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Short communication

Using network analysis to identify indicator species and reduce collision fatalities at wind farms

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ABSTRACT

The adverse effects of wind farms on wildlife, mainly the mortality of flying animals at turbines, should be carefully studied to reconcile renewable energy production and biodiversity conservation. The growing consensus about the aggregated pattern of this mortality at particular turbines suggests that the identification of high-mortality turbines can decisively aid in the implementation of effective management actions. Here, taking advantage of a long-term monitoring program of animal mortality at wind farms (10,017 fatalities of 170 bird and bat species between 1993 and 2016) in two Spanish regions, we demonstrate the utility of network analysis in identifying species indicative of high-risk turbines whose stoppage could significantly reduce the mortality of other species. Our protocol can be easily applied to any region with available data on animal mortality to help managers reduce the negative impacts of wind farms.

1. Introduction

The negative impacts of greenhouse gases produced by traditional energy sources have led to the development of renewable energy alternatives (e.g. Sims, 2004), which may have substantial environmental impacts of their own (Sánchez-Zapata et al., 2016). Especially alarming is the number of fatalities due to the collision of flying animals (birds and bats) with rotating turbine rotor blades (hereafter, turbines; Smallwood, 2007) at wind farms. In the United States alone, wind turbines cause an estimated annual mortality of 140,000–328,000 birds (Loss et al., 2013) and 500,000–1.6 million bats (Arnett and Baerwald, 2013). Thus, it is urgent to find solutions that make green energy production compatible with wildlife conservation.

A generalized pattern observed in studies of avian mortality at wind farms is that the spatial distribution of mortalities is not uniform at large (among wind farms) or at small scales (among turbines), but rather is concentrated at some specific wind farms and turbines that show the highest mortality rates (e.g. Osborn et al., 2000; Carrete et al., 2012). Although there are factors such as topography or proximity to colonies of sensitive species that relate to mortality rates at turbines (Barrios and Rodríguez, 2004; Carrete et al., 2012), much variance remains unexplained and more work is needed to fully understand it. Meanwhile,

actions to reduce the hazard level of these points are urgently required, and a first step is to detect those turbines that are the most dangerous. In this scenario, the use of indicator species (i.e. estimators of the status of other species or environmental conditions of interest, Caro and O'Doherty, 1999) can greatly contribute to the identification of hazardous wind turbines, and help managers focus management efforts.

Here, we use a network analysis approach to easily identify species indicators of wind farm fatalities. Network analysis has proven useful to select indicator species within schemes of infrastructure impact monitoring, especially in complex or understudied communities, in part because it does not require detailed species-specific information (Pérez-García et al., 2016). Our study focuses on peninsular Spain, one of the areas of the world with the largest numbers of wind farms (> 1080 wind farms producing 23,026 MW of generating capacity in 2018; <http://www.aeolica.es>). At the same time, Spain is vastly important to wildlife, with population strongholds of many threatened European avian (Birdlife International, 2000) and bat species (Ibáñez et al., 2006). These characteristics make this a good model to study the interactions between wildlife and wind energy.

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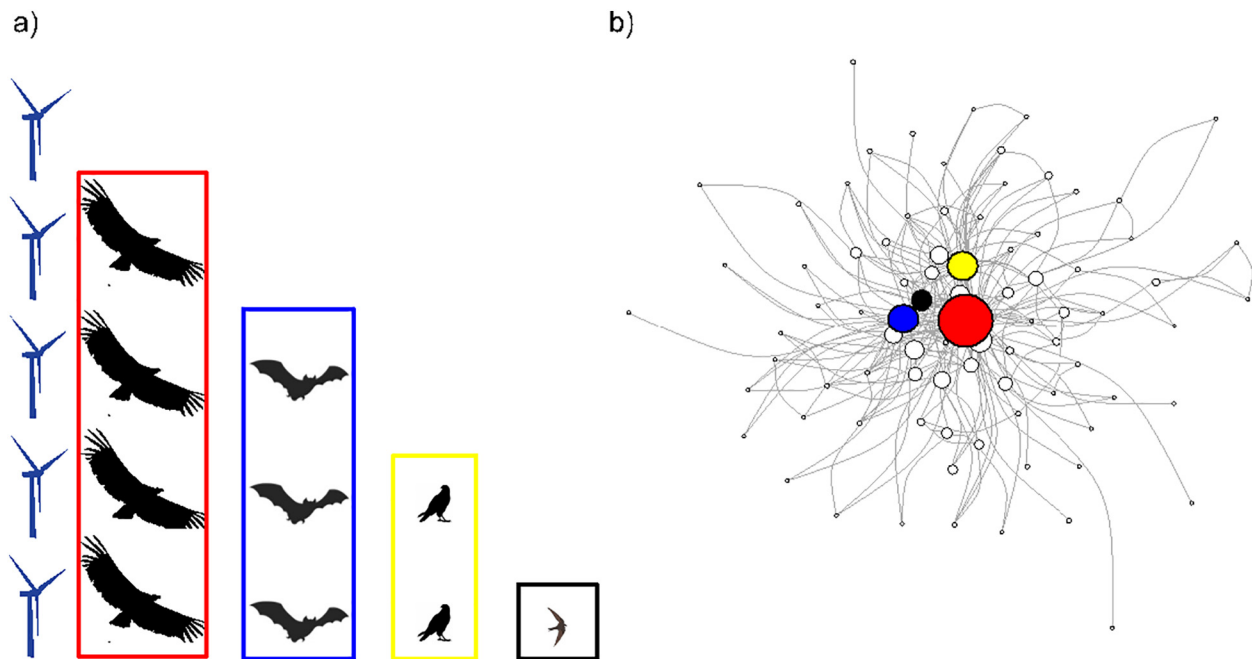


Fig. 1. a) A conceptual representation of how stopping high-risk turbines identified by using an indicator species (red: griffon vulture) can reduce the mortality rate of other species (blue: *Pipistrellus* spp.; yellow: common kestrel; black: common swift). b): Network describing the co-occurrence of wildlife fatalities at one of the study sites. Each circle represents a species and each line links species that co-occur at a turbine. The size of the circles represents the (log) number of fatalities per species and colors match those of a). (For interpretation of the references to colour in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

2. Methods

2.1. Study areas and mortality data

We included information from two areas located in the provinces of Cádiz (southern Spain) and Castellón (eastern Spain). Both are areas dominated by Mediterranean landscapes with a mixture of *Quercus* woodlands, scrublands and pastures in hilly areas and agricultural lands in plains. Moreover, Cádiz's wind farms are located near the Strait of Gibraltar, one of the main migratory routes for Palearctic birds. More information on these study areas can be found in Carrete et al. (2012) and Martínez-Abraín et al. (2012).

From the moment of their construction, power companies and local governments have regularly monitored wind farm mortality. We used information on 27 and 12 wind farms (totalling 869 and 320 wind turbines) located in Cádiz and Castellón and built between 1992 and 2009 and 2006–2011, respectively. We included mortality fatalities from December 1993 to March 2016 for Cádiz (although the monitoring was more systematic after 2008) and from October 2006 to June 2015 for Castellón. For each mortality case, monitoring programs recorded the species, date, and turbine. If the exact turbine where the collision occurred was not identified, data were excluded from our analysis.

Species identification was difficult for some groups (e.g. bats from the *Pipistrellus* genus), so their mortality records were pooled for subsequent analyses. Because the surveys were conducted twice per week (at maximum) and were not standardized among wind farms, some of the carcasses may have disappeared before detection (mainly small-sized species; Ponce et al., 2010). Thus, our results are conservative, indicating minimum mortality rates (see Carrete et al., 2012 for a more detailed explanation on monitoring).

2.2. Indicator species identification

Our procedure had three main steps, namely: 1) First, we tested whether data are organized under a nested pattern. Our reasoning is that if the distribution of dead animals in a wind farm is quantitatively nested at turbines, the most commonly affected species (i.e. the species

killed at more turbines and in the largest numbers) can be used as indicators of dangerous turbines because the rest of the species will also die in these points (Fig. 1a). If the assemblage is nested, we then 2) identified the species contributing the most to this nestedness as a candidate for an indicator species. Finally, 3) we considered whether the biological characteristics of the species are appropriate for its use as an indicator. Note that indicator species should point to the presence of other, more evasive/elusive (difficult to detect) species, so we were particularly interested in large species that can be easily detected during the standard monitoring programs performed at wind farms to correctly estimate its presence (i.e. mortality).

We identified if mortality data were quantitatively nested using the metric WNODF (Weighted Nestedness Of Decreasing Fill), ranging from zero to 100 (100 corresponding to a perfectly nested matrix and medium values to random ones). Since the variation in the number of fatalities could influence the degree of nestedness, we compared our observed value of nestedness to values obtained in 1000 matrices constructed following a null model where species-specific probabilities are proportional to the relative number of fatalities per species (Vázquez et al., 2007). We then calculated the contribution of each species to the nestedness as a proxy of how accurate the mortality of each species in a turbine is in predicting the mortality of the other species (positive or negative values for species with a high or low contribution to nestedness, respectively). In our case, indicator species are those with the largest positive values. Species with the lowest contribution to the pattern should also be identified as their mortality will go unnoticed when using the indicator species. WNODF and contribution to nestedness were obtained using the *bipartite* package (Dormann et al., 2009) in R (R Development Core Team, 2015).

3. Results

A total of 10,017 carcasses from 170 species were recorded in the two studied areas (9014 individuals from 151 spp. in Cádiz, and 1014 from 78 spp. in Castellón) (Table S1). Bird fatalities were more common than mammal fatalities (88% and 22%, respectively), with this rate higher in Castellón than in Cádiz (Fig. 2). Mortality distribution across

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