

1 **Habitat change and biased sampling**
2 **influence estimation of diversity trends**

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14 **SUMMARY**

15 Recent studies have drawn contrasting conclusions about the extent to which local-scale
16 measures of biodiversity are declining, and whether such patterns conflict with the global-scale
17 declines that have attracted much attention [1]. A key source of high quality data for such
18 analyses comes from longitudinal biodiversity studies which sample a given taxon repeatedly
19 over time at a specific location [2]. There has been relatively little consideration of how habitat
20 change might lead to biases in the sampling and continuity of biodiversity time-series data, and
21 the consequent potential for bias in the biodiversity trends that result. Here, based on analysis
22 of standardised routes from the North American Breeding Bird Survey (3014 routes sampled
23 over 18 years) [3], we demonstrate that major local habitat change is associated with an increase
24 in the rate of survey cessations. We further show that routes that were continued despite major
25 habitat changes show reduced diversity. By simulating potential rates of loss, we show that the
26 underlying real trends in taxonomic, functional and phylogenetic diversity can even reverse in
27 sign if more than a quarter of diversity is lost from routes that ceased, and are thus no longer
28 included in surveys. Our analyses imply that biodiversity loss can be underestimated by biases
29 introduced if continued sampling in longitudinal studies is influenced by local change. We
30 argue that researchers and conservation practitioners should be aware of the potential for bias
31 in such data and seek to use more robust methods to evaluate biodiversity trends and make
32 conservation decisions.

33

34 **KEY WORDS**

35 Biodiversity trends, habitat change, longitudinal studies, survey cessation, sampling bias, non-
36 random sampling, functional diversity, phylogenetic diversity.

37

38 **RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

39 Longitudinal studies play a crucial role in understanding how biodiversity is changing in
40 response to direct and time-lagged processes. Most studies evaluating temporal diversity trends
41 are based on consecutive time-series records, or at least records including the beginning and
42 the end of the objective study periods. Often, the data gaps in time-series datasets or subsets
43 with relatively large data gaps are ignored or imputed with simple methods [4-6]. If such gaps
44 in time series are from sites disproportionately affected by biodiversity and richness declines,
45 they may bias the long-term data sets towards relatively undisturbed communities and
46 underestimation of biodiversity responses to human pressure. One mechanism by which this
47 might occur in long-term biological monitoring programmes is if the habitats in or surrounding
48 the survey sites experience abrupt modification [7]. If the sampling of such sites ceases
49 disproportionately as a result, locations showing the greatest biodiversity loss would tend not
50 to be incorporated in a final dataset.

51

52 To determine the potential for impacts of major habitat change on estimating biodiversity
53 trends, here we evaluated the association between major habitat change and cessation of sample
54 routes of a long-term biological monitoring programme, the North American Breeding Bird
55 Survey [BBS] [3]. BBS data are collected once per year by more than 2500 trained recorders
56 in June over 5000 survey routes that are located randomly within physiographic strata across
57 the continent to sample habitats that are representative of the entire continent. They have
58 frequently been used for estimating regional-level bird population trends and prioritising
59 species and areas for conservation action [2, 8-10]. We estimated yearly habitat change using
60 a land cover product from the Terra and Aqua combined Moderate Resolution Imaging
61 Spectroradiometer (MODIS), Land Cover Climate Modelling Grid (CMG) Version 6
62 (MCD12C1) [11] from 2001-2018 at 0.05° resolution. We then calculated the habitat change

63 for each route as the difference between the focal year and the preceding year in the proportion
64 of 16 habitat types around the 3014 neighbourhoods of the routes. We used multiple non-
65 overlapping ranges to characterise the major habitat change (i.e., whether the total change of
66 16 habitat types is $\geq 5\%$ and $< 10\%$, $\geq 10\%$ and $< 15\%$, $\geq 15\%$ and $< 20\%$, $\geq 20\%$ and $< 25\%$,
67 $\geq 25\%$ and $< 30\%$, and $\geq 30\%$ of the total buffer area). For example, we would define a change
68 from 13% wetland to 6% farmland and 7% grassland of the total neighbourhood around a route
69 as a 10% - 15% change. In cases where habitat did change, we defined two cases: *survey ceased*
70 (*habitat change*) routes were those where a survey stopped and did not restart by the end of the
71 study period (i.e., 2018); otherwise they were defined as *survey continued (habitat change)*
72 routes (see Figure 1 for illustration). Where necessary we calculated null randomisation
73 distributions by reallocating the observed habitat changes randomly across all routes.

74

75 To understand how habitat loss affects diversity, we used three diversity indices calculated
76 from the BBS data: taxonomic diversity (species richness), functional diversity as the
77 proportion of a hyperspace defined on Elton Traits, and phylogenetic diversity via the shared
78 root of the bird phylogeny (for full details see methods). We calculated diversity trends in all
79 three metrics across time in two ways: the annual change between 2001-2018 by fitting
80 regression models to time, and a comparison of 3-year periods at the beginning and end of the
81 dataset (i.e. 2001-03 and 2016-18, to avoid the potential effect of unusual or abnormal years)
82 as the difference of diversity between the 2016-18 and 2001-03 periods divided by diversity of
83 the 2001-03 period. For both approaches, we estimated effects of habitat change on biodiversity
84 by comparing the diversity trend in survey continued (habitat change) routes and survey
85 continued (no habitat change) routes. To assess the potential effect of no longer including those
86 sites at which surveys ceased (and for which overall biodiversity change is, by definition,
87 unknown), we simulated a range of values (from 0-100%) of diversity loss for the single year

88 when a survey cessation happened, with diversity change at the average rate of survey
89 continued routes afterwards; while 100% diversity loss is an unlikely extreme scenario for this
90 dataset, it might occur for habitat specialist taxa, and we included the full range to enable
91 generality in our conclusions. We also simulated how overall diversity trends could be
92 influenced across different proportions of survey ceased (habitat change) routes. In so doing
93 we asked how the continued incorporation of these sites would have influenced the rate of
94 change in biodiversity in the overall sample.

95

96 Habitat change-associated route cessation was a frequent, but not predominant, phenomenon
97 in the BBS dataset: most routes that ceased did not have associated habitat change, and most
98 habitat change was not associated with route cessation. However, we found that the minority
99 of routes that did experience habitat change-associated cessation would be sufficient to induce
100 significant quantitative and qualitative changes in the interpretation of overall biodiversity
101 trends.

102

103 We found that cases of a $\geq 5\%$ major habitat change associated with a survey cessation occurred
104 in 253 out of the total 3014 BBS routes. Within the subset of 253 survey ceased (habitat change)
105 routes, in 182 routes (72%) the survey cessation occurred one year before, or was
106 contemporaneous with, the major habitat change (Figure 1-A), whilst in the remaining 71
107 routes the survey cessation occurred one year after the major habitat change (Figure 1-B).
108 Survey cessation that was not associated with our measure of habitat change was found in 920
109 BBS routes. We also found $\geq 5\%$ major habitat change occurred in 1535 BBS routes (52%) but
110 was unrelated to any survey cessations; no major habitat change was detected in 1226 BBS
111 routes (41%).

112

113 Despite being low in absolute terms, we found the cessation of survey routes to be significantly
114 associated with local habitat change. In many cases, the frequency of survey cessation (habitat
115 change) is approximately double what would be expected if major episodes of local habitat loss
116 are randomised across time and space (Figure 2). Despite being significantly associated with
117 cessation, the relationship between the amount of habitat change and route cessation is complex.
118 As the percentage thresholds of habitat change increase, survey cessation (habitat change) rates
119 for both BBS and the random model decline, which suggests a relatively high proportion of
120 habitat change is less likely to be related to a survey cessation than a habitat change of low
121 proportion (Figure 2 & S1). Although sample sizes for the higher proportions of habitat change
122 are small and higher percentage thresholds of habitat change within a year are experienced less
123 frequently, the overall rate of survey cessation (habitat change) decreased as the severity of
124 habitat change increased: 14% of routes experiencing a year with habitat change $\geq 5\%$ and $< 10\%$
125 also experienced a cessation of recording, with only 2.5% of routes experiencing $\geq 30\%$ habitat
126 loss undergoing cessation (Figure 2-1&16). This may be due to the use of a relatively large
127 study neighbourhood for each survey route (Figure S2, approximately 300 km²), so that even
128 a small proportion of habitat change may represent a major habitat change along the survey
129 route. For example, most habitat changes constitute less than 15% of the total neighbourhood
130 (Figure S2), and 15% increase of a habitat type would result in the change of about 45 km² of
131 the surrounding habitats. At the same time, the BBS survey was conducted based on routes
132 randomly located across the continent, whilst landscape transformation to anthropogenic
133 habitats (e.g., road expansion, commercial and residential development) by definition occurs
134 in relatively pristine areas; this may lead to critical effects on a survey, but usually does not
135 account for a large proportion of the whole area (Figure S4) at this scale [12]. However, due to
136 the relatively small sample size at more than 25% habitat change, how larger habitat change
137 influence survey continuity needs more exploration.

138

139 We compared the trends of taxonomic diversity (TD), functional diversity (FD) and
140 phylogenetic diversity (PD) for BBS routes with and without habitat change (Figure 3 & S3).

141 In routes with no habitat loss, diversity metrics mostly increased over the sample period. This
142 is likely caused by the rapid increase in biotic homogenisation at these less disturbed areas,
143 which may lead to a global loss of species but no change or even an increase in local-scale
144 diversity [6, 13]. However, diversity mostly decreased in routes with habitat change (Figure 3).
145 The general result agrees with global-scale analysis by Jung et al. [7], who demonstrated from
146 analysis of species occurrence and land cover data that abrupt habitat change was associated
147 with local taxonomic diversity loss. That surveys tended to cease under the conditions that were
148 associated with reductions in biodiversity suggests that the estimation of biodiversity change
149 using longitudinal biological monitoring data may be incomplete and biased if it ignores the
150 potential for non-random sampling.

151

152 Estimation of the size of this effect is not straightforward. Biodiversity change in survey
153 cessation (habitat change) and survey continued (habitat change) routes might be very different,
154 and simply inferring change in the former by the pattern of change documented in the latter
155 may be misleading. Here we estimated the overall biodiversity trends had those routes where
156 data collection stopped been included. We simulated diversity changes in survey ceased
157 (habitat change) routes as different percentages of each route's diversity before cessation
158 (Figure 4). Diversity in the subset of routes excluding survey ceased (habitat change) routes
159 increased continuously to the mid-2000s, followed by a decrease (Figure 4-B, C & D), which
160 is in accord with previous investigation of the temporal trends of North American bird diversity
161 [4]. If survey ceased (habitat change) routes had been included, the overall diversity trend can
162 be inverted from the observed growth to a decline depending on the extent of diversity loss in

163 such routes. Specifically, the trend calculated by comparing diversity between the extreme
164 2001 and 2018 periods reversed if we assumed a quarter of diversity was lost in survey ceased
165 (habitat change) routes, which account for 11% of the sampled routes in our study (Figure 4-
166 A). The assumed diversity loss for an inverted trend decreased as the proportion of ceased
167 (habitat change) routes increased, whilst a more negative diversity trend was found if there was
168 diversity loss in survey ceased (habitat change) routes and their proportion increased (Figure
169 4-A). Our results indicate that biases in the collection of longitudinal data induced by non-
170 random changes in sampling have the potential to significantly influence the estimation of
171 overall biodiversity trends and highlight the magnitude of error that may be introduced when
172 ignoring cessation bias.

173

174 Studies suggesting an absence of ubiquitous local species richness declines have been criticized
175 for lack of baselines or reference conditions, variation in observers and their abilities, and for
176 not using sufficiently long time series to achieve reliable conclusions [14-17], although some
177 analyses have suggested these potential weaknesses did not influence the conclusion that there
178 has been no decline [6, 18]. In this study we draw attention to a different problem: the potential
179 that non-random data gaps in biological monitoring programmes, that might be caused by
180 habitat change, may induce bias in estimating diversity trends. To exclude the effects of large
181 data gaps, we only accounted for survey cessations that did not resume by the end of the study
182 period, whereas a survey route that experienced a habitat-change induced stop may also later
183 restart. This might be the case if habitat transformation occurs between natural habitats, or if a
184 decision is made to sample secondary or successional habitats after disturbance. The overall
185 rate of survey cessation (habitat change) may therefore be higher than we estimated here.
186 Further studies quantifying biodiversity trends and the impacts of habitat change globally could
187 benefit from distinguishing survey cessation with habitat change and survey cessation caused

188 by other factors. A further issue, which we have not addressed here, is the possibility for
189 positive reinforcement to create an additional bias. For example, if volunteers collecting survey
190 data are more likely to persist in longitudinal surveys when local diversity trends are positive,
191 this may lead to a further bias in longitudinal data, that would further mask larger-scale trends.
192 The interaction between biodiversity and the behaviour of those collecting data on biodiversity
193 is an under-studied area, worth further research.

194

195 Effects of changes of different habitat types on biodiversity are different [19]. Here, we focused
196 on the change of the composition of different habitat types and did not differentiate between
197 natural habitat losses and gains. We found no obvious trend for a certain habitat change type
198 to be associated with survey cessation at less than 20% habitat change, whilst habitat change
199 types that have higher probability to induce survey cessations at more than 20% habitat change
200 are all between natural habitats or natural habitat mixed with croplands (Figure S4). This
201 indicates that both gains and losses in natural habitat could cause survey cessations with no
202 obvious difference at lower habitat change rates. Change between natural habitats could also
203 induce survey cessations, e.g., the replacement of woodland by grassland could be regarded by
204 a surveyor as no longer constituting a useful comparative time series. Although both changes
205 of natural and anthropogenic habitats could cause a reduction in biodiversity [7] and survey
206 cessations, diversity after different types of habitat change and their impacts on the estimation
207 of biodiversity trend might be different. We propose further studies distinguishing the impacts
208 of natural and anthropogenic habitat changes and exploring whether different drivers of habitat
209 change, such as agricultural conversion, urban expansion or natural fires, have different
210 impacts on the biodiversity trend estimation.

211

212 Evaluating biodiversity trends is of great importance [1]. Considerable debate on the generality
213 of biodiversity trends across the globe has recently arisen due to divergent conclusions derived
214 from two distinct approaches to estimating those trends [1, 20]. One is spatial comparisons by
215 which measures of diversity in sites that are disturbed by human activities are compared to
216 those in undisturbed reference sites. Such spatial comparisons often show global biodiversity
217 is declining [21, 22]. The other is analysis of time-series data that have been collated from
218 studies using repeated measurements of biodiversity at individual locations around the planet,
219 which sometimes show global biodiversity is not declining [6, 13, 23]. Since the time-series
220 datasets are distributed across different locations and over multiple geographic structures, the
221 proliferation of such datasets and sometimes unexpected results have received considerable
222 attention. Here, based on time-series data of a long-term biological monitoring programme, we
223 show that the continuity of a biodiversity survey is more likely to be interrupted when major
224 habitat changes occur, and that the major habitat change often leads to the reduction of
225 biodiversity. Therefore, potential bias exists in the estimation of biodiversity using time-series
226 data; the likely effect is that biodiversity loss is underestimated. We suggest researchers and
227 conservation practitioners be aware of the potential bias, and call for strategies, tools and
228 frameworks to continue to monitor the biodiversity change of major habitat change in future.

229

230

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233

234 **AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS**

235 W.Z. and K.J.G. conceived the ideas and all authors contributed critically to the methodology

236 design. W.Z. performed the analyses and led the writing of the manuscript. All authors

237 contributed to drafts of the manuscript.

238

239 **DECLARATION OF INTERESTS**

240 The authors declare no competing interests.

241

242

243 **Figure 1. Schematic illustration of potential sequences of survey cessation and habitat**
244 **change. A.** The survey cessation occurs one-year in advance or in the same year as the major
245 habitat change. **B.** A one-year delayed survey cessation after the major habitat change. **C.** The
246 survey ceased without being associated with habitat change. **D.** The survey continued despite
247 habitat change. **E.** Survey continued without any habitat change. Note: survey data might
248 contain random missing years but only those surveys that ceased and did not resume by the end
249 of the study period are defined as ceased surveys in this study.

250

251 **Figure 2. Frequency distribution of habitat change on survey routes.** Density distribution
252 of survey ceased (habitat change) rate for randomised habitat change (purple density plot) and
253 the real habitat change (solid line) across different habitat change proportions and different
254 cases. The survey ceased (habitat change) rate is calculated as the percentage of the number of
255 survey ceased (habitat change) routes to total number of routes with habitat change. Numbers
256 above each panel denote the number of survey ceased (habitat change) routes and percentages
257 on the right-hand side denote the habitat change categories. See Figure S2 for route distribution
258 and summary.

259

260 **Figure 3. Temporal changes of taxonomic, functional and phylogenetic diversity in survey**
261 **continued routes.** Nonlinear regressions (a loess sliding window with a 33% range width;
262 solid line) of different diversity facets were used to describe the major temporal trajectories
263 across multiple habitat change categories. All diversity values were scaled from 0 to 1. Colour
264 bands denote 95% confidence intervals. Number within the brackets is the sample size of that
265 category. See Figure S3 for diversity comparisons between the beginning and the end of study
266 period and also Figure S4 for summary on proportions of habitat change types.

267

268 **Figure 4. Temporal changes of taxonomic, functional and phylogenetic diversity under**
269 **assumptions that diversity in survey ceased (habitat change) routes reduced to different**
270 **percentages of their diversity before cessation. A.** The effects of survey ceased (habitat
271 change) route proportion and their relative diversity loss on estimation of diversity trends.
272 Relative diversity changes were compared between 2001-2003 and 2016-2018 periods
273 assuming different percentages of diversity loss in survey ceased (habitat change) routes and
274 different percentages of surveys ceased (habitat change routes) from the total numbers sampled.
275 **B-D.** Temporal trends in three facets of biodiversity from 2001 to 2018. All diversity values
276 were scaled from 0 to 1. The solid lines represent the smoothed spline (a loess sliding window
277 with a 33% range width) with different colours indicating diversity loss in survey ceased
278 (habitat change) routes of different percentages and colour bands denote 95% confidence
279 intervals.

280 **STAR★Methods**

281 **Resource availability**

282 **Lead Contact**

283 Further information for resources should be directed and will be fulfilled by the Lead Contact,
284 Wenyuan Zhang (wenyuan.zhang@zoo.ox.ac.uk).

285

286 **Materials availability**

287 This study did not generate new unique reagents.

288

289 **Data and Code Availability**

290 This paper analyses existing, publicly available data. These accession numbers for the datasets are
291 listed in the key resources table. R code for performing our analyses is available at GitHub
292 (<https://github.com/plmyann/biotrends>). Any additional information required to reanalyse the data
293 reported in this paper is available from the lead contact upon request.

294

295 **Experimental model and subject details**

296 We used the North American Breeding Bird Survey data (BBS) to explore the effects of habitat change
297 on the surveys of biological monitoring programmes, and subsequent estimation of biodiversity
298 trends. The BBS is a long-term avian monitoring program which tracks the population dynamics of
299 breeding birds and follows a strict survey protocol [3]. BBS data are collected once per year in June
300 over 5000 survey routes that are located across North America. Each survey route is approximately
301 40km long. Routes are divided into 5 segments, each of ten stops at evenly spaced 800m intervals,
302 giving 50 stops for each survey route. At each stop, trained observers record the birds that are seen or
303 heard within a 400 m radius in 3 minutes. No new data was collected for this study and no physical
304 experiments were conducted.

305

306 **Method Details**

307 **Habitat Change Measure**

308 We used a land cover product from the Terra and Aqua combined Moderate Resolution Imaging
309 Spectroradiometer (MODIS), Land Cover Climate Modelling Grid (CMG) Version 6 (MCD12C1)
310 [11] to estimate habitat change. There are 16 habitat types in MCD12C1 (under the International
311 Geosphere-Biosphere Programme (IGBP) [26] land cover classification scheme): evergreen needle-
312 leaf forests, evergreen broadleaf forests, deciduous broadleaf forests, mixed forests, closed shrub-
313 lands, open shrub-lands, woody savannas, savannas, grasslands, permanent wetlands, croplands,
314 urban and built-up lands, cropland/natural vegetation mosaics, permanent snow and ice, barren and
315 water bodies.

316
317 MCD12C1 habitat types were used for the analysis mainly because of their relatively coarse spatial
318 resolution and large temporal range. The spatial resolution of MCD12C1 is 0.05° (approximately
319 5km), which compared to the length of the routes (approximately 40km), can both detect the major
320 habitat changes along a BBS route and exclude the noise of minor habitat changes. The classification
321 schemes of MCD12C1 were provided at yearly intervals across the entire globe from 2001 to 2018.
322 Since the BBS route protocol did not change over this period [3], we were able to use all routes with
323 BBS records during this period giving a total number of 3014 routes (Figure S2A). A 5-km buffer
324 was generated along each route, whilst the habitat change along each route was calculated by

$$325 \quad \Delta H_{i,j} = |H_{i,j} - H_{i,j-1}|,$$

326 where $\Delta H_{i,j}$ is the absolute composition difference for habitat type i in year j , $H_{i,j}$ is the habitat
327 composition for habitat type i in year j and $H_{i,j-1}$ is the habitat composition for habitat type i in year
328 $j - 1$. A binary habitat change index was created to indicate whether the largest change of the habitat
329 types is for multiple magnitudes: $\geq 5\%$ and $< 10\%$, $\geq 10\%$ and $< 15\%$, $\geq 15\%$ and $< 20\%$, $\geq 20\%$ and $<$
330 25% , $\geq 25\%$ and $< 30\%$, and $\geq 30\%$ of the total buffer area, respectively.

331

332 To calculate whether changes of a particular habitat type are more likely to be associated with survey
333 cessations, we estimated the cessation probability by comparing the frequency of a given habitat
334 change type being associated with survey cessations with the frequency of that habitat change type
335 among all habitat change types. We first classified the habitats into two categories: habitats
336 transferring to others as donor habitats, and the habitats being transferred as recipient habitats. To
337 measure the probability of survey cessations by a specific habitat transferring to other habitats, we
338 defined a cessation probability for a given habitat change proportion k by

339
$$CP_{i,k} = \frac{n_{i,k}/n_k}{N_{i,k}/N_k},$$

340 where $CP_{i,k}$ is the cessation probability for a donor or recipient habitat type i , $n_{i,k}$ is the number of
341 survey ceased (habitat change) routes by habitat type i , n_k is the total number of survey ceased
342 (habitat change) routes, $N_{i,k}$ is the number of routes with habitat change in habitat type i , and N_k is
343 the total number of routes with habitat change. $CP_{i,k}$ approaches 0 for minimum cessation probability
344 and increases more than 1 for higher probability.

345

346 **Survey Cessation with Habitat Change**

347 The trained recorders of the BBS were expected to record the same route for long periods of time.
348 However, reasons that lead to an interruption of a biological survey can be varied and include age,
349 illness, loss of interest and so forth of the surveyors [27]. Surveys that ceased by these factors might
350 restart if another surveyor was assigned to the previous survey route. However, cessations likely
351 caused by habitat change are more difficult to restart for the survey routes can be lost. To distinguish
352 cessations caused by habitat change and other factors, we defined habitat-driven survey cessation as
353 having occurred when a survey stopped and did not restart by the end of the study period (i.e., 2018).
354 This includes three scenarios. First, habitat change may have occurred since the preceding year's
355 survey, leading to a decision to cease a scheduled survey before it was done. Second, the prospective
356 recorder might have observed a major habitat change when they got to the survey sites and stopped

357 the survey. Third, surveyors might have observed a habitat change while conducting the survey and
358 then stopped it in the following year. The first and second scenarios cannot easily be distinguished
359 through survey records since they both show a habitat change with a survey blank in the
360 corresponding year. Therefore, we defined the first two scenarios as immediate survey cessation and
361 the third as later cessation. For both the immediate and later survey cessation, the survey ceased
362 (habitat change) rate for a given proportion of habitat change (k) was calculated by $R_{HCS,k} = \frac{n_k}{N_k} \times$
363 100% , where R_{HCS} is the survey ceased (habitat change) rate for habitat change by proportion k , n_k
364 is the number of routes with survey ceased (habitat change) by proportion k and N_k is the number of
365 route with habitat change by proportion k .

366

367 We also built a null spatial model to investigate the effects of survey cessation (habitat change) by
368 randomising the habitat change indices. Specifically, we first randomly distributed the 54108 binary
369 habitat change indices across 3014 routes from 2001-2018, holding everything else constant, and
370 calculated the rate of survey cessations (habitat change) with randomised habitat indices for both the
371 immediate and later cessation. The relative survey ceased (habitat change) rate for a given proportion
372 of habitat change (k) was calculated by $RR_{HCS,k} = \frac{sR_{HCS,k}}{rR_{HCS,k}}$, where sR_k is the actual proportion of
373 routes with habitat change by k where surveying was ceased, and rR_k is the proportion of routes with
374 randomly distributed habitat change by k where surveying was ceased. The procedure was replicated
375 1000 times.

376

377 **Diversity Evaluation**

378 To make comparison with recent studies on diversity trends [4, 13], we used encountered species
379 richness (the sum of all species at a given BBS route) for taxonomic diversity (TD). Functional (FD)
380 and phylogenetic diversity (PD) were also calculated without weighting for abundance. For the
381 calculation of functional diversity, we used 16 traits from Elton Traits 1.0 [28]. These traits included:
382 body mass, diet (i.e., proportional use of invertebrates, vertebrates, carrion, fresh fruits, nectar and

383 pollen, seeds, and other plant materials in species' diet), foraging niche (i.e., prevalence of foraging
384 below water surfaces, on water surface, on terrestrial ground level, in understory, in mid-canopy, in
385 upper canopy, and aerial), and broad habitat types (i.e., pelagic or not), which are assumed to represent
386 the Eltonian niche dimensions. We gave equal weights to each trait category, which resulted in 1
387 weight for body mass and broad habitat type and 1/7 for each diet and foraging niche variable. The
388 functional distance was calculated using a multivariate trait dissimilarity under Gower's distance [29]
389 for each pairwise species, followed by UPGMA clustering. Phylogenetic diversity was calculated
390 using 100 dendrograms sampled from a full pseudo-posterior distribution of phylogenetic trees
391 (<http://birdtree.org>). The mean phylogenetic diversity across these 100 dendrograms was calculated.
392 For each route, FD was calculated as the total lengths of the functional dendrograms of the subtree
393 joining the observed species on a route [30], and PD was calculated by summing up the total branch
394 length of a sub-phylogenetic-tree joining the observed species on a route via root [31].

395

396 We calculated overall diversity trends in two ways: the yearly change of taxonomic, functional and
397 phylogenetic diversity between 2001-2018, and a comparison of the two extreme 3-year periods,
398 2001-03 and 2016-18. For the first approach, we evaluated the temporal trends in all annual metrics
399 using general additive models (GAMs). All diversity values were scaled from 0 to 1. To account for
400 a difference in overall diversity level among routes, we included a random effect on BBS routes. For
401 each model, we used a loess sliding window with a 33% range width. For the second approach, we
402 lumped 3 years to avoid the potential effect of unusual or abnormal years. We retained routes
403 surveyed in both periods for either approach to estimate the biodiversity trend. Then for the average
404 diversity in the 2001 and 2016 periods, the relative diversity change - $\Delta D_{2001,2016}$ - for TD, FD and
405 PD were computed respectively by $\Delta D_{2001,2016} = \frac{D_{2016} - D_{2001}}{D_{2001}} \times 100\%$.

406

407 We estimated effects of habitat change on biodiversity by comparing diversity trends in survey
408 continued (habitat change) routes and survey continued (no habitat change) routes. To assess the

409 magnitude of false biodiversity trend estimation likely caused by failing to record the biodiversity
410 loss, we simulated the diversity loss in survey ceased (habitat change) routes as different percentages
411 of their diversity before cessation. We also simulated different percentages of survey ceased (habitat
412 change) routes compared with the total sampled routes to quantify the extent of the potential bias. For
413 diversity change after the assumed diversity loss, we calculated an annually relative diversity change
414 rate in survey continued routes to simulate diversity change in survey ceased (habitat change) routes.
415 Specifically, for each pair of consecutive year m and n in survey continued years, we calculated the
416 estimates diversity as $\Delta D_{m,n} = \frac{D_n - D_m}{D_m} \times 100\%$.

417

418 **Quantification and statistical analysis**

419 All statistical analyses are performed using R 4.0.0. Statistical details related to habitat change and
420 association with survey cessations can be found in Method details. Diversity trends are estimated by
421 fitting general additive models (GAMs) and comparisons between the beginning and end of the study
422 periods, and details can be found in Diversity Evaluation from the Method details. Values are reported
423 as mean value with 95% confidential intervals.

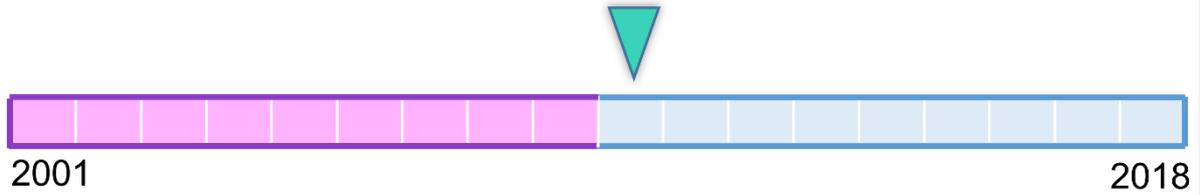
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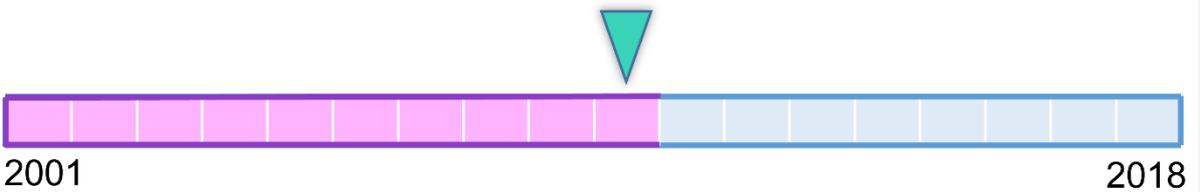
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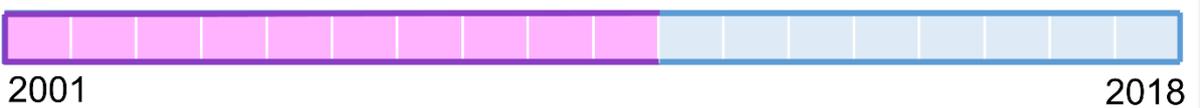
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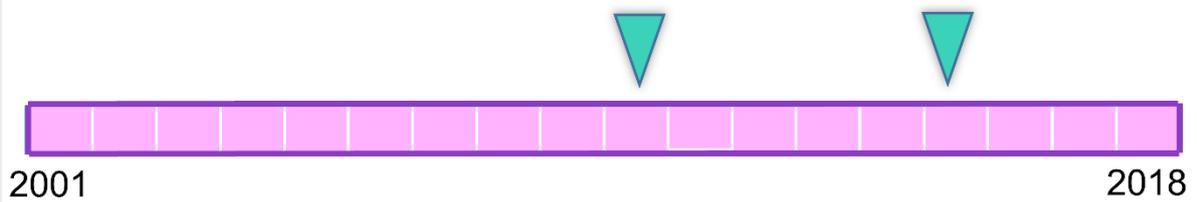
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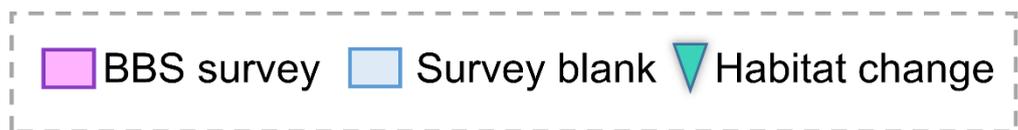
C Survey ceased (no habitat change)

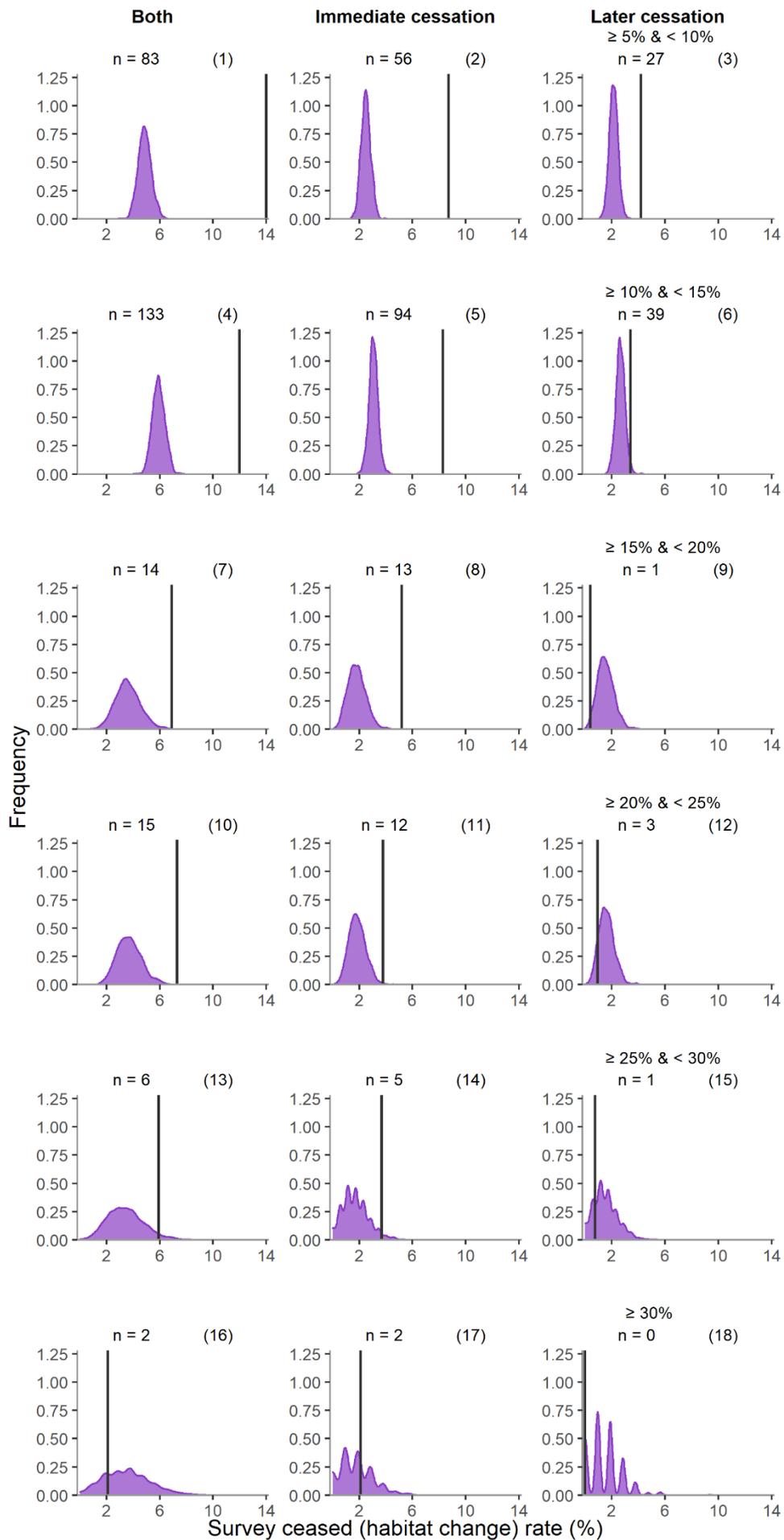


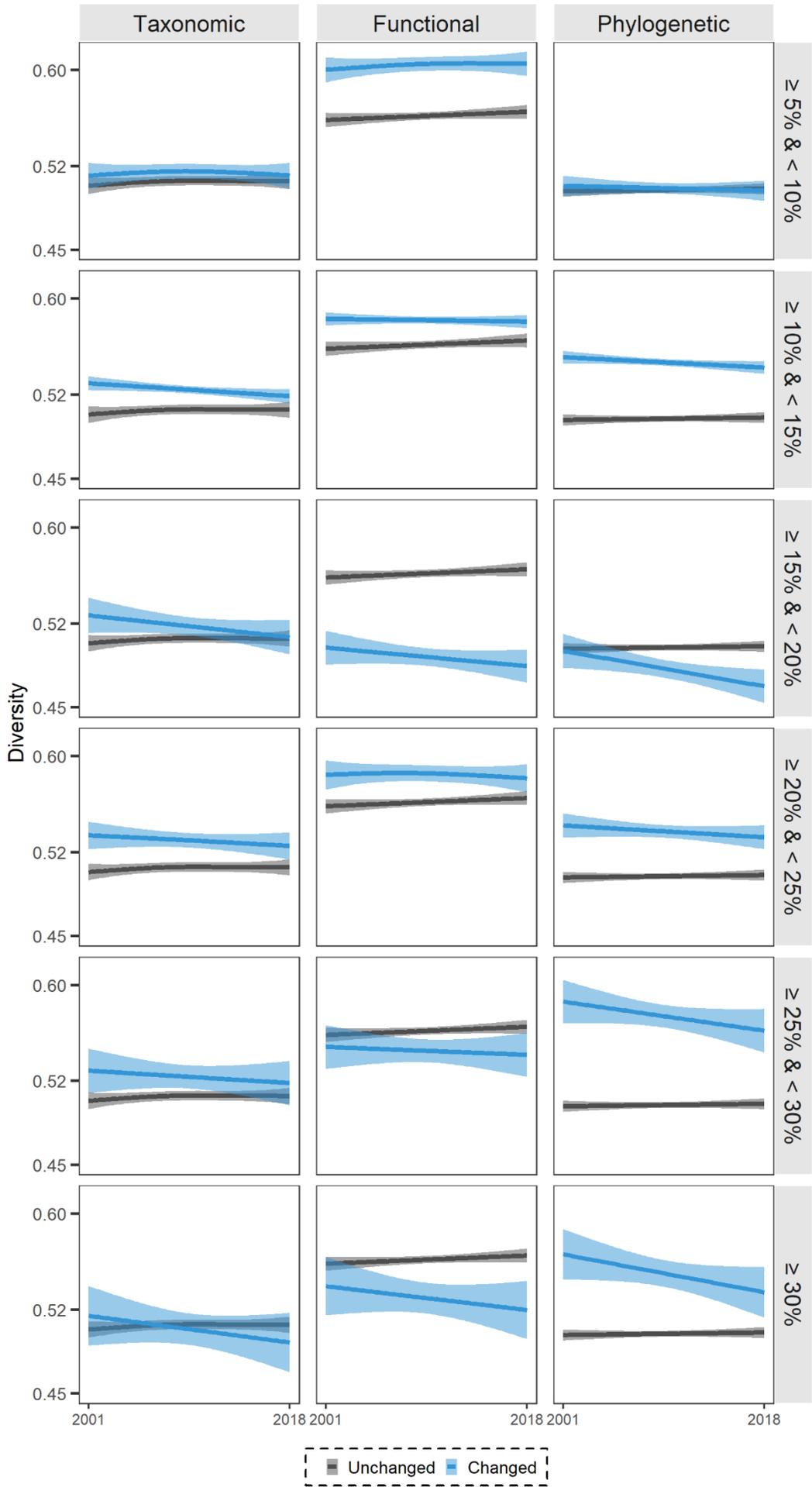
D Survey continued (habitat change)

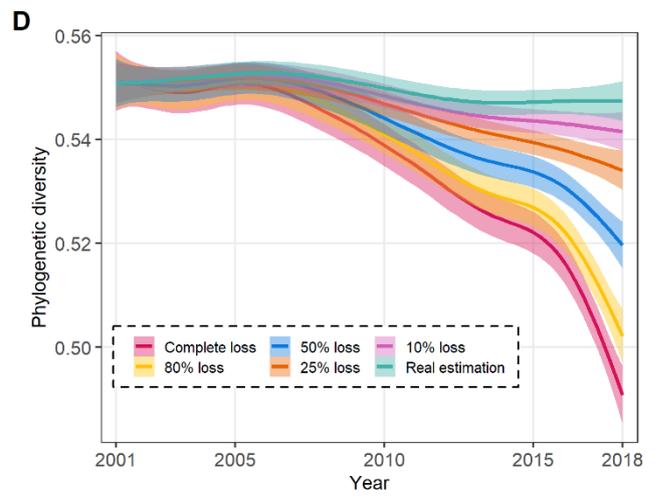
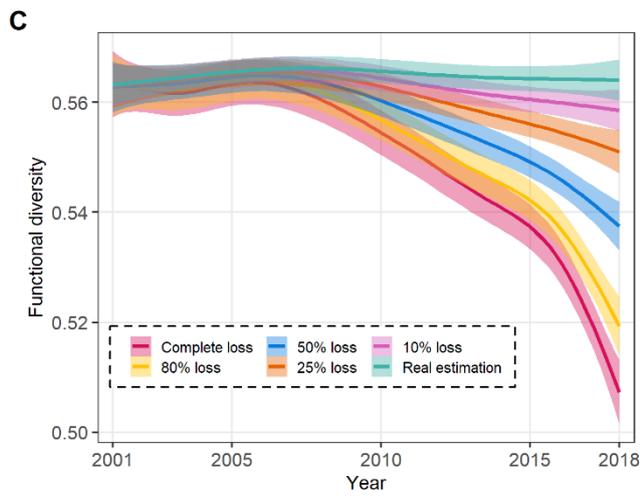
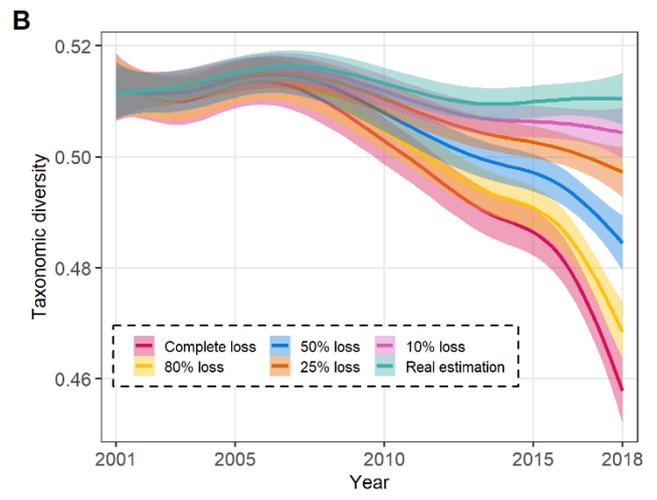
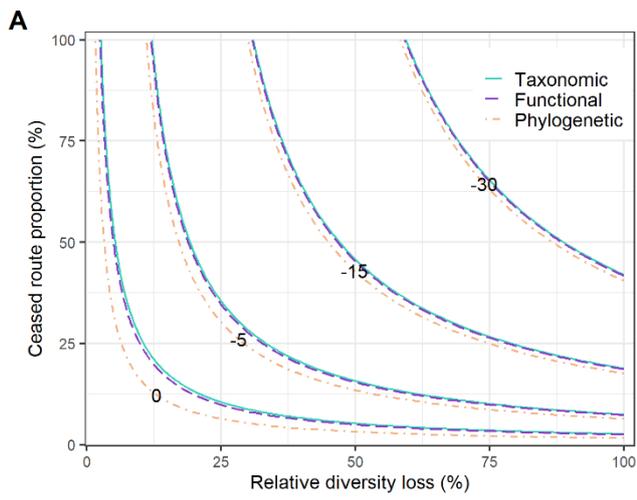


E Survey continued (no habitat change)









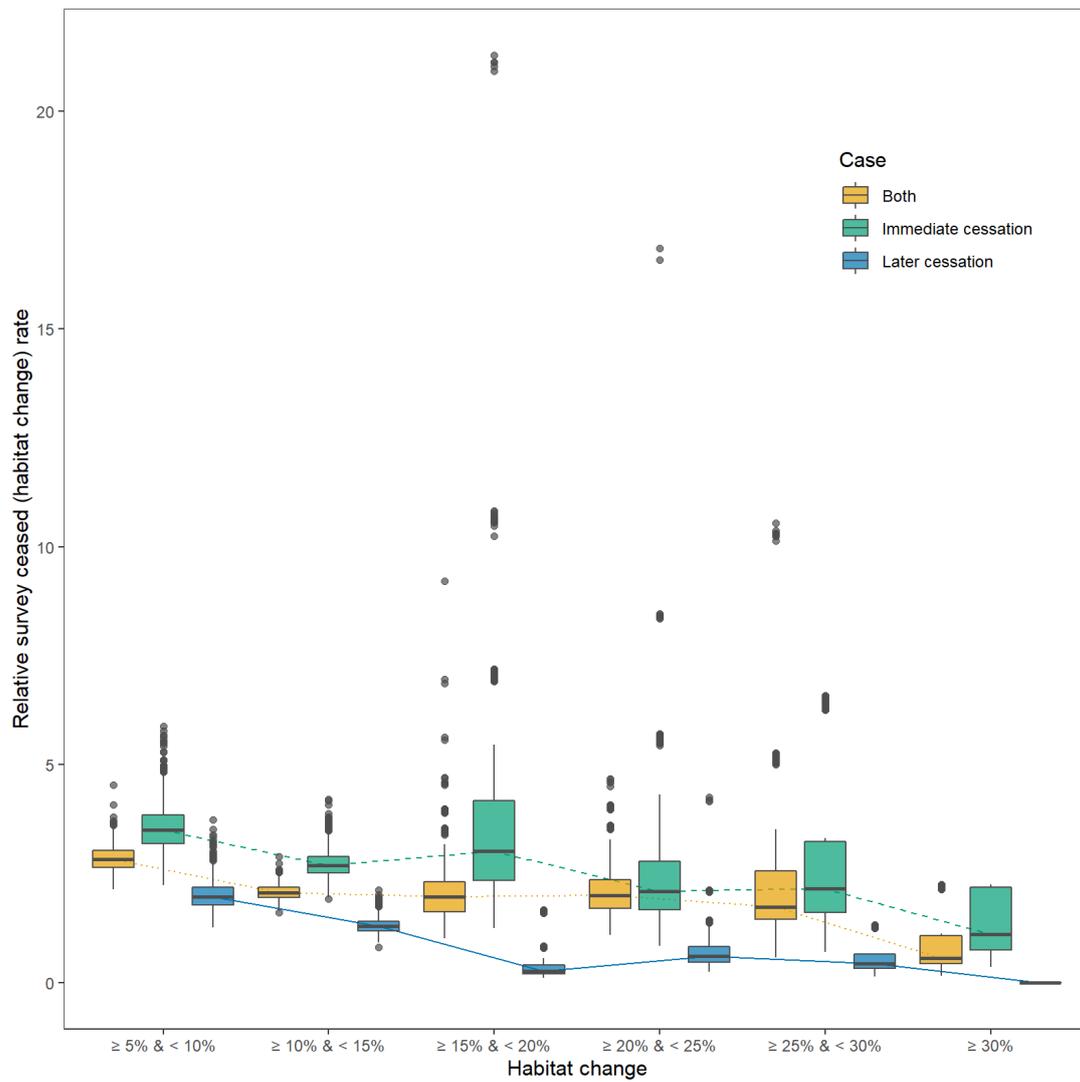


Figure S1. Change of the relative survey ceased (habitat change) rates in both immediate and later survey cessation routes for habitat changes of multiple categories. Related to Figure 2. The relative survey ceased (habitat change) rate for a given proportion of habitat change (k) is calculated by $RR_{HCS,k} = \frac{SR_{HCS,k}}{rR_{HCS,k}}$, where SR_k is the actual proportion of routes with habitat change above k where surveying was ceased, and rR_k is the proportion of routes with randomly distributed habitat change above k where surveying was ceased. The randomised procedure was replicated 1000 times. Boxes represent the 25th and 75th percentiles, lines within the boxes represent the 50th percentile (median), and whiskers represent 2.5th and 97.5th

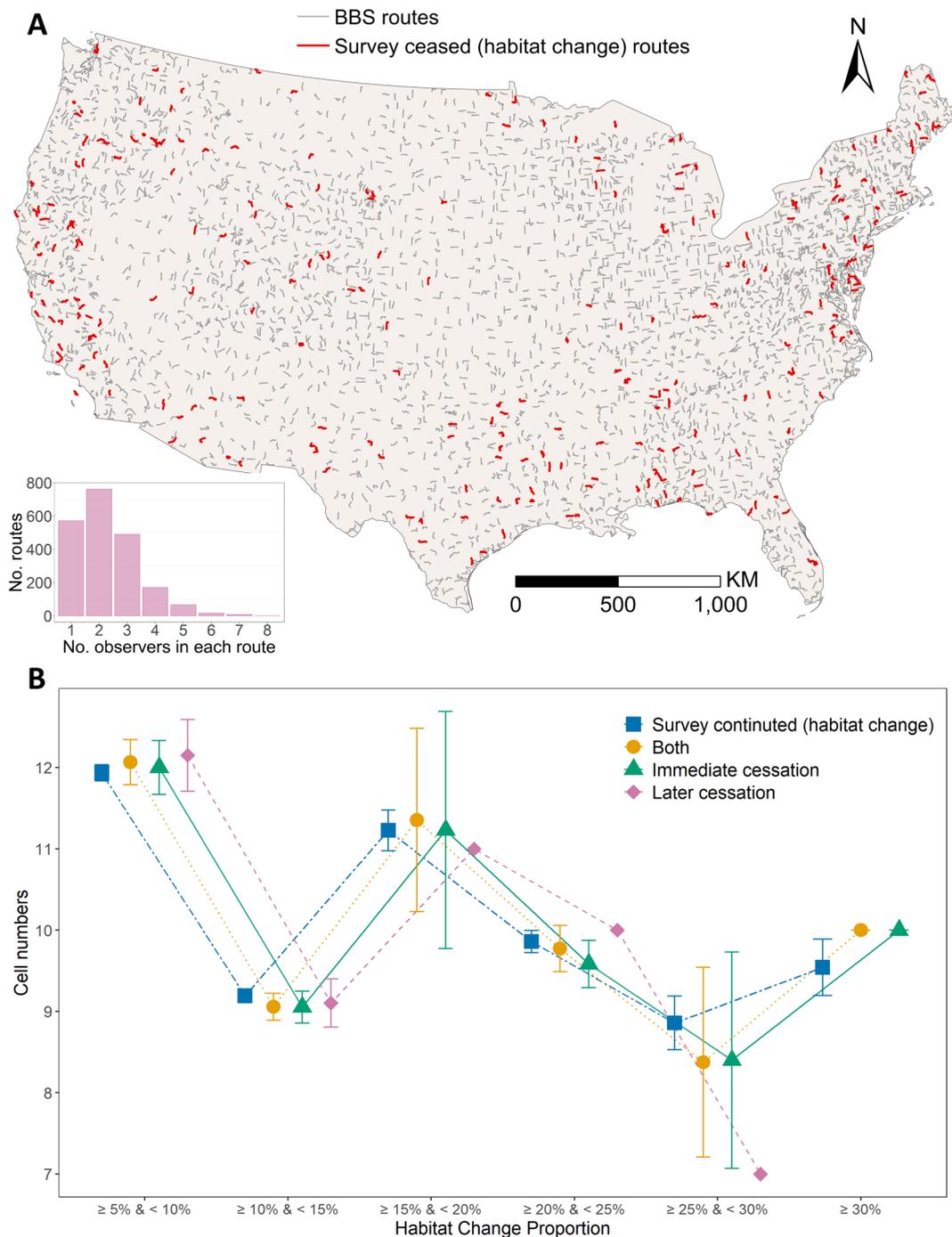


Figure S2. The distribution and summary of the survey routes in North American Breeding Survey programme. Related to Figure 2 and STAR Methods. A. BBS routes are the whole 3014 routes and survey ceased (habitat change) routes are the routes of habitat change over 5% around their neighbourhood and associated with survey cessations. The inset plot denotes the number of routes with different numbers of observers. **B.** Area of the neighbourhood around each route in different habitat change proportion presented by cell numbers extracted from the land cover map within 5-km buffer. The points represent the mean value of the relative diversity change and error bars represents 95% CI.

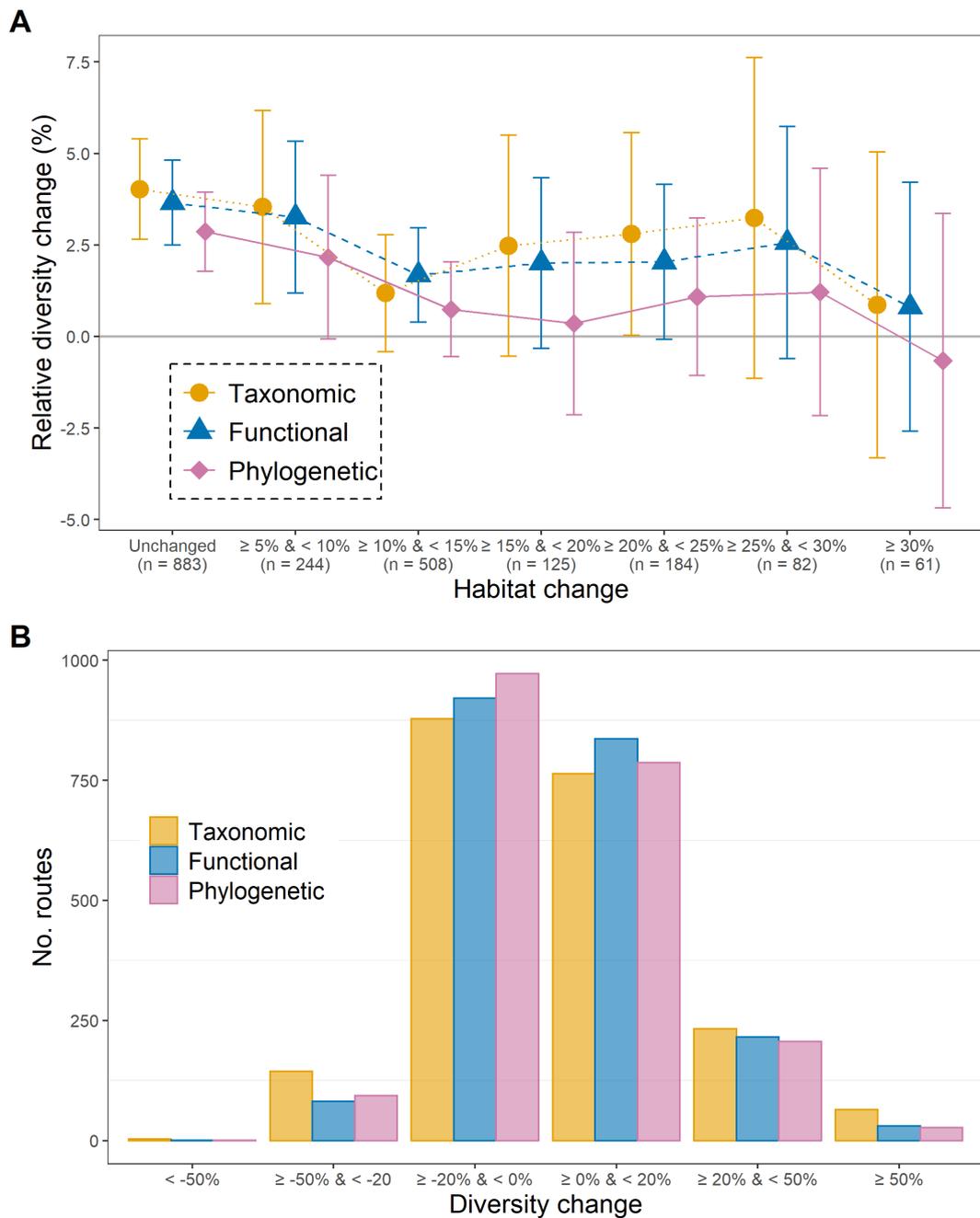


Figure S3. Diversity changes. Related to Figure 3. A. Relative diversity changes between 2001-2003 and 2016-2018 for routes without habitat change and routes with habitat change estimated at 5% - 10%, 10% - 15%, 15% - 20%, 20% - 25%, 25% - 30% and more than 30%. The points represent the mean value of the relative diversity change and error bars represents 95% CI. **B.** Number of survey continued routes with relative diversity change at less than -50%, -50% - -20%, -20% - 0%, 0% - 20%, 20% - 50% and more than 50%. Different colours denote different diversity forms.

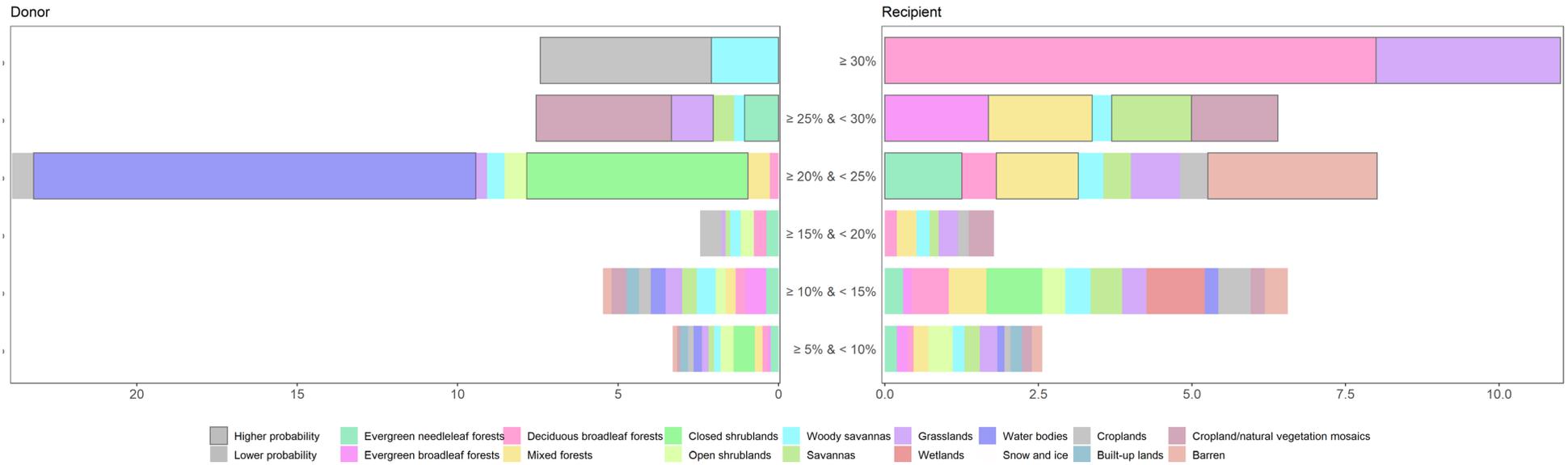


Figure S4. Proportions of habitat change types. Related to Figure 3. Donor means habitat loss and recipient means habitat increase. The bar denotes probability for a given a habitat type that likely caused survey cessation for a given habitat change proportion k , calculated by $CP_{i,k} = \frac{n_{i,k}/n_k}{N_{i,k}/N_k}$, where $CP_{i,k}$ is the ceased probability for a donor or recipient habitat type i , $n_{i,k}$ is the number of survey ceased (habitat change) routes by habitat type i , n_k is the total number of survey ceased (habitat change) routes, $N_{i,k}$ is the number of routes with habitat change in habitat type i , and N_k is the total number of routes with habitat change. $CP_{i,k}$ approaches 0 for minimum probability and increases more than 1 for higher probability. Different colours represent different habitat types.