

1 **Causes, temporal trends and the effects of urbanisation on admissions of wild raptors to**  
2 **rehabilitation centres in England and Wales**

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13 **ABSTRACT**

14 Data from wildlife rehabilitation centres can provide on-the-ground records of causes of  
15 raptor morbidity and mortality, allowing threat patterns to be explored throughout time and  
16 space. We provide an overview of native raptor admissions to four wildlife rehabilitation  
17 centres (WRCs) in England and Wales, quantifying the main causes of morbidity and  
18 mortality, trends over time and whether certain causes were more common in more urbanised  
19 areas between 2001-2019. Throughout the study period 14 raptor species were admitted  
20 totalling 3305 admission records. The Common Buzzard (*Buteo buteo*; 31%) and Tawny Owl  
21 (*Strix aluco*; 29%) were most numerous. Relative to the proportion of breeding individuals in  
22 Britain & Ireland, Peregrine Falcons (*Falco peregrinus*), Little Owls (*Athene noctua*) and  
23 Western Barn Owls (*Tyto alba*) were over-represented in the admissions data by 103%, 73%

24 and 69%, respectively. Contrastingly Northern Long-eared Owls (*Asio otus*), Western Marsh  
25 Harriers (*Circus aeruginosus*) and Merlin (*Falco columbarius*) were under-represented by  
26 187%, 163% and 126%, respectively. Across all species, vehicle collisions were the most  
27 frequent anthropogenic admission cause (22%) and orphaned young birds (10%) were most  
28 frequent natural admission cause. Mortality rate was highest for infection/parasite admissions  
29 (90%), whereas orphaned birds experienced lowest mortality rates (16%). For one WRC,  
30 there was a notable decline in admissions over the study period. Red Kite (*Milvus milvus*)  
31 admissions increased over time, whereas Common Buzzard and Common Kestrel admissions  
32 declined. There were significant declines in the relative proportion of persecution and  
33 metabolic admissions, and an increase in orphaned young birds. Urban areas were positively  
34 associated with persecution, building collisions and unknown trauma admissions, whereas  
35 vehicle collisions were associated with more rural areas. Many threats persist for raptors in  
36 England and Wales, however, have not changed substantially over the past two decades.  
37 Threats associated with urban areas, such as building collisions, may increase over time in  
38 line with human population growth and subsequent urban expansion.

### 39 **KEYWORDS**

40 Birds of prey, conservation, mortality, morbidity, threats, wildlife rescue centres,  
41 rehabilitation

### 42 **DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT**

43 Data associated with this study will be available via <https://github.com/ConnorPanter>.

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## 47 INTRODUCTION

48 Diurnal and nocturnal raptors are frequently used as ecological indicators due to their high  
49 positions within trophic networks (Buechley *et al.* 2019). Raptor species face a number of  
50 threats from anthropogenic activities such as direct and indirect poisoning (Hughes *et al.*  
51 2013; Garvin *et al.* 2020), electrocution on powerlines (Lehman *et al.* 2007), road collisions  
52 (Gagné *et al.* 2015) and human persecution (Smart *et al.* 2010; Murgatroyd *et al.* 2019, Panter  
53 *et al.* 2021). For effective conservation programmes, the key detrimental impacts of  
54 anthropogenic activities need to be identified and evidenced-based conservation measures  
55 implemented to alleviate these threats (Holmes *et al.* 1993; Richardson & Miller 1997;  
56 Hernandez *et al.* 2018).

57 Several methods have been applied to quantify the effects of anthropogenic activities on  
58 raptors. Such approaches include screening for organic pollutants and contaminants (López *et al.*  
59 *et al.* 2001; Chen *et al.* 2010), monitoring the dynamics of the illicit wildlife trade (Panter &  
60 White 2020), analysis of powerline collisions data (Bevanger 1998; Kolnegari *et al.* 2020),  
61 monitoring via remote tracking devices (Kendall & Virani 2012; McIntyre 2012; Panter *et al.*  
62 2020, 2021) and wildlife rehabilitation admissions data (see Fix & Barrows 1990; Morishita  
63 *et al.* 1998; Wendell *et al.* 2002; Komnenou *et al.* 2005; Rodríguez *et al.* 2010; Molina-López  
64 *et al.* 2011; Molina-López & Darwich 2011; Thompson *et al.* 2013; Al Zoubi *et al.* 2020).

65 Raptor data from wildlife rehabilitation centres provide on-the-ground records of causes of  
66 morbidity and mortality and have been used to evaluate the health status of wild populations  
67 (Morishita *et al.* 1998; Wendell *et al.* 2002) and to explore trends in anthropogenic threats  
68 over time (Molina-López *et al.* 2011; Thompson *et al.* 2013). Rehabilitation and subsequent  
69 release of individuals back into the wild can help to buffer the negative effects of  
70 anthropogenic activities, especially for species of conservation concern (Mullineaux 2014;

71 Montesdeoca *et al.* 2017a; Hernandez *et al.* 2018; Romero *et al.* 2019; Thomson *et al.* 2020;  
72 Dessalvi *et al.* 2021).

73 While several previous studies have explored morbidity and mortality of raptors based on  
74 admissions data to rehabilitations centres, most of these were based on data from a single  
75 centre, limiting their ability to explore patterns in admission causes over larger spatial scales.

76 To our knowledge no studies have attempted to explore whether causes of morbidity or  
77 mortality differ depending on environmental features and very few have been conducted in  
78 the United Kingdom. For example, Kelly & Bland (2006) analysed admissions, diagnoses and  
79 outcomes of raptors admitted to a centre in England, focusing on a single species - the  
80 Eurasian Sparrowhawk (*Accipiter nisus*).

81 In this study, we compile and analyse raptor admissions data from four wildlife rehabilitation  
82 centres in western/south-western England and Wales. Firstly, we provide an overview of  
83 raptor admissions over a 19-year period (2001-2019), quantifying the most frequently  
84 admitted species and the main causes. We then explore whether numbers of commonly  
85 admitted species, and the types (anthropogenic vs natural) or causes of admission have  
86 changed over time for one rehabilitation centre, for which we had the longest run of data.

87 Over the study period, urban cover in England and Wales has increased (Office for National  
88 Statistics 2021). Therefore, we predict an increase in anthropogenic admissions as a result of  
89 increasing human population growth and urban expansion over time (Seto *et al.* 2012).

90 Certain threats may also have changed over time, for example over the study period the  
91 number of vehicles in England and Wales has increased (Department of Transport 2020), and  
92 subsequent raptor-vehicle collisions may also have increased over time. Finally, we expect  
93 that causes of admission will vary depending on the level of urbanisation. For example, we  
94 might expect that urbanisation increases the probability of admissions due to building or  
95 vehicle collisions in line with previous findings (Loss *et al.* 2014; Garcês *et al.* 2020).

96 Therefore, we explore whether the level of urbanisation (where the individual birds were  
97 found) is associated with higher probabilities of certain admission causes.

98

## 99 **METHODS**

### 100 *Study area*

101 We collated admission records of native raptors admitted to wildlife rehabilitation centres  
102 (WRC) located within a study area totalling *c.* 46,000 km<sup>2</sup> in south-western Britain (Fig. 1).  
103 The landscape within our study area is dominated by agriculture but also includes the major  
104 cities of Greater Manchester, Birmingham, Bristol and Cardiff which have populations of *c.*  
105 2.8 million, 2.6 million, 690,000 and 495,000 people, respectively (United Nations 2014). Our  
106 study area also includes the Brecon Beacons National Park, seven ‘Areas of Outstanding  
107 Natural Beauty’ (AONB) and numerous ‘Sites of Special Scientific Interest’ (SSSI) including  
108 the West Pennine Moors, Wyre Forest and the Quantock Hills.

### 109 *Data collection*

110 Wildlife rehabilitation centres were invited to participate in the study via email  
111 correspondence. Four WRC supplied data on raptor admissions to their centres: Cuan Wildlife  
112 Rescue (lat/long: 52.590, -2.573), Gower Bird Hospital (51.580, -4.099), Secret World  
113 Wildlife Rescue (51.206, -2.964) and Wild Wings Birds of Prey (53.444, -2.522). From their  
114 admissions records the following data were collected for each individual admitted: 1) species,  
115 2) sex (male/female), 3) age (juvenile/adult; <1 calendar year/>1cy), 4) admission date, 5)  
116 cause of admission, 6) location of incident (at the finest spatial scale available) and 7)  
117 outcome (deceased/released/kept in captivity). These data spanned a 19-year period from 21<sup>st</sup>  
118 January 2001 to 26<sup>th</sup> December 2019.

119 ***Classifying causes of morbidity and mortality***

120 To increase comparability with other studies, classification of admission causes followed  
121 categories previously defined by existing studies (see Molina-López *et al.* 2011; Molina-  
122 López & Darwich 2011). Upon admission, birds were examined by trained wildlife carers and  
123 the admission notes associated with each record were used to assign each admission to the  
124 following ‘types’ (‘ANTHROPOGENIC’, ‘NATURAL’ and ‘UNKNOWN’) and more  
125 detailed ‘causes’ (see supplementary Appendix A for an overview of all admission types,  
126 causes, codes and pooled miscellaneous causes). When causes could not be ascertained,  
127 admission type was categorised as ‘UNKNOWN’ which, included the causes: ‘undetermined’  
128 (reason unknown and no injury to bird) and ‘unknown trauma’ (reason unknown but the bird  
129 was physically injured).

130 ***Landscape and demographic variables***

131 To explore urbanisation effects on types and causes of raptor admissions, we used only the  
132 geo-referenced admissions (N = 1915). For these, we extracted land cover data and calculated  
133 the proportion of urban habitat within a 2 km buffer. Land cover data was downloaded on 30<sup>th</sup>  
134 April 2020 from the EDINA Environment Digimap Service (Land Cover Map 2015;  
135 <https://digimap.edina.ac.uk/>). Land cover data was derived from the ‘LCM2015’ dataset in  
136 raster format at 25 m resolution, which closely aligned with the timescale of the majority of  
137 the admissions. All spatial data extraction were performed in QGIS 3.12.3 with the GRASS  
138 7.4.1 extension (QGIS Development Team 2019). We reclassified the land cover data using  
139 the *r.reclass* function and a new binary raster layer was created (1 = ‘urban’ + ‘suburban’ and  
140 0 = all other land cover types). Summary statistics were then computed using the base  
141 function *Zonal Statistics* to calculate percentage urban cover within each 2 km buffer.

142 ***Statistical analysis***

143 All statistical analyses were performed in R version 3.6.3 (R Core Team, 2020). Data were  
144 analysed using Generalized Linear Models (GLMs) with either binomial (for binary models) or  
145 Poisson (for count data) distributions, and the respective canonical link functions (See Appendix  
146 B for list of models). For binomial data, we fitted a two-vector response variable using the  
147 `cbind` function. For Poisson GLMs where overdispersion was detected we fitted the models  
148 with a quasi-Poisson distribution.

149 We explored mortality (binary: 1 = bird died or was euthanised termed ‘deceased’ and 0 =  
150 bird released or kept captive termed ‘not deceased’) as a response variable, with explanatory  
151 variables of either admission type or cause. We explore trends over time using only data from  
152 Gower Bird Hospital as it was the only WRC with the longest run of data. Using these data,  
153 we fitted year as the explanatory variable and fitted a series of separate GLMs with the  
154 following response variables: 1) total count of admission each year, irrespective of cause and  
155 including unknown causes (Poisson model). 2) Total count of admission each year for the  
156 seven most frequently admitted species (with  $\geq 30$  admissions). 3) Relative proportion, per  
157 year, of admission causes (with  $\geq 30$  admissions). 4) admission type, anthropogenic or natural  
158 (binomial model).

159 The effects of urbanisation on types and causes of admissions were explored using a series of  
160 GLMMs in the package ‘lme4’ (Bates *et al.* 2015). For each admission, a binary metric was  
161 created (1 = matching admission type and 0 = no match) for each admission type (i.e.,  
162 anthropogenic, natural or unknown), or admission cause (where there were  $\geq 30$  admissions,  
163 i.e., vehicle collisions, trauma, undetermined, orphaned, building collisions, metabolic,  
164 infections/parasites and persecution). These models were then run with ‘binary admission  
165 type/cause’ fitted as the response term and ‘% urban land cover’ fitted as the explanatory  
166 term. We used binomial error distributions and ‘logit’ link functions with ‘centreID’ included

167 as a random term to control for the lack of independence between admissions from the same  
168 centre (Appendix B).

169 We examined whether certain species were over- and under-represented within our  
170 admissions data by calculating the percentage difference between the relative proportion of  
171 breeding individuals in Britain and Ireland, and the proportion of admitted individuals, per  
172 species, to each WRC. Breeding population data were derived from the British Trust for  
173 Ornithology's BirdFacts database (Robinson 2005; [https://www.bto.org/understanding-](https://www.bto.org/understanding-birds/birdfacts)  
174 [birds/birdfacts](https://www.bto.org/understanding-birds/birdfacts)).

175

## 176 **RESULTS**

177 Across the 19-year study period, we recorded a total of 3305 admissions, comprising of 14  
178 species, (Table 1), with 1919 (58%) of admissions being diurnal species and 1386 (42%)  
179 being nocturnal species. The diurnal raptors comprised of nine species, the Common Buzzard  
180 (*Buteo buteo*) (N = 1035; 31%) being the most frequently admitted species, followed by the  
181 Eurasian Sparrowhawk (*Accipiter nisus*) (N = 457; 14%) and then the Common Kestrel  
182 (*Falco tinnunculus*) (N = 269; 8%). The Tawny Owl (*Strix aluco*) (N = 967; 29%) was the  
183 second most frequently admitted of all species and the most frequently admitted nocturnal  
184 species, followed by the Western Barn Owl (*Tyto alba*) (N = 283; 9%) and the Little Owl  
185 (*Athene noctua*) (N = 118; 4%).

186 Only 761 (23%) admitted birds were successfully sexed, of these 47% were males and 53%  
187 were females. Age was determined for 2893 (88%) admissions with adults (>1cy)  
188 representing 60% and juveniles (<1cy) 40% of these aged individuals (Table 1).

### 189 *Admission types and causes*



190 Unknown admission types were the most numerous comprising nearly half of all admissions  
191 (n=1510; 46%), followed by anthropogenic (n=1215; 37%) then natural causes (n=580; 17%;  
192 Table 2). Classifying admissions by the more detailed ‘causes’ revealed 855 (26%) of all  
193 admissions were associated with ‘unknown trauma’ (Table 2). The most frequent  
194 anthropogenic admission cause was ‘vehicle collisions’ (n=732; 22% of all admissions; 60%  
195 of anthropogenic admissions). For natural admissions, orphaned young birds was the most  
196 frequent cause (n= 315; 10% of all admissions, 54% of natural admissions; Table 2).

197 When exploring only identified admission causes (excluding all unknown admission causes),  
198 vehicle collisions were the most common cause for five species including the Common  
199 Buzzard (56%; N = 262/464), Red Kite (*Milvus milvus*; 53%; 9/17), Eurasian Hobby (*Falco*  
200 *subbuteo*; 50%; 4/8), Tawny Owl (44%; 290/665) and Western Barn Owl (40%; 66/165)  
201 (Table 2). For the two most admitted diurnal species, the Common Buzzard and Eurasian  
202 Sparrowhawk, unknown trauma was the most common admission cause (Fig. 2). Main  
203 admission causes for Tawny Owls were vehicle collisions and orphaned young birds,  
204 comprising 40% and 49% of admissions, respectively (Table 2; Fig. 2).

205 Juvenile birds were approximately four times more likely to be admitted due to natural  
206 admissions than adults (430 vs. 112 admissions, respectively), and one and half times more  
207 likely to be admitted due to metabolic causes, e.g., emaciation or starvation, (79 vs. 54  
208 admissions, respectively). Orphaned young birds totalled 10% (315) of all admissions and  
209 were the most frequent known admission cause for the Common Kestrel (14%; 38/269), Little  
210 Owl (29%; 34/118) and Peregrine Falcon (*Falco peregrinus*; 12%; 10/84) (Table 2).

### 211 ***Outcome of admissions***

212 From all admissions, 60% resulted in the death or euthanasia of the bird, 39% resulted in the  
213 release of the bird and just 1% of birds were kept in captivity post-admission (Table 3). Those

214 admitted for anthropogenic reasons had a significantly higher mortality rate (57%) than those  
215 admitted for natural reasons (40%) ( $z = 6.483$ ,  $P < 0.0001$ ) (Fig 3a; Table 3; Appendix C).  
216 Mortality probabilities differed among the most common admission causes (Fig. 3b). Raptors  
217 admitted due to infection/parasites had a substantially higher mortality rate (90%) compared  
218 to other known admission causes, whereas orphaned birds had a significantly lower mortality  
219 rate (16%) than other known admission causes (Fig. 3b; Table 3; Appendix C).

### 220 *Trends over time in raptor admissions*

221 Between 2001 and 2019, there was a notable decline in raptor admissions to Gower Bird  
222 Hospital when analysing all admission types ( $t_{1,17}$  value = -2.164,  $P < 0.05$ ). However, the  
223 relative proportion of known anthropogenic vs. natural admissions admitted to Gower Bird  
224 Hospital did not change over time ( $z_{1,17} = -1.554$ ,  $P = 0.120$ ). Over this period, there was a  
225 significant increase in the number of Red Kites admitted ( $t_{1,17} = 4.703$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ) (Fig. 4).  
226 Conversely, there were significant declines in the number of Common Buzzards ( $t_{1,17} = -$   
227 2.407,  $P < 0.05$ ) and Common Kestrels admitted ( $t_{1,17} = -4.031$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ) (Fig. 4; Appendix  
228 D). We also saw a significant decline in the relative proportion of persecution and metabolic  
229 related admissions, and a significant increase in orphaned young birds, admitted to Gower  
230 Bird Hospital throughout the study period (Table 4).

### 231 *Effects of urbanisation*

232 From 3305 admissions, 1915 (58%) were geo-referenced. For these geo-referenced  
233 admissions, the mean percentage urban land cover within the 2 km diameter buffers was  $31 \pm$   
234 28% ( $\pm$  SD) (Fig. 1). We found no significant association between the proportion of  
235 urbanisation for each geo-referenced admission and the probability that the admission was  
236 caused by anthropogenic ( $z_{1,1914} = 0.940$ ,  $P = 0.347$ ), natural ( $z_{1,1914} = -1.085$ ,  $P = 0.278$ ) or  
237 unknown factors ( $z_{1,1914} = -0.118$ ,  $P = 0.906$ ). We did, however, find a significant positive

238 association between urbanisation and the probability of admission cause being building  
239 collisions, persecution or unknown trauma (Table 5). In the least urbanised areas, probability  
240 of admission being attributed to a building collision was only *c.* 7% but increased to *c.* 18% in  
241 the most urbanised areas. Likewise, persecution increased from *c.* 2.5% in the least urbanised  
242 areas to around 8% in the most urbanised areas. In contrast, vehicle collision admissions were  
243 negatively associated with urbanisation, with a considerably higher probability of admissions  
244 being attributed to vehicle collisions in less urbanised areas – this was also the case for  
245 undetermined admission causes (Table 5). Urbanisation was not associated with the  
246 probability of admission being attributed to any natural admission causes including  
247 infection/parasites, metabolic or orphaned young birds (Table 5).

#### 248 ***Representation of raptor species***

249 Compared to the relative proportion of breeding individuals in Britain and Ireland, some  
250 species were under- and over-represented within our admissions data (Fig. 5; Appendix E).  
251 For example, Peregrine Falcons, Little Owls and Western Barn Owls were over-represented in  
252 our admissions data by 103%, 73% and 69%, respectively (Fig. 5; Appendix E).  
253 Contrastingly, Northern Long-eared Owls (*Asio otus*), Western Marsh Harriers (*Circus*  
254 *aeruginosus*) and Merlin (*Falco columbarius*) were under-represented in our admissions data  
255 by 187%, 163% and 126%, respectively (Fig. 5; Appendix E).

256

#### 257 **DISCUSSION**

258 This study examines, over time, causes of morbidity and mortality for 14 raptors admitted to  
259 four wildlife rehabilitation centres in England and Wales, and explores how urbanisation  
260 affects causes of admission.

261 Similar to other studies, unknown trauma accounted for most raptor admissions to wildlife  
262 rehabilitation centres (WRC) (see Wendell *et al.* 2002; Rodríguez *et al.* 2010; Mariacher *et al.*  
263 2016; Smith *et al.* 2018; Garcês *et al.* 2019). For example, Molina-López *et al.* (2011) found  
264 that trauma accounted for 50% of raptor admissions to a WRC in Spain, with the cause of  
265 injury unascertainable for more than half of these. Trauma admissions were also most  
266 numerous (56%) in a study of 3,212 raptor admissions to a WRC in New York State, USA  
267 (Hanson *et al.* 2021). In South Africa, analysis of eight years of admissions data for 39 raptor  
268 species revealed that vehicle and building collisions were the most common cause of  
269 admission (Thompson *et al.* 2013), and another South African study found that 52% of all  
270 admissions for 33 raptor species were also due to collision-related injuries (Maphalala *et al.*  
271 2021). In our study, collision trauma (both building and vehicle collisions) comprised 56% of  
272 all identified admissions and a third of all admissions. In contrast, a 10-year study conducted  
273 in Gran Canaria found that 65% of raptor admissions were non-trauma related, e.g., orphaned  
274 young birds, with trauma amounting to only around 35% of total admissions (Montesdeoca *et*  
275 *al.* 2017b).

276 Predominate causes of admission to WRC may vary by country. In Jordan illegal possession  
277 and the transport of raptors was the most common admission cause to a single WRC centre  
278 between 2017-2018, with trauma cases being the second most frequent admission cause (Al  
279 Zoubi *et al.* 2020). A recent study from the Czech Republic reported more than a third of all  
280 admissions of 12,923 Common Kestrels to 34 rehabilitation centres were due to  
281 nestlings/orphans (Lukesova *et al.* 2021). In our study orphans accounted for 14% of total  
282 kestrel admissions, and together with vehicle collisions were the most frequent admission  
283 cause for this species.

284 In our study, nearly 60% of admitted birds either died or were euthanised. Admissions due to  
285 anthropogenic causes had a higher mortality rate (57%) than natural causes (40%), and our

286 more refined analysis suggested that infection/parasite admissions were associated with the  
287 highest mortality rates (90%), whereas orphaned birds were associated with the lowest  
288 mortality rate (16%). Raptors admitted due to being orphaned tend to have higher survival  
289 probabilities than those admitted for other reasons, as evidenced by existing studies (Hanson  
290 *et al.* 2021; Lukesova *et al.* 2021 [see ‘Nestlings’ and ‘Incubation’ in Table 3]).

### 291 ***Influence of urbanisation on identified causes of admission***

292 Level of urbanisation was significantly associated with certain admission causes, with  
293 building collisions, persecution and unknown trauma admissions more likely to occur in more  
294 urbanised areas, but with vehicle collisions more likely in rural areas. Compared to diurnal  
295 species, nocturnal species are more susceptible to blinding by vehicle headlights (Bullock *et*  
296 *al.* 2011; Thompson *et al.* 2013). Collisions between Tawny Owls and vehicles have been  
297 shown to be more common on roads surrounded by increased tree density (Gomes *et al.* 2009)  
298 where connectivity between territories is higher (Santos *et al.* 2013; Gagné *et al.* 2015), i.e.,  
299 more rural areas, and may explain why vehicle collisions were the most frequent identified  
300 admission cause for Tawny Owls in our study. Common Buzzards were the most numerous  
301 diurnal species hit by vehicles; the species is less able to adapt to urban habitats (Palomino &  
302 Carrascal 2007) and is also a frequent scavenger of roadkill carcasses in rural areas (Young *et*  
303 *al.* 2014; Schwartz *et al.* 2018), which may further explain the increase in vehicle collisions in  
304 more rural areas. Vehicle collisions were also the most common admission cause for Western  
305 Barn Owls totalling 40% of admissions and were also the most likely cause of death for the  
306 species in another study conducted in Britain between 1963-1996 (Newton *et al.* 1997).

307 Building collisions were more likely to occur in urban areas with the Eurasian Sparrowhawk  
308 being the most frequent species admitted for this reason. This species is an urban adapter  
309 often breeding in these environments (Thornton *et al.* 2017) employing a high-speed attack

310 strategy when hunting avian prey (Newton 1986). Important causes of mortality have been  
311 attributed to collision-based trauma particularly with windows (Newton *et al.* 1999). A study  
312 by Kelly & Bland (2006) analysed 202 admissions of Eurasian Sparrowhawk to a WRC in  
313 England, 32% of admissions were due to collisions, i.e., vehicle and building/window  
314 collisions, which is an identical percentage to our findings for this species admitted to four  
315 WRC, suggesting that collision-based injuries (and/or death) are relatively common for the  
316 species in England and Wales (Newton *et al.* 1999).

317 Recently, Crespo *et al.* (2021) found a positive relationship between the number of human  
318 inhabitants and avian gunshot admissions in the Valencian region of Spain, the majority of  
319 casualties being raptors. We did not explore the effects of human population densities on  
320 admission causes, however, we found that persecution admissions (i.e., gunshots, poisoning  
321 and traps/snares) increased in urban areas. Assuming that human population densities  
322 correlate with urban land cover, our results are in line with those of Crespo *et al.* (2021).

323 Despite this, in Britain it is well-documented that human-raptor conflict often occurs in rural  
324 areas such as grouse moors (Thirgood *et al.* 2001; Melling *et al.* 2018; Murgatroyd *et al.*  
325 2019; Newton 2021), although there is no active grouse moor management within our study  
326 area, and this pattern might well change if these issues were explored at a larger scale  
327 incorporating a wider range of habitat types.

328 The lack of randomisation (Molina-López *et al.* 2011), restricted geographic study area and  
329 small sample sizes for less abundant species (e.g., a single admission for the Western Marsh  
330 Harrier and no admissions of species such as the Hen Harrier (*Circus cyaneus*) despite  
331 overlap with the species' distribution in Wales) further limit our ability to explore trends in  
332 causes of injury and death for all raptor species occurring throughout England and Wales.

333 Peregrine Falcons were over-represented in our admissions data by 103%. This may be due to  
334 recent estimates suggesting that the species' population size has increased in lowland parts of

335 England along with the overall UK population (Wilson *et al.* 2018), and/or may be due to the  
336 species' well-known use of urban habitats (Kettel *et al.* 2019) subsequently increasing the  
337 chance of members of the public encountering injured falcons. Conversely, Northern Long-  
338 eared Owls were under-represented in our admissions data by 187%, totalling just two  
339 admissions over the study period. In Britain & Ireland, the species' estimated breeding  
340 population size (*ca.* 7800 individuals) is larger than that of other species that were more  
341 numerous within our admissions data, e.g., Little Owl (118 admissions; *ca.* 7200 breeding  
342 individuals), Northern Goshawk (16 admissions; *ca.* 1240 breeding individuals) and Peregrine  
343 Falcon (84 admissions; *ca.* 3500 breeding individuals). Northern Long-eared Owls are  
344 nocturnally active and secretive (Petty *et al.* 2003), preferring to use habitats away from  
345 human disturbance (Martínez & Zuberogoitia 2004), which may partially explain the low  
346 numbers observed in our data.

347 Admission cause in most cases was based upon details from the finder of the bird (usually a  
348 member of the public) and initial assessment by a trained wildlife carer. A veterinary  
349 professional (veterinary surgeon or registered veterinary nurse) was usually not involved at  
350 this stage, so a definitive clinical diagnosis was not made. The centres involved however, all  
351 have very experienced and well-trained staff, with an ability to make a good initial assessment  
352 of the bird. However, identification accuracy between WRC and trained wildlife carers is  
353 unlikely to be equal, which should be considered when making inferences from these data.

354 For 77% of admissions sex was not determined, constraining our ability to compare admission  
355 causes between the sexes. However, the majority of admitted birds were able to be assigned to  
356 a broad age category allowing for age-related demographic comparisons. Nevertheless, 60%  
357 of admissions were of adult birds which support results from WRC in the USA (Hernandez *et*  
358 *al.* 2018) and Greece (Komnenou *et al.* 2005). The remaining 40% of admissions comprised  
359 juvenile birds and similar patterns have been observed elsewhere; for example, 42% of

360 Northern Long-eared Owl admissions (Italy; Mariacher *et al.* 2016) and 32% of all raptor  
361 admissions (Spain; Molina-López *et al.* 2011) being juveniles.  
362 Relative to anthropogenic admissions, natural admissions are likely to be under-represented in  
363 our data due to the majority going unreported (Real *et al.* 2001; Newton 2002). The reliance  
364 of reports from members of the public means that there is a likely bias towards anthropogenic  
365 admission causes. Building and vehicle collisions are more likely to be reported by members  
366 of the public by chance than persecution, i.e., illegal activities such as poisoning, gunshot and  
367 trap/snare events. Our data may also include a survivability bias with members of the public  
368 more likely to report injured birds that are still alive than those that have already died,  
369 inhibiting reliable injury and death estimates at local raptor population-levels.

370 Alternative monitoring methods such as satellite telemetry are more reliable sources for  
371 capturing illegal wildlife crimes, as demonstrated by Murgatroyd *et al.* (2019) who examined  
372 patterns of Hen Harrier disappearances over grouse moors in northern England as a result of  
373 suspected illegal killing. In addition, Panter *et al.* (2021) used satellite telemetry to estimate  
374 survival in wintering Red Kites in south-western Europe and Opper *et al.* (2021) coupled  
375 satellite telemetry and on-the-ground surveys to explore Egyptian Vulture (*Neophron*  
376 *percnopterus*) mortalities along their migratory routes. However, using such technology is  
377 often costly and requires specialist skill. Analysis of admissions data is cost-effective and  
378 requires little investment other than time, and many WRC often keep records of wildlife  
379 admissions for their own purposes as demonstrated in this study.

### 380 ***Implications***

381 Admissions data from WRC have the potential to form important baseline data guiding  
382 conservation activities. For example, gunshot admissions data from Greece has been used to  
383 advise governmental agencies responsible for hunting regulations (Mazaris *et al.* 2008) and



384 seasonal cumulative indices have been calculated to explore the potential ecological impacts  
385 on local raptor populations in Spain (Molina-López *et al.* 2011). Some 39% of raptors were  
386 released back into the wild following treatment, however, release does not equate to  
387 successful reintroduction back into breeding populations. Post-release monitoring of  
388 individuals, for example via identification of individuals using leg bands and coupled with  
389 field surveys, is strongly encouraged. This provides additional conservation value to  
390 admissions data and also allows for post-release welfare checks to be made on the bird.

391 Building and vehicle collisions posed the highest identified risk to raptors in our study area.  
392 Increased traffic densities and vehicle speeds have been shown to increase bird-vehicle  
393 collision mortalities (Erritzoe *et al.* 2003). Identification of vehicle collision hotspots along  
394 road networks is recommended and predictive modeling has been applied at the landscape-  
395 and local-scale to improve road safety (Malo *et al.* 2004). Window decals have successfully  
396 reduced average monthly bird-window collisions by 84% (Ocampo-Peñuela *et al.* 2016).  
397 Application of collision prevention decals to the exterior surface of windows (Klem &  
398 Saenger 2012), or tinting of windows (Erickson *et al.* 2005), are viable solutions to prevent  
399 bird-building collisions and citizen science can assist with community-level implementations.

400 Transformation of natural habitats into human-modified environments has been shown to  
401 negatively affect raptor communities, resulting in lower abundances, species richness and  
402 diversity (Carette *et al.* 2009). Despite this, some raptor species have shown resilience and  
403 even proliferation of urban environments (Cooke *et al.* 2018; Kettel *et al.* 2019; Panter *et al.*  
404 2020). For example, Sumasgutner *et al.* (2020) found that breeding Peregrine Falcon pairs  
405 were more likely to breed and bred earlier in more urbanised areas, compared to their more  
406 rural conspecifics, but breeding success may be compromised in more urban areas for some  
407 species, e.g., Common Kestrels (Kettel *et al.* 2018).

408 Many threats persist for raptors in England and Wales, however, have not changed  
409 substantially over the past two decades. Our findings provide baseline data on the causes of  
410 morbidity and mortality of raptors throughout our study area. Threats associated with urban  
411 areas, such as building collisions, may increase over time in line with human population  
412 growth and subsequent urban expansion. There is potential for future studies to build on our  
413 results in an applied context, for example, investigating the financial costs of vehicle damage  
414 as a result of vehicle-wildlife collisions.

#### 415 **DECLARATION OF INTEREST STATEMENT**

416 No conflict of interest.

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659 **TABLES**

660 **Table 1.** Demographics of diurnal and nocturnal raptor species admitted to four wildlife  
 661 rehabilitation centres in England and Wales between 2001-2019. Demographic proportions  
 662 calculated per species, totals calculated based on total number of admissions. \*Proportions  
 663 calculated using total diurnal and nocturnal values.

Species	Sex			Age			Total (%)
	Male (%/sp.)	Female (%/sp.)	Unknown (%/sp.)	Adult (%/sp.)	Juvenile (%/sp.)	Unknown (%/sp.)	
<i>Diurnal</i>							
Common Buzzard ( <i>Buteo buteo</i> )	107 (10)	120 (12)	808 (78)	615 (59)	287 (28)	133 (13)	1035 (31)
Eurasian Sparrowhawk ( <i>Accipiter nisus</i> )	92 (20)	129 (28)	236 (52)	240 (53)	158 (35)	59 (13)	457 (14)
Common Kestrel ( <i>Falco tinnunculus</i> )	48 (18)	38 (14)	183 (68)	114 (42)	122 (45)	33 (12)	269 (8)
Peregrine Falcon ( <i>Falco peregrinus</i> )	28 (33)	22 (26)	34 (40)	44 (52)	36 (43)	4 (5)	84 (3)
Red Kite ( <i>Milvus milvus</i> )	3 (8)	4 (11)	29 (81)	27 (75)	9 (25)		36 (1)
Eurasian Hobby ( <i>Falco subbuteo</i> )	1 (6)	2 (12)	14 (82)	12 (71)	1 (6)	4 (24)	17 (1)
Northern Goshawk ( <i>Accipiter gentilis</i> )	5 (31)	6 (38)	5 (31)	3 (19)	13 (81)		16 (<1)
Merlin ( <i>Falco columbarius</i> )	1 (25)	1 (25)	2 (50)	1 (25)	3 (75)		4 (<1)
Western Marsh Harrier ( <i>Circus aeruginosus</i> )			1 (100)			1 (100)	1 (<1)
Total diurnal*	285 (15)	322 (17)	1312 (68)	1056 (55)	629 (33)	234 (12)	1919 (58)
<i>Nocturnal</i>							
Tawny Owl ( <i>Strix aluco</i> )	35 (4)	21 (2)	911 (94)	474 (49)	359 (37)	134 (14)	967 (29)
Western Barn Owl ( <i>Tyto alba</i> )	39 (14)	54 (19)	190 (67)	156 (55)	98 (35)	29 (10)	283 (9)
Little Owl ( <i>Athene noctua</i> )	1 (1)	1 (1)	116 (98)	41 (35)	63 (53)	14 (12)	118 (4)
Short-eared Owl ( <i>Asio flammeus</i> )		3 (19)	13 (81)	12 (75)	3 (19)	1 (6)	16 (<1)
Northern Long-eared Owl ( <i>Asio otus</i> )			2 (100)	2 (100)			2 (<1)
Total nocturnal*	75 (5)	79 (6)	1232 (89)	685 (49)	523 (38)	178 (13)	1386 (42)
Total admissions	360 (11)	401 (12)	2544 (77)	1741 (53)	1152 (35)	412 (12)	3305 (100)

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668 **Table 2.** Admission types and causes for 14 species of diurnal and nocturnal raptors, admitted  
 669 to four wildlife rehabilitation centres in England and Wales between 2001-2019. \*Proportions  
 670 calculated using total diurnal and nocturnal values. Causes: ‘attack’ = attacked by pet, ‘build’  
 671 = building collisions, ‘elec’ = electrocutions, ‘fence’ = fencing/entanglements, ‘habitat’ =  
 672 habitat destruction, ‘pers’ = persecutions, ‘veh’ = vehicle collisions, ‘infect’ =  
 673 infection/parasites, ‘metab’ = metabolic, ‘orph’ = orphaned, ‘pred’ = predation, ‘trauma’ =  
 674 unknown trauma and ‘undet’ = undetermined. See Table S1 for full cause descriptions.

Species admitted	Anthropogenic (%/sp.)							Natural (%/sp.)				Unknown (%sp.)		Total (%)
	attack	build	elec	fence	habitat	pers	veh	infect	metab	orph	pred	trauma	undet	
<i>Diurnal</i>														
Common Buzzard ( <i>Buteo buteo</i> )		26 (3)	10 (1)	12 (1)	3 (<1)	25 (2)	262 (25)	30 (3)	68 (7)	20 (2)	8 (1)	333 (32)	238 (23)	1035 (31)
Eurasian Sparrowhawk ( <i>Accipiter nisus</i> )	19 (4)	105 (23)	1 (<1)	9 (2)		15 (3)	40 (9)	13 (3)	8 (2)	6 (1)	6 (1)	163 (36)	72 (16)	457 (14)
Common Kestrel ( <i>Falco tinnunculus</i> )	1 (<1)	15 (6)	2 (1)	2 (1)	1 (<1)	1 (<1)	37 (14)	3 (1)	26 (10)	38 (14)		80 (30)	63 (23)	269 (8)
Peregrine Falcon ( <i>Falco peregrinus</i> )		2 (2)		3 (4)		5 (6)	6 (7)	1 (1)	2 (2)	10 (12)	2 (2)	38 (45)	15 (18)	84 (3)
Red Kite ( <i>Milvus milvus</i> )		5 (14)				1 (3)	9 (25)			2 (6)		4 (11)	15 (42)	36 (1)
Eurasian Hobby ( <i>Falco subbuteo</i> )		3 (18)					4 (24)				1 (6)	5 (29)	4 (24)	17 (1)
Northern Goshawk ( <i>Accipiter gentilis</i> )		3 (19)	1 (6)			1 (6)			1 (6)	1 (6)		7 (44)	2 (13)	16 (<1)
Merlin ( <i>Falco columbarius</i> )		1 (25)										3 (75)		4 (<1)
Western Marsh Harrier ( <i>Circus aeruginosus</i> )												1 (100)		1 (<1)
<b>Total diurnal*</b>	<b>20 (1)</b>	<b>160 (8)</b>	<b>14 (1)</b>	<b>26 (1)</b>	<b>4 (&lt;1)</b>	<b>48 (3)</b>	<b>358 (19)</b>	<b>47 (2)</b>	<b>105 (5)</b>	<b>77 (4)</b>	<b>17 (1)</b>	<b>634 (33)</b>	<b>409 (21)</b>	<b>1919 (58)</b>
<i>Nocturnal</i>														
Tawny Owl ( <i>Strix aluco</i> )	8 (1)	82 (8)		41 (4)	8 (1)	17 (2)	290 (30)	35 (4)	24 (2)	154 (16)	6 (1)	133 (14)	169 (17)	967 (29)
Western Barn Owl ( <i>Tyto alba</i> )	3 (1)	9 (3)	1 (<1)	2 (1)	6 (2)	7 (2)	66 (23)	6 (2)	11 (4)	50 (18)	4 (1)	60 (21)	58 (20)	283 (9)
Little Owl ( <i>Athene noctua</i> )	5 (4)	13 (11)			5 (4)	1 (1)	17 (14)		5 (4)	34 (29)	5 (4)	18 (15)	15 (13)	118 (4)
Short-eared Owl ( <i>Asio flammeus</i> )					1 (6)	1 (6)	1 (6)					9 (56)	4 (25)	16 (<1)
Northern Long- eared Owl ( <i>Asio otus</i> )						1 (50)						1 (50)		2 (<1)
<b>Total nocturnal*</b>	<b>16 (1)</b>	<b>104 (8)</b>	<b>1 (&lt;1)</b>	<b>43 (3)</b>	<b>20 (1)</b>	<b>27 (2)</b>	<b>374 (27)</b>	<b>41 (3)</b>	<b>40 (3)</b>	<b>238 (17)</b>	<b>15 (1)</b>	<b>221 (16)</b>	<b>246 (18)</b>	<b>1386 (42)</b>
<b>Total</b>	<b>36 (1)</b>	<b>264 (8)</b>	<b>15 (&lt;1)</b>	<b>69 (2)</b>	<b>24 (&lt;1)</b>	<b>75 (2)</b>	<b>732 (22)</b>	<b>88 (3)</b>	<b>145 (4)</b>	<b>315 (10)</b>	<b>32 (1)</b>	<b>855 (26)</b>	<b>655 (20)</b>	<b>3305 (100)</b>

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677 **Table 3.** Overview of admission type, causes and outcomes for all raptor admissions to four  
 678 wildlife rehabilitation centres in England and Wales between 2001-2019. Outcome  
 679 proportions calculated per admission cause, totals based on total number of admissions.  
 680 \*Proportions calculated using total admission type values.

Type	Cause	Outcome			Total (%)
		Kept captive (%/cause)	Deceased/euthanized (%/cause)	Released (%/cause)	
Anthropogenic	Attacked by pet	0 (0)	23 (64)	13 (36)	36 (1)
	Building collision	1 (< 1)	136 (52)	127 (48)	264 (8)
	Electrocution	0 (0)	11 (73)	4 (27)	15 (<1)
	Fencing/entanglement	1 (2)	33 (49)	35 (51)	69 (2)
	Habitat destruction	5 (21)	3 (16)	16 (67)	24 (1)
	Persecution	1 (1)	39 (53)	35 (47)	75 (2)
	Vehicle collision	1 (< 1)	438 (60)	293 (40)	732 (22)
Total anthropogenic*		9 (<1)	683 (56)	523 (43)	1215 (37)
Natural	Infection/parasites	1 (1)	79 (91)	8 (9)	88 (3)
	Metabolic	0 (0)	84 (58)	61 (42)	145 (4)
	Orphaned	25 (8)	50 (17)	240 (76)	315 (10)
	Predation	0 (0)	21 (66)	11 (34)	32 (1)
Total natural*		26 (5)	234 (40)	320 (55)	580 (18)
Unknown	Trauma	3 (< 1)	689 (81)	163 (19)	855 (26)
	Undetermined	5 (< 1)	368 (57)	282 (43)	655 (20)
Total unknown*		8 (1)	1057 (70)	445 (29)	1510 (46)
Total admissions		43 (1)	1974 (60)	1288 (39)	3305 (100)

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685 **Table 4.** Trends over time in the relative proportion, per year, of admission causes for 1237  
686 raptors admitted to Gower Bird Hospital between 2001-2019. Data analysed using a series of  
687 Generalized Linear Models fitted with quasi-Poisson error distributions to control for  
688 overdispersion. Only admission causes  $\geq 30$  were included. **Bold** = statistically significant  
689 causes. N = sample size, SE = standard error, df = degrees of freedom.

Admission cause	N	Estimate $\pm$ SE	<i>t</i>	df	<i>P</i>
<i>Anthropogenic</i>					
Building collision	113	-0.012 $\pm$ 0.020	-0.607	18	0.552
<b>Persecution</b>	<b>38</b>	<b>-0.074 <math>\pm</math> 0.033</b>	<b>-2.258</b>	-	<b>&lt; 0.05</b>
Vehicle collision	322	0.008 $\pm$ 0.014	0.563	-	0.581
<i>Natural</i>					
Infection/parasites	41	0.042 $\pm$ 0.039	1.081	-	0.295
<b>Metabolic</b>	<b>78</b>	<b>-0.072 <math>\pm</math> 0.033</b>	<b>-2.149</b>	-	<b>&lt; 0.05</b>
<b>Orphaned</b>	<b>97</b>	<b>0.066 <math>\pm</math> 0.028</b>	<b>2.302</b>	-	<b>&lt; 0.05</b>
<i>Unknown</i>					
Trauma	312	-0.011 $\pm$ 0.015	-0.766	-	0.454
Undetermined	236	0.009 $\pm$ 0.020	0.466	-	0.647

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700 **Table 5.** Effects of urbanisation on causes of admission for raptors admitted to four wildlife  
701 rehabilitation centres in England and Wales between 2001-2019. Data analyses using a series  
702 of Generalized Linear Mixed Models fitted with binomial error distributions and ‘logit’ link  
703 functions. **Bold** = statistically significant causes. Values computed using only geo-referenced  
704 admissions with 2 km diameter buffers.

Admission cause	N	Estimate $\pm$ SE	<i>z</i>	df	<i>P</i>
<i>Anthropogenic</i>					
<b>Building collision</b>	<b>136</b>	<b>0.011 <math>\pm</math> 0.003</b>	<b>3.503</b>	<b>1109</b>	<b>&lt; 0.001</b>
<b>Persecution</b>	<b>49</b>	<b>0.010 <math>\pm</math> 0.005</b>	<b>2.047</b>	-	<b>&lt; 0.05</b>
<b>Vehicle collision</b>	<b>503</b>	<b>-0.005 <math>\pm</math> 0.002</b>	<b>-2.533</b>	-	<b>&lt; 0.05</b>
<i>Natural</i>					
Infection/parasites	64	-0.001 $\pm$ 0.005	-0.223	-	0.824
Metabolic	105	-0.005 $\pm$ 0.004	-1.464	-	0.143
Orphaned	165	0.0005 $\pm$ 0.003	0.178	-	0.859
<i>Unknown</i>					
<b>Trauma</b>	<b>456</b>	<b>0.004 <math>\pm</math> 0.002</b>	<b>1.980</b>	-	<b>&lt; 0.05</b>
<b>Undetermined</b>	<b>349</b>	<b>-0.005 <math>\pm</math> 0.002</b>	<b>-2.529</b>	-	<b>&lt; 0.05</b>

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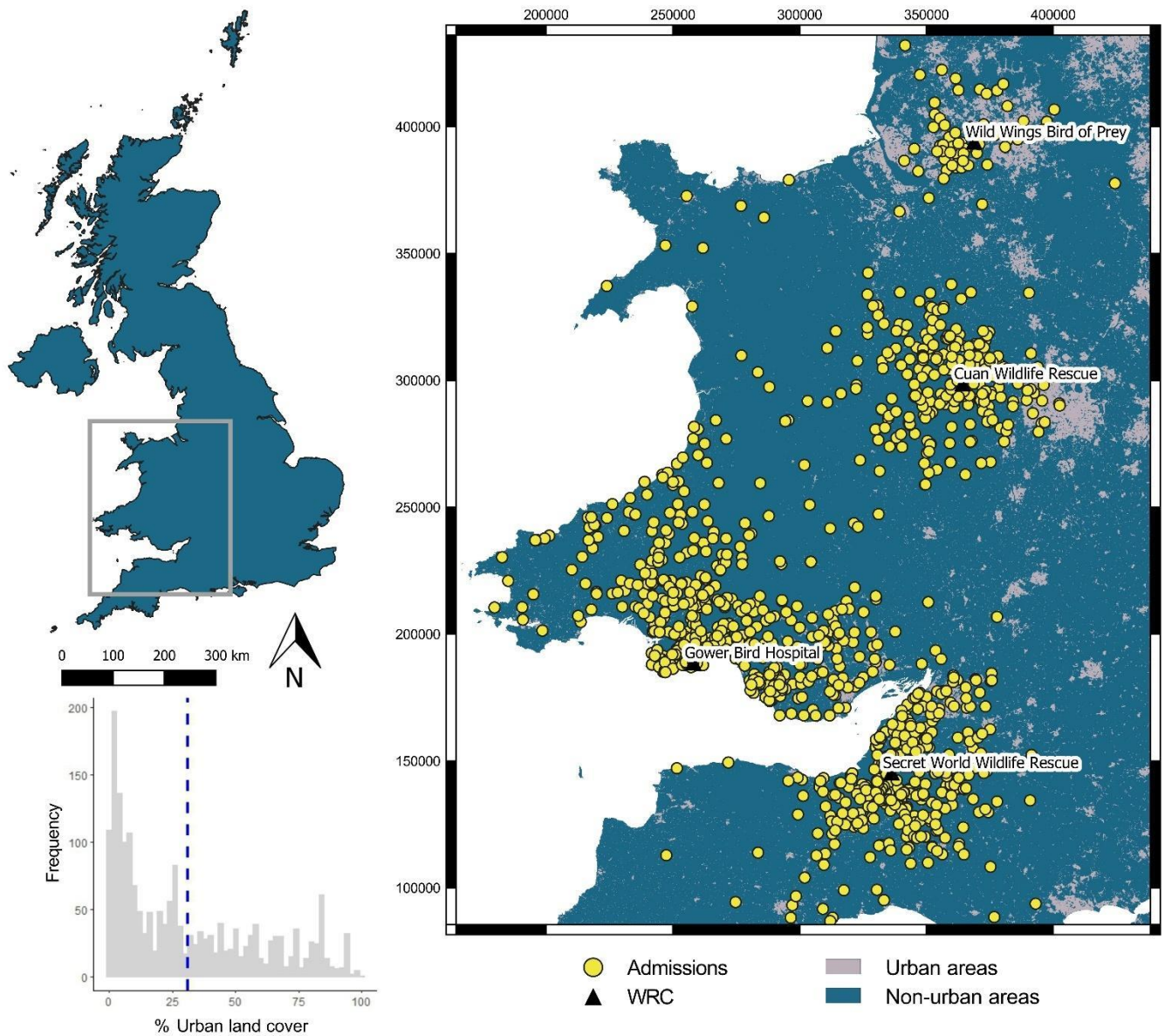
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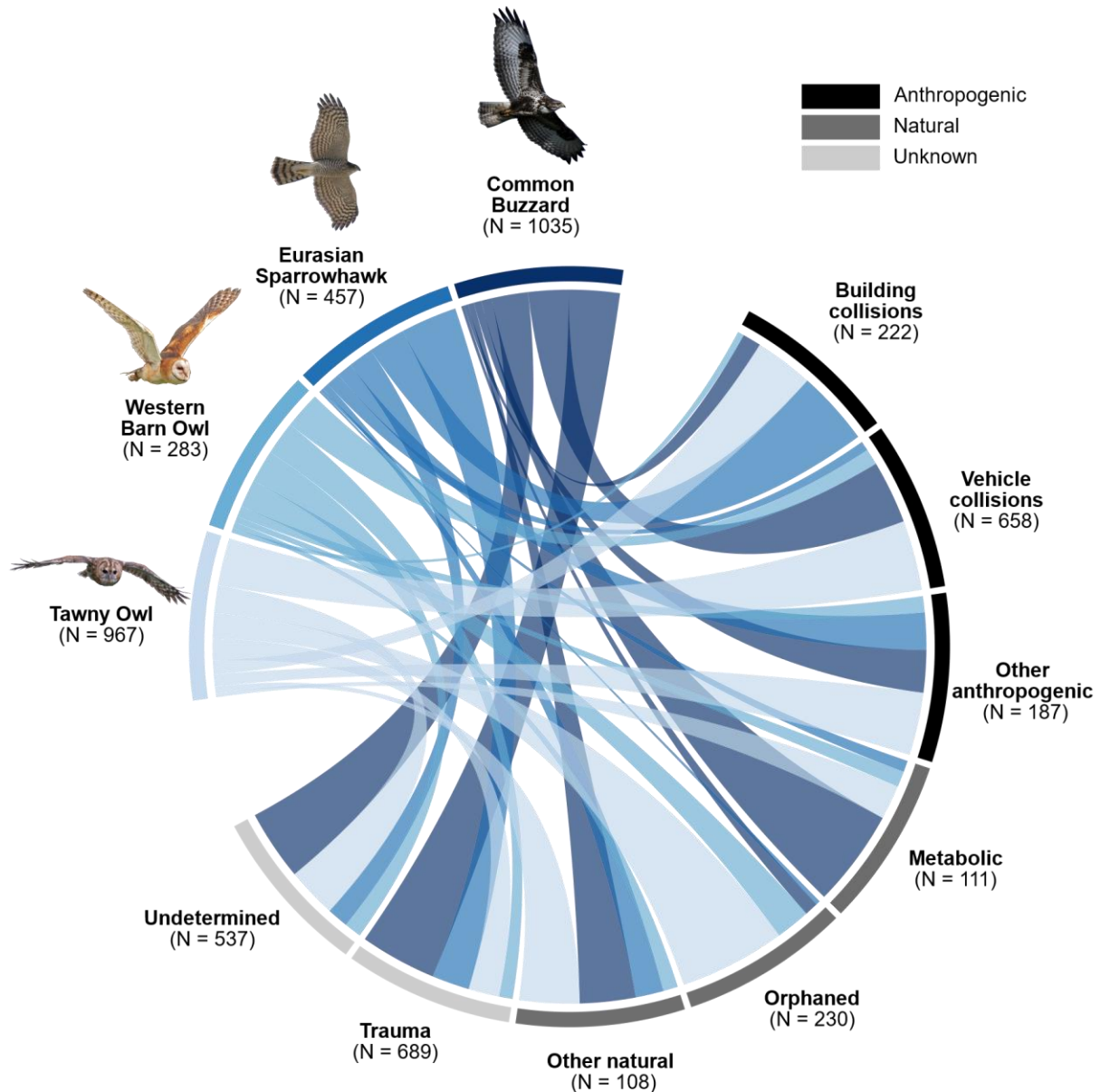
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715 **FIGURES**



717 **Figure 1.** Spatial distribution for 14 species of diurnal and nocturnal raptors admitted to four  
718 wildlife rehabilitation centres (WRC) between 2001-2019 in England and Wales. Geo-  
719 referenced admissions with 2 km buffers (N = 1915) shown in relation to urban land cover.  
720 Histogram shows the frequency of urban land cover scores within each 2 km buffer and the  
721 mean (31%) denoted by the blue dashed line. Map Coordinate Reference System: EPSG  
722 27700 British National Grid.



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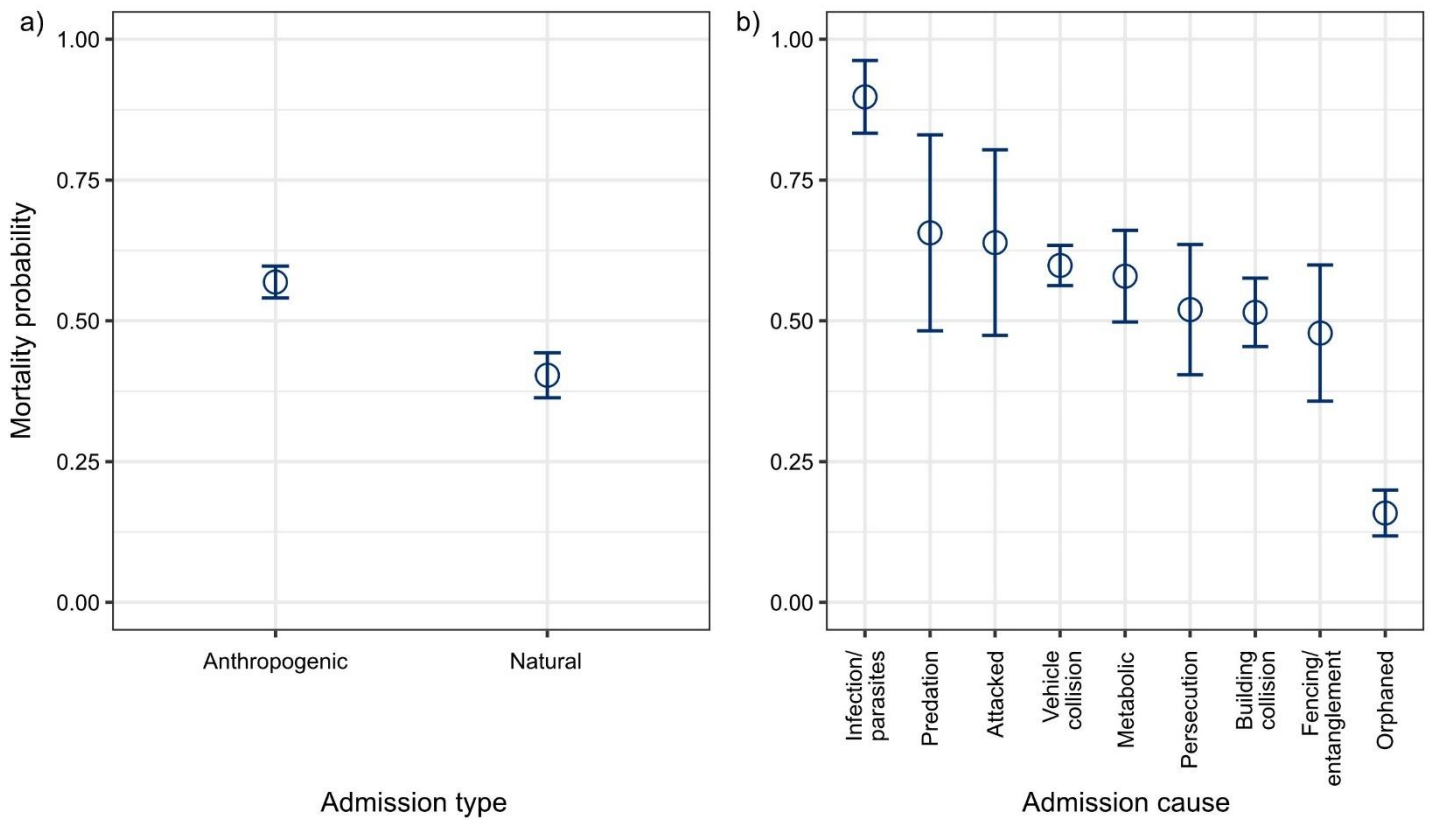
724 **Figure 2.** Admission causes for the top two most common diurnal and nocturnal raptor  
725 species admitted to four wildlife rehabilitation centres between 2001-2019 (N = 3011). Only  
726 the two most common admission causes per type (anthropogenic, natural and unknown)  
727 shown, other causes pooled into respective categories: ‘Other anthropogenic’ causes include  
728 ‘attacked’ (N = 30), ‘fencing/entanglement’ (N = 64), ‘electrocution’ (N = 12), ‘Habitat  
729 destruction’ (N = 17) and ‘Persecution’ (N = 64). ‘Other natural’ causes include  
730 ‘Infection/parasites’ (N = 84) and ‘Predation’ (N = 24).

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736 **Figure 3.** Differences in mortality probabilities for raptors admitted to four wildlife  
737 rehabilitation centres in England and Wales, between 2001-2019, in relation to identified a)  
738 admission types and b) admission causes. Data for ‘unknown’ admission type not shown.  
739 Error bars represent 95% confidence intervals.

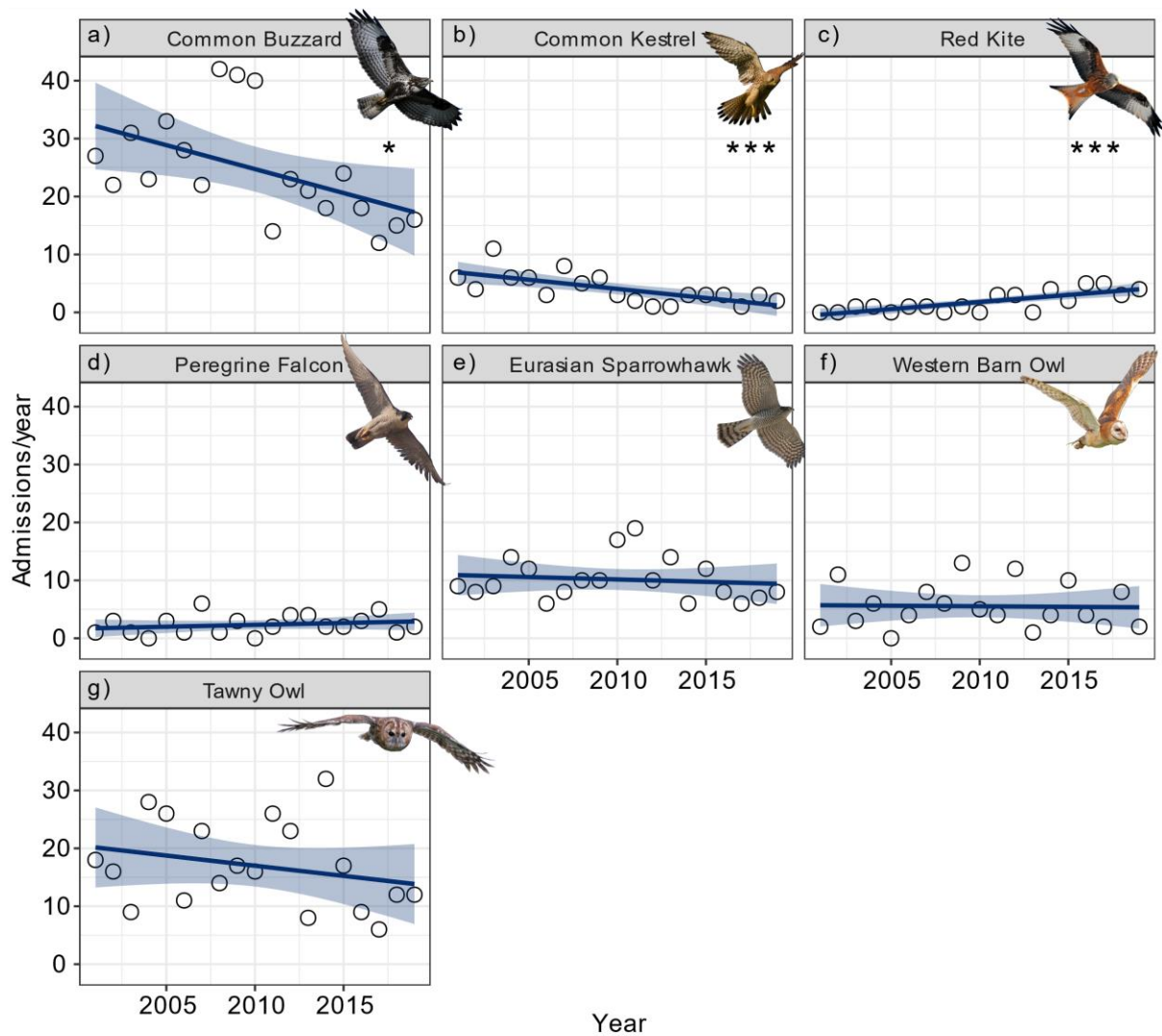
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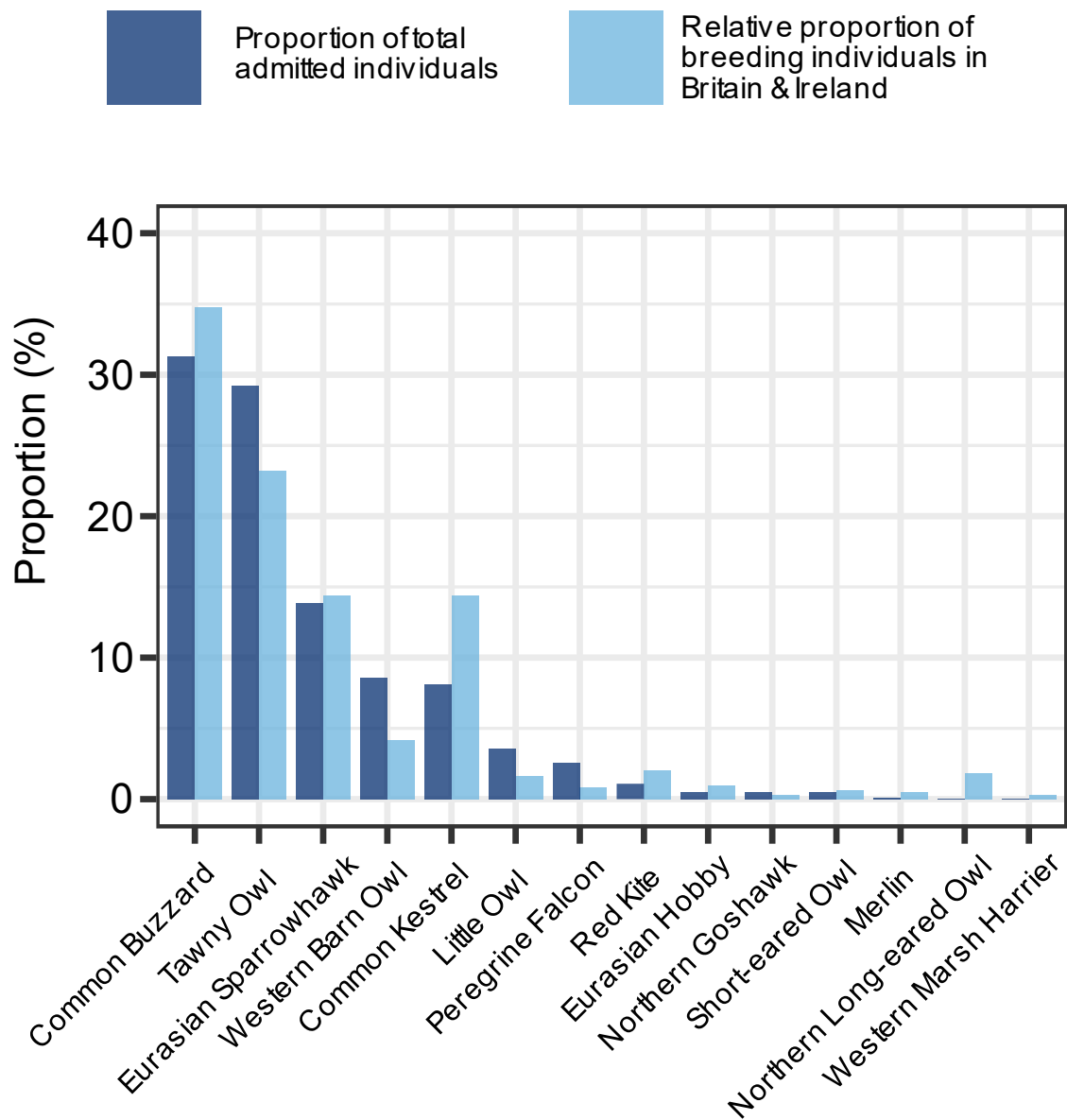
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746 **Figure 4.** Trends over time for the seven most common raptor species admitted to Gower  
747 Bird Hospital between 2001-2019. a) Common Buzzard (*Buteo buteo*; N = 470), b) Common  
748 Kestrel (*Falco tinnunculus*; N = 77), c) Red Kite (*Milvus milvus*; N = 34), d) Peregrine Falcon  
749 (*Falco peregrinus*; N = 44), e) Eurasian Sparrowhawk (*Accipiter nisus*; N = 193), f) Western  
750 Barn Owl (*Tyto alba*; N = 105) and g) Tawny Owl (*Strix aluco*; N = 323). Significant trends  
751 over time denoted by ‘\*\*\*’ =  $P < 0.001$  and ‘\*’ =  $P < 0.05$ .

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754 **Figure 5.** Proportion of total number of admitted individual raptors to four wildlife  
755 rehabilitation centres in England and Wales between 2001-2019, compared to the relative  
756 proportion of breeding individuals, per species, occurring in Britain and Ireland (data  
757 extracted from the BTO BirdFacts database [https://www.bto.org/understanding-](https://www.bto.org/understanding-birds/birdfacts)  
758 [birds/birdfacts](https://www.bto.org/understanding-birds/birdfacts); Robinson 2005).

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762 **FIGURE CAPTIONS**

763 **Figure 1.** Spatial distribution for 14 species of diurnal and nocturnal raptors admitted to four  
764 wildlife rehabilitation centres (WRC) between 2001-2019 in England and Wales. Geo-  
765 referenced admissions with 2 km buffers (N = 1915) shown in relation to urban land cover.  
766 Histogram shows the frequency of urban land cover scores within each 2 km buffer and the  
767 mean (31%) denoted by the blue dashed line. Map Coordinate Reference System: EPSG  
768 27700 British National Grid.

769 **Figure 2.** Admission causes for the top two most common diurnal and nocturnal raptor  
770 species admitted to four wildlife rehabilitation centres between 2001-2019 (N = 3011). Only  
771 the two most common admission causes per type (anthropogenic, natural and unknown)  
772 shown, other causes pooled into respective categories: ‘Other anthropogenic’ causes include  
773 ‘attacked’ (N = 30), ‘fencing/entanglement’ (N = 64), ‘electrocution’ (N = 12), ‘Habitat  
774 destruction’ (N = 17) and ‘Persecution’ (N = 64). ‘Other natural’ causes include  
775 ‘Infection/parasites’ (N = 84) and ‘Predation’ (N = 24).

776 **Figure 3.** Differences in mortality probabilities for raptors admitted to four wildlife  
777 rehabilitation centres in England and Wales, between 2001-2019, in relation to identified a)  
778 admission types and b) admission causes. Data for ‘unknown’ admission type not shown.  
779 Error bars represent 95% confidence intervals.

780 **Figure 4.** Trends over time for the seven most common raptor species admitted to Gower  
781 Bird Hospital between 2001-2019. a) Common Buzzard (*Buteo buteo*; N = 470), b) Common  
782 Kestrel (*Falco tinnunculus*; N = 77), c) Red Kite (*Milvus milvus*; N = 34), d) Peregrine Falcon  
783 (*Falco peregrinus*; N = 44), e) Eurasian Sparrowhawk (*Accipiter nisus*; N = 193), f) Western  
784 Barn Owl (*Tyto alba*; N = 105) and g) Tawny Owl (*Strix aluco*; N = 323). Significant trends  
785 over time denoted by ‘\*\*\*’ =  $P < 0.001$  and ‘\*’ =  $P < 0.05$ .

786 **Figure 5.** Proportion of total number of admitted individual raptors to four wildlife  
787 rehabilitation centres in England and Wales between 2001-2019, compared to the relative  
788 proportion of breeding individuals, per species, occurring in Britain and Ireland (data  
789 extracted from the BTO BirdFacts database [https://www.bto.org/understanding-](https://www.bto.org/understanding-birds/birdfacts)  
790 [birds/birdfacts](https://www.bto.org/understanding-birds/birdfacts); Robinson 2005).

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807 **APPENDICES**

808 **Appendix A.** Admission type, cause, code and descriptions for 3305 admission records of  
 809 raptors admitted to four wildlife rehabilitation centres in the United Kingdom between 2001-  
 810 2019.

Admission type	Admission cause	Code	Description
Anthropogenic (7)	Attacked by pet	‘attack’	Admissions where finder observed casualty being attacked by domesticated animal (e.g., cat or dog)
	Building collision	‘build’	Category also includes collisions with manmade structures, birds falling down chimneys, trapped down wells or drains and trapped in sheds or greenhouses
	Electrocution	‘elec’	Admissions where casualty has been electrocuted on powerlines
	Fencing/entanglement	‘fence’	Category also includes casualties caught in netting over ponds and cattle grids
	Habitat destruction	‘habitat’	Admissions where finder reports casualties being disturbed in the nest or disturbance to breeding adult pairs by felling trees, machinery and vegetation clearance
	Persecution	‘pers’	Category includes direct and indirect persecution also includes gunshot victims, poisoning and traps or snares
	Vehicle collision	‘veh’	Category also includes stunned casualties found on roads
Natural (4)	Infection/parasites	‘infect’	Category includes capsulitis diagnosed with infections, parasites, abnormal growths and tumours
	Metabolic	‘metab’	Admissions where casualty has signs of emaciation, starvation and heat exhaustion
	Orphaned	‘orph’	Admissions where finder reports casualties outside of the natal nest
	Predation	‘pred’	Admissions where finder reports physical injury/wounds to casualty but not as a result of domesticated animals
Unknown (2)	Trauma	‘trauma’	Category includes all casualties with physical injuries/wounds or those in shock where the exact cause could not be ascertained
	Undetermined	‘undet’	Category includes casualties without physical injuries/wounds, not in shock and where exact cause could not be ascertained

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815 **Appendix B.** An overview of models used to explore trends over time and effects of  
 816 urbanisation on raptor admissions to four wildlife rehabilitation centres (WRC) in England  
 817 and Wales between 2001-2019. GLM = Generalized Linear Model; GLMM = Generalized  
 818 Linear Mixed Model; GBH = Gower Bird Hospital only.

Model type	Terms			Error distribution	Link function	Data set	Data included (admission types)		
	Response	Explanatory	Random				Anthropogenic	Natural	Unknown
GLM	fate (binary)	admission type/cause	-	binomial	logit	All WRC	✓	✓	
GLM	total admission counts	year	-	quasi-Poisson	-	GBH	✓	✓	✓
cbind GLM	admission counts per type (anthropogenic vs. natural)	year	-	binomial	-	GBH	✓	✓	
GLM	admission counts per species	year	-	quasi-Poisson	-	GBH	✓	✓	✓
GLM	relative proportion of admission counts by per cause	year	-	quasi-Poisson	-	GBH	✓	✓	✓
GLMM	anthropogenic (binary)	% urban land cover	centre ID	binomial	logit	All WRC	✓		
GLMM	natural (binary)	% urban land cover	centre ID	binomial	logit	All WRC		✓	
GLMM	unknown (binary)	% urban land cover	centre ID	binomial	logit	All WRC			✓
GLMM	cause (binary)	% urban land cover	centre ID	binomial	logit	All WRC	✓	✓	✓

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825 **Appendix C.** Pairwise comparisons of mortality probabilities for raptors admitted to four  
 826 wildlife rehabilitation centres in England and Wales between 2001-2019, presented by  
 827 identified admission types (above dashed line) and admission causes (below dashed lines).  
 828 Analyses conducted using a series of Generalized Linear Models with binomial error  
 829 distributions and ‘logit’ link functions. **Bold** = statistically significant comparisons, SE =  
 830 standard error.

Contrast	Estimate ± SE	<i>z</i>	<i>P</i>
<b>anthropogenic - natural</b>	<b>0.668 ± 0.103</b>	<b>6.483</b>	<b>&lt; 0.0001</b>
attacked - building collision	0.509 ± 0.369	1.385	0.904
attacked - fencing/entanglement	0.657 ± 0.422	1.556	0.828
<b>attacked - infection/parasites</b>	<b>-1.601 ± 0.494</b>	<b>-3.241</b>	<b>&lt; 0.05</b>
attacked - metabolic	0.250 ± 0.386	0.650	0.999
<b>attacked - orphaned</b>	<b>2.238 ± 0.380</b>	<b>5.895</b>	<b>&lt; 0.0001</b>
attacked - persecution	0.490 ± 0.417	1.176	0.962
attacked - predation	-0.076 ± 0.509	-0.150	1.000
attacked - vehicle collision	0.171 ± 0.355	0.484	1.000
building collision - fencing/entanglement	0.147 ± 0.271	0.546	1.000
<b>building collision - infection/parasites</b>	<b>-2.116 ± 0.373</b>	<b>-5.665</b>	<b>&lt; 0.0001</b>
building collision - metabolic	-0.259 ± 0.208	-1.244	0.947
<b>building collision - orphaned</b>	<b>1.728 ± 0.197</b>	<b>8.759</b>	<b>&lt; 0.0001</b>
building collision - persecution	-0.019 ± 0.262	-0.074	1.000
building collision - predation	-0.586 ± 0.392	-1.495	0.858
building collision - vehicle collision	-0.338 ± 0.144	-2.341	0.317
<b>fencing/entanglement - infection/parasites</b>	<b>-2.259 ± 0.426</b>	<b>-5.298</b>	<b>&lt; 0.0001</b>
fencing/entanglement - metabolic	-0.407 ± 0.294	-1.385	0.904
<b>fencing/entanglement - orphaned</b>	<b>1.580 ± 0.286</b>	<b>5.525</b>	<b>&lt; 0.0001</b>
fencing/entanglement - persecution	-0.167 ± 0.334	-0.500	1.000
fencing/entanglement - predation	-0.733 ± 0.443	-1.655	0.774
fencing/entanglement - vehicle collision	-0.485 ± 0.253	-1.923	0.597
<b>infection/parasites - metabolic</b>	<b>1.852 ± 0.390</b>	<b>4.750</b>	<b>&lt; 0.0001</b>
<b>infection/parasites - orphaned</b>	<b>3.839 ± 0.384</b>	<b>9.997</b>	<b>&lt; 0.0001</b>
<b>infection/parasites - persecution</b>	<b>2.092 ± 0.421</b>	<b>4.971</b>	<b>&lt; 0.0001</b>
infection/parasites - predation	1.525 ± 0.512	2.979	0.071
<b>infection/parasites - vehicle collision</b>	<b>1.773 ± 0.360</b>	<b>4.930</b>	<b>&lt; 0.0001</b>
<b>metabolic - orphaned</b>	<b>1.987 ± 0.228</b>	<b>8.710</b>	<b>&lt; 0.0001</b>
metabolic - persecution	0.239 ± 0.286	0.839	0.996
metabolic - predation	-0.326 ± 0.408	-0.800	0.997
metabolic - vehicle collision	-0.078 ± 0.184	-0.427	1.000
<b>orphaned - persecution</b>	<b>-1.747 ± 0.278</b>	<b>-6.291</b>	<b>&lt; 0.0001</b>
<b>orphaned - predation</b>	<b>-2.314 ± 0.403</b>	<b>-5.745</b>	<b>&lt; 0.0001</b>
<b>orphaned - vehicle collision</b>	<b>-2.066 ± 0.172</b>	<b>-12.039</b>	<b>&lt; 0.0001</b>
persecution - predation	-0.566 ± 0.438	-1.293	0.934
persecution - vehicle collision	-0.318 ± 0.243	-1.310	0.929
predation - vehicle collision	0.248 ± 0.380	0.653	0.999

831 **Appendix D.** Parameter estimates from the Generalized Linear Models, fitted with a quasi-  
832 Poisson error distribution to account for overdispersion, examining trends over time for the  
833 seven most common species admitted to Gower Bird Hospital between 2001-2019. **Bold** =  
834 statistically significant causes. N = number of admissions, SE = standard error, df = degrees  
835 of freedom.

Species	N	Estimate $\pm$ SE	<i>t</i>	df	<i>P</i>
<b>Common Buzzard (<i>Buteo buteo</i>)</b>	<b>470</b>	<b>-0.034 <math>\pm</math> 0.014</b>	<b>-2.407</b>	<b>17</b>	<b>&lt; 0.05</b>
Tawny Owl ( <i>Strix aluco</i> )	323	-0.021 $\pm$ 0.019	-1.112	-	0.282
Eurasian Sparrowhawk ( <i>Accipiter nisus</i> )	193	-0.008 $\pm$ 0.016	-0.521	-	0.609
Western Barn Owl ( <i>Tyto alba</i> )	105	-0.003 $\pm$ 0.029	-0.117	-	0.908
<b>Common Kestrel (<i>Falco tinnunculus</i>)</b>	<b>77</b>	<b>-0.081 <math>\pm</math> 0.020</b>	<b>-4.031</b>	<b>-</b>	<b>&lt; 0.001</b>
Peregrine Falcon ( <i>Falco peregrinus</i> )	44	0.028 $\pm$ 0.030	0.926	-	0.368
<b>Red Kite (<i>Milvus milvus</i>)</b>	<b>34</b>	<b>0.155 <math>\pm</math> 0.033</b>	<b>4.703</b>	<b>-</b>	<b>&lt; 0.001</b>

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848 **Appendix E.** Percentage difference between the relative proportion of breeding individuals in  
 849 Britain & Ireland, and the proportion of individuals, per species, admitted to four wildlife  
 850 rehabilitation centres in England and Wales between 2001-2019. \*Data derived from the  
 851 British Trust for Ornithology’s BirdFacts database (Robinson 2005;  
 852 <https://www.bto.org/understanding-birds/birdfacts>).

Species	Number of breeding individuals in Britain & Ireland*	Proportion breeding individuals in Britain & Ireland	Number of admitted individuals	Proportion of total admitted individuals	% Difference (breeding individuals vs. admitted individuals)
Peregrine Falcon ( <i>Falco peregrinus</i> )	3500	0.8	84	2.5	103.2
Little Owl ( <i>Athene noctua</i> )	7200	1.7	118	3.6	72.5
Western Barn Owl ( <i>Tyto alba</i> )	18000	4.2	283	8.6	68.9
Northern Goshawk ( <i>Accipiter gentilis</i> )	1240	0.3	16	0.5	50.9
Tawny Owl ( <i>Strix aluco</i> )	100000	23.2	967	29.3	23.1
Eurasian Sparrowhawk ( <i>Accipiter nisus</i> )	62000	14.4	457	13.8	-3.9
Common Buzzard ( <i>Buteo buteo</i> )	150000	34.8	1035	31.3	-10.5
Short-eared Owl ( <i>Asio flammeus</i> )	2820	0.7	16	0.5	-29.9
Common Kestrel ( <i>Falco tinnunculus</i> )	62000	14.4	269	8.1	-55.5
Eurasian Hobby ( <i>Falco subbuteo</i> )	4100	1.0	17	0.5	-59.6
Red Kite ( <i>Milvus milvus</i> )	8800	2.0	36	1.1	-60.8
Merlin ( <i>Falco columbarius</i> )	2300	0.5	4	0.1	-126.0
Western Marsh Harrier ( <i>Circus aeruginosus</i> )	1285	0.3	1	0.0	-163.1
Northern Long-eared Owl ( <i>Asio otus</i> )	7800	1.8	2	0.1	-187.1

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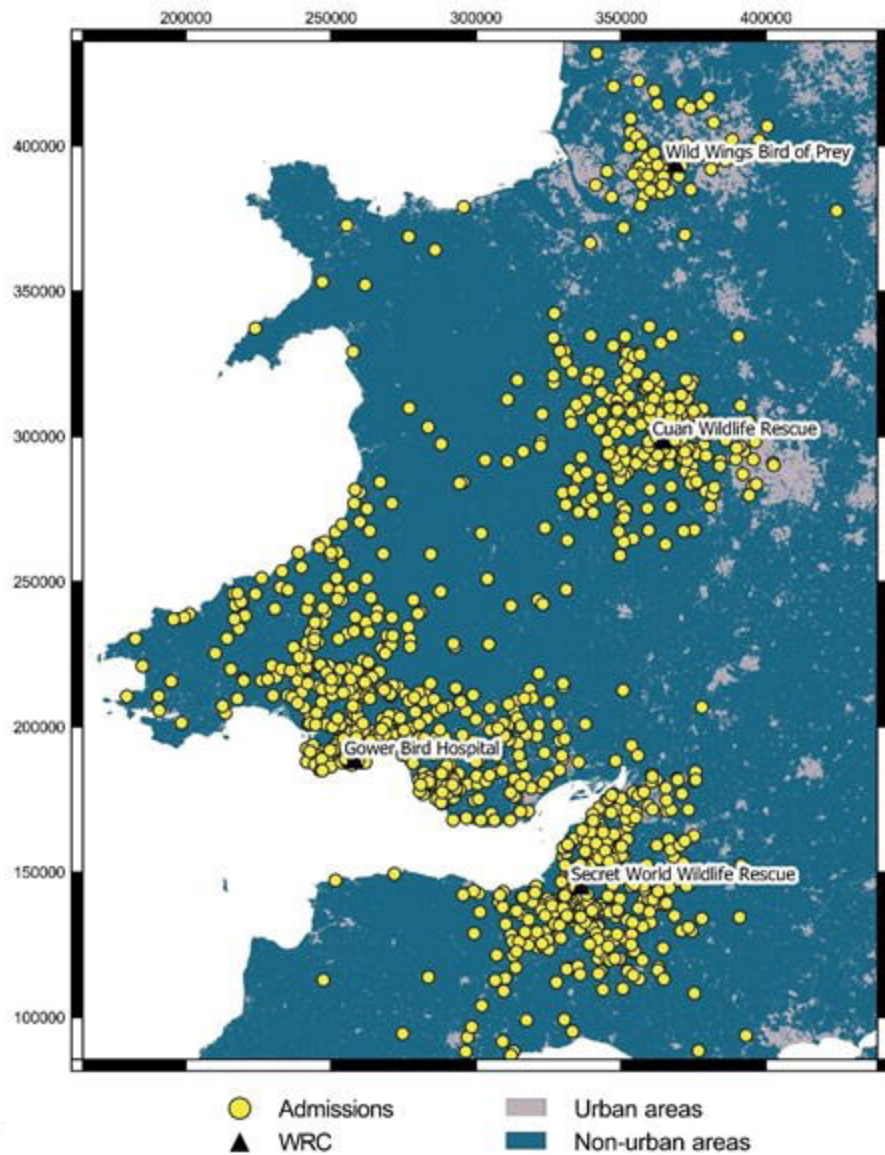
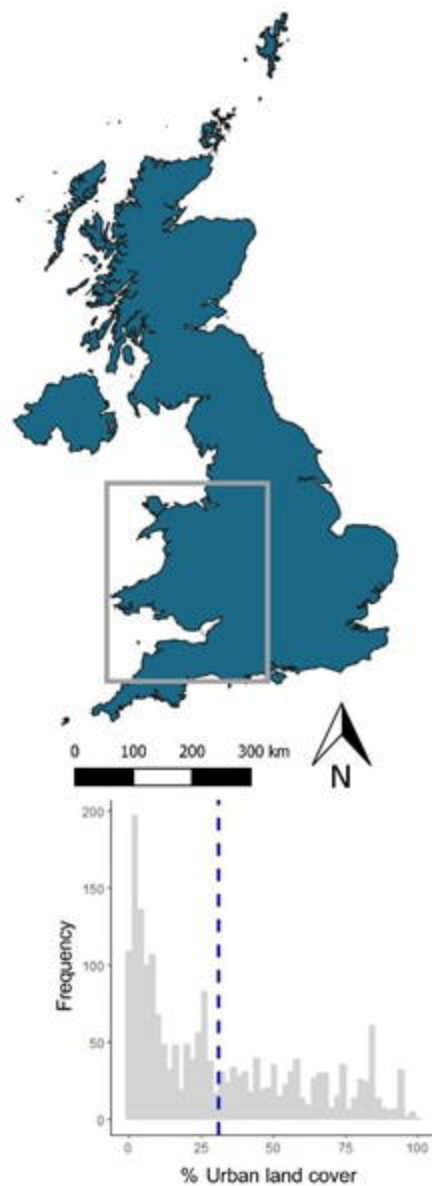
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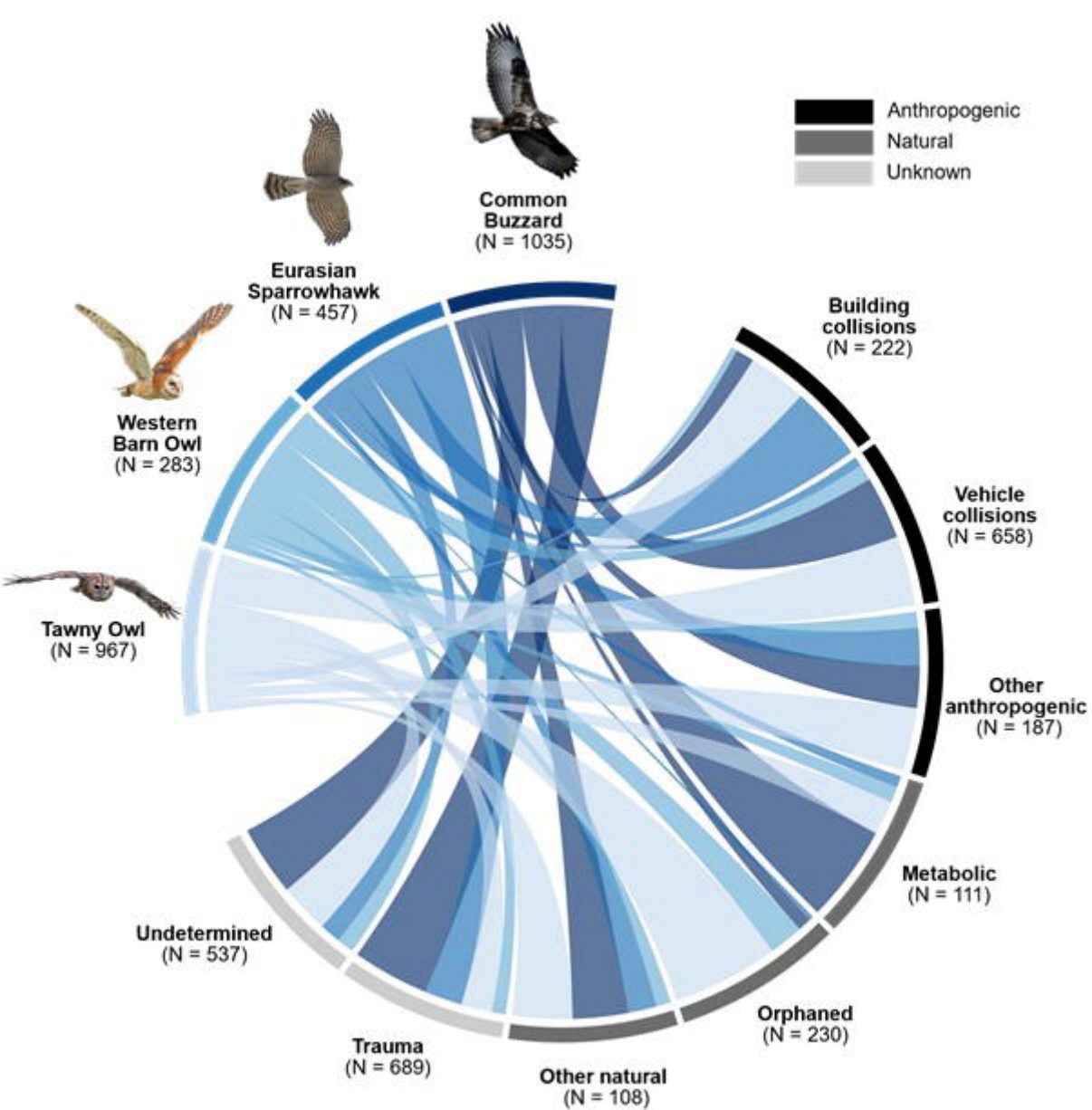
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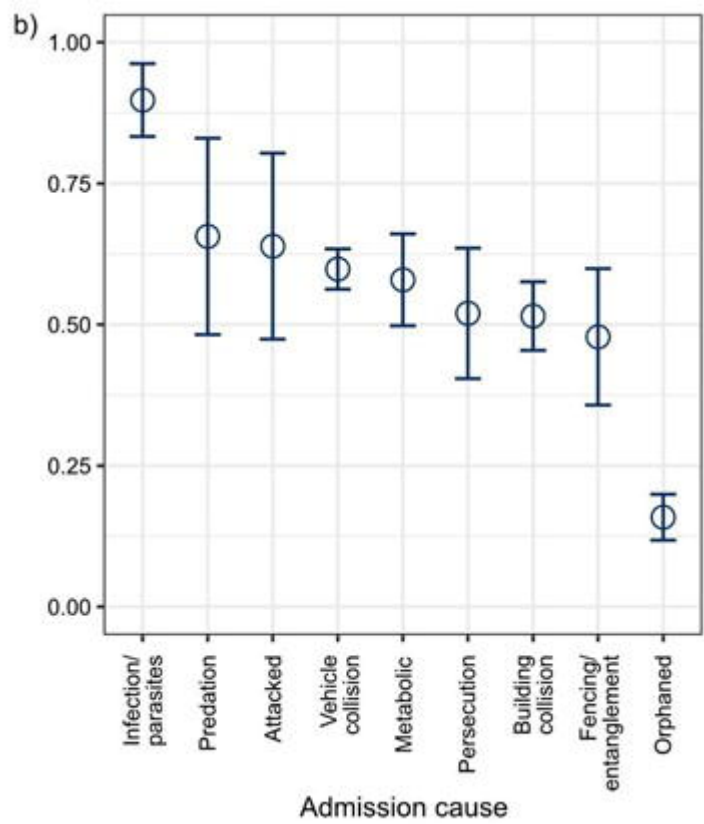
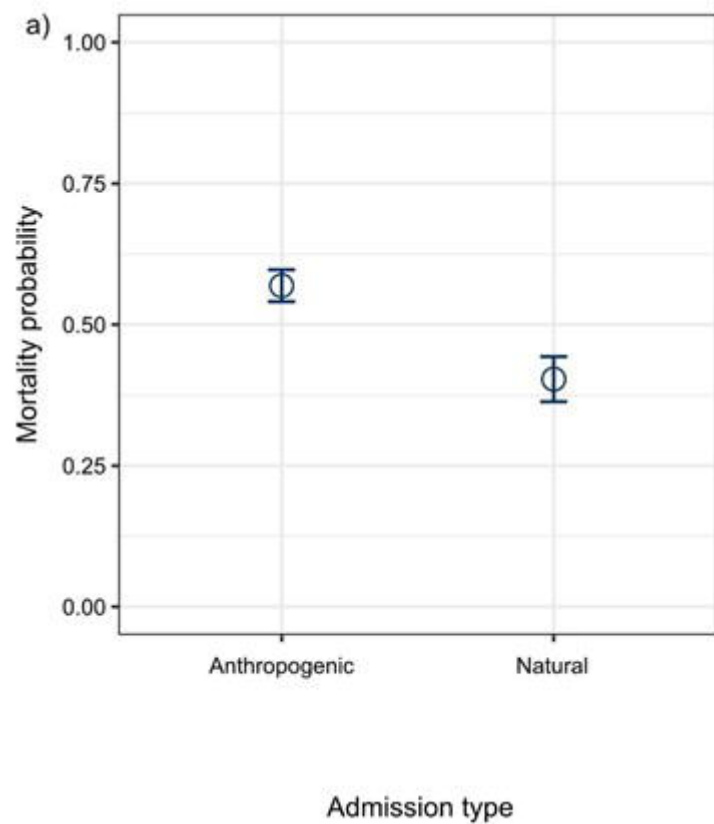
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Proportion of total admitted individuals



Relative proportion of breeding individuals in Britain & Ireland

