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4	Spatio-temporal variations in mortality causes of
5	two migratory forest raptors
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25 Summary

26 Analysis of the 949 and 434 cases of mortality of Booted Eagle and Short-toed Snake 27 Eagle, respectively, recorded by wildlife rescue centres in Spain over a 16-year period 28 (1990–2006) shows that power lines (19.5% and 35.2%, respectively) and killing 29 (32.5% and 22.9%, respectively) were the main known causes of death. There were 30 marked within-year variations in the distribution of killing and power line casualties by 31 both species. Multinomial regression models were used to analyse geographical and 32 temporal variations in the causes of death. For the Booted Eagle, both factors (zone and 33 year) were statistically significant, while there were only significant temporal variations 34 for the Short-toed Snake Eagles. In the Booted Eagle, killing occurred more frequently 35 than expected in the east and north of the country compared to the other regions. Power 36 line casualties were significantly more frequent in the southern and eastern regions, and 37 less common in the north. In both species, the multinomial models indicate that while 38 the number of cases of killing significantly decreased during the 16 years studied, line 39 casualties increased. Our study suggests that human-induced mortality continues to be 40 the main factor contributing to non-natural mortality for Spanish Booted Eagles and 41 Short-toed Snake Eagles. Differences in the mortality causes by shooting and power 42 lines were found between sedentary and migratory raptors. Since a reduction in the 43 mortality caused by human activities is a priority in the conservation strategies for 44 raptor species, management guidelines are discussed bearing in mind several points of 45 view.

Keywords: Aquila pennata, Circaetus gallicus, Spain, mortality factors, electrocution,
persecution.

48 Introduction

49 In recent decades, biodiversity conservation actions and environmental policies 50 undertaken by the European Union have favoured an increase in European raptor 51 populations (BirdLife International 2004). However, many species are still subjected to 52 high levels of human induced mortality, mainly associated with deliberate or accidental 53 human killing, conflicts with game or livestock interests (Pedrini and Sergio 2001, 54 Whitfield et al. 2003, Hernández and Margalida 2009, Thompson et al. 2009, Valkama 55 et al. 2005, Park et al. 2008, Blanco-Aguiar et al. 2012, Pohja-Mykrä et al. 2012) or 56 accidents with human-made infrastructures, such as power lines or wind farms (Lehman 57 et al. 2007, Ferrer et al. 2012). Studying spatial and temporal variations in the causes of 58 mortality is a fundamental aspect for increasing our knowledge of population dynamics 59 prior to the implementation of management measures (Etheridge et al. 1997, Whitfield 60 et al. 2004, Margalida et al. 2008). Although radio-tracking is the most suitable method 61 for studying mortality causes in birds of prey (Kenward 1993), it is expensive in terms 62 of time and effort and often beyond the spatial scope and urgency of conservation needs 63 (Real et al. 2001). The analysis of fatalities recorded at wildlife rehabilitation centres 64 therefore emerges as a suitable alternative method that provides new contributions on the causes of mortality and allows the assessment of the health status of wild bird 65 66 populations, especially in human-induced causes (Martínez et al. 2006, Kalpakis et al. 67 2009, Rodríguez et al. 2010, Molina-López et al. 2011).

The Iberian Peninsula is a stronghold of most threatened birds of prey species in Europe (BirdLife International 2013), and much effort has been put into ascertaining the sources of threat (Real *et al.* 2001, Martínez *et al.* 2006, González *et al.* 2007, Molina-López *et al.* 2011). Most of these studies have focused on sedentary species, and few have looked at migratory species (Zwarts *et al.* 2009). Due to the migration process

73 itself, and also because mortality factors are season-related (Bildstein et al. 2006,

74 Angelov *et al.* 2013), it can be hypothesized that such species are subject to different 75 mortality factors in Europe than sedentary species.

76 The Booted Eagle Aquila pennata and the Short-toed Snake Eagle Circaetus 77 gallicus are two long-lived trans-Saharan migrant raptors which breed in Mediterranean 78 forests of the western Palearctic (Del Hoyo et al. 1994), with relevant breeding 79 populations in Spain (Birdlife International/ European Bird Census Council 2000). Both 80 are listed in Annex I of Birds Directive and their conservation status is considered as 81 Least Concern (LC), according to the categories defined by the International Union for 82 Nature Conservation (IUCN; BirdLife International 2013). Population estimates in 83 Spain are approximately 2900 and 2800 pairs, respectively (Martí and Del Moral 2003). 84 Previous studies suggest that both species are subject to high levels of human induced 85 mortality (Mañosa 2001, Martí and Del Moral 2003, García-Dios 2004). They are also 86 highly vulnerable to the impact of potential wind energy developments (BirdLife 87 International 2013). However, until now, no detailed studies have analysed spatial and 88 temporal variations in the causes of mortality of these species. The aims of this study, 89 therefore, were: (i) to ascertain the main causes of mortality of Booted Eagle and Short-90 toed Snake Eagle in Spain; (ii) to detect possible elements affecting spatio-temporal 91 patterns of mortality; and (iii) to propose management guidelines to reduce such 92 mortality.

Methods 93

94 **Data collection**

95 We examined 1383 cases (949 Booted Eagles and 434 Short-toed Snake Eagles) of 96 fatalities recorded at wildlife rehabilitation centres and birding associations across Spain 97 between 1990 and 2006. Most cases were examined by veterinary pathologists to 98

determine the cause of death and injury. For each recorded case we used, whenever

99 possible, the information contained in individual reports: the cause of injury or death, 100 locality, date, age class and sex. The causes of death were registered according to the 101 following five categories and were considered as mortality factors regardless of the fact 102 that any birds did not die but were rehabilitated and released back to the wild 103 (Xirouchakis 2004): 1) killing, including shooting, nest-robbery, trapping, captivity and 104 poisoning or intoxication; 2) power line casualties, including electrocution or collision 105 with power lines; 3) other anthropogenic causes, including drowning, collision with 106 game fences, car crash, trauma of unknown origin and other (reaping machine, found 107 inside a building); 4) natural causes (starvation, chicks fallen from nests, diseases and 108 predation); and 5) unknown.

109 To describe the geographic variation in the causes of mortality, Spain was 110 divided into four zones, each one corresponding to a particular combination of 111 environmental and socio-economic factors: South (Andalusia), East (Autonomous 112 Community of Valencia, Región de Murcia, Catalonia and the Balearic Islands), Centre 113 Community (Autonomous of Madrid. Castile-La Mancha, Castile-Léon and 114 Extremadura) and North (Galicia, Asturias, Basque Country and La Rioja).

115 To describe the within-year variations in mortality in Booted Eagles and Short-116 toed Snake Eagles, the causes of death were analysed on a per month basis.

117 Statistical analyses

To investigate the factors influencing variations in mortality causes, we modelled "*cause*" as a nominal response variable with four classes: *killing*, *power lines*, *other anthropogenic* and *natural*. A multinomial regression analysis (Venables and Ripley 2002) and Type II likelihood-ratio tests (Fox and Weisberg 2011) were then performed to examine the significance of two potential explanatory variables: zone and year

123 (treating the first as factor and the last as quantitative). Multinomial regression is a

simple extension of binary logistic regression that allows for more than two categories of the dependent variable, and is considered suitable for analysing multiway contingency tables. The analyses were performed using the "nnet" (Venables and Ripley 2002) and "car" (Fox and Weisberg 2011) packages in R version 3.1.1 (R Core Team 2014).

129 **Results**

130 Causes of mortality

131 Of the 1383 cases of mortality, it was possible to determine the cause of death in 73.1% 132 of the individuals of both species. For the Booted Eagle, the three major causes of death 133 were distributed as follows (Fig. 1; Table 1): 1) other anthropogenic causes (34.4%), 134 with trauma of unknown origin (21.2%) prevailing over car crash (2.6%), drowning 135 (2.3%) and fences (1.7%); 2) killing (32.5%), with shooting (19.5%) prevailing over 136 nest robbery or captivity (9.7%), trapping (1.7%) and poison/intoxication (1.6%); and 3) 137 power line casualties (19.5%), with electrocution (15.3%) prevailing over collision 138 (1.1%).

For the Short-toed Snake Eagle, the major causes of death were (Fig. 1; Table 2): **1**) power line casualties (35.2%), with electrocution (25.8%) prevailing over collision (5.5%); **2**) other anthropogenic causes (28.7%), with trauma of unknown origin (19%) prevailing over car crash (2.3%), drowning (1.6%) and fences (0.3%); and **3**) killing (22.9%), with shooting (12.9%), prevailing over nest robbery or captivity (7.4%), trapping (1.6%) and poison/intoxication (1%).

145 Within-year distribution in causes of mortality

146 There were monthly variations in mortality resulting from killing (Fig. 2) and power147 lines (Fig. 3). As expected for both species, high frequencies of shooting were observed

during the hunting season (August-February), but shooting persisted outside the hunting

149 season (March-July). Nest robbery or captivity principally occurred in July-August for 150 both species. Trapping occurred in June and during the hunting season (August-151 November) for the Booted Eagle, whereas for the Short-toed Snake Eagle trapping 152 mainly occurred in July and during the hunting season (August-November). Poisoning 153 mainly occurred during May-July and the hunting season (September and December) 154 for Booted Eagles and during August-September for Short-toed Snake Eagles.

Electrocution showed low values for both species during the January-March period, and high peaks between July and September (Fig. 3). Collisions with power lines were lower during January-April.

158 Geographical distribution of causes of mortality

159 For the Booted Eagle (Fig. 4a), other anthropogenic causes were responsible for the 160 highest number of deaths in South (40.7%) and Centre (38.6%). Killing was responsible 161 for the highest number of deaths in East (40.5%) and North (37.5%), and power lines 162 casualties were the main cause of death in South (22.7%) and East (22.3%). The 163 multinomial analysis for this species showed that these geographical differences were statistically significant (χ^2 likelihood ratio = 43.39; d. f. = 9; P < 0.001; Table 3). In 164 165 contrast, no significant differences between zones were found for the Short-toed Snake Eagle (γ^2 likelihood ratio = 8.76; d. f. = 9; P < 0.460; Table 3; Fig. 4b). 166

167 Evolution of the cause of mortality over time

The multinomial regression analyses for both species showed significant variations in the causes of death over time (Table 3, Fig. 5). The proportion of deaths caused by killing suffered a pronounced decline over time for both species, while the proportion of fatalities related to power lines increased notably, especially in the case of the Shorttoed Snake Eagle. The interaction term *zone* \times *year* was not statistically significant in

173 any case (Table 3).

174 **Discussion**

175 In agreement with the results obtained for other raptors and owl species in Spain (Real 176 et al. 2001, Martínez et al. 2006, González et al. 2007, Margalida et al. 2008, Tenan et 177 al. 2012), our results showed that mortality causes in the Spanish population of both 178 studied species were still closely related to direct persecution and power line casualties. 179 Persecution is a major problem for raptors even in other European countries (Smart et 180 al. 2010, Mustin et al. 2011, Martínez-Abraín et al. 2013, Elston et al. 2014). Shooting 181 was the first and the second most important cause of death for Booted Eagle and Short-182 toed Snake Eagle, although the incidence was less common than that found in other 183 sedentary eagle such as the Bonelli's Eagle (Aquila fasciata) in Spain (Real et al. 2001). 184 These differences could be associated with a higher proportion of game birds 185 (principally Red-legged Partridges) and rabbits in Bonelli's Eagle diets (Moleón et al. 186 2009). In these sedentary eagle, one of the most important underlying causes is non-187 natural mortality directly related to hunting and game management (Real 2004). In 188 contrast, birds and reptiles are the principal groups taken for migratory eagles in Spain 189 (Gil and Pleguezuelos 2001, Martínez and Calvo 2005, García-Dios 2006, Petretti 190 2008), so it is striking that they are shot even though they are not a risk to game. Even 191 though birds of prey are legally protected under Spanish and European law, shooting is 192 still a major concern mainly due to conflicts with hunters (Valkama et al. 2005, Bro et 193 al. 2006, Kenward 2006, Martínez et al. 2006, Margalida et al. 2008, Amar et al. 2012), 194 especially in the case of Bonelli's Eagle (Real et al. 2001) despite a recent study showed 195 that the potential role of this large eagle as a limiting factor for partridges and rabbits at 196 the population scale was very poor (Moleón et al. 2011). Until recently, it was generally

197 believed that killing raptors was opportunistic, i.e. it took place during the hunting

198 season and was not deliberately aimed at reducing the raptor predation (Viñuela and 199 Arroyo 2002). However, our results indicate that although the maximum incidence of 200 shooting was detected during the first weeks of hunting season, it also occurred outside 201 this period, during the breeding season (March to July). These results suggest that 202 killing birds of prey is proactive (Fig. 2).

203 Our results indicate that sedentary eagles are more likely to die from power lines 204 than migratory eagles (Real et al. 2001, González et al. 2007). Spanish Imperial Eagle 205 and Bonelli's Eagle use predominantly treeless and open areas with high densities of 206 rabbits, coincident with areas with a higher degree of human exploitation and the 207 presence of a high number of power lines (Guil et al. 2011, 2015), unlike the ranges 208 occupied by migratory eagles characterized by most forested areas and with lower 209 degree of human occupation and fewer power lines (Mañosa 2003). Thus, differences in 210 the mortality causes by shooting and power lines were found between migratory and 211 sedentary raptors.

212 The captivity of birds of prey is currently an important reason for birds being 213 admitted to wildlife rehabilitation centres in Spain (Molina-López et al. 2011). Our 214 results indicate that this illegal practice affected individuals of both species, which were 215 probably captured when they were nestlings and fledglings (principally July-August) 216 and held as pets in captivity (Molina-López et al. 2011). The trapping of individuals of 217 both raptor species principally occurred during the hunting season (August-November) 218 and may be a result of opportunistic killing in traps of generalist meso-predators on 219 hunting estates.

220 The use and abuse of phytosanitary substances and other poisons to kill 221 predators of small game and domestic animals is still frequent and widespread in Spain

222 (Mateo-Tomás et al. 2012, Tenan et al. 2012, Márquez et al. 2013) and other regions of

223 Europe (Mañosa 2002, Guitart et al. 2010). Previous studies have also shown that 224 deliberate poisoning may be an important cause of death in Booted Eagles but not 225 Short-toed Snake Eagles (Mañosa 2002, Viada and De Pablo 2009, Márquez et al. 226 2013). Our results suggest that poisoning occurs mainly in late spring and during the 227 summer, before the start of the hunting season, which suggest that it is a measure used 228 against generalist predators (Márquez et al. 2013). Nevertheless, our study suggests that 229 both species are being affected by this practice, although with a low incidence. This 230 result is interesting since neither species exhibits scavenging habits (Del Hoyo et al. 231 1994), so that both species may be poisoned by eating live bait impregnated with toxic 232 substances.

233 Electrocution by power lines is one of the principal problems facing raptors and 234 other medium and large-sized birds at global scale (Ferrer and Janss 1999, Lehman et 235 al. 2007, Pérez-García et al. 2011) and one of the threats to the conservation of both 236 study species in Spain (Martí and Del Moral 2003). Power line casualties were recorded 237 in every month of the year in both species but they were most frequent during July and 238 September (Fig. 3), affecting both breeding individuals and less experienced juveniles. 239 In addition, this cause of death affects individuals of both species outside the breeding 240 season, especially during wintering in the Spanish Mediterranean regions (Martínez and 241 Sánchez-Zapata 1999).

242 Likewise, our results indicate that Short-toed Snake Eagles suffer 243 proportionately more accidents with power lines than Booted Eagles, which agrees with 244 previous studies in which Short-toed Snake Eagle was seen to be one of the raptor most 245 affected by electrocution (Mañosa 2001, Moleón et al. 2007, Tintó et al. 2010, Guil et 246 al. 2011). The foraging behaviour is not sufficiently known in either species, but the

248 from the air using diverse techniques, descending from a perch being a little used 249 alternative (Cramp and Simmons 1980, Bakaloudis 2010). However, these observations 250 contrast with the high number of electrocutions recorded for both species in our study, 251 which leads us to suspect that both species use electricity pylons more frequently than 252 was previously thought. Previous studies have shown a differential susceptibility of 253 birds to electrocution which may be consequence of their feeding habits, morphological 254 traits and behaviour (Janss 2000, Guil et al. 2015). Thus, we suspect that Short-toed 255 Snake Eagles would be more susceptibility to suffer accidents in power lines than 256 Booted Eagles because of their greater use of electric pylons and size. In fact, large 257 raptors exhibit higher electrocution rates due to their greater biomass and wingspan 258 (Lehman et al. 2007, López-López et al. 2011).

The factors zone and year explained the variation in causes of mortality in Booted Eagles, whereas the year was the only significant factor for Short-toed Snake Eagles. In the Booted Eagle, killing tended to be significantly higher in the east and north of Spain than in the other two zones. Previous studies focusing on other birds of prey such as Bonelli's Eagle and Eagle Owl (*Bubo bubo*) reported a higher incidence of persecution in the north and east than in other Spanish regions (Real *et al.* 2001, Martínez *et al.* 2006).

In contrast, power line casualties tended to be higher in the East and South than in the other two zones (Fig. 4a), possibly due to the increase in electrification in rural areas during recent decades and, especially, the substitution of olive groves by irrigated crops in Andalusia (Madero 2008) and the expansion of infrastructures in the east of Spain (Symeonakis *et al.* 2007, López-Iborra *et al.* 2011). A recent study has shown that there are electrocution-prone species which are more common in semi-urban habitats

(Guil et al. 2015). Palomino and Carrascal (2007) found that urban development had a

273 positive influence on the Booted Eagle, probably through an increase in the availability 274 on its potential prey within urban areas. A third explanation involves that Booted Eagle 275 accidents may occur in areas where monitoring and correcting of power lines are not 276 carried out, principally outside protected areas in East Spain (Pérez-García et al. 2011). 277 These authors found that most electrocution casualties occurred outside Special 278 Protection Area (SPA) boundaries, probably because of the higher density of both 279 power lines and susceptible birds, and the use of pylons for perching and roosting in 280 areas surrounding the SPA. Recent studies have shown how Booted Eagles breeding 281 within protected areas frequently use hunting areas outside them (Martínez et al. 2007, 282 Migra 2014).

283 The temporal factor (year) explained the variation in causes of mortality in both 284 species (Fig. 5). Accidents involved power lines and other infrastructures showed an 285 increasing trend in the case of the Booted Eagle while persecution exhibited a 286 decreasing tendency. This result is similar to that obtained for other Spanish vertebrates 287 over the period 1990-2006 (Fajardo 2001, Real et al. 2001, Martínez et al. 2006, 288 Margalida et al. 2008, Martínez-Abraín et al. 2013, Guil et al. 2015). According to 289 Martínez-Abraín et al. (2009, 2013) this situation is reflected by: (i) the relative increase 290 in infrastructures in the last 20 years clearly reflects the rapid and deep change in 291 Spanish socio-economic indicators, with most people gathered in cities, far from the 292 rural world, and (ii) the decrease in hunting pressure resulting from the decrease in 293 hunting licences issued annually in Spain. However, time trends in wildlife mortality 294 rates by man-made infrastructures might be not constant (López-López et al. 2011, 295 Martínez-Abraín et al. 2013). Thus, we assumed that time trends in Booted Eagles and 296 Short-toed Snake Eagles electrocution rates could undergo a decrease trend from 2006

- (Guil et al. 2015), due to an increase in retrofitting the most dangerous power lines and
- 298 regulation enactment implemented in Spain.

299 Management implications: persecution and power lines

300 The findings of this study have several implications. Most importantly, in spite of legal 301 enforcement and the efforts of conservation agencies and the progress made in the last 302 two decades in Spain, anthropogenic causes of mortality are still operating in most of 303 the range areas of the Booted Eagle and Short-toed Snake Eagle. Action plans should be 304 encouraged to minimize the number of cases of persecution and accidents with power 305 lines. Direct persecution persists over a 16 year period (1990-2006) in Spain, especially 306 in the form of shooting, poisoning and trapping in hunting estates and private lands 307 (Márquez et al. 2013, Martínez-Abraín et al. 2013). In this respect, the implementation 308 of public education programmes might have a positive effect on reducing the mortality 309 by these causes (Martí and Del Moral 2003). Likewise, in order to reduce the illegal use 310 of poison, which may be the main cause of death in some populations (Carrete et al. 311 2007, Margalida et al. 2008, Tavecchia et al. 2012) and the extinction of highly 312 susceptible predators (Márquez et al. 2013), it might be interesting to include measures 313 complementary to prevention, surveillance and punishment for this type of crime, such 314 us research into potential techniques to reduce the damage caused by generalist 315 predators but which are compatible with the conservation of endangered species 316 (González et al. 2007). Finally, the correction of dangerous power line and the 317 subsequent evaluation of the efficiency of the measures taken must be priority measures 318 in order to minimize bird accidents involving power lines (Tintó et al. 2010, López-319 López et al. 2011, Guil et al. 2015).

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	South	East				Centre				North				
		Community		Region of		Community	Castilla-La	Castilla-				Basque	La	
	Andalusia	of Valencia	Catalonia	Murcia	Baleares	of Madrid	Mancha	León	Extremadura	Galicia	Asturias	Country	Rioja	Total
Killing														
Shooting	15	64	19	3	1	10	0	8	3	1	0	9	4	137
Nest robbery or captivity	16	16	4	5	2	9	0	2	11	0	0	1	2	68
Trapping	1	6	0	1	0	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	12
Poison/intoxication	4	1	0	2	0	2	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	11
Total	36	87	23	11	3	25	0	11	14	1	0	10	7	228
Power lines														
Collision	1	1	1	0	1	1	0	1	2	0	0	0	0	8
Electrocution	30	28	8	9	2	17	2	1	8	0	0	0	2	107
Unknown	3	18	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	22
Total	34	47	9	9	3	18	2	3	10	0	0	0	2	137
Other anthropogenic causes														
Drowning	2	6	0	0	6	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	16
Fences	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	10	0	0	0	0	12
Car crash	2	0	1	0	1	1	0	3	5	0	0	1	4	18
Trauma (unknown origin)	49	28	13	6	2	19	0	22	8	0	0	1	1	149
Other	8	11	3	5	3	2	0	0	4	4	0	4	2	46
Total	61	45	17	12	13	22	0	25	29	4	0	6	7	241
Natural causes														
Starvation	10	7	0	5	6	9	0	3	3	0	0	3	4	50
Other	9	4	0	0	5	7	0	4	12	0	0	3	1	45
Total	19	11	0	5	11	16	0	7	15	0	0	6	5	95
Unknown	25	55	2	14	3	25	9	11	103	0	1	0	0	248
Total	175	245	51	51	33	106	11	57	171	5	1	22	21	949

Table 1. Causes of death of Booted Eagle in Spain between 1990 and 2006. Data are expressed as number of cases

	South	East				Centre				North				
		Community		Region of		Community	Castilla-La	Castilla-				Basque	La	
	Andalusia	of Valencia	Catalonia	Murcia	Baleares	of Madrid	Mancha	León	Extremadura	Galicia	Asturias	Country	Rioja	Total
Killing														
Shooting	5	20	5	1	0	1	C)	1 3	0	0	2	2	40
Nest robbery or captivity	10	8	1	0	0	1	C) 2	2 0	0	0	0	1	23
Trapping	1	3	0	0	0	1	C) (0 0	0	0	0	0	5
Poison/intoxication	0	1	1	0	0	0	C)	1 0	0	0	0	0	3
Total	16	32	7	1	0	3	C) .	4 3	0	0	2	3	71
Power lines														
Collision	1	2	4	1	0	1	C)	2 0	1	0	1	4	17
Electrocution	28	16	18	4	0	7	C)	2 3	0	0	0	2	80
Unknown	1	10	0	0	0	0	C) (0 0	0	0	1	0	12
Total	30	28	22	5	0	8	C) .	4 3	1	0	2	6	109
Other anthropogenic causes														
Drowning	0	4	0	0	0	0	C) (0 1	0	0	0	0	5
Fences	0	0	1	0	0	0	C) (0 0	0	0	0	0	1
Car crash	0	0	0	0	0	0	C)	2 1	0	0	0	4	7
Trauma (unknown origin)	11	12	21	2	0	3	C) ,	7 0	0	0	0	3	59
Other	6	6	0	2	0	0	1		0 1	0	0	1	0	17
Total	17	22	22	4	0	3	1		9 3	0	0	1	7	89
Natural causes														
Starvation	5	4	3	3	0	1	C)	3 0	0	0	4	1	24
Other natural causes	7	1	4	0	0	0	C)	1 3	0	0	1	0	17
Total	12	5	7	3	0	1	C) .	4 3	0	0	5	1	41
Unknown	20	21	11	13	0	8	7	, .	4 39	0	0	1	0	124
Total	95	108	69	26	0	23	8	3 2	5 51	1	0	11	17	434

Table 2. Causes of death of Short-toed Snake Eagle in Spain between 1990 and 2006. Data are expressed as number of cases.

Table 3. Summary of the multinomial regression models used to explain the causes of death of Booted Eagle *Aquila pennata* and Short-toed Snake Eagle *Circaetus gallicus* between 1990 and 2006 in Spain.

Species / factor	d. f.	χ^2 likelihood ratio	Р
Aquila pennata			
zone	9	43.39	< 0.001
year	3	22.43	< 0.001
$zone \times year$	9	4.51	0.875
Circaetus gallicus			
zone	9	8.76	0.460
year	3	33.11	< 0.001
$zone \times year$	9	11.86	0.221

Figure 1. Observed major causes of mortality in Booted Eagle and Short-toed Snake Eagle. Vertical lines represent 95% confidence intervals.

Figure 2. Monthly distribution of Booted Eagle (a) and Short-toed Snake Eagle deaths (b) due to killing.

Figure 3. Monthly distribution of Booted Eagle (a) and Short-toed Snake Eagle (b) deaths due to power line casualties.

Figure 4. Observed major causes of mortality of Booted Eagle (a) and Short-toed Snake Eagle (b) in relation to the four geographical zones considered (South, East, Centre and North of Spain). Vertical lines represent 95% confidence intervals.

Figure 5. Evolution of the causes of mortality of Booted Eagle (a) and Short-toed Snake Eagle (b) between 1990 and 2006 in Spain. The lines represent the trends in proportions estimated by the multinomial regression model for each species.









Figure 3









