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García-Salgado, G. et al., 2018. Breeding habitat preferences and reproductive success of Northern Goshawk (*Accipiter gentilis*) in exotic Eucalyptus plantations in southwestern Europe. *Forest Ecology and Management*, 409, pp.817–825.

Available at <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.foreco.2017.12.020>

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1 **Forest Ecology and Management 409: 817-825**

2

3 **Breeding habitat preferences and reproductive success of Northern Goshawk**
4 **(*Accipiter gentilis*) in exotic Eucalyptus plantations in southwestern Europe**

5

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16

17 **Abstract**

18 With ongoing degradation of natural forests and spread of forest plantations, plantations
19 must play an increasingly important role in biodiversity conservation. Study of habitat
20 selection and reproductive success of surrogate species in plantations can guide forest
21 management decisions for increasing biodiversity. In this paper we studied the suitability
22 of exotic Eucalyptus plantations managed at low intensity in northwestern Spain as
23 breeding habitat for Northern Goshawk (*Accipiter gentilis*), a top predator frequently
24 considered a surrogate species in conservation.

25 Goshawks showed high breeding density, high reproductive success and a regular spatial
26 distribution of nesting territories. Territoriality was the most important determinant of

27 habitat selection. Goshawks selected extra-mature Eucalyptus trees in areas of high
28 structural complexity (high tree density, tree species richness, and number of tree strata)
29 in the most heterogeneous forest stands (old-mixed Eucalyptus). Reproductive success
30 decreased with increasing local density of breeding pairs, but reproductive success was
31 not related to structural characteristics of nest stands.

32 The studied plantations provided a suitable breeding habitat for Goshawks. The birds
33 preferred to nest in large Eucalyptus trees with appropriate structure in their immediate
34 surroundings. The strong preference of Goshawks for structurally mature forest patches
35 may make them useful as a surrogate species for assessing the ability of forest
36 management practices to promote overall biodiversity in exotic Eucalyptus plantations
37 exploited at low intensity.

38

39 **Keywords:** biodiversity surrogate; density trap; mature plantation; raptor; smallholding
40 forestry; territoriality.

41 **1. Introduction**

42 Deforestation and forest degradation, major causes of global forest biodiversity loss
43 (IUFRO 2014), can be counteracted to some extent by forest plantations, which should
44 play an increasingly important role in the provision of ecosystem services and
45 biodiversity conservation (Brockerhoff *et al.* 2008, Brockerhoff *et al.* 2013, Trumbore
46 2015). While global area of natural forest area has declined by 6% between 1990–2015,
47 forest plantation area has increased by 66%, and it accounted for up to 7% of total forest
48 area in 2015 (Keenan *et al.* 2015, FAO 2015). Most forest plantations (56%) are located
49 in temperate latitudes, with more than half of these situated in Europe (Payn *et al.* 2015),
50 where nearly half of plantations, mainly in central and southern regions of the continent,
51 are made up of exotic species. In Spain and Portugal, the exotic species *Eucalyptus spp.*
52 is particularly important; its planted area has reached approximately one million ha, and
53 it continues to increase (Martín-Vallejo 2015).

54 The effects of forest plantations on biodiversity are still not fully understood (Bremer &
55 Farley 2010). Many forest plantations appear to be less diverse than natural forests, with
56 a simpler composition and structure, particularly in even-aged, single-species stands
57 involving exotic species managed in short rotation periods (Martínez-Jáuregui *et al.*
58 2016). On the other hand, certain plantations can provide a valuable habitat for a wide
59 variety of taxa, including native, threatened and top predator species such as forest raptors
60 (Petty 1998, Sarasola & Negro 2006, Speziale & Lambertucci 2013, Olano *et al.* 2016).
61 Analysis of plantations able to maintain species of conservation interest can help to
62 identify forest management practices that favour biodiversity within plantations.

63 Top predators, such as forest raptors, are often associated with higher species richness
64 because they usually select large-sized patches of habitat with relatively high primary
65 productivity, structural complexity and spatial heterogeneity (Sergio *et al.* 2008). For this

66 reason, dominant raptors can serve as surrogate species to represent the status of various
67 species (Burgas *et al.* 2016) on a plantation and thereby inform comprehensive planning
68 designed to support multiple species. Study of the relationship between breeding raptors
69 and the composition and structure of forest plantations can help identify plantation
70 characteristics that provide good-quality habitat for these species (Brockerhoff *et al.*
71 2008). Forest management can then focus on improving the habitat for surrogate raptors,
72 bringing benefits to a wider range of species and thereby improving overall biodiversity.

73 Habitat selection is a behavioural process based on innate or learned preferences through
74 which individuals choose a habitat to settle, forage and/or reproduce (Robertson & Hutto
75 2006). Habitat selection can be identified by the disproportionate use of some habitats
76 compared to their availability in the environment, and it reveals essential requirements
77 of the focal species (Johnson 1980, Orians & Wittenberger 1991). Breeding habitats
78 should receive special attention because their availability is linked to long-term
79 persistence of local populations (Boulinier *et al.* 2008). For birds, choosing nest location
80 is critical because the nest must ensure concealment and protection during the long
81 period from incubation to dispersal of fledglings (Orians & Wittenberger 1991).
82 Prevailing theory suggests that habitat preferences of animals are adaptive, such that
83 fitness is higher in preferred habitats (Robertson & Hutto 2006, Fuller 2012). Thus, we
84 aimed to assess raptor habitat quality in forest plantations by focusing on breeding
85 habitat selection and relating the observed habitat preferences to key demographic
86 parameters such as reproductive success (Wilson *et al.* 2012).

87 In this study we analysed the suitability of exotic Eucalyptus plantations as a breeding
88 habitat for top predators in northwestern Spain, using the Goshawk (*Accipiter gentilis*) as
89 a model. We explored breeding habitat preferences of Goshawks at several spatial scales,
90 asking whether they would select mature-like sites in Eucalyptus plantations, similar to

91 their habitat preferences in other forest types. Then we assessed whether the observed
92 breeding habitat preferences had adaptive value by testing whether they correlated with
93 reproductive success. We expected that reproductive success would be greater, reflected
94 in earlier laying dates and greater fledgling production, in preferred habitats. Identifying
95 Goshawk breeding habitat preferences and understanding their relationship to
96 reproductive success may guide forest management decisions to favour this top predator,
97 thereby generating broader benefits for overall biodiversity in exotic Eucalyptus
98 plantations.

99

100 **2. Material and methods**

101 *2.1. Study area*

102 The study area (183 km²) is located in northwestern Spain (Morrazo peninsula, Galicia,
103 42° 20' N, 8° 47' E). The climate is wet temperate oceanic (*Cfb* Köppen type) with annual
104 average precipitation of 1402 mm and temperature of 14.2 °C (Cortizas & Alberti 1999),
105 and frequent wind and rain storms in winter and spring (Cabalar 2005). The landscape is
106 rugged, in that there are hills and valleys, with a mountainous axis with dominant
107 direction SW-NE that divides the peninsula in a North and a South face. Average altitude
108 is 169 m (range 0–628 m). The upper parts are occupied by gorse (*Ulex europaeus*) and
109 rocky outcrops. Forests form a more or less continuous mass dominating the steeply
110 sloping hillsides. Some small isolated forest patches within the agricultural matrix are
111 also present. Lower parts of the hillsides and valley bottoms have been intensively
112 cultivated and urbanised (Figure A1 and Table A1 in the Appendix A). Human population
113 density is high (480 inhabitants km⁻²).

114 Forest formations cover up to 51% of the study area, mainly exotic Eucalyptus plantations
115 (*Eucalyptus globulus*), which began to be planted at the end of the 19th century and
116 nowadays represent 85% of the total forest area (IFN3 1997–2007, Manuel- Valdés &
117 Gil-Sánchez 2006). The region comprises primarily private smallholding, giving rise to
118 overall rudimentary, low-intensity forest management (Ambrosío *et al.* 2003). Each forest
119 owner generally has fewer than 1.5 ha of land, often distributed across several plots, 80%
120 of which are smaller than 0.5 ha. Intensity of exploitation and mechanisation are low and
121 silvicultural and phytosanitary treatments are rarely applied. Logging usually takes the
122 form of clear-cuttings affecting small areas. The resulting forest landscape is a
123 heterogeneous mosaic of small Eucalyptus plantations with different origins (plantation,
124 resprouting), age and tree density, and rotation periods. Many abandoned parcels with
125 extra-mature trees are present, often of unknown ownership (Ambrosío *et al.* 2003,
126 Álvarez-Taboada 2005, IFN3 1997–2007). Within these plantations, native tree species
127 such as Pedunculate Oak (*Quercus robur*) and Laurel (*Laurus nobilis*), and other formerly
128 introduced tree species such as Chestnut (*Castanea sativa*) and Pine (*Pinus pinaster*) are
129 common, appearing clumped in certain plots, or ranged as tree lines along the boundaries
130 between plots, or scattered as isolated individuals immersed within the Eucalyptus stands.

131 2.2. Study species

132 Goshawk (*Accipiter gentilis*) is a medium-sized diurnal forest raptor distributed across
133 Europe and more widely globally in a Holarctic pattern. It is a generalist top predator that
134 shows strong territorial behaviour with respect to both breeding territory and nest sites
135 (Kenward 2006). Goshawks use a wide range of habitats for nesting, including conifer
136 and hardwood forests, and forest plantations (Kenward 2006). They show preference for
137 nesting in mature areas of extensive forests, although they also use small patches of
138 woodland in fragmented agroforestry landscapes (Rutz *et al.* 2006). This species is

139 sensitive to human activities, and it has been used as an ecological indicator of changes
140 in ecosystems and effects of forest management (Crocker-Bedford 1990, Reynolds *et al.*
141 1992, Widen 1997, Penteriani & Faivre 2001, Mc Grath *et al.* 2003, Selås *et al.* 2008).
142 Nest sites of Goshawks have also been associated with higher levels of biodiversity of
143 several taxa, making them useful as a surrogate species in conservation (Sergio *et al.*
144 2006, Burgas *et al.* 2014, 2016).

145 *2.3. Nest searches, laying dates and reproductive success*

146 For the period 2004–2011, the entire forest area was systematically surveyed to locate all
147 Goshawk nests (Pérez-Camacho *et al.* 2015, Rebollo *et al.* 2017a). Goshawk territories
148 usually contain several nests that are used alternately over the years (Squires & Reynolds
149 1997). Each nest was visited periodically during the breeding season to determine its
150 occupancy (presence of breeders or their signs), presence of eggs (incubating female) or
151 nestlings. On the basis of these observations, nests were classified, respectively, as
152 occupied nests, active nests and successful nests.

153 Nestlings of successful nests were counted, measured and banded when they were older
154 than 20 days ($n = 263$; mean [\pm SD] nestling age at banding, 24.6 ± 4.2 days). The minimal
155 width of the tarsus was used to sex the chicks (males, <6.5 mm; females, >6.5 mm;
156 Kenward 2006) and the length of the seventh primary feather was used to estimate their
157 age (Mañosa 1994). Laying dates were estimated by subtracting the incubation time for a
158 single egg (38 days) from the hatching date of the oldest nestling (Kenward 2006). Earlier
159 laying dates are related to greater reproductive success (Newton 1998, Byholm *et al.*
160 2002, Lehikoinen *et al.* 2012). The number of nestlings at banding was considered an
161 indicator of fledging success (*i.e.* number of fully feathered young voluntarily leaving the
162 nest for the first time; Steenhof & Newton 2007) since the highest mortality of chicks

163 usually occurs around hatching (Kostrzewa & Kostrzewa 1990, Mañosa 1991, Byholm
164 2005).

165 We calculated G (*sensu* Brown and Rothery 1978) as an index of nest spacing regularity.
166 This index ranges between 0–1, with values >0.65 indicating increasing regularity and
167 suggesting the existence of territoriality.

168 2.4. *Breeding habitat selection*

169 Goshawk breeding sites (all active nests in 2004–2009, $n = 64$) and sites selected at
170 random (reference plots representing habitat availability, $n = 80$) were compared at
171 various spatial scales following a site-attribute design *sensu* Garshelis (2000). The
172 reference plots were selected by generating random coordinates within the forest area,
173 after excluding forest patches smaller than 4 ha because Goshawks in the study area do
174 not use them for nest placement (Rebollo *et al.* 2017a). Reference plots that fell within
175 occupied territories were not excluded. Based on the random coordinates, we located the
176 closest appropriate tree to support a nest, which was defined as a tree with a diameter at
177 breast height [DBH] ≥ 50 cm for Eucalyptus or ≥ 30 cm for Oaks and Pines. Goshawks in
178 the study area rarely used smaller trees for placing the nest. Territory identity of the
179 reference plots was assimilated to that of the nearest Goshawk territory in statistical
180 analyses in order to prevent spatial autocorrelation.

181 Habitat selection occurs at multiple spatial scales, with each scale potentially showing
182 functional significance and relation to fitness (Orians & Wittenberger 1991, Tapia *et al.*
183 2007). We considered the following spatial scales (Fig. 1): (1) the nest tree and its
184 surroundings, including the nest site (sampled in a circular plot of radius 10 m around the
185 nest tree) and nest stand (50 m radius, sampled in three circular plots of radius 10 m,
186 averaging sampled habitat variables among the three plots.); (2) the post-fledging family
187 area (PFA) surrounding the nest stand, which is the area used by the family group from

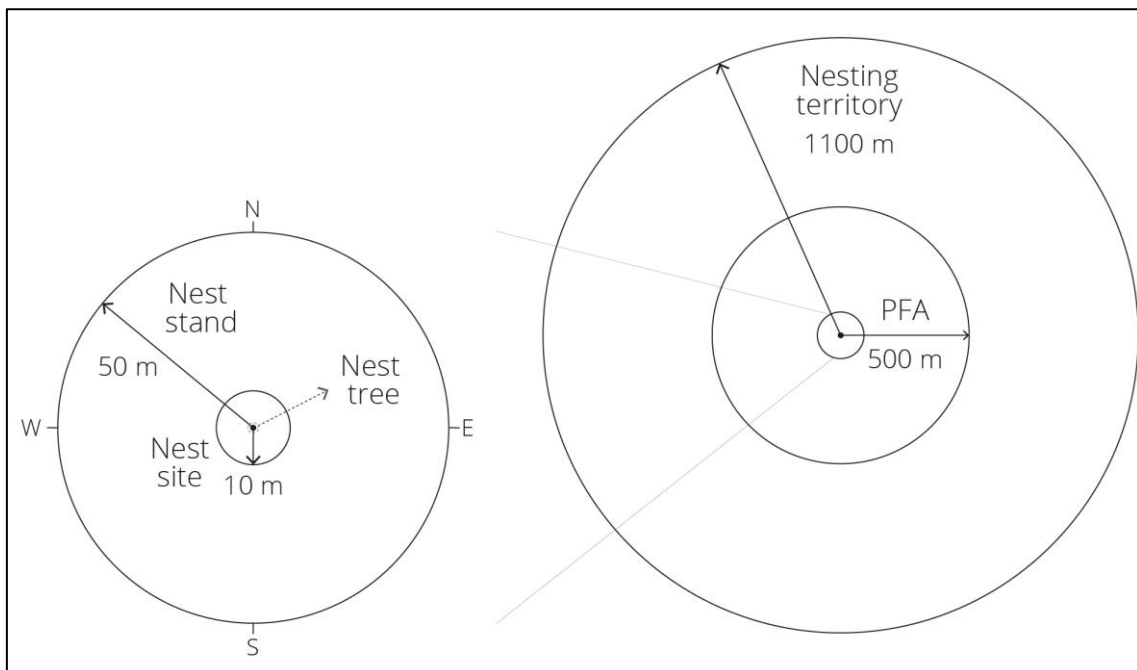
188 the time the young fledge until they no longer depend on adults for food (Tapia *et al.*
189 2007). PFA size, which varies in the literature from 60 to 200 ha depending on the specific
190 definition of PFA used and local environmental conditions (Squires & Kennedy 2006),
191 was defined here to be 80 ha (~500 m radius around the nest tree) based on the high
192 Goshawk breeding density in the study area. And (3) nesting territory, which is the area
193 around the nest defended by the breeding pair against other Goshawks and showing little
194 or no overlap with neighbouring territories (Squires & Reynolds 1997). Nesting territories
195 were defined as circular territories with a radius of 1100 m around the nest tree, which
196 roughly coincides with half the average distance between neighbouring active nests in the
197 study area (2234 ± 162 m; Martínez- Hesterkamp *et al.* 2015, Rebollo *et al.* 2017a).
198 Territoriality is a necessary component of any habitat model involving territorial breeding
199 birds because it inhibits the use of areas around active nests (Reich *et al.* 2004).

200 Goshawk breeding habitat was described using 46 variables of forest composition and
201 structure, topography, land cover types, and indicators of potential human disturbances
202 (Tables A1 and A2 in the Appendix A). Forest sampling was carried out in January-
203 February 2010, before the beginning of the breeding season, to avoid disturbances to
204 breeding Goshawks. Variables at the PFA and nesting territory scales, and other
205 landscape variables were acquired from a geographic information system (ArcGis 9.3,
206 ESRI) with cartographic information from the Territorial Information System of Galicia
207 (SITGA-IDEG, Xunta de Galicia). Additionally, a layer of land cover types was created
208 from photointerpretation of satellite images (PNOA, 2009), from which 18 land cover
209 types were defined (Table A1). We conducted a ground-truthing survey in April-May
210 2011 visiting all UTM 1×1 Km² grids of the study area to verify the classification of land
211 cover types, paying special attention to the classification of forest types (200 grids, mean
212 36 minutes per grid). We also determined nearest-neighbour distance (NND) as an

213 indicator of territorial behaviour (Newton *et al.* 1977, Rebollo *et al.* 2017a). The NND
214 was measured as the distance from each nest/reference tree to the centroid of the nearest
215 neighbour breeding territory, the centroid being the mean geographic position of the
216 alternate nests of each breeding territory. This measure underestimates the NND of the
217 active nests since all Goshawk territories are not occupied every year, but it allows
218 comparing this variable between the nest and the reference plots. Additionally, it is a
219 conservative measure because Goshawk territories can be defended even when egg laying
220 is not achieved.

221

222



223

224 **Figure 1.** Scales of analysis of Goshawk breeding habitat preferences (right) and forest
225 structure sampling design at the nest stand scale (left).

226

227

228 *2.5. Statistical procedures*

229 We used binomial (logit link) generalised linear mixed models (GLMMs) to determine
230 patterns of Goshawk breeding habitat selection simultaneously at the three spatial scales
231 (cross-scale analysis). Territory identity was specified as a random factor to control the
232 lack of independence associated with the habitat preferences of the same breeding pairs
233 in successive years.

234 We selected the predictor variables in the GLMMs using a three-step variable reduction
235 procedure. In the first step, the mean of each habitat variable was compared between
236 breeding sites and reference plots using the Mann-Whitney U test with a significance cut-
237 off of $p \leq 0.05$. In the second step, variables satisfying this cut-off were included in
238 principal component analysis (PCA), regardless of the scale to which they related. This
239 early filtering of potential predictor variables was conducted to avoid, as much as
240 possible, negligible information regarding nest location in the landscape. Discarded
241 variables won't be thus interpreted lately in the subsequent regression analyses when
242 considering PCA axes as complex predictor variables. We considered that a variable was
243 summarised by a PCA component if the correlation between the two was associated with
244 $r \geq 0.5$. In subsequent analyses, the first two PCA components were used as predictors in
245 GLMMs. In the third step of variable reduction, Pearson's correlation analyses were
246 performed with variables not summarised by PCA components. In the case of strongly
247 correlated pairs of variables ($r > 0.6$), both variables were considered to estimate a single
248 underlying factor (Green 1979), so only the variable showing greater significance in the
249 Mann-Whitney U test of the first step was incorporated into subsequent analyses.

250 GLMMs were built with all additive combinations of the former selected variables and a
251 model selection procedure based on the Akaike information criterion corrected for small
252 sample sizes (AICc). Models with $\Delta AICc \leq 2$ have substantial *a priori* support (set of
253 confidence models). When no model in the set of confidence models was clearly better

254 than the others based on Akaike weights (best model $w < 0.9$), a weighted model
255 averaging procedure was used to discern the relative importance of each predictor
256 variable (Burnham & Anderson 2002, Gibson *et al.* 2004).

257 To study the relationships between breeding habitat preferences and reproductive success,
258 we used mixed models containing year and territory identity as random factors (Byholm
259 & Kekkonen 2008). Habitat variables that received support in the analysis of habitat
260 selection were used as predictors. Two indicators of reproductive success were tested as
261 response variables: (1) laying phenology (in Julian days, with January 1 defined as day
262 1), which was evaluated using linear mixed models (LMMs); and (2) fledging success,
263 defined binomially (logit link) as low (≤ 2 fledglings in the nest at banding) or high (≥ 3
264 fledglings) in GLMMs. We consider the cut-off point of 2 fledglings to be a biologically
265 relevant indicator of reproductive success for the Goshawk in Europe given its optimal
266 clutch size of 3-4 eggs, which leads to the highest proportion of young fledged (Kenward
267 2006). This, together with the facts that most clutches of a single egg are usually
268 abandoned, and that clutches of 2 eggs often do not produce any fledgling (Kenward
269 2006) may indicate that the expectation of raising 2 or less fledglings has low adaptive
270 value. With each response variable, a model selection procedure similar to the habitat
271 selection analysis was performed.

272 Data were analysed using Statistica 8.0 (StatSoft, Tulsa, OK, USA) and the “lme4”
273 package (Bates *et al.* 2015) in R 3.0.3 (R Development Core Team 2014)

274

275

276 **3. Results**

277 *3.1. Breeding density*

278 In the period 2004-2011 we detected 29 Goshawk nesting territories (15.8 territories 100
279 km⁻²). The number of active nests per year ranged from 18 to 22 (mean \pm SE, 19.1 \pm 0.5;
280 10.4 egg-laying pairs 100 km⁻²). The average distance between neighbouring nesting
281 territories was 1933 \pm 84 m (range 1367–3283 m) and between active nests each year was
282 2234 \pm 48 m (range 1034–4590 m). The G index was 0.90 for the nesting territories and
283 0.83 for active nests, indicating a regular distribution of the nest sites. The mean laying
284 date was April 7 (range, March 20 to May 5, SD = 10.7 days, n = 55). The average
285 fledging success was 2.3 fledglings per active nest (SD = 1.2, n = 64). The number of
286 egg-laying pairs decreased significantly during the period 2004–2011 (r = -0.74; p =
287 0.036; r^2 = 0.55).

288 3.2. *Breeding habitat description*

289 Goshawks built their nests on large trees (height = 36.6 \pm 1.0 m, DBH = 73.7 \pm 2.4 cm, n
290 = 64). Ninety-two percent of the nests were on Eucalyptus, which were used above their
291 availability (43.8%; chi-squared = 62.14; df = 3; p < 0.001; Table A3 in the Appendix A).
292 The nests were located at a high average height (22.4 \pm 0.7 m, range = 8–35 m), in the
293 lower or middle third of the tree crown (91% of the nests), generally in the main central
294 fork of the tree (54%) or in a thick lateral branch against the trunk (40%).

295 In comparison to reference sites, nest surroundings (nest site, nest stand) had a higher
296 density of trees, higher density of large Eucalyptus trees (defined as DBH >50 cm in the
297 nest site, >70 and >100 cm in the nest stand), higher canopy cover and height, greater
298 number of tree strata and greater tree species richness. Thus nest surroundings attained
299 higher structural complexity than reference sites. In fact, nest sites frequently presented a
300 visually distinguishable forest structure within the nest stand. The number of trails was
301 also higher in the nest stands than in the reference plots (Table A3 in the Appendix A).

302 At the PFA scale, the area of mixed Eucalyptus stands (Eucalyptus plantations enriched
303 in large Eucalyptus trees, Oaks and Pines) was higher in breeding sites than in reference
304 plots, and the area of fields and meadows with buildings was lower (Table A3 in the
305 Appendix A). Ninety-seven percent of nests occurred in Eucalyptus stands, mainly in
306 mixed Eucalyptus stands (92.2%), which were used above their availability (71.4%; chi-
307 squared =15.8; $df = 5$; $p = 0.007$). Goshawks nested on the northern aspect above their
308 availability. The number of built-up areas and total length of paved roads were lower in
309 breeding sites than in reference plots. Goshawk nests were located at a mean distance
310 from the forest edge greater than the reference plots (Table A3 in the Appendix A).
311 Distances between 100 and 400 m were used above their availability; smaller or greater
312 distances were avoided.

313 Most Goshawk nests occurred peripherally within the main mass of forest plantations,
314 maintaining a certain distance to the forest edge (average 177 ± 12 m), with only a few
315 territories (7 out of 29) established in isolated forest patches within the agricultural matrix
316 (Figure A1 in the Appendix A). The nesting territories did not differ from the reference
317 plots in the proportions of land cover types, topographic features, or other variables
318 indicative of human disturbance. Conversely, active nests showed significantly longer
319 distances (NNDs) than reference trees to the centroid of the nearest neighbour breeding
320 territory (Table A3 in the Appendix A). There were no active nests within 1000 m of any
321 other active nest. NNDs between 1000–1500 m were used in proportion to their
322 availability, and those between 1500–2500 m were used well above their availability.

323 *3.3. Principal component analysis*

324 The first two components of PCA accounted for, respectively, 24% and 16% of the
325 variance, and included variables related to the forest structure (Table 1). The first
326 component (PCA1) represents a gradient of size (age) and density of Eucalyptus trees at

327 the scales of nest tree, nest site and nest stand, which we called *age-and-density of*
 328 *Eucalyptus trees in the nest surroundings*. The second component (PCA2) represents a
 329 gradient of tree species richness and structural complexity in the nest surroundings and
 330 PFA, which we called *structural complexity-maturity of the nesting forest patch*.

331

332

333 **Table 1.** Principal component analysis (PCA) of the habitat variables showing significant
 334 univariate differences between breeding sites and reference plots.

335

PCA1	Factor loadings*	PCA2	Factor loadings*
<i>Nest tree</i>		<i>Nest site</i>	
Height	0.77	Tree strata	-0.50
Crown height	0.71	Total Eucalyptus	0.66
DBH	0.64	Eucalyptus DBH 7.5-15	0.64
Crown volume	0.55	Total trees DBH >7.5	0.51
<i>Nest site</i>		<i>Nest stand</i>	
Maximum height	0.81	Tree strata	-0.53
Eucalyptus DBH > 50	0.66	Tree species richness	-0.49
Total Eucalyptus	0.57	Eucalyptus DBH 7.5-15	0.59
Total trees DBH >7.5	0.50	Total Eucalyptus	0.57
Eucalyptus DBH 7.5-15	0.49		
<i>Nest stand</i>		<i>PFA</i>	
Eucalyptus DBH 15-50	0.70	Total mixed Eucalyptus stand cover	-0.63
Total Eucalyptus	0.69	Total Eucalyptus stand cover	-0.52
Total trees DBH >7.5	0.69		
Maximum height	0.63		
Eucalyptus DBH 7.5-15	0.60		
Total trees DBH >15	0.58		

336 Note: Factor loadings refer to factor-variable correlations.

337

338 3.4. Breeding habitat selection

339 In the end, 7 variables were analysed in binomial GLMMs (Table 2). The set of
 340 confidence models ($\Delta AICc < 2$) comprised 11 models, and all variables analysed were
 341 included in at least one of the models. Model averaging indicated that territoriality

342 (NND), age-and-density of Eucalyptus in the nest surroundings (PCA1), and structural
 343 complexity-maturity of the nesting forest patch (PCA2) were the most influential
 344 variables in the process of breeding habitat selection. Standardised estimates suggest that
 345 territoriality (NND) was the most important variable, followed by PCA1. These two
 346 variables were roughly 3 times more important than PCA2 (Table 3). The best-fitting
 347 model explained $R^2_m = 91\%$ of the variance using only the three most important variables
 348 (NND, PCA1, PCA2). This high goodness of fit should allow reliable predictions of the
 349 probability of occurrence of Goshawk nests.

350

351 **Table 2.** Highest-ranked generalised linear mixed models using AICc-based model
 352 selection for Goshawk breeding habitat selection.

Ni	Model	log (L)	k	AICc	Δ AICc	w_i	R^2_m	R^2_c
1	NND + PCA1 + PCA2	-21.99	3	54.41	0	0.15	0.91	0.95
2	NND + PCA1 + PCA2 + CANOPY + DFE	-19.82	5	54.46	0.05	0.15	0.91	0.98
3	NND + PCA1 + PCA2 + CANOPY	-21.08	4	54.78	0.37	0.13	0.90	0.97
4	NND + PCA1 + PCA2 + ASPECT	-21.41	4	55.43	1.01	0.09	0.90	0.95
5	NND + PCA1 + PCA2 + DFE	-21.43	4	55.48	1.06	0.09	0.91	0.97
6	NND + PCA1 + PCA2 + CANOPY + ASPECT + DFE	-19.32	6	55.71	1.30	0.08	0.90	0.98
7	NND + PCA1 + PCA2 + CANOPY + ASPECT	-20.51	5	55.84	1.43	0.07	0.90	0.97
8	NND + PCA1 + PCA2 + TRAILS	-21.74	4	56.09	1.67	0.07	0.91	0.97
9	NND + PCA1 + PCA2 + CANOPY + TRAILS	-20.69	5	56.20	1.78	0.06	0.90	0.98
10	NND + PCA1 + PCA2 + CANOPY + DFE + TRAILS	-19.62	6	56.31	1.89	0.06	0.91	0.98
11	NND + PCA1 + PCA2 + ASPECT + DFE	-20.75	5	56.33	1.91	0.06	0.91	0.96

353

354 Note: The table shows model number (Ni), maximised log-likelihood function [log (L)], number of
 355 estimated parameters (K), AICc, AICc differences (Δ AICc), Akaike weights (w_i), and marginal and
 356 conditional R-squared values (R^2_m , R^2_c). Abbreviations: ASPECT, nest stand aspect; CANOPY, nest site
 357 canopy cover; DFE, distance to forest edge; NND, nearest-neighbour distance; PCA1, age-and-density
 358 of Eucalyptus in the nest surroundings; PCA2, structural complexity-maturity of the nesting forest patch;
 359 TRAILS, nest stand trails. R^2_m and R^2_c are R-squared values for mixed-effects models indicating the
 360 proportion of total variance explained, respectively, by fixed effects alone or by the combination of fixed
 361 and random effects, as defined by Nakagawa & Schielzeth (2013).

362

363 **Table 3.** Relative importance (w_+) and model-averaged parameter estimates for variables
 364 in binomial GLMMs describing Goshawk breeding habitat selection.

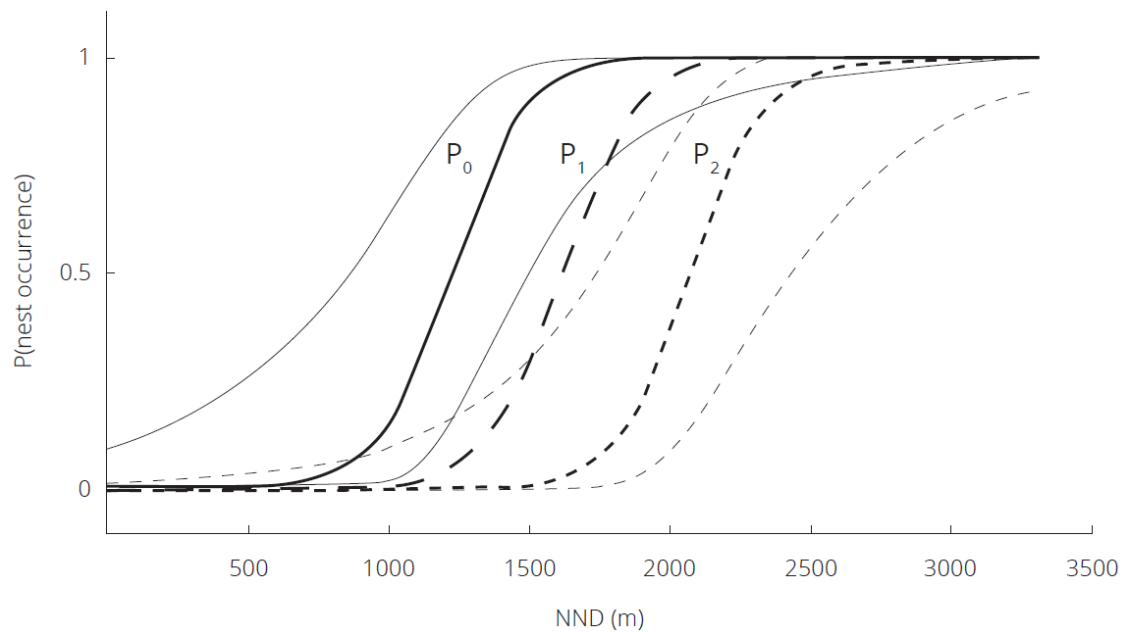
Variable	w+	β - Estimate	Adj. SE
Intercept		-2.382	1.502
NND	1	6.502	3.324
PCA1	1	5.629	2.957
PCA2	1	-1.975	1.153
CANOPY	0.55	1.406	1.195
DFE	0.43	1.376	1.302
ASPECT	0.30	0.747	0.797
TRAILS	0.19	-0.592	0.905

365

366 Note: Before analysis, variables were standardised to an average of zero and a standard deviation
367 of one in order to obtain beta estimates. This allows direct comparison of the strength of the
368 selection coefficients of the variables as well as comparison of the importance of variables across
369 scales, thereby allowing the hierarchy of the habitat selection process to be inferred. See Table
370 2 for abbreviations.

371

372 Using the model showing the best fit, we estimated the probability of occurrence of
373 Goshawk nests under three theoretical forest scenarios: mixed mature Eucalyptus stands
374 with high structural complexity (P0), stands with the mean characteristics of age and
375 structural complexity in the study area (P1), and young plantations with low structural
376 complexity (P2) (Fig. 2). These scenarios typify a gradient of breeding habitat suitability
377 based on observed habitat preferences. NNDs were predicted to increase as the forest
378 structure departed from the preferred breeding habitat characteristics. Thus, forest
379 structure influenced the local density of Goshawks: higher density (shorter NNDs)
380 occurred in the preferred habitat, corresponding to Eucalyptus stands with larger trees,
381 higher tree species richness and greater structural complexity (mature-like patches).



382

383 **Figure 2.** Probability of occurrence of Goshawk nests as a function of NND under three
 384 theoretical forest scenarios: mixed mature Eucalyptus stands with high structural
 385 complexity (P0), stands with the mean age and structural complexity in the study area
 386 (P1) and young plantations with low structural complexity (P2). Predictions were
 387 calculated using the most parsimonious model of the set of confidence models (Model 1,
 388 Table 2). Theoretical forest scenarios were simulated using the 10th percentile, mean and
 389 90th percentile values of PCA1 and PCA2. Grey curves represent 95% confidence
 390 intervals of predictions based on the residual variance of the model. For clarity the
 391 confidence intervals associated with P1 were not drawn.

392

393 *3.5. Relationship between breeding habitat preferences and reproductive success*

394 We analysed the relationship between the three most important variables shaping
 395 breeding habitat selection (NND, PCA1, PCA2) and reproductive success. Territoriality
 396 (NND) was inversely related to both breeding phenology and fledging success (Tables 4
 397 and 5): as the distance between Goshawk breeding pairs decreased, laying dates occurred
 398 later and the number of fledglings produced per active nest decreased. Habitat preferences
 399 detected at smaller scales (PCA1 and PCA2) did not show a significant relationship with
 400 reproductive success.

401

402 **Table 4.** Highest-ranked linear mixed models using AICc-based model selection for
 403 Goshawk reproductive success in relation to breeding habitat preferences.

Response variable	N _i	Model	log (L)	k	AICc	ΔAICc	W _i	R ² _m	R ² _c
Laying phenology	1	NND	-204.9	1	421.0	0.0	0.45	0.10	0.34
Fledging success	1	NND	-39.8	1	88.3	0.0	0.72	0.16	0.27
	2	NND + PCA1	-39.6	2	90.2	1.91	0.28	0.17	0.29

404 Note: See Table 2 for statistics and variable abbreviations.

405

406

407

408 **Table 5.** Goshawk reproductive performance in relation to breeding habitat preferences,
 409 based on parameter estimates in LMMs (laying phenology), relative importance (w+) and
 410 model-averaged parameter estimates in GLMMs (fledging success).

Response variable	Variable	w+	β-Estimate	Adj. SE
Laying phenology	Intercept		97.6	2.5
	NND		-3.527	1.485
Fledging success	Intercept		0.342	0.423
	NND	1	0.863	0.373
	PCA1	0.28	0.219	0.325

411 Note: See Table 2 for abbreviations. See also footnote in Table 3.

412

413 **4. Discussion**

414 Our results suggest that the studied exotic Eucalyptus plantations were a suitable breeding
 415 habitat for Goshawks, presenting a dense breeding population with a regular spatial
 416 distribution and high reproductive success. Goshawks showed marked breeding habitat
 417 preferences at various spatial scales. Territoriality greatly influenced habitat selection and
 418 reproductive success. Large Eucalyptus trees were a key structural element, providing the
 419 nest tree as well as appropriate structure in their immediate surroundings. The particular
 420 architecture of Eucalyptus, the prevailing forest smallholding regime, and the old age and
 421 low intensity of exploitation of these plantations likely help to explain the dense Goshawk
 422 breeding population, its regular spatial distribution, and its high reproductive success. The
 423 clear preference of the Goshawk for structurally mature-like patches argues for using this

424 top predator as a forest management indicator species in order to promote biodiversity in
425 these exotic plantations.

426 *4.1. Breeding habitat preferences*

427 Goshawks showed a hierarchical breeding habitat selection at various spatial scales in the
428 Eucalyptus plantations. Goshawk territoriality was the primary determinant of the
429 breeding habitat selection process. This selection is believed to begin with the detection
430 of a free space between occupied territories, allowing the breeding pairs to acquire their
431 own trophic resources, reduce interference competition and avoid extra-pair fertilisations
432 (Newton 1979, Reich *et al.* 2004, Rutz 2005, Kenward 2006). Klaver *et al.* (2012) found
433 that breeding sites were primarily determined not by territoriality but by the structural
434 characteristics of the habitat. Our results and those of others (*e.g.*, Reich *et al.* 2004)
435 suggest that when suitable breeding habitats are abundant and widespread, breeding pairs
436 are regularly distributed and territorial behaviour becomes the main factor constraining
437 breeding habitat selection.

438 Structural characteristics of the habitat were the secondary determinant of the breeding
439 habitat selection process. For nest placement, Goshawks selected a very large Eucalyptus
440 tree, well above its availability, more than 1100 m from other breeding pairs. Eucalyptus
441 reach a greater height than other tree species, allowing the Goshawk to place the nest very
442 high above the ground (22.4 m, range = 8–35 m), a nest height amongst the highest in the
443 world (9–25 m; Kenward 2006). Large Eucalyptus trees provide good support to build a
444 relatively large nest, which is important in an area where rain and wind storms are
445 frequent (Cabalar 2005, Jimenez-Franco *et al.* 2014). A nest located at a tall height, on
446 the lower part of the tree crown, hidden under abundant canopy cover in a Eucalyptus tree
447 with a straight trunk, smooth bark and no low branches, should be well protected against
448 human plundering of nests, as well as against terrestrial and avian predators (Newton

449 1979). During the study period, we did not detect any cases of nest plundering or of
450 nestling predation by other raptor species and we detected only one event of nestling
451 predation by the Common Genet (*Genetta genetta*).

452 The nest tree was predominantly located in forest patches with high structural complexity:
453 high tree density, high average tree height, high tree species richness, high number of tree
454 layers and dense canopy cover. These mature-like patches in the nest tree surroundings
455 conceal the nest from predators and offer more favourable microclimatic conditions than
456 more open, exposed forest environments (Newton 1979, Penteriani 2002, McGrath *et al.*
457 2003).

458 At the larger PFA spatial scale, Goshawks selected areas with greater forest cover,
459 predominantly Eucalyptus stands enriched in native or semi-native tree species (mainly
460 Oak, Pine, Chestnut and Laurel). The greater forest cover provides protection for the
461 family group during the extended breeding period, in which most Goshawk activities
462 occur in the vicinity of the nest: courtship, nest building, incubation, prey delivery to the
463 female and nestlings, and training of fledglings in flight and hunting before they disperse
464 (Penteriani *et al.* 2001).

465 Goshawks nested preferentially in abrupt areas showing lower road density and lying
466 away from the forest edge, suggesting that they actively avoid potential human
467 disturbances in an area with a high human population density. Goshawks are persecuted
468 in the study area because they often hunt prey species of economic interest, including
469 game species, racing pigeons and domestic poultry (García-Salgado *et al.* 2015). In fact,
470 we have observed their capture with pigeon-baited Swedish Goshawk traps, and this
471 illegal killing may be one of the main factors explaining the marked population decline
472 of Goshawks in the study area in recent years (Rebollo *et al.* 2017b).

473 The preference of Goshawks for nesting in mature-like patches may make them useful as
474 an indicator of biodiversity within exotic Eucalyptus plantations, as other authors have
475 suggested in other forest ecosystems (Sergio *et al.* 2006, Burgas *et al.* 2014, 2016).
476 Therefore, the habitat preference of this top predator may provide guidance for
477 developing and selecting forest management strategies to enhance biodiversity on exotic
478 plantations. Nevertheless, further research is required to confirm the biodiversity
479 indicator role of this habitat-generalist in Eucalyptus plantations before implementing any
480 management recommendations (Sergio *et al.* 2008, Ibarra & Martin 2015).

481 *4.2. Habitat preferences and reproductive success*

482 Territoriality, measured here as NND, was the only variable found to be related to
483 reproductive success. Egg laying occurred earlier and fledgling production was greater as
484 NND increased, *i.e.*, as the size of the nesting territory increased. Larger territories may
485 be associated with more prey and with less interference competition between
486 neighbouring breeding pairs (see Bretagnolle *et al.* 2008). Other authors have observed a
487 positive relationship between Goshawk breeding density and the frequency of
488 intraspecific nest intrusions and extra-pair fertilisations (Rutz 2005). Studies carried out
489 during the pre-laying and incubation period in Osprey in Corsica showed that higher local
490 density increased interactions between conspecifics and mate guarding behaviour, and
491 reduced prey deliveries, copulation rates and reproductive success (Mougeot *et al.* 2002,
492 Bretagnolle *et al.* 2008).

493 The smallest NNDs were observed in habitat stands preferred by Goshawks, *i.e.* old
494 mixed Eucalyptus stands. These preferred habitats likely act as density traps, *sensu*
495 Rodenhouse *et al.* (1997), because the density of breeding pairs approximates the carrying
496 capacity of the system. However, the negative density-dependent effects observed in our
497 study do not necessarily imply that these habitats are of lower quality for Goshawks.

498 Reproductive success may actually be greater in the long term if these territories are
499 occupied and produce fledglings more regularly.

500 Habitat preferences detected at smaller scales, *i.e.* age-and-density of Eucalyptus in the
501 nest surroundings (PCA1) and structural complexity-maturity of the nesting forest patch
502 (PCA2) did not show a significant relationship with reproductive success. On the
503 contrary, other authors have reported such relationships at these scales. For example,
504 Bijlsma (1993) showed that although Goshawks preferred to nest in larches, nests in these
505 trees were less successful than those in pines, spruces and firs (cited in Kenward 2006).
506 In other examples, McGrath *et al.* (2003) found positive correlations between fledging
507 rate and tree basal area within 1 ha of the nest, and Krüger (2002) found that nests were
508 most successful in stands with large trees (greater DBH) and in areas with more
509 woodland. Our failure to observe relationships between habitat preferences and
510 reproductive success may reflect high availability of suitable nest sites in our study area,
511 reflected in the fact that we were always able to find a nest-appropriate tree closer than
512 50 m from the random coordinates. Such a high number of nest sites would ensure that
513 most breeding pairs could nest effectively. We cannot rule out the possibility that nesting
514 in preferred sites improved reproductive success, but this improvement was counteracted
515 by interference competition in the crowded, preferred breeding habitats.

516 *4.3. High Goshawk breeding density and implications for forest management*

517 With 15.8 nesting territories per 100 km² and 10.4 active pairs per year per 100 km², the
518 breeding density of this Goshawk population during the study period is among the densest
519 in Europe, where it averages 3.4 active pairs per 100 km², with most of the populations
520 below 10 active pairs per 100 km² (Kenward 2006). The observed average reproductive
521 success (2.3 fledglings per active nest) is also high in the European context, where the
522 corresponding values are 1.8 in northern, central and western Europe, and 1.6 in southern

523 Europe (Rutz *et al.* 2006). We think that these exotic Eucalyptus plantations present a
524 high density of breeding pairs for three main reasons related with the home range scale
525 mosaic of habitats that provides high-quality feeding and breeding habitats for Goshawks.
526 First, these plantations are part of an agricultural matrix that makes up an agroforestry
527 system providing high prey availability at the scale of nesting territory (Rebollo *et al.*
528 2017b). This allows compression of the territories, which explains why the distances
529 between neighbouring active nests are among the shortest in the literature (Martínez-
530 Hesterkamp *et al.* 2015, Rebollo *et al.* 2017a). Unfortunately, we are not certain about
531 where the Goshawks are hunting because we did not track them. However, our own diet
532 studies show that both forest prey species and non-forest species are similarly important
533 in the Goshawk breeding diet (García-Salgado *et al.* 2015, Rebollo *et al.* 2017b). These
534 findings suggest that Goshawks both hunt in and out of the forest plantations, or in the
535 intersection of these habitats (forest edge), where they have been observed to hunt
536 disproportionately in other studies (*e.g.* Kenward 1982). This is consistent with the fact
537 that most Goshawk territories in the study area include a considerable amount of
538 woodland edge (simply bear in mind that the average distance from the nests to the forest
539 edge is relatively short, 177 ± 12 m). Mature Eucalyptus plantations might be important
540 habitats for hunting during the breeding season. Especially at the beginning of the
541 breeding season male Goshawks need to provide as many preys as possible to their
542 partners, while staying close to them and their nests to avoid territory intrusions and extra-
543 pair fertilizations. We have indirectly observed that male Goshawks providing more
544 forest prey to their broods enjoy greater reproductive success than those providing more
545 non-forest prey (Pérez-Camacho *et al.* 2015; see also Penteriani *et al.* 2013), which would
546 highlight the importance of these mature Eucalyptus plantations as a hunting habitat for
547 the Goshawk. Second, characteristic forest management has helped create abundant,

548 suitable nesting places well distributed spatially. The small-scale, low-intensity forest
549 exploitation in the study area has allowed the growth and maturation of planted and native
550 tree vegetation, leading to wide, regularly distributed mature stands preferred by
551 Goshawks. This translates to several suitable nest sites at different places within the
552 nesting territories. The small size of the clear-cuttings in the study area means that
553 Goshawks can respond to disturbances by switching to nearby alternative nests. In fact,
554 these characteristics of Eucalyptus plantations are favourable for other forest raptors
555 (Sparrowhawk – *Accipiter nisus*, Common Buzzard – *Buteo buteo*) that can also reach
556 densities among the highest in Europe (Martínez-Hesterkamp *et al.* 2015, Rebollo *et al.*
557 2017a). Third, Goshawks in the study area can nest in very large Eucalyptus trees, which
558 provide very stable nest support out of the reach of practically all terrestrial predators.

559 Forest plantations must play an increasingly important role in the conservation of
560 biodiversity (Brockerhoff *et al.* 2008, Brockerhoff *et al.* 2013, Trumbore 2015) in
561 response to widespread decline of forest biodiversity. Plantations must fulfil this role
562 while still ensuring necessary exploitation of wood resources. This necessitates a trade-
563 off between economic profitability and conservation, which can be achieved through
564 various options, ranging from intensive exploitation of plantations, with negative effects
565 on biodiversity, to the elimination of exotic plantations and restoration or protection of
566 native forests, at the expense of economic benefits. Using surrogate species such as the
567 Goshawk to provide important information for plantation management may provide more
568 options for striking efficient and balanced trade-offs favourable for both economics and
569 biodiversity. Our results suggest that one should proceed gradually when replacing
570 Eucalyptus plantations with native tree species in order to guarantee the availability of
571 tall trees and mature forest patches regularly distributed across the landscape. The goal is
572 to offer good conditions for the Goshawk and for the biodiversity potentially associated

573 with it, as Suárez *et al.* (2000) and Olano *et al.* (2016) have suggested for other raptor
574 species and forest plantations.

575

576 **Role of the funding source**

577 The sponsors had no role in data collection, analysis or interpretation; in manuscript
578 writing; or in the decision to submit the article for publication.

579

580 **Competing Interests:**

581 The authors declare that no competing interests exist.

582

583 **Acknowledgments**

584 We are indebted to M. Rebollo, P. Rebollo, J. Meltzer, M. Zurita for extensive assistance
585 with field and laboratory work, and to L. Cayuela for help with statistics. We thank O.
586 Martín for editing the figures, O. and N. García, M. Díaz-Otero and A.C. Rodríguez for
587 proofreading the manuscript, and two anonymous reviewers for providing valuable
588 comments on an earlier draft of the manuscript. We acknowledge the Dirección Xeral de
589 Conservación da Natureza of the Xunta de Galicia for granting permission to carry out
590 the study. This work was supported by funding from CICYT projects of the Spanish
591 Ministerio de Educación y Ciencia (CGL2007–60533/BOS, CGL2010–18312/BOS) and
592 the Spanish Ministerio de Economía y Competividad (CGL2014–53308–P), by funding
593 from the REMEDINAL network (S–0505/AMB/0335, S2009 AMB–1783 and
594 S2013/MAE–2719) and by University of Alcalá project CCG2014/BIO–002. GGS was
595 supported by an FPU fellowship (AP2006–00891) and SMH by an FPI fellowship
596 (BES–2008–006630), both from the Spanish Ministerio de Educación y Ciencia.

597 **Appendix A. Supplementary material**

598 Supplementary data associated with this article can be found, in the online version, at
599 <http://.....>

600

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