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Impact of land use change on the brown bear habitat connectivity in the Polish Carpathians

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Background: Europe has undergone dynamic land-use changes in recent decades that have affected the extent, quality and connectivity of large carnivore habitats. However, the current distribution of large carnivores also depends on historical land use processes. In this paper, we analyse the impact of historical land use changes on the connectivity of brown bear habitats in the region linking the western and eastern parts of the Carpathians, one of Europe's biodiversity hotspots.

Methods: The analyses were conducted based on elevation, slope and distance-based, land use-related variables representing four time periods: 1860s, 1930s, 1970s and 2013, using cost surface and least-cost path analyses. We used two different approaches to create a cost surfaces : weighted, where the weights differentiated between variables according to their relative importance, reflecting their role in either bear preference or avoidance and unweighted where all the variables were treated as equally important.

Results: The results of both approaches showed a gradual improvement in habitat connectivity for brown bears over time, driven by the increase in forest cover observed over the whole analysed period. However, the dynamics of these changes were much higher after the forced post-war resettlement in the 1940s. These tragic events resulted in the removal of settlements over large areas, substantially reducing human pressure and allowing brown bears to spread into new territories, expanding their habitats and creating new connectivity opportunities. Our analysis shows that the current population decline in many rural areas of Europe may have positive implications for the habitats and population connectivity of large carnivores, but careful planning is needed to avoid negative interactions with local communities.

1 Impact of land use change on the brown bear habitat 2 connectivity in the Polish Carpathians

3

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19 Abstract

20 **Background:** Europe has undergone dynamic land-use changes in recent decades that have
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35 post-war resettlement in the 1940s. These tragic events resulted in the removal of settlements
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37 new territories, expanding their habitats and creating new connectivity opportunities. Our
38 analysis shows that the current population decline in many rural areas of Europe may have
39 positive implications for the habitats and population connectivity of large carnivores, but careful
40 planning is needed to avoid negative interactions with local communities.

41

42

43 **Introduction**

44 Land use change has affected almost one third of the global land area since the 1960s
45 (Winkler et al., 2021), substantially influencing the connectivity of mammalian habitats and their
46 conservation (Di Minin et al., 2016). The lack of habitat connectivity has been recognized as one
47 of the most critical threats to large species, as it limits the likelihood of dispersal and genetic
48 exchange (Ripple et al., 2017). These processes are essential for mitigating the negative effects
49 of climate change on species (Schloss, Nuñez & Lawler, 2012) and reducing the extinction risk
50 (Davis, Faurby & Svenning, 2018).

51 Changes in land use, and consequently habitat connectivity, are not, however, uniform
52 globally. Even within Europe itself, vastly different trends in land use change can be observed, as
53 landscapes with highly fragmented habitats (Ibisch et al., 2016) co-occur with regions
54 experiencing land abandonment on a large scale (Navarro & Pereira, 2015; Lasanta et al., 2017;
55 Ustaoglu & Collier, 2018; Kolecka, 2021). Processes of land abandonment are often followed by
56 forest cover increase, which have been observed for decades in many, especially remote, areas of
57 the continent (Kaim et al., 2016; Loran, Ginzler & Bürgi, 2016; Abadie et al., 2018; Lieskovský
58 et al., 2018). These abandoned areas, where human pressure has decreased and the availability of
59 shelter and prey has increased, may provide unique opportunities for rewilding (Navarro &
60 Pereira, 2015; Araújo & Alagador, 2024) as evidenced by the recent recovery of large carnivores
61 in Europe (Chapron et al., 2014; Cimatti et al., 2021; Bernardi et al., 2025).

62 Although the importance of incorporating land use and human population changes over
63 time has been recognized in species distribution and habitat suitability studies (Conlisk et al.,
64 2013), temporal dynamics are rarely considered in habitat connectivity analyses which typically
65 focus on animal utilisation of the current land use. Even if land use changes potentially favour
66 the expansion of habitat areas, natural recolonisation may be limited by movement barriers.
67 Therefore, restoring large-scale connectivity is as crucial as increasing habitat extent to enhance
68 species recovery and restoration (Bluhm et al., 2023). Nevertheless, identifying the long-term
69 effects of land use changes on species is important for setting reliable recovery and restoration
70 targets and identifying opportunities for improvement (Grace et al., 2019; Clavero et al., 2023).

71 The Carpathian Mountains are one of Europe's biodiversity hotspots, supporting a
72 diverse range of large carnivores and herbivores (Kozak et al., 2013). At the same time, the
73 region has experienced substantial and dynamic land use changes (Munteanu et al., 2014;
74 Lieskovský et al., 2018). Political decisions have led to large-scale population displacements in
75 some parts of the area, inadvertently enhancing conditions for large carnivores as a result of a
76 substantial increase in forest cover and an overall decrease in human pressure (Bičík, Jeleček &
77 Štěpánek, 2001; Yin et al., 2019; Affek et al., 2021). This unintentional improvement in
78 ecological connectivity is particularly crucial in European landscapes, where habitats are highly
79 fragmented (Ibisch et al., 2016), substantially limiting the recolonisation of large species
80 (Zedrosser & Swenson, 2023; Bluhm et al., 2023).

81 One species that could benefit from these landscape change  the brown bear (*Ursus*
82 *arctos*), the largest terrestrial carnivore currently living in Europe (Fernández et al., 2012). By
83 the end of the 19th century, the Carpathian brown bear population in the northern part of the
84 region had become isolated from the Alpine population, and then, by the end of the First World
85 War, further subdivided into western and eastern groups within the Carpathians (Hartl & Hell,
86 1994). Although bears were sporadically observed in various parts of the Polish Carpathians
87 during the inter-war period (Niezabitowski, 1933; Jakubiec, 2001), a substantial part of the
88 population lived in the eastern part of the mountains, in present-day Ukraine (Niezabitowski,
89 1933). Post-war resettlements in the eastern Polish Carpathians in the 1940s, followed by a
90 substantial reduction in human activity and consequent increase in forest cover, provided a
91 unique opportunity for bear recovery. This led to an increase in bear numbers and an expansion
92 of their range, with occasional sightings of migratory individuals outside the mountains
93 (Jakubiec, 2001). Post-war forced resettlements facilitated the reconnection of western and
94 eastern bear habitats in the Polish Carpathians through the Beskid Niski Mountains (Jakubiec &
95 Buchalczyk, 1987). However, the process of restoring connectivity and increasing bear habitat
96 availability in this area over time remains poorly understood.

97 In this paper, we analyse a series of historical land-use reconstructions spanning 160
98 years to assess the changes in bear habitat connectivity in the Beskid Niski Mountains (i.e.,
99 between the Western and Eastern Carpathians) in the context of post-war displacement. We aim
100 to answer the following questions:

101 (1) How has brown bear habitat connectivity between the eastern and western
102 Carpathians changed over the last 160 years?

103 (2) What was the impact of post-war depopulation on brown bear habitat connectivity in
104 the area?

105 As farmland abandonment and forest succession are not only historically relevant
106 processes but are also continuously observed (Kolecka et al., 2017), understanding the role of
107 these land-use changes is crucial for the current and future management of bear populations. This
108 is particularly important in the context of human-wildlife interactions, which may increase as a
109 result of habitat recolonisation by brown bears (Chapron et al., 2014; Ziolkowska et al., 2016;
110 Kaczensky et al., 2021) 

112 Materials & Methods

113

114 Study area

115 The Beskid Niski Mountains, one of the lowest mountain ranges in the Carpathians,
116 extend over 100 km, with the highest elevations reaching about 1000 m asl. and the main range
117 descending to 500 m asl. The range is relatively narrow and situated between lowlands to the
118 north and south (Fig. 1a, 1b). This makes it a natural link between the Western Carpathians,
119 which span Austria, Czechia, Hungary, Poland and Slovakia, and the Eastern Carpathians, which
120 stretch from Poland and Slovakia through Ukraine towards Romania and Serbia (Fig. 1a).
121 Historically, the region was densely populated by people whose primary activity was agriculture,

122 which shaped the local landscape for centuries until the 1940s. During the 1940s, the local
123 inhabitants, predominantly from the Ukrainian ethnic group of Lemkos, were resettled to the
124 Soviet Union or to western and northern Poland as a result of large-scale forced displacements
125 (Affek et al., 2021). Similar processes substantially altered the neighbouring eastern Carpathian
126 region – Bieszczady Mountains. The neighbouring region to the west, the Beskid Sadecki
127 Mountains, was also affected, though to a much lesser extent (Fig. 1b) (Kozak, Estreguil & Troll,
128 2007; Munteanu et al., 2014).

129 By the late 19th century, brown bears in the western part of the Polish Carpathians, apart
130 from the Tatra Mountains, were mainly observed as migrating individuals. The Eastern
131 Carpathians, now in Ukraine, served as the main refuge for three individuals (Niezabitowski,
132 1933; Jakubiec, 2001). During the inter-war period, brown bears were rarely seen in the study
133 area. However, after the end of the Second World War, they began expanding westwards
134 (Niezabitowski 1933, Jakubiec 2001), but the recent bear occurrence data still indicates that this
135 region is critical for connecting the western and eastern bear habitats in the Polish Carpathians
136 (Kaczensky et al., 2021).

137 The tragic events of forced population resettlements transformed the area into a natural
138 experiment of rewilding, characterized by rapid forest cover increase and minimal human impact
139 on the landscape over subsequent decades (Kozak et al., 2018; Jabs-Sobocińska et al., 2021;
140 Affek et al., 2021). These changes provided the opportunities initially to enlarge brown bear
141 habitats in the Bieszczady in the east, and subsequently to improve the ecological connectivity
142 between the eastern and western Carpathians via the Beskid Niski area. Although forests now
143 dominate the landscape (Fig. 1c), further land abandonment is visible (Kolecka & Kozak, 2019).
144 Occasionally, signs of recultivation of previously abandoned agricultural land by farmers can be
145 observed (Ortyl & Kasprzyk, 2022).

146 It is important to add that the post-war resettlements occurred only on the Polish side of
147 the border. The Slovak part of the range, characterised by lower elevation, has experienced a
148 different history and is currently more densely populated and more intensively used for
149 agriculture. Therefore, our study area includes the Beskid Niski Mountains on the Polish side of
150 the border, along with the neighbouring mountain ranges - the Beskid Sadecki to the west and
151 the Bieszczady to the east - which are considered areas of permanent bear presence and between
152 which connectivity was analysed (Fig. 1b).

153

154

155 Fig. 1. Location of the study area within Europe and the Carpathians (a) and within the Polish
156 Carpathians (b). Changes in forest cover (1860s-2013) within the study area are shown in (c).

157

158 *Factors affecting brown bear habitat use*

159 Based on a comprehensive literature review we identified forest cover, human activities
160 (including buildings and transport infrastructure) and relief (elevation and slope) as key factors
161 influencing brown bear habitat use and habitat connectivity (Güthlin et al., 2011; Koren et al.,
162 2011; Fernández et al., 2012; Mateo-Sánchez et al., 2015; Ziółkowska et al., 2016; Eriksen et al.,
163 2018; Iosif et al., 2020; Mohammadi et al., 2021; Isneros-Araujo et al., 2022). The current
164 information on forest cover and human activities was obtained directly from the digital National
165 Database of Topographic Objects (BDOT10k) at a scale of 1:10,000, representing the conditions
166 in 2013. Historical information was obtained by processing detailed military maps from the
167 1860s (second military survey 1:28,800) and 1930s (Polish military maps 1:100,000) and

168 topographic maps from the 1970s (Polish topographic maps 1:25,000). We used available digital
169 databases on forest cover and buildings derived from these maps, either through manual
170 vectorisation for the 1860s and 1930s (Kaim et al., 2014, 2021) or automatic extraction for the
171 1970s (Ostafin et al., 2017; Szubert, Kaim & Kozak, 2024). As the information on buildings for
172 the 1930s was not available from existing databases, it was extracted by the authors by manually
173 updating the database of buildings for the 1870s based on maps from the 1930s. Available digital
174 databases on roads (Kaim, Szwagrzyk & Ostafin, 2020) and railways (Kaim et al., 2020) for the
175 1860s, combined with current data on transport infrastructure from the BDOT10k topographic
176 database, were used to reconstruct the situation for the 1930s and 1970s through manual updates
177 via visual inspection of the 1930s and 1970s maps. Relief information was obtained from the EU
178 Digital Elevation Model (EU-DEM) available through the Copernicus Land Monitoring Service
179 (<https://land.copernicus.eu/>). All data were converted to the raster format with a spatial
180 resolution of 25 m.

181

Least-cost modelling

182 To assess habitat connectivity, we used least-cost analysis, a method that evaluates the
183 impact of the matrix between habitat patches on the dispersal of an organism (e.g., Verbeylen et
184 al., 2003; Etherington & Penelope Holland, 2013). This method utilizes a cost surface,
185 represented as a raster layer, which indicates the movement costs associated with each grid cell
186 of the matrix. Based on the cost surface, routes (i.e., least-cost paths or corridors) with the lowest
187 cumulative resistance between destination locations in a landscape are then calculated as a
188 function of distance travelled and cost incurred (Etherington & Penelope Holland, 2013).

189 Based on the obtained data on forest cover, human activities and relief, we calculated a
190 set of variables which were then combined into cost surfaces representing costs associated with
191 brown bear movement across the Beskid Niski for each of the analysed time periods (1870s,
192 1930s, 1970s, and 2013) separately (Table 1). Variables related to forest cover included distance
193 from the forest edge to the forest core (as a measure of forest edge effect) and forest cover
194 persistence (understood as forest presence in previous periods; see Grabska-Szwagrzyk et al.
195 2024). We assume that bears prefer to move through the interior of forest and older forest stands,
196 as these habitats provide more shelter. Variables related to human activity, considered stressors
197 for bears, included the distance to buildings and the distance to transport infrastructure. We
198 assume that bear travel costs increase with decreasing distance to human activity. Relief-related
199 variables included elevation and slope, with the assumption that bear movement costs increase
200 with higher elevation and steeper slopes (Table 1).

201 These variables were combined into cost surfaces using a relative quantification method,
202 where relative weights were assigned to each variable based on analysis of existing literature on
203 bear habitat and movement preferences (Ziółkowska et al., 2016; Eriksen et al., 2018; Iosif et al.,
204 2020; Mohammadi et al., 2021; Cisneros-Araujo et al., 2021). The overall cost values were then
205 calculated as combined values of individual cost components, taking into account assigned
206 weights. Two weighting approaches were applied. In the first approach (hereafter referred to as
207 the unweighted variant), all variables were treated as equally important, sharing the same range
208 of assigned cost values, and their importance did not change over the analysed time period
209 (Table 1). In the second approach (hereafter referred to as the weighted variant), the weights
210 differentiated between variables according to their relative importance, reflecting their role in
211 either bear preference or avoidance. Additionally, in this variant, the weights for human-related
212

213 variables changed over the analysed time period, based on the assumption that the role of human
214 activities increased over the 160-year period, causing more stressors for the brown bear due to
215 higher levels of technological development over time (e.g., related to higher levels of noise,
216 light, or accessibility) (Table 1). In 1994, a large water reservoir (306 ha) was constructed within
217 the study area. As it can be perceived as a total barrier to bear movement, it was included in the
218 2013 cost surface with a value of *No Data*.

219
220

221 Table 1. The cost values used in the habitat connectivity analysis

222

223

224 For each of the analysed time periods (1860s, 1930s, 1970s, and 2013), two independent
225 cost surface layers were generated based on unweighted and weighted variants, which were then
226 standardised to values ranging from 1 to 100% for easier interpretation. For each of these cost
227 surface layers, we applied least-cost analysis to delineate least-cost corridors (or connectivity
228 zones) linking bear habitat areas in the Beskid Sadecki and Bieszczady through the Beskid Niski
229 Mountains. Least-cost corridors were defined as sets of cells for which the cumulative cost
230 between habitat areas falls below a certain user-defined threshold, set at the 20th percentile of the
231 sum of all corridors covering the study area. We characterised corridors using four indicators: (1)
232 the total cost of the corridors relative to their area, indicating the total potential movement effort
233 of brown bears, (2) the share of forest in the corridors, indicating preferred movement
234 conditions, (3) the density of buildings within the corridors, indicating difficulties for bear
235 movement, and (4) the percentage of corridors that remained stable relative to the previous time
236 period, representing the impact of land-use change dynamics. All analyses were conducted using
237 ArcGIS Pro 3.2 and the Linkage Mapper software (McRae & Kavanagh, 2011).

238 Finally, we attempted to compare the resulting corridors with the historical and current
239 data on brown bear occurrence in the study area. Historical data on brown bear occurrence were
240 available only for the 1970s (Jakubiec & Buchalczyk, 1987) at the level of state forest
241 administration regions (www.bdl.lasy.gov.pl). For the most recent analysed period, we referred
242 our results to the 10x10km data on permanent and sporadic brown bear occurrence, based on
243 Chapron et al. (2014).

244

245 Results

246 The last 160 years have seen a significant increase in forest cover and a decrease in
247 human activity in the study area, with the most substantial changes occurring between the 1930s
248 and 1970s. The Beskid Niski region experienced the highest increase in forest cover, doubling
249 from 28.6% in the 1860s to 66.3% in 2013, with the higher altitudes of this relatively low
250 mountain range becoming almost completely forested. In the neighbouring regions of Beskid
251 Sadecki and Bieszczady, the increase in forest cover was somewhat smaller than in the Beskid
252 Niski, but still substantial, rising from 39.0% to 69.6% and from 52.2% to 87.2%, respectively
253 (Fig. 1c). The greatest decline in the number of buildings occurred between the 1930s and 1970s,
254 during which many villages disappeared or were reduced to isolated farmsteads. At the same

255 time, selected settlements and towns, mostly in the north-western edge of the study area,
256 experienced gradual growth. The development of built-up areas continued locally in the
257 following period, both in towns and in remote areas.

258 The above-mentioned changes in land use had a significant impact on the course and
259 characteristics of brown bear movement corridors (Fig. 2). Regardless of the variant, we
260 observed a decrease in total costs within the corridors over time, with visible stabilisation
261 occurring in the most recent period analysed, between the 1970s and 2013. However, the
262 unweighted variant showed a noticeable overall decrease over time (Fig. 3a). The share of forest
263 cover within the corridors increased for both variants, with the largest increase observed between
264 the 1930s and 1970s. The rate of increase was, however, slower in the unweighted variant (Fig.
265 3b). The density of buildings within the corridors decreased over time in both variants (Fig. 3c).

266 The spatial pattern of the land use changes observed since the mid-19th century has also
267 affected changes in the course of the corridors. The majority of the corridor areas consisted of
268 newly established migratory areas in 1930s in weighted variant and in the 1970s in unweighted,
269 while the proportion of parts of the corridors established in earlier periods increased over time in
270 most cases (Fig. 2). The greatest difference between the weighted and unweighted variants of the
271 corridors was observed in the older periods, where the corridor in the weighted variant showed a
272 very different course in space (Fig. 2). Both variants were relatively coherent in terms of the
273 location of the most stable migration path since the 1970s

274

275

276 Fig. 2. Brown bear corridors connecting Beskid Sądecki in the west and Bieszczady in the east
277 through the Beskid Niski Mts. Colours represent different variants (unweighted vs. weighted) of
278 cost surfaces and analysed time periods (1860s, 1930s, 1970s and 2013). The same colour
279 patterns are used in Figure 3A and Figure 4.

280

281

282 Fig. 3. Total costs in corridors related to the area of corridors (per m²) (A), proportion of forest
283 area in corridors (B) and buildings density per km² (C).

284

285

286

Discussion

287 The selected study area of the Beskid Niski Mountains is unique in that we can observe
288 the effects not only of gradual, selective land-use changes caused by socio-economic factors, but
289 also the effects of sudden, far-reaching changes caused by political factors. This, together with
290 the fact that the area is located in the biodiversity hotspot of the Carpathian Mountain range that
291 is home to large carnivores, provides an unusual opportunity to study the long-term effects of
292 past and present land use changes on the persistence of species habitats and their connectivity. In
293 this paper, we analyse 160 years of historical land-use reconstructions to assess changes in
294 brown bear habitat connectivity in the Beskid Niski Mountains, focusing on the impact of post-
295 war displacement and answering how habitat connectivity between the Eastern and Western
296 Carpathians has evolved and been affected by depopulation.

297 Gradual, selective land use change is a process associated with land abandonment of low-
298 profit agricultural areas and has only recently emerged in the region in the post-socialist period
299 (Kolecka et al., 2017; Ortyl & Kasprzyk, 2022). On the other hand, the forced displacement of

300 inhabitants after the Second World War led to land abandonment and a dynamic increase in
301 forest cover, as well as to a reduction in development pressures both in the Beskid Niski and, in
302 the neighbouring to the east, the Bieszczady Mountains region. These changes have expanded
303 the habitat of the eastern Carpathian brown bear population, making the Beskid Niski a link
304 between the western and eastern brown bear populations (Fernández et al., 2012; Ziolkowska et
305 al., 2016; Kaczensky et al., 2021). With a further, already more gradual increase in forest cover,
306 not only did the conditions for bear movements in the migration corridor through the Beskid
307 Niski improve, but the Beskid Niski also became a permanent habitat for bears, which was
308 confirmed by the occurrence of females with cubs in the 1980s (Jakubiec & Buchalczyk, 1987).
309 In fact, brown bear breeding habitat requirements are more stringent in terms of forest cover and
310 human disturbance, which made Beskid Niski more attractive only after significant land
311 abandonment and persistent land use changes visible in the landscape (Fernández et al., 2012).
312 Globally, abandonment of agricultural land is not always persistent, as recultivation is common,
313 especially on arable land, which limits opportunities for biodiversity (Crawford et al., 2022). In
314 our case, however, extensive land abandonment was politically driven and took place in
315 agriculturally low favourable mountain areas. Such process are usually different in pattern from
316 gradual and selective land abandonment drove by socio-economic determinants, as appeared in
317 the region just recently in the post-socialist period (Kolecka et al., 2017; Ortyl & Kasprzyk,
318 2022). These determinants made land abandonment dynamic, widespread and persistent, leading
319 to a large increase in forest cover.

320 We employed two different ways in accounting for the impact of various determinants on
321 bears' connectivity, by using weighted and unweighted variants. Since the analysed weighted
322 variants used to generate the cost surfaces differed considerably in terms of weights assigned to
323 factors related to human activity (distance to buildings and transport infrastructure), the
324 differences in the course of bear migration corridors in different time periods can be directly
325 linked to changes in human pressure experienced in the study area over the last 160 years. The
326 most significant differences in the corridor courses between the unweighted and weighted
327 variants were observed in the 1860s and 1930s. In these periods, the variants showed
328 significantly different courses for the main corridor branches due to the intensity of the land use
329 at that time, and the scattered settlement all over the area (Kozak, Estreguil & Troll, 2007; Kaim
330 et al., 2021; Affek et al., 2021). In the 1970s, there were no major differences in the course of the
331 corridors between the two analysed variants. This period saw a significant decrease in settlement
332 compared to the 1930s, due to the large-scale, post-war resettlements. Thus, in the 1970s, the
333 bear connectivity was mainly shaped by the forest availability, which was more similarly
334 weighted in both variants, while depopulated villages did not constitute a significant barrier. The
335 largest differences between variants occurred in areas that still had considerable settlement at the
336 time. After 1970s, an increase in development was observed, but it was more scattered in nature
337 and located more in the west and north. This led to the changes in the corridor courses visible in
338 2013, when compared to 1970s.

339 Our weighted variant, formulated with a relative quantification method, highlighted the
340 substantial impact of factors related to human activity, mainly settlements. This aligns with the
341 results of studies predicting bear habitat and movement preferences based on presence data. For
342 instance, Ziolkowska et al., (2016) demonstrated that, in addition to elevation range, factors
343 related to the density and distance from settlements and road density had the greatest impact on
344 bear movement, regardless of the model considered. These factors were significantly more
345 influential than forest-related variables. Similarly, in habitat suitability studies, settlements and

346 roads are often indicated as more significant than forests. For example, Mateo-Sánchez et al.,
347 (2015) found that settlement density was the most important variable in all best-fit models of
348 habitat selection by brown bears in the Cantabrian Range (SW Spain), surpassing road and forest
349 density. Cisneros-Araujo et al., (2021) also showed that human-related factors are more
350 important than forest in their habitat suitability models for the Cantabrian bears, although the
351 difference in importance was not as pronounced as that found by Ziolkowska et al., (2016). This
352 suggests that for bear movement, the negative impact of development and roads may be even
353 more important. On the other hand, the 'human footprint' did not emerge as particularly
354 important in habitat models for bears in Iran (Mohammadi et al., 2021). However, it is unclear
355 from the article how the authors calculated (weighted) the "human footprint," aside from the fact
356 that several variables were included to distinguish the effects of different kinds of human
357 perturbation (i.e., human population density, human infrastructure, and road network).

358 Studies on habitat suitability and connectivity often use the density of settlements and/or
359 roads as explanatory variables depicting human impacts. In our study, instead of density-based
360 variables, we used distance-based variables, which provide more robust measures of human
361 impact, especially when relating to objects that are sparsely present. This approach was
362 particularly relevant in our study area, where the density of buildings was very low after World
363 War II, and subsequent development was rather scattered, resulting in zero density values for
364 most of the study area. Additionally, using a variable based on distance rather than density
365 avoids the need to arbitrarily decide or account for different variants of the scale at which density
366 is measured.

367 The course of the least-cost corridors for the past cannot be easily verified; however, we
368 were able to compare it to independent bear occurrence data from the 1970s and 2010s (Fig. 4).
369 This comparison shows that in the 1970s, the main corridor branch in the eastern part of the
370 study area coincides well with areas of bear dens presence according to Jakubiec & Buchalczyk,
371 (1987), specifically areas with vast forested patches and a high percentage of persistent forest.
372 The main corridor branch narrows when crossing areas of lower probability of bear occurrence
373 (no confirmed sightings according to Jakubiec & Buchalczyk, 1987) at the edge of the
374 Bieszczady and Beskid Niski, then widens again within the Beskid Niski, showing more but less
375 favourable options for bear movement in areas designated as permanent bear presence and bear
376 migration. The main corridor branch narrows again at the edge of the Beskid Niski and Beskid
377 Sadecki, crossing areas of lower probability of bear occurrence, while areas with permanent bear
378 presence (according to Jakubiec & Buchalczyk, 1987) were located more to the north, on the
379 foothills.

380 In 2013, the designated corridors almost completely fell within the areas of permanent
381 and sporadic bear presence according to Chapron et al., (2014). The corridors were partly wider
382 than in the 1970s, and only in locations indicating sporadic bear occurrence were they divided
383 into multiple, thin branches. By 2013, the share of forest was already very high; however, the
384 forest patches were locally separated by more densely populated villages located in the valleys,
385 which limited connectivity locally. This is especially visible in the western part of the study area,
386 where overall human impact is much higher than in the eastern part, and bear occurrence is
387 rather sporadic (Fig. 4). This is the area that is still critical for connectivity between western and
388 eastern bear habitats (Kaczensky et al., 2021).

389

390

391 Fig. 4. Corridors referred to the bear presence data for 1970s and 2010s. *Sources for bear*
392 *occurrence data: 1970s: (Jakubiec & Buchalczyk, 1987), 2010s: (Chapron et al., 2014).*

393

394

395 This supports the argument that while the overall increase in forest cover is positively correlated
396 with connectivity for large carnivores in the Carpathians, its effectiveness is highly limited by
397 scattered settlements, especially in the valleys (Kaim et al., 2019, 2024). As valleys provide the
398 most favourable conditions for roads and settlements in mountainous regions, the density of
399 development in these areas may pose a significant threat to the conservation of sustainable
400 migration corridors. While the suitable passage in this region is already relatively narrow in this
401 region, further expansion of developed areas traversing this area from north to south may be
402 detrimental to future west-east bear connectivity, which calls for effective spatial planning
403 procedures (Ćwik, 2024).

404 Our study refers to land cover changes since the mid-19th century, a period during which the
405 minimum forest cover was observed in the region and has increased over time. This pattern is
406 typical for many areas in Europe due to the phenomenon of forest transition (Meyfroidt &
407 Lambin, 2011; Kozak & Szwagrzyk, 2016). The forced displacement of inhabitants accelerated
408 the dynamics of forest cover increase, although the trend was already visible earlier. For forest
409 specialist species, this suggests that habitat conditions have generally improved since the mid-
410 19th century, when they were likely most challenging. At that time, wild animals were often
411 considered pests and actively eradicated (Niezabitowski, 1933; Jakubiec, 2001). Interestingly, a
412 detailed habitat reconstruction of the distribution of wolves in Spain over the last 150 years
413 showed that wolves were more widespread in the mid-19th century than in the 1970s or even
414 today, which contrasts with the situation in central Europe (Clavero et al., 2023). This indicates
415 that more effort is needed to better understand the long-term relationships between species
416 occurrence and land use change. On one hand, environmental reconstructions based on historical
417 data should be used with proper knowledge and caution (Clavero & Revilla, 2014; Clavero et al.,
418 2022). On the other hand, they are critical for defining shifting baselines and policy-relevant
419 recovery targets (Grace et al., 2019).

420

421

422 **Conclusions**

423 Our study identified a substantial impact of post-war resettlement and associated land use
424 changes on brown bear habitat connectivity in the Polish Carpathians. The forced displacement
425 of the local population and subsequent land abandonment led to a widespread increase in forest
426 cover, reduced human pressure, and created favourable conditions for brown bear movement and
427 habitat improvement. These changes facilitated the merging of eastern and western Carpathian
428 bear populations over time, which is critical for species recovery. This study demonstrates the
429 consequences of the past, although politically driven, depopulation on the local environmental
430 conditions. The results are particularly important in the context of gradual decline of inhabitants

431 observed in various part of contemporary rural Europe. A better understanding of these processes
432 will aid in shaping future restoration policies from both environmental and societal perspectives.

433

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438

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Table 1(on next page)

Table 1. The cost values used in the habitat connectivity analysis

1 Table 1:

2 The cost values used in the habitat connectivity analysis.

Factor	Value	Movement costs				Unweighted variant			
		Weighted variant				Unweighted variant			
		1860	1930	1970	2013	1860	1930	1970	2013
Elevation (m a.s.l.)	0 - 500	2	2	2	2	5	5	5	5
	500 - 800	5	5	5	5	13	13	13	13
	800 - 1000	8	8	8	8	20	20	20	20
	> 1000	10	10	10	10	25	25	25	25
Slope (°)	0 - 3	2	2	2	2	3	3	3	3
	3 - 30	5	5	5	5	6	6	6	6
	30 - 47	10	10	10	10	13	13	13	13
	> 47	20	20	20	20	25	25	25	25
Distance to transport infrastructure (m)	0 - 100	2	3	4	5	25	25	25	25
	100 - 500	1	2	3	3	15	15	15	15
	500 - 1000	0	1	1	2	10	10	10	10
	> 1000	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Distance to buildings (m)	0 - 50	14	16	19	20	25	25	25	25
	50 - 100	6	7	9	10	13	13	13	13
	100 - 500	2	3	5	5	6	6	6	6
	500 - 1000	1	1	2	2	3	3	3	3
	> 1000	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Distance from the forest edge towards the forest core (m)	0 - 200	15	15	15	15	25	25	25	25
	200 - 400	10	10	10	10	17	17	17	17
	400 - 600	5	5	5	5	8	8	8	8
	600 - 800	3	3	3	3	5	5	5	5
	> 800	1	1	1	1	2	2	2	2
Forest persistence (forest presence in previous periods)	no forest	25	25	25	25	25	25	25	25
	1 period	1	7	7	7	1	7	7	7
	2 periods	-	1	5	5	-	1	1	1
	3 periods	-	-	1	3	-	-	-	-
	4 periods	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-

3

Figure 1

Fig. 1. Location of the study area within Europe and the Carpathians (a) and within the Polish Carpathians (b). Changes in forest cover (1860s-2013) within the study area are shown in (c).

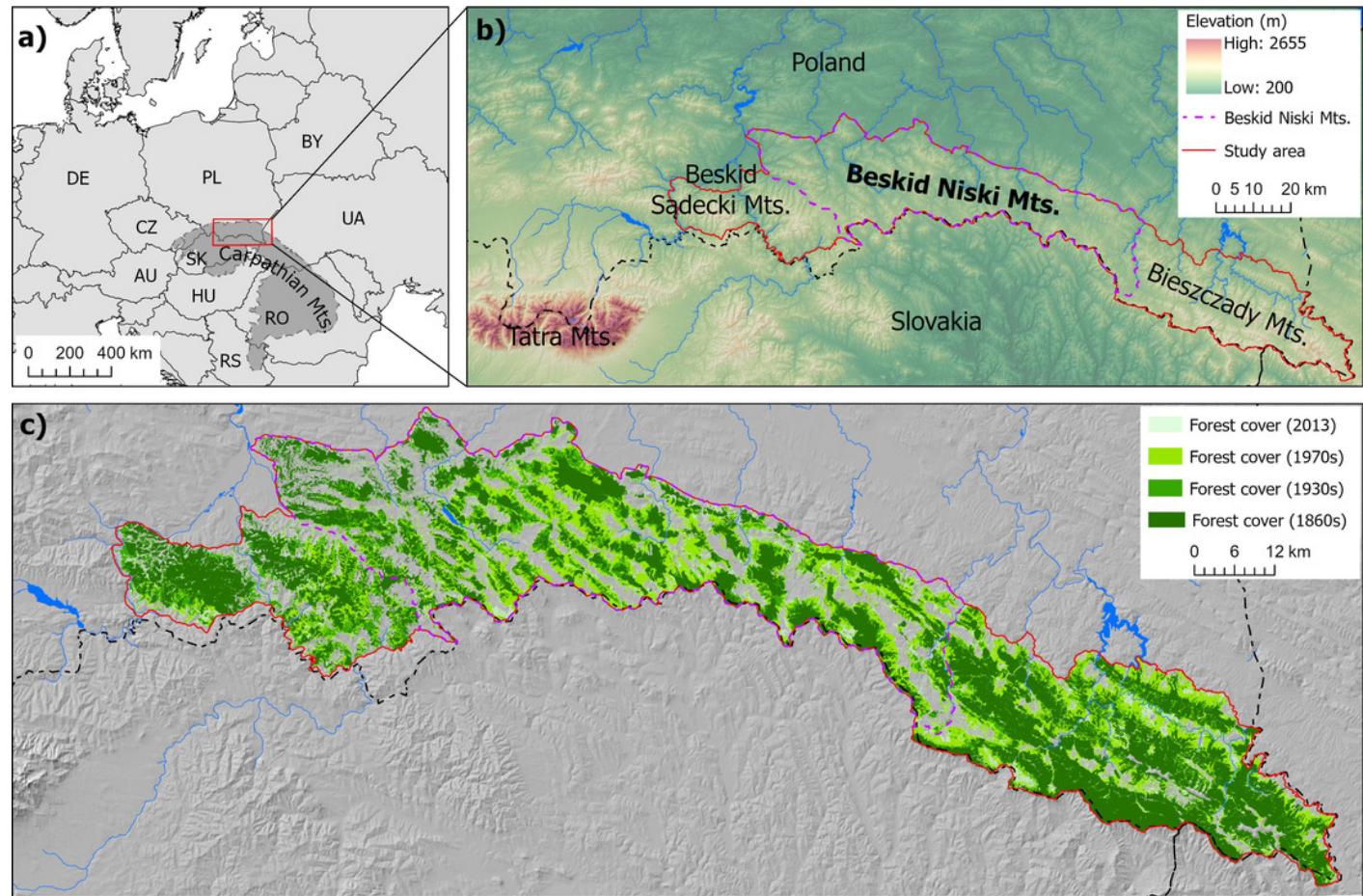
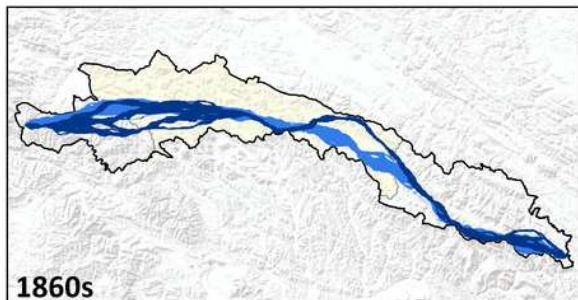


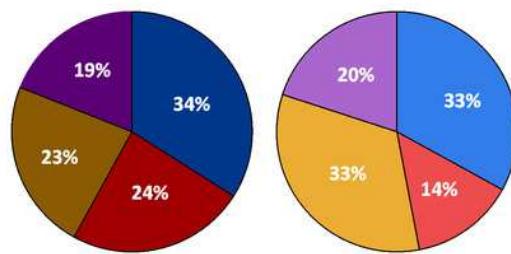
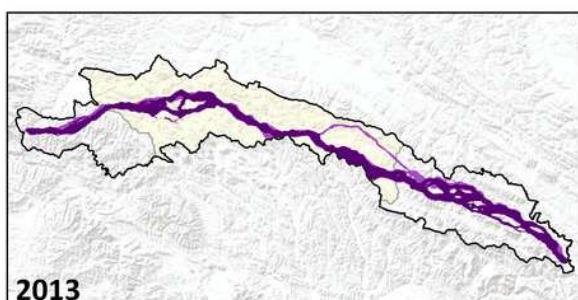
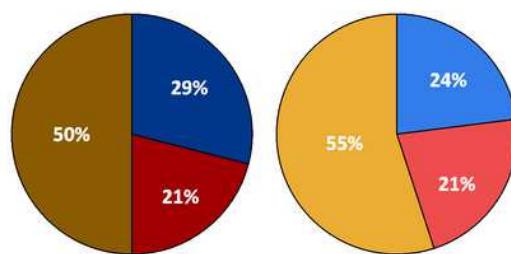
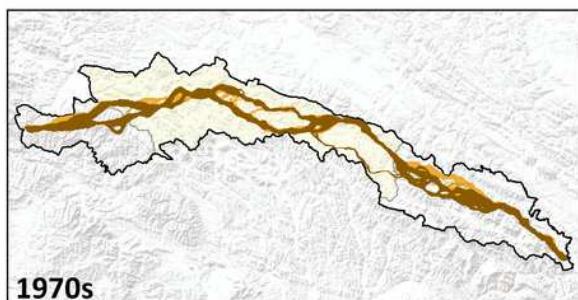
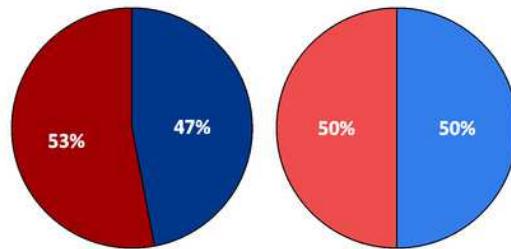
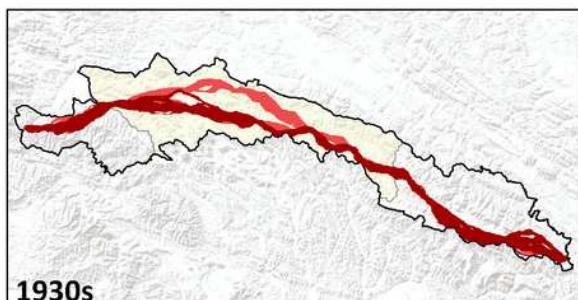
Figure 2

Fig. 2. Brown bear corridors connecting Beskid Sądecki in the west and Bieszczady in the east through the Beskid Niski Mts.

Colours represent different variants (unweighted vs. weighted) of cost surfaces and analysed time periods (1860s, 1930 s, 1970s and 2013). The same colour patterns are used in Figure 3A and Figure 4 .



Persistence of corridors in time
[% of corridors stable
relative to previous time period]:



Weighted variant:

- corridors in 1860s
- corridors in 1930s
- corridors in 1970s
- corridors in 2013

Unweighted variant:

- corridors in 1860s
- corridors in 1930s
- corridors in 1970s
- corridors in 2013

— study area boundary

■ Beskid Niski Mountains Region

0 30 60 120 km

Sources: Esri, USGS, NOAA

Figure 3

Fig. 3. Total costs in corridors related to the area of corridors (per thousand km^2) (A), proportion of forest area in corridors (B) and buildings density per km^2 (C).

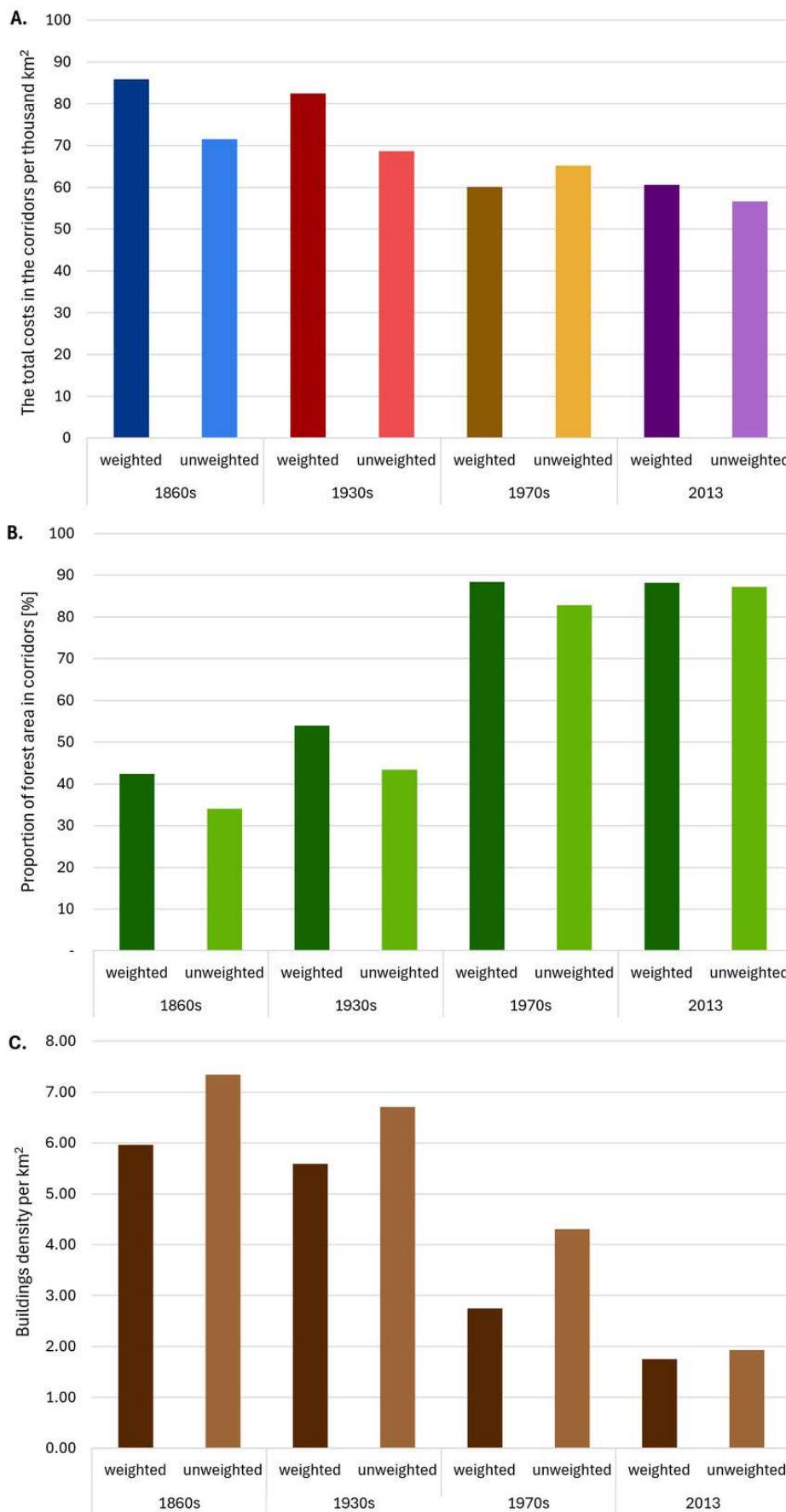


Figure 4

Fig. 4. Corridors referred to the bear presence data for 1970s and 2010s. *Sources for bear occurrence data: 1970s: (Jakubiec & Buchalczyk, 1987), 2010s: (Chapron et al., 2014).*

