

Human–wildlife conflicts in the aerial habitat: Wind farms are just the beginning

Science Progress

2024, Vol. 107(1) 1–7

© The Author(s) 2024

Article reuse guidelines:

sagepub.com/journals-permissionsDOI: [10.1177/00368504241231157](https://doi.org/10.1177/00368504241231157)journals.sagepub.com/home/sci**Yuval Werber** 

¹Department of Evolutionary and Environmental Biology and Institute of Evolution, University of Haifa, Haifa, Israel

Abstract

The aerial habitat occupies an enormous three-dimensional space around Earth and is inhabited by trillions of animals. Humans have been encroaching on the aerial habitat since the time of the pyramids, but the last century ushered in unprecedented threats to aerial wildlife. Skyscrapers, jet-age transportation and recently huge wind turbines kill millions of flying animals annually and despite substantial efforts, our detection and mitigation capabilities are lagging far behind. Given the situation, our readiness to handle the impact of millions of drones buzzing through the sky carrying batteries, payloads and soon also people, is questionable at best. In radar aero-ecology, radars are used to document and analyse animal movement high above the ground, opening a hatch to ecological processes in the aerial habitat. Differentiating bats from birds, a simple task at ground level, was impossible aloft, which limited our ability to study and characterise high-altitude bat behaviour. Many high-altitude infrastructure developments around the world were thus planned and executed with no regard to possible impacts on bats and caused millions of bat fatalities. BATScan, the first automatic bat identifier for radar, demonstrates how artificial intelligence can be implemented together with ecological insight to solve basic scientific questions and minimise negative human impact on natural habitats. We demonstrate a facet of the complexity of bat aero-ecology using the Israeli BATScan database and substantiate the claim that activities taken by the wind energy industry to minimise bat mortality may prove limited and leave bats unprotected. We further discuss upcoming challenges in the face of a forthcoming transportation revolution that will change the human–aerial wildlife conflict from a conservation concern to a major human safety issue.

Keywords

Radar, bats, aero-ecology, wind energy, conservation, machine learning, UAV, drones

COMMENT ON: Werber Y, Sextin H, Yovel Y, Sapir N. 2023b. BATScan: A radar classification tool reveals large-scale bat migration patterns. *Methods in Ecology and Evolution* **14**:1764–1779.

Corresponding author:

Yuval Werber, Department of Evolutionary and Environmental Biology, University of Haifa 199 Aba Khoushy Ave. 3498838, Haifa, Israel.

Email: yuvalwerber90@gmail.com



Creative Commons Non Commercial CC BY-NC: This article is distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial 4.0 License (<https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc/4.0/>)

which permits non-commercial use, reproduction and distribution of the work without further permission provided the original work is attributed as specified on the SAGE and Open Access page (<https://us.sagepub.com/en-us/nam/open-access-at-sage>).

A threatened habitat

The aerial habitat is defined as the atmospheric layer in which biological phenomena occur, from treetops up to 11 km above ground for the highest flying vertebrates.^{1,2} Countless creatures exploit the aerial habitat for basic functions, many of which directly and indirectly affect terrestrial ecosystems and human activity.^{3–5} As humans reach ever higher into the sky, the human–wildlife conflict takes its toll on this relatively unscathed environment.⁶ Taking to the skies seems to be an obvious solution for fulfilling many basic human needs in an era of extreme population expansion and accelerated technological advancements. Our ability to fulfil increasing demands for energy, transportation and accommodation at ground level is diminishing due to dwindling resources, competition for space and population increase. These pressures make vertical expansion, despite its inherent difficulties, a valid and even favourable avenue of development in many fields of human activity.⁷ This rapid increase in human presence encroaches on the aerial habitat, home to complex and delicate ecosystems that we know very little about.

The human–aerial habitat conflict was widely acknowledged with the accelerated expansion of the wind energy industry. As turbines got taller and became abundant, their impact on wildlife could not be ignored. Turbines kill millions of birds and bats every year, destroy habitats and disrupt spatial connectivity.^{8–10} As the extent of the damage became clear, strict regulations were applied in many countries, and new facilities now require preliminary surveys, monitoring during operation and mortality mitigation programmes.^{9,11} Unfortunately, thousands of turbines are still badly placed, monitoring is limited in scope and accuracy, and mitigation measures are not as efficient as they should be.^{6,12,13} If we are to learn from faults made during the rise of the wind energy industry, now is the time to critically observe drone transportation and its place in the aerial habitat.

Unmanned aerial vehicles (UAVs), commonly known as drones, are the next ‘big thing’ in human–aerial habitat interaction. Birds were already shown to respond to drone presence in various ways with some even attacking the machines,^{14,15} a very unwelcome response which indicates stress and may lead to collisions. Apart from the obvious detrimental effects of direct mortality on populations and communities, increased levels of stress associated with UAV disturbance¹⁶ are likely to cause cascading physiological reactions. Such reactions to space use-related stress were shown to negatively impact immune response, reproduction and general health in various species of bats.^{17,18} These are basic organismal processes, and their impairment is likely to entail long-term changes in population demography, community structure, etc.¹⁹

Drone use is rapidly increasing due to ease of operation and affordability, and the technology is utilised for a variety of purposes all over the world. Drones are constantly becoming bigger and faster, and are expected to herald a new era of human transport.^{20,21} Many large-scale development plans include UAV flight routes, parking spaces and other infrastructure. That being said, drones pose an unprecedented challenge for both humans and animals utilising the sky. Unlike aeroplanes and helicopters, they are small enough to be critically damaged even by small birds but are rapidly becoming large enough to cause

serious damage if brought down. Encouragingly, unlike modern jet aircrafts, even the fastest drone prototypes being tested today are slow enough for potential active preventatives to be efficient. These preventatives would have to be mounted, activated and controlled onboard the vessels themselves because it will be impossible to maintain any constant physical infrastructure around future ‘drone highways’ in the sky. Efficient preventatives would have to compound meteorological and ecological information into real-time risk management that would either control active deterrents or manage flight routes. These ‘highways in the sky’ will soon become reality, and it must be made clear that both animal and human safety is on the line.

For wind turbine-related mortality mitigation, curtailment at times and weather conditions when flying animals are active around windfarms and at risk of collision is considered the most efficient way to prevent collisions.^{6,22} Operators set operation rules, usually related to season or wind speed, based on which turbine cut-in speeds (minimal wind speed for power generation) are raised to reduce rotation-wildlife activity overlap. Feathering (turning turbine blades to an angle that prevents rotation) is usually done at lower windspeeds (3–6 m/s) when energy yields are low and wildlife activity is high.²³ These mitigation regimes are based on scientific insight and on-site surveys, both of which often rely on near ground observations. As such, they risk oversimplifying the intricate aerial ecosystem and neglecting crucial aspects of animal behaviour.

In Werber et al.’s study,²⁴ we describe the construction and implementation of an artificial intelligence (AI)-based bat identification tool for the BirdScan MR1 vertical looking radar (<https://swiss-birdradar.com/>), and the resulting Israeli BATScan database (63,630 bat detections in the airspace). The BirdScan MR1 is a dedicated animal radar formerly only capable of identifying birds and insects.^{25,26} We used the Israeli BATScan database to visualise the risk of using oversimplifying rules in mitigation programmes by comparing local and regional scale bat abundances across two major weather gradients.

Bat activity densities, aggregated over the entire radar detection range for bats (100–800 m above ground), were plotted relative to temperature and windspeed, taken from ECMWF’s ERA5 reanalysis.²⁷ The average density across all sites was overlayed over the specific density in each site (Figure 1), presenting a simple visual comparison of local and regional activity patterns. The plot clearly demonstrates high variability across sites (many of which are geographically adjacent and ecologically similar) and varying levels of mismatch between local activity patterns and the average pattern. The aggregation of observations across altitudes omits local variation across the vertical dimension, which may further accentuate the discrepancy. Peak local density in charts 1 (Northern Golan) and 3 (Eastern Upper Galilee) are completely different from the average, and if average-density-based mitigation schemes were to operate in these locations bat mortality would not be efficiently prevented. The average-local overlap is not complete for other sites as well, which would either cause bat activity to go unprotected (6,8,10) or result in unnecessary losses and inefficiency due to unneeded turbine feathering. We note that most bat activity in Israel does occur below wind speed of 6 (m/s), but local activity ranges are mostly narrower and largely temperature dependent.

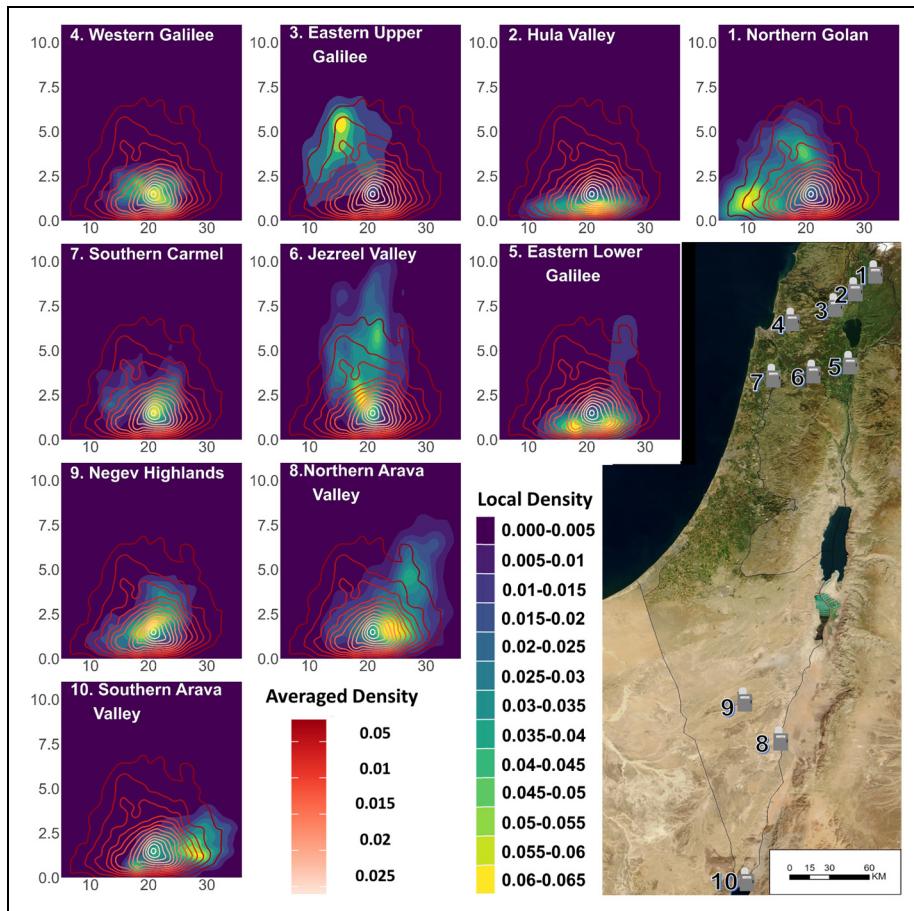


Figure 1. Bat activity densities (proportion of bat detections in different temperature/wind speed combinations) across temperature in celsius (x-axis) and wind speed in metres/second (y-axis) in 10 radar monitored sites in Israel. Each panel portrays the overlap between local activity density (blue-yellow shades) and total averaged density (red contour lines). Radar deployments were made in 10 locations covering a wide variety of habitats including mountainous (1,3), Wetland (2), Mediterranean (4–7) and desert (8–10).

Conclusion

What we see from the ground as ‘clear blue skies’ is actually a highly complex, constantly changing ecosystem that we are still largely unequipped to understand from our terrestrial vantage point. This fact should be kept in mind as we extend our reach further, faster, and bigger into the aerial habitat. Our preliminary analysis shows that ‘rule of thumb’ aerial wildlife mortality mitigation programmes (like feathering turbine blades at wind speeds between 3 and 6 ms) may only be efficient to a limited extent. Their implementation under legislative approval implies that decision-makers regard such approaches as

sufficient for conservation purposes. However, the observed margins of error are unlikely to be acceptable in a future scenario of UAV-based human transportation, as it will put human lives, not just wildlife, at considerable risk. Such developments would have to be supported by accurate monitoring capabilities, currently only achievable using radar-AI combinations.

Acknowledgements

The author wishes to acknowledge the Israel Science Foundation and the University of Haifa for purchasing the Hula BirdScan radar and supporting the study, and the Hula Research Centre for housing the radar. Much of the data used in the study was collected or shared by: EDF Renewables Israel, Blue Sky Energy, Asaf Mayrose and Zev Labinger (Houbara Environmental Consultancy), David Meninger and Eyal Shochat (Geoteva Environmental Consultancy), Itamar Giladi and Ofir Alshتين (Ben-Gurion University) and Oded Keinan (Arava Environmental Science Education Center). They are all thanked for their contributions.

Declaration of conflicting interests

The author declared no potential conflicts of interest with respect to the research, authorship, and/or publication of this article.

Funding

The author disclosed receipt of the following financial support for the research, authorship, and/or publication of this article: Israel Science Foundation, grant/award number: 1653/22 and 2333/17; University of Haifa.

ORCID iD

Yuval Werber  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-9858-1872>

References

1. Diehl RH. The airspace is habitat. *Trends Ecol Evol* 2013; 28: 377–379.
2. Diehl RH, Peterson AC, Bolus RT, et al. Extending the habitat concept to the airspace. In: Chilson PB, Frick WF, Kelly JF, et al (eds) *Aeroecology*. Switzerland: Springer International Publishing, 2017, pp.47–69. DOI: 10.1007/978-3-319-68576-2_3.
3. Cleveland CJ, Betke M, Federico P, et al. Economic value of the pest control service provided by Brazilian free-tailed bats in south-central Texas. *Front Ecol Environ* 2006; 4: 238–243.
4. Huestis DL, Dao A, Diallo M, et al. Windborne long-distance migration of malaria mosquitoes in the Sahel. *Nature* 2019; 574: 404–408.
5. Tremlett CJ, Peh KSH, Zamora-Gutierrez V, et al. Value and benefit distribution of pollination services provided by bats in the production of cactus fruits in central Mexico. *Ecosyst Serv* 2021; 47: 101197.
6. Voigt CC, Kaiser K, Look S, et al. Wind turbines without curtailment produce large numbers of bat fatalities throughout their lifetime: a call against ignorance and neglect. *Glob Ecol Conserv* 2022; 37: e02149.
7. Lotfabadi P. High-rise buildings and environmental factors. *Renewable Sustainable Energy Rev* 2014; 38: 285–295.
8. Cryan PM and Barclay RMR. Causes of bat fatalities at wind turbines: hypotheses and predictions. *J Mammal* 2009; 90: 1330–1340.

9. Barré K, Le Viol I, Bas Y, et al. Estimating habitat loss due to wind turbine avoidance by bats: implications for European siting guidance. *Biol Conserv* 2018; 226: 205–214.
10. Cryan PM. Wind turbines as landscape impediments to the migratory connectivity of bats. *Environ Law*. 2011; 41(2): 355–370 <https://www.jstor.org/stable/43267494>
11. Cohen A, Fischhendler I and Katz D. Institutional acceptance of wildlife mitigation technologies for wind energy: the case of Israel. *Energy Policy* 2023; 173: 113359.
12. Voigt CC, Popa-Lisseanu AG, Niermann I, et al. The catchment area of wind farms for European bats: a plea for international regulations. *Biol Conserv* 2012; 153: 80–86.
13. Mathews F, Swindells M, Goodhead R, et al. Effectiveness of search dogs compared with human observers in locating bat carcasses at wind-turbine sites: a blinded randomized trial. *Wildl Soc Bull* 2013; 37: 34–40.
14. Vas E, Lescroël A, Duriez O, et al. Approaching birds with drones: first experiments and ethical guidelines. *Biol Lett* 2015; 11: 20140754.
15. Lyons M, Brandis K, Callaghan C, et al. Bird interactions with drones, from individuals to large colonies. *Australian Field Ornithology* 2018; 35: 51–56. DOI: 10.20938/af035051056
16. Ditmer MA, Vincent JB, Werden LK, et al. Bears show a physiological but limited behavioral response to unmanned aerial vehicles. *Curr Biol* 2015; 25: 2278–2283.
17. Seltmann A, Czirják GÁ, Courtiol A, et al. Habitat disturbance results in chronic stress and impaired health status in forest-dwelling paleotropical bats. *Conserv Physiol* 2017; 5(1): cox020. DOI:10.1093/conphys/cox020
18. Alonge MM, Greville LJS, Ma X, et al. Acute restraint stress rapidly impacts reproductive neuroendocrinology and downstream gonad function in big brown bats (*Eptesicus fuscus*). *J Exp Biol* 2023; 226, jeb245592..
19. Davis AK, Maney DL and Maerz JC. The use of leukocyte profiles to measure stress in vertebrates: a review for ecologists. *Funct Ecol* 2008; 22: 760–772.
20. Kasliwal A, Furbush NJ, Gawron JH, et al. Role of flying cars in sustainable mobility. *Nat Commun* 2019; 10: 1555.
21. Gupta A, Afrin T, Scully E, et al. Advances of UAVs toward future transportation: the state-of-the-art. Challenges, and opportunities. *Future Transport* 2021; 1: 326–350.
22. Rabie PA, Welch-Acosta B, Nasman K, et al. Efficacy and cost of acoustic-informed and wind speed-only turbine curtailment to reduce bat fatalities at a wind energy facility in Wisconsin. Magar V, ed. *PLoS ONE*. 2022; 17, e0266500.
23. Arnett EB, Huso MM, Schirmacher MR, et al. Altering turbine speed reduces bat mortality at wind-energy facilities. *Front Ecol Environ* 2011; 9: 209–214.
24. Werber Y, Sextin H, Yovel Y, et al. BATScan: a radar classification tool reveals large-scale bat migration patterns. *Methods Ecol Evol* 2023; 14: 1764–1779.
25. Zaugg S, Saporta G, Van Loon E, et al. Automatic identification of bird targets with radar via patterns produced by wing flapping. *J R Soc Interface* 2008; 5: 1041–1053.
26. Schmid B, Zaugg S, Votier SC, et al. Size matters in quantitative radar monitoring of animal migration: estimating monitored volume from Wingbeat frequency. *Ecography* 2019; 42: 931–941.
27. Hersbach H, Bell B, Berrisford P, et al. The ERA5 global reanalysis. *Quart J Royal Meteorol Soc* 2020; 146: 1999–2049.

Author biography

Yuval Werber is a fifth-year PhD student at the department of environmental and evolutionary biology in the University of Haifa, Israel. He received a bachelor's degree in ecology and evolution

cum laude from Tel Aviv University, Israel, and a master's degree in biotechnology cum laude from Tel Hai college, Israel. Yuval is interested in large scale animal behaviour patterns and their affect on environmental processes.