{min}} = -93$ dBm, $P_{t,W} = 20$ kW, waveguide attenuation = 0
396 dB) for small passerine type (object diameter = 4.7 cm), large passerine type (object diameter = 6.5 cm), and
397 large unidentified birds (object diameter = 13.5 cm). Above these lines, the MTR-factors equal zero for the
398 respective echo groups.

399

400 Discussion

401 The typical assumption made by many radar operators, that all birds are detected within the
402 maximal distance of bird detection, will lead to erroneous conclusions. This study provides a
403 framework for the accurate quantification of avian movements with radar, taking account of the
404 size-specific monitored volume. Using data collected from widely-separated areas across Europe,
405 and a large range of flying animals, we estimated the size of a bird based on the WBF, independent
406 of the echo size.

407

408 *Influence of sensitivity settings*

409 In this study, we demonstrate the effects of adjustable sensitivity settings on the detection of echoes
410 of diverse types. Increasing the STC effectively removes small non-bird echoes. This is especially
411 important because of the huge number of non-bird echoes (2/3 of all detected echoes), and a small
412 probability of miss-classification can produce an elevated number of bird-type resulting from
413 detection and misclassification of echoes from non-bird objects (insects). The STC also has the
414 advantage of acting only within the distance set by the STC, so it does not reduce the maximal
415 detection distance of the target objects. In contrast, increasing the detection threshold significantly
416 reduces the surveyed volume. For instance, increasing the detection threshold substantially
417 decreases the maximal detection distance of small birds. Beyond this distance, the radar only
418 monitors movements of larger birds.

419 When possible, sensitivity settings should be selected to maximise echo detection. For a quantitative
420 monitoring of avian migration, sensitivity settings (i.e. STC and detection threshold) should be
421 appropriately selected in order to monitor movements of small birds. Setting high STC values post-
422 hoc can remove echoes from small birds in studies that focus on large birds only (e.g. geese).

423 Therefore, adjusting the STC is an effective tool to match the specific aim and target object of radar
424 monitoring, and using the appropriate radar parameters then correct for differences in the surveyed
425 volume.

426 Knowledge of radar parameters (wave length, peak of transmitted power, antenna gain, waveguide
427 attenuation, and the radiation pattern) and adjustable sensitivity settings (detection threshold and
428 STC) are a prerequisite for any quantitative radar monitoring. Moreover, regular calibration will
429 ensure registering of accurate information on standardised echo properties such as the echo size
430 and its derived RCS (Atlas 2002, Schmaljohann et al. 2008, Urmay and Warren 2017, May et al. 2017,
431 Drake and Reynolds 2012). Unfortunately, popular radar systems operating with built-in analysis
432 software may not provide information on radar parameters and adjustable sensitivity settings to the
433 end-users. In addition, some end-users can only monitor the radar display, not being able to register
434 any quantitative information on the echo size (Nilsson et al. 2018). Such black-box radar systems
435 render difficult any quantitative assessment of animal movements. As demonstrated in this study,
436 the striking effects of adjustable sensitivity settings on the number of detected echoes per echo-type
437 render the calibration and report of these sensitivity settings essential for any quantitative radar
438 measurement.

439

440 *Determination of object size using WBF*

441 We estimated the object size from the echoed RCS for each echo-type (passerine-type, wader-type,
442 and unidentified-bird-type) and WBF (2 Hz intervals). The smaller RCS of echoes with high WBF
443 compared to echoes with lower WBF corroborate the negative correlation between body size and
444 WBF defined in allometric flight models (Bruderer et al. 2010, Pennycuick 2001). The fact that the
445 estimated RCS are independent from the study site and season provides support to the general
446 validity of using WBF to estimate the object size.

447 Using the 0.90- or 0.95-quantile of the RCS distributions provides bird size estimates close to
448 experimental measurements on birds measured on the broad side (Edwards and Houghton 1959,
449 Bruderer and Joss 1969, Vaughn 1985). Deviation from the relationship between the WBF and the
450 related bird size can occur because of variation in flight behaviour. For instance, many passerine-
451 type echoes with WBF lower than 8 Hz may originate from swallows performing flap-gliding flight
452 instead of flap-bounding flight (Rayner 1985, Liechti and Bruderer 2002, Tobalske 2007). Passerines
453 contribute to the large majority of inland avian migrations fluxes (Hahn et al. 2009), and probably
454 the majority of the unidentified-bird-type echoes are from passerine birds. Changes in the

455 orientation of the bird's body within the beam can induce important changes in echo intensity,
456 masking the regular modulation of the echo intensity due to the wingbeat patterns. Unidentified-
457 bird-type echoes do not show a clear wingbeat type and less than 50% of the echoes had a credible
458 WBF. Nevertheless, compared to passerine-type echoes, the upper RCS distribution of unidentified-
459 bird-types is larger, probably because unidentified-bird-type echoes also include echoes from large
460 soaring birds and bird flocks, shifting the RCS distributions to larger quantiles. Consequently, the
461 over-estimation of the 0.90 RCS quantiles for unidentified-bird-type echoes leads to smaller MTR-
462 factors, and an underestimation of the standardised movement intensity (MTR). The maximal WBF
463 of wader-type birds reaches 12 Hz, with the notable exception of quails *Coturnix coturnix* (16Hz,
464 Bruderer et al. 2010) and other echoes with WBF > 12 Hz are probable miss classifications.

465 The RCS used in this study is not corrected for the decay in echo intensity with increasing distance
466 from the beam axis. The rotation of the antenna on a slight nutated axis can allow the estimation of
467 the angle between the entry- and exit-point of the object in the beam in relation to the beam centre.
468 Assuming a straight flight, this angle can be used to calculate the closest distance between the
469 object and the centre of the beam, and thus to correct the RCS accordingly (Drake and Reynolds
470 2012). This requires an accurate estimation of the beam width, and has not yet been implemented in
471 the radar system used in this study. We here proposed a method to determine the RCS according to
472 the WBF, independently of the position of the object within the beam.

473 A similar approach could estimate the monitored volume for insects. Insects also show strong
474 relationships between WBF and body size (Drake and Reynolds 2012, Greenewalt 1962). However,
475 this relationship only holds within particular taxonomic groups, as insect taxa differ very much in size
476 and wing shape. The estimation of insects' RCS based on WBF thus requires more detailed echo
477 classification, or knowledge on flight phenology.

478

479 *Distance distribution corrected for object-size dependent beam width*

480 After correction for the monitored volume, the height (i.e. distance for a vertical looking antenna)
481 distribution of the migration intensity is lower than if only reporting the height distribution of
482 detected echoes. For instance, 50 % of the detected echoes were above 428 m agl, and after
483 correction for the variation in monitored volume, 75 % of the animal movement intensity occurred
484 below 499 m agl and even 50 % of the animal movement intensity occurred below 306 m agl. The
485 differences in the height distribution of echoes and MTR highlight the potential misleading
486 evaluation of collision risks of animals with human made structures such as wind turbines, bridges or

487 power lines. In that regard, it is crucial that impact assessment studies accurately quantify the
488 intensity of animal movements.

489 This article demonstrates the importance of reporting standardised movements such as MTR to
490 avoid detection biases. Equally important is to report the maximal detection ranges (see Figure 5)
491 because important migration intensity can occur at high altitude (reviewed in Bruderer and Peter
492 2017, Bruderer et al. 2018), far above the maximal detection range of a particular monitoring
493 scheme. Quantitative information on high migration events can be retrieved using longer pulse
494 emission that increase the maximal detection distance (with the use of lower detection threshold
495 $P_{r_{min}}$). Alternatively, the increasing availability of weather radar data can complement height
496 distribution retrieved from small scale radar systems (Nilsson et al. 2018).

497

498 *Conclusions*

499 Radar systems are valuable tools for the monitoring of aerial animal movements, but the results may
500 suffer from important biases when the registered data is not processed adequately. In line with
501 recent publications which detail adequate procedures (Schmaljohann et al. 2008, Drake and
502 Reynolds 2012, Urmey and Warren 2017, May et al. 2017, Larkin and Diehl 2012) we hope that this
503 publication will help to improve the scientific quality of radar monitoring.

504 We demonstrate the importance of accurately quantifying animal movement intensities, in
505 particular for impact assessment studies of human-made structures (Aschwanden et al. 2018), or
506 more generally to ecological studies of bioflows (Hu et al. 2016). Fixed-beam radar systems have the
507 great advantage of being able to retrieve detailed information on the registered echoes, such as the
508 WBF. We show how the WBF can be used as an independent measure of the body size of the animal,
509 and how this taxa-specific RCS provides the most accurate estimation of the surveyed volume. When
510 information on WBF is missing, expert knowledge on the body size (and its estimated RCS) can allow
511 the estimation of the surveyed volume. Together with specific information on radar parameters
512 (transmitted power, antenna gain, wave length, radiation pattern) and sensitivity parameters
513 (detection threshold, STC), information on the taxa specific RCS are essential for any quantitative
514 monitoring of animal movement and should always be made available and reported.

515

516

517 **Contributions**

518 BS and FL conceived the study. BS, MB, SCV, JWC collected the data. BS, FL, SZ conducted the
519 analyses. BS wrote the manuscript with substantial contributions from all authors.

520

521 Data availability

522 Data used for this study are deposited on Zenodo: [doi upon acceptance]

523

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530 international collaboration.

531

532

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- 602
- 603

604 Supplementary information

605 Appendix A) **Features used for the echo classification and WBD estimation**

606 **Table A1:** Description of features used for the echo classification and WBF assessment.

Feature category	Description	Used for
Fundamental Frequency Estimators (FFE)	These features are 'weak' estimators of the fundamental frequency of a signal. If WF pattern is absent, the feature still has a numeric value. If WF pattern is present, generally only a subset of the values are valid approximations.	Echo classifier and WFF estimator
FFE-prominence	These features estimate the prominence of the spectral peaks used for the FFE and can be understood as a rough metric of quality for these features	Echo classifier and WFF estimator
Radar Cross Section (RCS)	This is an estimator of Radar Cross Section i.e. a target's intrinsic reflectivity which is a crude approximation of a target's size. It often underestimates the actual size.	Echo classifier only
Relative Magnitude of Fluctuations	These features estimate the relative magnitude of fluctuations in target's reflectivity.	Echo classifier only

607

608

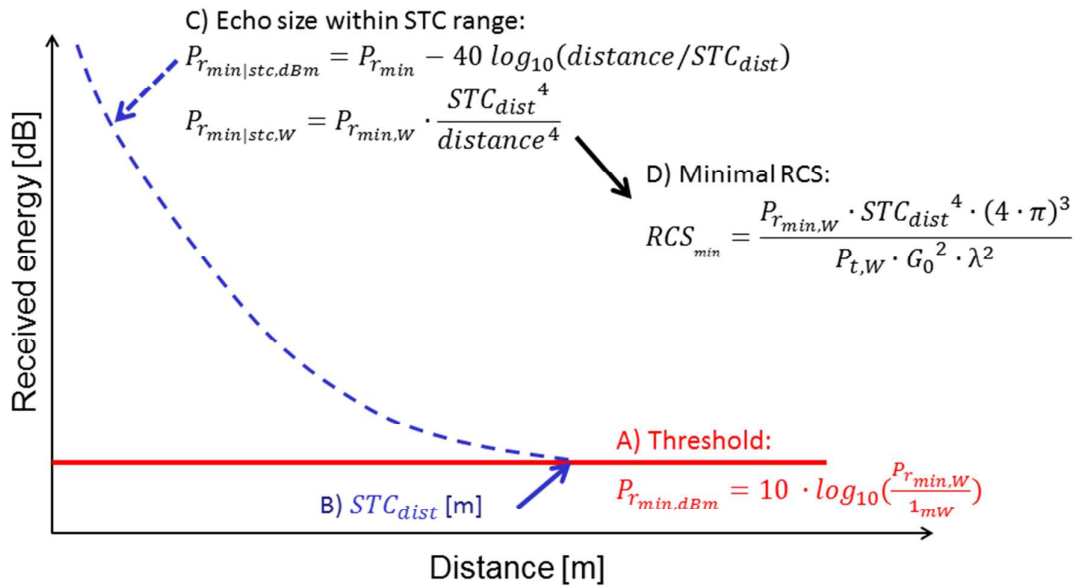
609 Appendix B) **Estimated object size**

610 **Table A2:** Table of estimated object size from the 0.90 RCS quantile, assuming a spherical shape of
 611 the birds: $object\ diameter = 2 \cdot (RCS_{0.90}/\pi)^{1/2}$.

WBF [Hz]	Object diameter [cm]		
	Unidentified-bird-type	Passerine-type	Wader-type
2	13.45	6.47	11.77
3	13.45	6.47	11.77
4	13.45	6.47	11.77
5	13.45	6.47	11.77
6	12.73	6.47	11.86
7	12.73	6.47	11.86
8	9.54	6.47	11.00
9	9.54	6.47	11.00
10	7.15	6.25	6.05
11	7.15	6.25	6.05
12	6.96	4.70	8.85
13	6.96	4.70	8.85
14	5.35	4.33	6.42
15	5.35	4.33	6.42
16	5.16	4.21	5.01
17	5.16	4.21	5.01
18	5.16	3.92	5.01
19	5.16	3.92	5.01
20	5.16	3.87	5.01
21	5.16	3.87	5.01
22	5.16	3.28	5.01
23	5.16	3.28	5.01
24	5.16	3.17	5.01
25	5.16	3.17	5.01
NA	8.61	5.05	11.10

612

613 Appendix C) STC



614

615 Figure S1: Calculation of STC filter. A given detection threshold $P_{r_{min,dBm}}$ (A) and a given **STC** (B), set a
 616 distance-dependent echo size for detection (C, see Eq. 1). We obtain a RCS_{min} independent on the
 617 distance within the STC-range, using the radar equation $RCS = \frac{P_r \cdot (4\pi)^3 \cdot \text{distance}^4}{P_t \cdot G_0^2 \cdot \lambda^2}$, and replacing P_r by
 618 $P_{r_{min}|stc,W}$. Within the STC, all echoes with echo size smaller than $P_{r_{min,dBm}}$ (dashed blue line) have an
 619 RCS smaller than RCS_{min} and are not detected, or removed post-hoc from the dataset.

620

621

622 Appendix D) **Monitored volume**

623 **Table A3:** Maximal detection distance D_{max} and effective beam area (and volume) depends on the sensitivity
 624 settings (threshold $P_{r,min,dBm}$ and STC) assuming a typical object size of 15cm-diameter, transmitted power P_t
 625 of 20 kW, and the antenna diagram provided by the manufacturer.

$P_{r,min,dBm}$	STC_{dist}	5 cm object diameter			15 cm object diameter		
		D_{max}	Total area	Total volume	D_{max}	Total area	Total volume
-93	300	765	111363	14614499	1361	350717	79758565
-90	300	636	77277	8506902	1137	245045	46913895
-87	300	527	53265	4897791	949	170624	27487956
-83	300	408	31613	2244713	744	105342	13462289
-93	500	765	102762	13016262	1361	336261	76233935
-90	500	636	67894	6910189	1137	233834	44451094
-87	500	527	40314	2974657	949	161713	25678177
-83	500	0	0	0	744	97073	11949402

626

627 Appendix E) **Influence of site identity on the RCS distributions**

628 Using 0.90-quantile of the RCS distribution, for Passerines only and finite WBF:

629 `>lme1 = lme(ObjDiam_cm ~ wff_2Hz.of, random= ~ 1|campaignID.f, data=t.RCS,`
630 `control=list(maxIter = 100))`631 `>summary(lme1)`

632 Linear mixed-effects model fit by REML

633

634 Random effects:

635 Formula: ~1 | campaignID.f

636 (Intercept) Residual

637 StdDev: 0.2230263 0.7332045

638

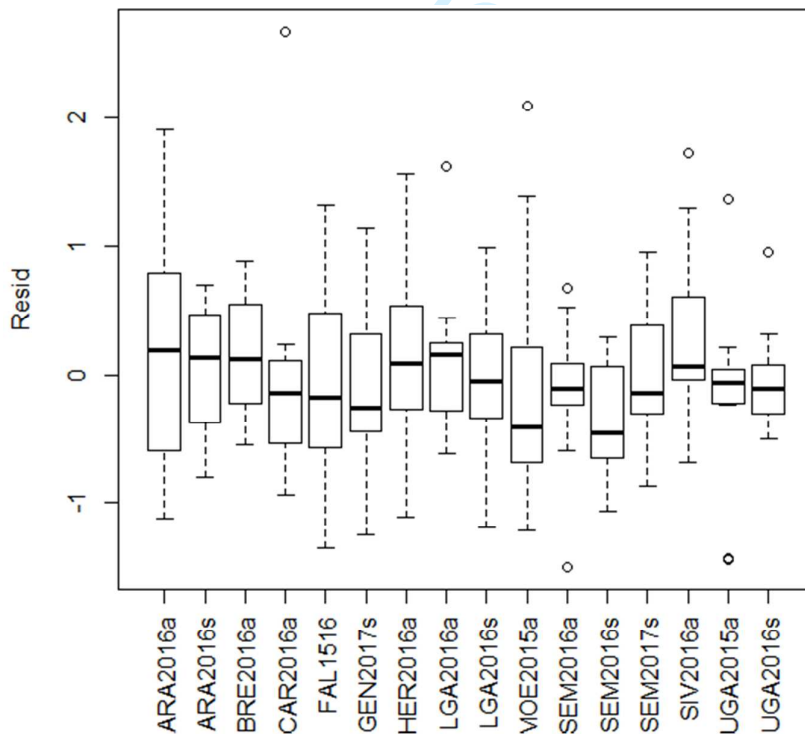
639 Fixed effects: ObjDiam_cm ~ wff_2Hz.of

640 Value Std.Error DF t-value p-value

641 (Intercept) 4.546565 0.07850654 150 57.91321 0.0000

642 wff_2Hz.of.L -2.342268 0.18330112 150 -12.77825 0.0000

643

644 The between-site variance (0.22 ± 0.73) is about 20 times smaller than the averaged site value645 (Intercept 4.55 ± 0.08) and 10 times smaller than the decrease in RCS per two-Hertz (-2.34 ± 0.18)

646

647 Figure S3: Between site variance of the square-root RCS corrected for the wingbeat frequency

648 (sample size indicated on top).


```

706 # values smaller than smallest antenna gain value -> set to value slightly higher than smallest antenna
707 gain value
708 index <- which(levelSTC <= lut_lev_norm[length(lut_lev_norm)])
709 levelSTC[index] = lut_lev_norm[length(lut_lev_norm)] + 0.1
710 # values bigger than biggest antenna gain value -> set value to zero
711 index <- which(levelSTC >= lut_lev_norm[1])
712 levelSTC[index] = 0
713
714 # compute phiSTC
715 phiSTC <- lapply(levelSTC, FUN=function(x){phiSTC = lut_phi[length(lut_lev_norm[lut_lev_norm > x])])})
716 index <- which(levelSTC >= 0)
717 phiSTC[index] <- 0
718 index <- which(phiSTC < 0)
719 phiSTC[index] <- 0
720 phiSTC <- unlist(phiSTC)
721
722 # get half-range
723 halfRangeSTC = height*tan(phiSTC/180*pi) # convert to m
724 # get full horizontal distance
725 RangeSTC = 2*halfRangeSTC # m
726 # get MTR-factor
727 MTRFactor = 1000*(1/RangeSTC) # convert to "targets per meter" and then to "targets per km"
728 MTRFactor[!is.finite(MTRFactor)] <- 0
729 # =====
730
731 return( data.frame("mtrf"=MTRFactor, "RangeSTC"=RangeSTC, "halfRangeSTC"=halfRangeSTC) )
732 }
733 # end function body

```