

Tetraonid mortality caused by collisions with power lines in boreal forest habitats in central Norway

Kjetil Bevanger

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Collisions with power lines appear to be a source of systematic mortality for tetraonids in boreal forest habitats in central Norway. The clear-felled corridor along 7 sections of power lines (66, 72 and 132 kV) totaling 24.5 km was patrolled for a distance of 850 km. Fifty tetraonids collided with power lines, including 15 Capercaillie, 14 Black Grouse and 21 Willow Grouse. Some special methodological problems to assess mortality result from the low density of the species, and seasonal, climatic and habitat characteristics. The number of casualties found and the number of live birds observed during patrols was used to compare differences in the number of collisions between seasons, and determine species-specific differences in collision vulnerability. Power-line related mortality was higher ($p < 0.05$) in winter than in summer for Capercaillie, Black Grouse and Willow Grouse combined, but for only Capercaillie taken individually.

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INTRODUCTION

Evidence for birds colliding with power lines and telegraph wires is widespread (e.g. Avery 1978, Avery et al. 1980, Heijnis 1980, Longridge 1986, Faanes 1987, Hartman et al. 1992, Bevanger 1994, 1995). Such data have also been obtained from Norwegian forest habitats (Wadén 1904, Grotli 1922, Sørnum 1950, Wilse 1951, Johannessen 1952, Swensen 1975, Stanghelle 1985), although all these are reports on accidentally observed victims, mainly concerning woodland game birds (Tetraonidae). Additional data from Fennoscandia, Britain and Central Europe indicate extensive mortality for some tetraonid species through colliding with various types of overhead wires (e.g. Hiltunen 1953, Watson 1982, Miquet 1990, Rose & Baillie 1992).

Studies in Europe and the United States on birds colliding with power lines were often "worst-case studies" concentrating on wetlands, roosting places, migration flyways, and other areas with high bird densities (Meyer 1978, James & Haak 1979, Heijnis 1980, Brown et al. 1987, Faanes 1987, Morkill & Anderson 1991). Only one study involved resident boreal forest birds colliding with power lines (Hiltunen 1953) in a "low density" environment.

The boreal forests in Norway constitute the western edge of the taiga, i.e. the boreal zone. The country has approximately 70 000 km² of productive coniferous and deciduous forest, representing about 23 % of the land area (CBS 1992). The main characteristics of these habitats are that snow cover in winter lasts for

approximately 6 months with sharp seasonal contrasts. Limited resources and harsh weather during this period support only a few resident bird species in low densities (Merikallio 1946, Pianka 1989, Wiens 1989). However, 4 species of tetraonids are adapted to different succession stages of the Fennoscandian boreal forest - the Willow Grouse *Lagopus lagopus*, Black Grouse *Tetrao tetrix*, Capercaillie *T. urogallus* and Hazel Grouse *Bonasa bonasia* (Seiskari 1962, Jönsson et al. 1991).

The species concerned represent a valuable smallgame resource. To achieve sustainable harvest strategies, it is crucial to thoroughly understand all mortality factors. The objectives of the present study were to assess tetraonid collisions with power lines as a systematic mortality factor, to identify methodological problems and discuss biasing factors related to faunistic, seasonal, and habitat peculiar-

ities, and to record the mortality rate by species and season.

STUDY AREA

The study area, located in central Norwegian upland forest in Sør-Trøndelag county (about 63° N, 10° E), comprised Spruce *Picea abies*, Pine *Pinus silvestris* and Birch *Betula* spp. interspersed with small bogs, but also including some low alpine habitats dominated by northern boreal birch forest (cf. Bevanger 1988 for detailed habitat description). It was chosen for its convenience as several categories of power lines were within a small area 60-80 km from the University of Trondheim. Seven sections of power line totaling 25.4 km and comprising 3 different tension categories (66, 72 and 132 kV) were patrolled for 850 km between 1984 and 1987 (Table 1).

Most power lines Capercaillie, Black Grouse and Willow Grouse live sy section 2 is in an area 1 habitats and the distar included in the calcul: quency of Willow Gro were not patrolled in su from the 7 study sectio to small sample sizes at possible annual populat

Ecological factors form ing the data into 4 se: August) includes initia brooding (late May/e: remain on the ground.) October), the broods t snow normally falls by lasts 5 months (Nover 63° N is characterized t ly averaging about 1 m tions. Spring (April-M: son. Birds gather at lek: flying between foraging areas. Snow melts in

Table 1. Technical data for 7 power-line sections searched for bird collision victims in forest habitats in central Norway during 1984-87.

Power-line section	1	2	3	4	5*	6	7	Total
Voltage (kV)	132	66	66	66	132	66	132	72
Length searched (km)	5.6	4.2	4.0	5.0	3.7	1.0	1.9	25.4
No. of patrols	43	36	17	27	46	43	22	234
Time and distance patrolled (km):								
June-August	67.2	42.0	0	30.0	25.9	6.0	0	171.1
September-October	11.2	8.4	0	35.0	25.9	4.0	0	84.5
November-March	84.0	67.2	44.0	20.0	51.8	15.0	32.3	314.3
April-May	78.4	33.6	24.0	50.0	66.6	18.0	9.5	280.1
Total distance patrolled	240.8	151.2	68.0	135.0	170.2	43.0	41.8	850.0
Patrol period (first/last patrol)	29.08.84	28.08.84	10.12.86	19.03.86	21.03.86	21.03.86	09.12.86	
	27.08.85	26.08.85	18.05.87	06.11.87	19.05.87	19.05.87	18.05.87	
No. of phase conductors/levels	6/3	3/1	3/1	3/1	3/1	6/3	3/1	6/3
Configuration	Double c stack	Single c flat (H)	Double c stack	Single c flat (H)	Double c stack			
Phase conductor diameter (mm)	30.0	10.0	10.7	10.7	21.7	16.7	21.7	16.7
Pole height (m) (ground to cross arm)	20-25	12-15	12-15	12-15	15-17	12-15	15-17	12-15
Distance between phase conductors (ca. m)	5.5	3.5	3.5	3.5	4.5	3.5	4.5	3.5
Construction year	1982	1926	1968	1968	1982	1979	1982	1979
Width of clear-felled corridor (ca. m)	24-32	16-20	16-20	16-20	24-32	16-20	16-20	

* Two parallel power lines. c = circuit, H = H-frame, wood structure.

DATA COLLECTION

Data were collected th counting dead birds and flushed in the clear-felle lines and adjacent November, 1 person, ac pointing bird dogs (Gorc clear-felled area system: zig-zag pattern beneath transects 16-32 m wide trained dog located live experienced dog remai helping to locate specir skis or a snow scooter w

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Collision victims in forest

	7	Total
6	132	72
.0	1.9	25.4
3	22	234
.0	0	171.1
.0	0	84.5
5.0	32.3	314.3
8.0	9.5	280.1
3.0	41.8	850.0
1.03.86	09.12.86	
9.05.87	18.05.87	
/3	3/1	6/3
Double c	Single c	Double c
tack	flat (H)	stack
6.7	21.7	16.7
2-15	15-17	12-15
.5	4.5	3.5
979	1982	1979
6-20	16-20	

Most power lines cross areas where Capercaillie, Black Grouse, Hazel Grouse and Willow Grouse live sympatrically. However, section 2 is in an area lacking Willow Grouse habitats and the distance patrolled was not included in the calculations for finding frequency of Willow Grouse. Sections 3 and 7 were not patrolled in summer or fall. The data from the 7 study sections were combined due to small sample sizes and for errors caused by possible annual population fluctuations.

Ecological factors form the basis for separating the data into 4 seasons. Summer (June-August) includes initiation of incubation and brooding (late May/early June) and birds remain on the ground. In the fall (September-October), the broods break up and the first snow normally falls by late October. Winter lasts 5 months (November to March), and at 63° N is characterized by snow cover (typically averaging about 1 m) and poor light conditions. Spring (April-May) is the mating season. Birds gather at leks resulting in increased flying between foraging areas, leks, and nesting areas. Snow melts in May.

DATA COLLECTION

Data were collected throughout the year by counting dead birds and remains, and live birds flushed in the clear-felled corridor below power lines and adjacent sites. During May-November, 1 person, accompanied by at least 2 pointing bird dogs (Gordon setters) searched the clear-felled area systematically by walking in a zig-zag pattern beneath the conductors along transects 16-32 m wide (Table 1). At least 1 trained dog located live birds, and another less experienced dog remained with the patroller helping to locate specimens. The patroller used skis or a snow scooter when needed.

Searches for collision victims were combined with observations of live birds along corridors

to assess seasonal as well as species-specific differences. The dogs ranged beyond the corridor, covering approximately 50 to 100 m on each side of the power line. The additional area monitored varied according to local topography, tree density and snow conditions. Periods with deep, loose snow made efficient search extremely difficult. Most observations of live birds were made when they flushed due to presence of the observer or dogs.

All bird remains were collected. The time of death was estimated by body condition and separated into 5 categories: 1) ≤ 24 hrs, 2) the last 2 days, 3) the last week, 4) the last month, 5) > 1 month.

Flocking behaviour has been observed by Capercaillie (Pulliainen & Joensuu 1981, Pulliainen 1986), Black Grouse (Koskimies 1957) and Willow Grouse (Cramp & Simmons 1980) in most seasons. The term "flock" includes more than 1 individual observed at the same time (Pulliainen 1982b). For "live bird observations" singles and flocks are treated as 1 observation.

Patrols were made at irregular intervals from once a week to every third week and were not equally distributed in all seasons (Table 1). Varying weather and snow conditions influenced the number of days between patrols. When snow conditions were favourable, greater distances were patrolled by snow scooter, and are referred to as "non-standard patrols". Forty non-standard patrols covered 355 km along 14.1 kms of additional power lines.

STATISTICAL METHODS

Two measures were used to assess seasonal and species specific differences in collision mortality. The mortality index (F/O) is the ratio of number of casualties found (F) and

number of live bird observations (O). It expresses variations in vulnerability for a species to collide with different types of power lines in different areas. The finding frequency (FF) is number of victims per 10 km of power line patrolled. It is primarily a quantitative measure but was used to assess seasonal differences in collision mortality, although number of birds present in the terrain is not taken into consideration. If, however, the population is assumed to remain relatively stable throughout the year, number of victims found per unit distance patrolled may indicate differences within an area. The finding frequency considers fieldwork effort, whereas the mortality index may be regarded independent of distance patrolled.

Because of the small numbers of victims (F) and live bird observations (O) for some species and seasons, significance probabilities for the F/O ratio were obtained by applying an exact simulation test instead of a chi-square test (see Kreiner 1987 for a review of analysis of contingency tables by exact tests). A contingency table gives the category of each of 2 criteria for each observation (e.g. the season and the dead/alive status for each bird observed). The simulation test was performed by permuting the categories observed randomly among the observations, independently for each of the two criteria, so that a new, simulat-

ed contingency table was obtained. This was repeated so that 1 000 contingency tables were simulated. For each simulation, the usual chi-square statistic was computed. They were sorted in descending order together with the single chi-square statistic for the original table, and the rank of the latter divided by 1002 was used as an estimate of the significance probability.

To test possible differences between the different seasons using finding frequency, it was assumed that number of casualties was Poisson distributed with expectation λ_{season} . The null hypothesis of $\lambda_{\text{season1}}/\text{km patrolled}_{\text{season1}} = \lambda_{\text{season2}}/\text{km patrolled}_{\text{season2}}$ was tested against $\lambda_{\text{season1}}/\text{km patrolled}_{\text{season1}} > \lambda_{\text{season2}}/\text{km patrolled}_{\text{season2}}$ etc.

RESULTS

Sixty-six corpses of 11 species were found; 50 (76 %) were tetraonids. Mortalities found during the non-standard patrols were excluded in calculations, but are shown in **Table 2**. Collision victims were found in all seasons, but no collisions occurred in summer. No collisions were observed during field work. Hazel Grouse were not found or observed during patrols, although the species was observed in the study area.

Test of number of bird observations differences in collision species pooled (likely ($p < 0.05$), spring than summer ($p = 0.077$)) also in fall than summer ($p > 0.05$).

The Capercaillie (0.05) of hitting victims there were no significant for Black Grouse ($p > 0.05$).

Test (two-sided) (Table 3) gave (0.025) for the Capercaillie than in summer, collisions in spring than in summer. Black Grouse collision rates in summer ($p = 0.04$ and

Most victims were found by detectors, and all were within 5 m of detectors and main roads (Table 4).

Table 2. Collision victims recorded during standard patrols (additional casualties recorded on non-standard patrols in brackets) beneath 7 power-line sections in central Norway during 1984-87.

Species	Power-line section							Total
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Capercaillie	6 (2)	2	1 (2)	2 (1)	4 (2)			15 (7)
Black Grouse	8	1	1	4 (1)				14 (1)
Willow Grouse	7		3 (1)	3 (6)	4	2	2 (1)	21 (8)
Other species (eight)	3	8	(1)	2 (3)	1 (1)	1	1	16 (5)
Total	25 (2)	12	5 (4)	11 (11)	9 (3)	3	3 (1)	66 (21)

table was obtained. This was at 1 000 contingency tables. For each simulation, the usual statistic was computed. They were ordered together with the other statistic for the original rank of the latter divided by $\lambda_{season1}$ as an estimate of the significance.

Differences between the dispersing finding frequency, it was the number of casualties was tested with expectation $\lambda_{season1}$ per km patrolled in season 1, $\lambda_{season2}$ per km patrolled in season 2, was tested $\lambda_{season1} > \lambda_{season2}$ etc.

of 11 species were found; 50 raptors. Mortalities found during standard patrols were excluded in what are shown in Table 2. Birds were found in all seasons, collisions occurred in summer. No collisions occurred during field work. Hazel Grouse not found or observed during the time the species was observed in

Test of number of collision victims and live bird observations (Table 3) showed seasonal differences in collision probabilities for the 3 species pooled ($p < 0.05$). Birds were more likely ($p < 0.05$) to hit wires in winter and spring than summer. The p-value for the fall ($p = 0.077$) also indicated higher collision risk in fall than summer. Collision probabilities between fall, winter and spring were not significant ($p > 0.05$).

The Capercaillie had a higher probability ($p < 0.05$) of hitting wires during winter. However, there were no significant seasonal differences for Black Grouse and Willow Grouse ($p > 0.05$).

Test (two-sided) of the finding frequency (Table 3) gave a higher probability ($p < 0.025$) for the Capercaillie to collide in winter than in summer, and for the Willow Grouse to collide in spring than in summer, fall and winter. Black Grouse tended to experience higher collision rates in fall and winter than in summer ($p = 0.04$ and $p = 0.05$, respectively).

Most victims were found beneath phase conductors, and about 70 % of the specimens were within 5 m of the terminate phase conductors and mainly in the clear-felled corridor (Table 4).

Table 3. Number of victims (F), number of live bird observations (O), mortality index (F/O) and finding frequency (FF) (number of victims per 10 km of power line) for Capercaillie, Black Grouse and Willow Grouse by season for 7 power-line sections patrolled in central Norway in 1984-1987. Flocks, broods, pairs and single birds are recorded as one observation.

Season/species	F	O	F/O	FF
Summer (June-August)				
Capercaillie	0	8	-	-
Black Grouse	0	5	-	-
Willow Grouse	0	5	-	-
Fall (September-October)				
Capercaillie	1	14	0.07	0.12
Black Grouse	3	3	1.00	0.35
Willow Grouse	0	6	-	-
Winter (November-March)				
Capercaillie	10	10	1.00	0.32
Black Grouse	7	16	0.44	0.22
Willow Grouse	5	26	0.19	0.16
Spring (April-May)				
Capercaillie	4	24	0.17	0.14
Black Grouse	4	18	0.22	0.14
Willow Grouse	16	40	0.40	0.38

Table 2. Mortalities recorded on standard patrols in central Norway during 1984-87.

6	7	Total
		15 (7)
		14 (1)
2	2 (1)	21 (8)
1	1	16 (5)
3	3 (1)	66 (21)

Table 4. Locations of collision victims (%) from outside the terminate phase conductor along 7 power-line sections in central Norway during 1984-87 (specimens from non-standard patrols included).

Species	Beneath the conductors	Distance (m) from terminate phase conductor			
		1-5	6-10	11-15	>15
Capercaillie	15 (68.2)	1 (4.5)	2 (9.1)	3 (13.6)	1 (4.5)
Black Grouse	7 (46.7)	3 (20.0)	0	0	5 (33.3)
Willow Grouse	19 (65.5)	3 (10.3)	4 (13.8)	3 (10.3)	0
Other species	16 (76.2)	2 (9.5)	1 (4.7)	0	2 (9.5)

Autopsy of 9 specimens untouched by scavengers indicated that birds had hit wires across upper parts of the breast cutting the trachea and oesophagus. The sex ratio (f:m) of Capercaillie and Black Grouse specimens was 13/24. The probability that the number of males out of 37 birds is greater than or equal to 24, is 0.049; indicating males to have a greater probability of colliding than females ($p < 0.05$).

DISCUSSION

Mortality judgement

The number of victims confirm that power lines may be regarded as a systematic source of mortality for Capercaillie, Black Grouse and Willow Grouse, but not Hazel Grouse. However, low sample size precludes a clear assessment of the importance of power lines as a mortality factor, although any regularly occurring mortality per se is a negative factor for population increase. To judge the significance of additional mortality is important for sustainable harvest and management of any species. The crucial question is whether the mortality is compensatory (e.g. Ellison 1991). Mortality peaked in winter and early spring for Capercaillie and Willow Grouse, implying that reproductive individuals were affected. Several game biologists (cf. Myrberget 1985, Ellison 1991) question whether additional mortality or over-exploitation of a population close to the breeding season can be compensated for by increased reproduction rates.

Quantitative estimates of power lines mortality of tetraonids on a regional or national scale is discussed by Bevanger (1995). Obviously there is a need for additional knowledge about population significance of mortality factors as power lines, hunting and predation (Baines & Lindén 1991, Ellison 1991, Storch & Willebrand 1991, Bevanger 1995).

Methodological aspects

Searches for injured or dead victims in or near power-line corridors are necessary to assess bird mortality. Assessment methods vary due to local adaptations. Most studies monitored the number of bird flights across power-line corridors, observed collisions, and number of dead birds found to estimate losses (Meyer 1978; James & Haak 1979, Beaulaurier 1981, Faanes 1987, Hartman et al. 1992). These methods are not suitable for resident populations of tetraonids at low densities. Studies of tetraonids in central Norway show fall population estimates of 7.5 Capercaillie, 4 Black Grouse and 5 Hazel Grouse per km² (Myrberget 1984). However, significant annual variation in numbers may occur.

Biases related to assessment of collision victims include habitat, search, crippling and scavenger removal (Meyer 1978, Beaulaurier 1981, Beaulaurier et al. 1984, Faanes 1987, Hartman et al. 1992, Bevanger 1995) and are common to mortality studies regardless of geographical area. It is not possible to predict general correction factors for various studies as they are all dependent upon a variety of local conditions. Consequently, it is necessary to make local "bias tests" to obtain correction factors for quantitative estimates.

A primary problem in the boreal forest is that snow covers shrubs and short vegetation and fills in small depressions from November through April/May. However, the use of dogs may improve the reliability of mortality surveys.

Several victims were not found until spring. In these situations, it was not possible to determine when mortalities occurred. It was also difficult to separate specimens into the 5 categories. In May, visible feather remains did not persist because numerous migratory passer-

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material.

Crippling bias will vary according to scavenger
abundance, local topographical, technical
and meteorological conditions. Crippling bias
could be assessed by extensive radio trans-
mitter tagging of a proportion of the resident bird
population.

Scavenger activity is addressed by various
authors (Scott et al. 1972, Heijnis 1980,
Longridge 1986, Ruzs et al. 1986, Faanes
1987, Hoerschelmann et al. 1988, Bevanger et
al. 1994). In the boreal forest, specimens do
not remain long. Scavengers in the study area
included Hooded Crows *Corvus corone*,
Ravens *C. corax*, Golden Eagles *Aquila*
chrysaetos and Red Fox *Vulpes vulpes*.
Specimen removal studies indicated a rapid
turnover, especially in spring (Bevanger et al.
1994).

General aspects, species-specific and seasonal differences

Three conclusions from the study are: (i) col-
lisions with power lines appear to be a source
of systematic mortality for tetraonids, (ii)
there are seasonal variations in both the mor-
tality index and the finding frequency, and (iii)
the collision pattern of Capercaillie, Black
Grouse and Willow Grouse have certain char-
acteristics.

Tetraonids are vulnerable to colliding with
power lines because of flight ability and
vision (Bevanger 1994). They are generally
considered poor flyers, having short wings,
high wing loading and rather high aspect ratio
(Rayner 1988, Norberg 1990). Most gallina-
ceous species lack or have a poorly developed
fovea, being afoveal (Sillman 1973). The
fovea is considered to be a point that gives rise
to very good acuity or resolution because of

the large number of cones per unit area. Lack
of good acuity may reduce the ability of the
birds to cope well with artificial obstacles like
air wires during a stress situation, or in bad
weather and poor light.

Due to poor light in winter at these latitudes,
collisions with power lines should peak. In
mid winter, daytime is a continuous dusk peri-
od. However, only for the Capercaillie both
the F/O ratio and finding frequency gave a sta-
tistically significant higher collision probabili-
ty in winter than in summer. This may reflect
more frequent flying among the Capercaillie
than the Black Grouse and Willow Grouse.
Black Grouse may spend as much as 94 % of
their time in snow burrows during strong wind
and poor weather. Capercaillie roosts in the
snow in February and March in Finland
(Marjakangas 1980, 1992), and Semenov-
Tjan-Sanskij (1960) reported that they spent
up to 80 % of the time in burrows. Because of
the body size, successful roosting, however,
depends on favourable snow conditions
(Pulliainen 1982a). A lowered winter collision
mortality for Black Grouse may be related to
its morning activity (favourable light condi-
tions). Other grouse species have a major
activity peak in the evening (poor light condi-
tions) (Marjakangas 1992).

The absence of Hazel Grouse is probably
explained by its behaviour and habitat require-
ments. Between September and April, it is an
arboreal feeder and has clumped distribution
owing to patchy distributed biotopes
(Swenson 1991). The Hazel Grouse in
Fennoscandia is confined to extremely dense,
unmanaged spruce forests interspersed with
alder *Alnus* spp. and birch, a biotope avoided
by the Capercaillie and Black Grouse
(Swenson 1991). This biotope is increasingly
less common due to forestry practices. It is
also territorial most of the year and occurs as
singles or pairs within relatively small winter
territories (Swenson 1991). The Hazel Grouse

is easily overlooked, even by bird dogs. Restricted flying activity in densely forested habitats and few power lines in Hazel Grouse biotopes make the species less vulnerable to collisions.

Collision mortality peaked during spring for Willow Grouse, probably due to territorial flights. Capercaillie and Black Grouse have an active lekking period in April-May (Rolstad et al. 1988, Willebrand 1988, Gjerde & Wegge 1989). Birds frequently move locally between feeding grounds and lek arenas during twilight and poor light conditions. Power lines crossing lekking areas at a critical height (e.g. immediately above the tree tops), posed a high risk to the species (Bevanger 1990). Black Grouse was documented (Hjort 1968) to arrive at the lek site when light conditions were only between 0.01 and 0.05 lux in mid April. Flight under these conditions is close to the lower limit when orientation to the lek arena is possible (Hjort 1968), and power lines would be very difficult to see, and pose a serious hazard.

Lack of summer mortalities may be due to decreased detectability because increased vegetation cover. Also low summer collision rates are related to egg laying, incubation, a long period of juvenile care and minimal flight activities.

Increased mortality is expected in fall due to young birds flying. Black Grouse may suffer a high fall mortality because they perform a display, when birds congregate at lek arenas. Although the fall display activity is less frequent than in the spring period, it may take place during periods when light intensities are as low as 0.5 lux (Hjort 1968).

The differences in sex distribution of the Capercaillie and Black Grouse victims may be due to dark coloured male feathers are more easily seen than the female feathers. The larg-

er body size of the males (Black Grouse 1 000-1 750 g, Capercaillie 3 720-4 900 g) (Haftorn 1971) may reduce scavenger removal as they often are consumed on site leaving numerous feather remains. Moreover, significant annually and regionally variations in sex ratio was found for Capercaillie and Black Grouse in Finland (Rajala 1974), and differences in spacing and habitat use for male and female Capercaillie in summer was observed in Norway (Rolstad et al. 1988). The smaller females seemed to adopt a "hiding" strategy in fairly dense habitats (e.g. young plantations) (Rolstad et al. 1988). Spatial separation for the Black Grouse sexes have also been found (Willebrand 1988). A difference in adaptation to niches may locally affect the collision rate.

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SAMMENDRAG

Dødelighet hos skogshøns i boreale skogområder i Midt-Norge på grunn av kollisjoner mot kraftledninger

Kollisjoner mot kraftledninger synes å være en regulær dødelighetsfaktor for skogshøns (tetraonider) i boreale skogområder i Midt-

Norge. Ryddebelningsavsnitt (66, 24,5 km ble patet Femti hønsefugl ledningene; 15 ryper. På grunn a fugl i slike områ tiske variasjoner het, oppstår en i tilknytning til da sjonsoffer funne observert under j sammenligne ses lisjonshyppighet sårbarhet i forho som følge av kcc var høyere om vi de tre artene sett fugl når de ble te:

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Norge. Ryddebeltet i tilknytning til 7 kraftledningsavsnitt (66, 72 og 132 kV) på tilsammen 24,5 km ble patruljert gjennom i alt 850 km. Femti hønsefugler hadde kollidert med kraftledningene; 15 storfugl, 14 orrfugl og 21 ryper. På grunn av den lave tettheten av hønsefugl i slike områder, sesongmessige og klimatiske variasjoner samt habitatenes beskaffenhet, oppstår en rekke metodiske problemer i tilknytning til datainnsamlingen. Antall kollisjonsoffer funnet og antall levende fugler observert under patruljeringene ble brukt til å sammenligne sesongmessige forskjeller i kollisjonshyppighet og identifisere artsspesifikk sårbarhet i forhold til kollisjoner. Dødelighet som følge av kollisjoner mot kraftledninger var høyere om vinteren enn om sommeren for de tre artene sett under ett, men bare for storfugl når de ble testet hver for seg.

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