# Post-fledging behaviour in Golden Eagles Aquila chrysaetos: onset of juvenile dispersal and progressive distancing from the nest 

ALVARO SOUTULLO, ${ }^{1 *}$ VICENTE URIOS, ${ }^{1}$ MIGUEL FERRER ${ }^{2}$ \& SANTIAGO G. PEÑARRUBIA ${ }^{1}$<br>${ }^{1}$ Estación Biológica Terra Natura (CIBIO - Fundación Terra Natura), Universidad de Alicante, Apdo. correos 99, Alicante E-03080, Spain<br>${ }^{2}$ Departamento de Conservación de la Biodiversidad, Estación Biológica de Doñana, Consejo Superior de Investigaciones Cientificas, Avda. de María Luisa s/n, Pabellón del Perú, Sevilla 41013, Spain


#### Abstract

Thirteen juvenile Golden Eagles Aquila chrysaetos were tracked during their first year of life using satellite telemetry. Distances to the nest attained during that period and the age at the onset of juvenile dispersal were explored. The performance of nine different criteria to determine that age was analysed. In general, after a brief period of restricted movements around the nest, the average distance to the nest increased with time. Maximum distances to the nest ranged between 57.7 and 184.3 km , and were considerably greater in females (mean $\pm$ sd, $138.5 \pm 44.5 \mathrm{~km}$ ) than in males ( $70.5 \pm 14.0 \mathrm{~km}$ ). No sex difference was observed in the age at which that distance was attained (males: $329 \pm 32$ days, females: $312 \pm 20$ days). The onset of juvenile dispersal took place around the fifth month of life (September in Spain). Eight of the nine criteria provided similar results, suggesting that in Spain dispersal starts when birds are between 140 and 180 days old, and that the postnestling period lasts between 60 and 120 days. For future studies, to determine the age at which the onset of juvenile dispersal occurs, we recommend the use of either the first day on which individuals were located beyond the mean distance between nests of different pairs ( 10 km in our study area), or the date of the record midway between the first and the last location recorded during the month in which the maximum variability in the distance to the nest was observed.


Dispersal is one of the most important yet least understood phenomena in population biology, ecology and evolution (Gadgil 1971, Wiens 2001). It plays a key role in many aspects of the ecology and behaviour of species, and is therefore tightly linked to species persistence, evolution and conservation (Gadgil 1971, Johnson \& Gaines 1990, Clobert et al. 2001). Knowledge of the distance moved by animals during dispersal is therefore fundamental to our understanding of many ecological and evolutionary processes, as well as to the design of successful conservation strategies (e.g. Paradis et al. 1998).

Dispersal is often defined as the permanent movement an animal makes from its birth site to the place where it reproduces or would have reproduced if it had survived and found a mate' (Howard 1960).

[^0]However, as this definition only refers to the movements undertaken by pre-reproductive individuals, Greenwood and Harvey (1982) have suggested that such movements should rather be termed 'natal dispersal'. They differentiate them from the subsequent movements that adults undertake between reproductive areas, a process they call 'breeding dispersal'. In this context, the movements undertaken by juveniles once they become independent from their parents are often denominated 'juvenile dispersal' (e.g. González et al. 1989, Ferrer 2001, Kenward et al. 2001).

As in many large raptors, juvenile dispersal in the Golden Eagle Aquila chrysaetos is characterized by an initial wandering and exploratory phase after becoming independent (González et al. 1989, Walls \& Kenward 1995, Watson 1997), in which the birds' behaviour is to a large degree determined by the search for food (Ferrer 1993a, 2001, Watson 1997). The life of the Golden Eagle from its first winter to
its first breeding is, however, still largely a mystery (Walker 1987, Watson 1997). Most of what we currently know about this period is based on the study of a handful of radiotagged individuals (e.g. Bahat 1992, Haller 1994, 1996, Grant \& McGrady 1999, O'Toole et al. 1999, Soutullo et al. 2006a, 2006b) and a few studies of ringed or wing-marked individuals (e.g. Fremming 1980, Steenhof et al. 1984, Watson 1997). However, as information derived from ringing recoveries gives only a single record of movement, it cannot reveal much about the nature of dispersal in individual birds, and how movements may change across several years before breeding commences (Watson 1997).
The aim of this paper is to provide some of the first information regarding the pattern of distancing from the natal area during the first months of juvenile dispersal. In particular, we investigate the age at which the onset of juvenile dispersal takes place and, hence, the length of the post-nestling period. With this in mind, we explore the value of alternative metrics to determine the age at which the onset of dispersal occurs.

## STUDY AREA AND METHODS

We used satellite telemetry to collect information on the locations of 13 nestlings (seven females and six males) from a resident population of Golden Eagles in eastern Spain (Communities of Valencia, Murcia and Catalonia). Individuals were captured between June 2002 and October 2004, while still in the nest, at an age of $c .50$ days old, and tagged with platform transmitter terminals (PTTs) that send signals to satellites that retransmit them to ARGOS centres for processing and estimation of the PTT position. For computational purposes all individuals were treated as if tagging had occurred when they were exactly 50 days old.
PTTs were fixed to the birds' backs using a breakaway Teflon harness. Three types of PTTs, all manufactured by Microwave Telemetry, were used: four $45-\mathrm{g}$ PTT-100s, five $50-\mathrm{g}$ Solar PTT-100s (one was recovered in the field and re-used) and three $70-\mathrm{g}$ Argos/GPS Solar PTT-100s. Transmitters fixed in 2002 were programmed to an 8 -h on/120-h off schedule; all others were programmed to a $16-\mathrm{h}$ on/ $56-\mathrm{h}$ off schedule. The full transmitter equipment never exceeded $2.5 \%$ of the juvenile's body mass ( $1.81 \%$, sd $= \pm 0.29, n=13$ ), which is below the $3 \%$ suggested by Kenward (2001) to minimize the effects of additional mass on a bird's movements.

Of a total of 2913 locations supplied by the ARGOS system, only 1960 ( $67 \%$ ) were used for the analyses. These included locations in location classes (LCs) 3, 2 and 1 (with nominal accuracies estimated to be within 150,350 and 1000 m , respectively; but see Hays et al. 2001; Vincent et al. 2002). Locations belonging to lower quality LCs ( $0, \mathrm{~A}$ and B ) were only used when they were consistent with the juveniles' movements in terms of distance covered and time elapsed between locations (see Soutullo et al. 2006a). Thus, locations corresponding to movements in which the birds covered unrealistically long distances for the time elapsed were excluded (Hays et al. 2001). Soutullo et al. (2006b) provide more details on individuals studied and the tagging and tracking techniques.

In order to investigate how far Golden Eagles disperse from their natal area and how that changes with age, we divided the first year of life into 30-daylong periods ('months'), starting when birds were 60 days old, and calculated the distance from the nest to each recorded location: the 'distance to the nest' (D). For each individual 'monthly' (30-day period) averages of $D\left(D_{\mathrm{m}}\right)$ were also calculated. We conducted a Kruskal-Wallis test to evaluate between-'month' differences in $D_{\mathrm{m}}$, and used the Games-Howell multiple comparisons test for unequal variances (Zar 1999) to conduct all two'months' comparisons of $D$. Between-sex differences in $D_{\mathrm{m}}$ were evaluated with the Mann-Whitney test. For individuals for which data for the entire first year of life were available we also calculated the annual maximum distance to the nest ( $D_{\mathrm{Max}}$ ) and determined the age at which it was attained. Betweensex differences in $D_{\text {Max }}$ and the age at which it was attained were evaluated with the Mann-Whitney test. As six of the individuals were siblings from three different nests, and hence their movements might not be independent, we checked how the results of all the analyses changed after removing one of the chicks of each pair. Chicks removed were chosen at random. Both results are provided.

The onset of juvenile dispersal is usually more or less arbitrarily defined on the basis of some estimation of the typical size of the territory of adults (e.g. Ferrer 1993a, 1993b, 2001, Walls \& Kenward 1995; see also Kenward et al. 2001). However, juvenile dispersal is characterized by an initial wandering and exploratory phase that contrasts with the restricted pre-dispersal movements. Such contrast is likely to be identifiable as a period of increased variability in the distance to the nest, and hence could be used to


Figure 1. Progressive distancing from the nest of 13 juvenile Golden Eagles during their first year of life. 'Monthly' means ( $\pm \mathrm{se}$ ) are shown for both males (black dots) and females (white dots). The dotted line indicates the overall mean.
identify the onset of juvenile dispersal. Four criteria based on this idea are explored here. First, for each 30-day period we calculated the coefficient of variation of $D\left(D_{\mathrm{CV}}\right)$ and used the date of the record midway between the first and the last location recorded during the period in which $D_{\mathrm{CV}}$ was maximum to determine the age at which the onset of juvenile dispersal took place ( $A_{\mathrm{O}}$ ). We then calculated the moving average and variance for three, five and ten consecutive observations (moving one record forward each time) to calculate the corresponding $D_{\mathrm{CV}}$ and determine $A_{\mathrm{O}}$ as described above.

Five criteria often used to determine the onset of dispersal were also used for comparison - the first day the individual was located at a distance from the nest that is larger than: (1) half of the mean distance between different pairs' nests (roughly the radius of a circular natal home range with its centre in the nest; see McLeod et al. 2002), 5 km in our study area (Urios 1986, Sánchez-Zapata et al. 2000); (2) the minimum distance between different pairs' nests, 10 km in our study area (Urios 1986, Sánchez-Zapata et al. 2000) - to avoid confusing early exploratory movements with the actual onset of the dispersal, we also considered the first day the individual was located beyond 5 and 10 km but not less than those distances in the following two records, as suggested by Walls and Kenward (1995); and (3) the first day the individual was located more than 20 km from the nest, as used for other eagles in Spain (e.g. Arroyo et al. 1992, Ferrer 1993a, 1993b, 2001, Real et al. 1998, Cadahía et al. 2005). Note that given the duty cycle of tags, the mean number of days between

Table 1. Mean ( $\pm \mathrm{se}$ ) distance between individual's locations and the natal nest $(D)$ during the first year of life of 13 Golden Eagles. Four homogeneous groups ( $P$-values of the GamesHowell test $>0.05$ ) are identified based on the similarity of the 'monthly' means of $D$. Groups probably reflect different stages in Golden Eagles' ontogeny.

| Age <br> (days) | Distance <br> $(\mathrm{km})$ | Group <br> 1 | Group <br> 2 | Group <br> 3 | Group <br> 4 |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $60-90$ | $2.5 \pm 2.6$ | xxx |  |  |  |
| $90-120$ | $2.2 \pm 1.6$ | xxx |  |  |  |
| $120-150$ | $6.2 \pm 1.0$ |  | $x x x$ |  |  |
| $150-180$ | $31.0 \pm 1.1$ |  |  | $x x x$ |  |
| $180-210$ | $36.0 \pm 1.7$ |  |  | $x x x$ |  |
| $210-240$ | $30.4 \pm 3.1$ |  |  | $x x x$ |  |
| $240-270$ | $31.2 \pm 2.5$ |  |  | $x x x$ |  |
| $270-300$ | $51.6 \pm 2.5$ |  |  |  | $x x x$ |
| $300-330$ | $63.3 \pm 2.7$ |  |  |  | $x x x$ |
| $330-360$ | $61.3 \pm 2.8$ |  |  |  | $x x x$ |
| $360-390$ | $82.3 \pm 4.0$ |  |  |  |  |

consecutive locations ranged between 0.18 (sd = $\pm 0.51$ ) and 6.70 ( $\mathrm{sd}= \pm 11.08$ ) days.

To compare the values of $A_{\mathrm{O}}$ obtained using these criteria we conducted a one-way ANOVA, and used the Games-Howell test (Zar 1999) to compute all two-criteria comparisons. Statistical analyses were conducted using SPSS version 11.5. Distance data are presented as means $\pm$ sd.

## RESULTS

In general, after a brief period of restricted movements around the nest, the average distance to the nest increased with time, although differences between males and females were observed (Fig. 1). Between-sex differences were, however, not statistically significant (males $Z=1.01, n=101, P=0.31$; females $Z=0.42, n=71, P=0.68$ ). Differences in 'monthly' averages (males $\chi^{2}=66.8, d f=10$, $P<0.0001$; females $\chi^{2}=43.8, d f=10, P<0.0001$ ) probably reflect different stages in the Golden Eagles' post-fledging period (Table 1). Annual maximum distances to the nest ( $D_{\mathrm{Max}}$ ) ranged between 57.7 and 184.3 km , and were considerably larger (males $Z=1.77, n=7, P=0.077$; females $Z=1.55$, $n=4, P=0.33$ ) in females ( $138.5 \pm 44.5 \mathrm{~km}$ ) than in males ( $70.8 \pm 14.0 \mathrm{~km}$ ). No sex difference was observed in the age at which $D_{\text {Max }}$ was attained (males $329 \pm 32$ days, females $312 \pm 20$ days; $Z=1.06, n=7, P=0.29$ and $Z=0.78, n=4$, $P=0.44$, respectively).

Table 2. Estimated age (in days) at the onset of juvenile dispersal of 13 Golden Eagles from Spain, according to nine different criteria (see text for details). Platform transmitter terminal numbers are used to identify individuals.


The onset of juvenile dispersal took place around the fifth month of life. Significant differences in the (log-transformed) age at the onset of juvenile dispersal estimated using the criteria described above were observed $\left(F_{8,103}=5.52, P<0.0001\right)$. This results from the value for $A_{\mathrm{O}}$ estimated using the $5-\mathrm{km}$ criterion being significantly less than that estimated otherwise (Table 2). All other criteria provided similar results $(P>0.05)$. In terms of consistency, $A_{\mathrm{O}}$ estimated for different individuals using the $10-\mathrm{km}$ criterion (the first day individuals were located beyond the mean distance between different pairs' nests), and the maximum 'monthly' $D_{C V}$ criterion showed the lowest variability. Conversely, the values estimated on the basis of the $D_{\mathrm{CV}}$ calculated using the moving average of three and five consecutive observations showed the greatest variability.

## DISCUSSION

Juvenile dispersal in the Golden Eagle is characterized by an initial exploratory and nomadic phase followed by a return to the vicinity of the natal area (Watson 1997). Here we monitored the dispersal of 13 Golden Eagles during their first year of life. After restricted pre-dispersal movements around the natal nest, juvenile dispersal began at the fifth month of life. In general, the distance to the nest was significantly
shorter between July and August than afterwards. Such differences are likely to reflect different stages in Golden Eagles' ontogeny: the post-nestling or postfledging dependence period (from the first flight to the onset of dispersal) and the initial stages of juvenile dispersal. After independence, females moved away from the nest throughout the whole year. Conversely, males showed a more rapid increase in distance to the nest soon after independence, and only a slight increase thereafter. Yet, in both sexes annual maximum distance to the nest was attained towards the end of the first year of life, although females dispersed much further from the nest than males. This is in line with our previous observation (Soutullo et al. 2005) that whereas in both sexes the total area explored continues to increase for most of the first year, in females not only is the total area explored considerably larger but the rate of increase accelerates towards the end of the first year. In general, the maximum distances to the nest we report here match those reported for the species in southwest Idaho, where $78 \%$ of the individuals remained within 100 km of the nesting area (Steenhof et al. 1984), and in Scotland, where maximum distances to the nest oscillated between 100 and 150 km (Watson 1997, Grant \& McGrady 1999). They are considerably shorter, however, than those reported for the species in Switzerland (up to 1000 km ; Haller 1994) and Norway (up to 800 km ; Fremming 1980). These
differences may be a consequence of the greater extent of continuously suitable habitat in these countries (Watson 1997).

By contrast, the fact that distances to the nest attained in September differ significantly from those attained in the rest of the year highlights the transitional stage in these birds' ontogeny that takes place around September: independence from parents and the onset of dispersal. This interpretation is reinforced by the fact that the age at the onset of dispersal estimated using the different criteria overlaps significantly, strongly suggesting that in Spain it takes place when individuals are about 140-180 days old (i.e. around September). This figure is in line with the age reported for the species in England (Walker 1987) and the USA (O'Toole et al. 1999). However, it is considerably less than the 240 days reported by Bahat (1992) for the Golden Eagle in Israel. These differences may reflect environmental differences between Spain and England (and to a lesser degree North Dakota, USA), and the Negev desert in Israel, with chicks remaining longer in their natal area when the chances of ending up in habitats of poor quality are higher (e.g. Ferrer 1992, Watson 1997). Alternatively, they may reflect differences in the way the onset is determined.

In Golden Eagles, the first flight takes place when the birds are between 60 and 80 days old (Walker 1987, Watson 1997, O'Toole et al. 1999), and in Spain the onset of juvenile dispersal occurs when they are about 140-180 days old. Thus, in our study area the post-nestling period is restricted to an interval of 60-120 days in between (i.e. July to mid September).

All the criteria we used to determine the onset of dispersal are based on some knowledge of the species' biology. However, they rely on different and largely independent aspects of the birds' behaviour: patterns of post-fledging movements and the adult's territory size. For the latter, a provision to distinguish between early exploratory movements and true independence was also introduced. Given the low frequency with which locations are obtained (17 days on average), it is arguable whether it is advisable to use this kind of provision with satellite telemetry data. Regardless, all but one of the criteria provided remarkably similar estimates of the age at which the onset of juvenile dispersal takes place. Hence, in principle they are all usable to estimate the age at which Golden Eagles become independent. However, as the internal consistency of the first day individuals were located beyond the mean distance
between different pairs' nests, and the record midway between the first and the last location recorded during the 'month' in which the maximum variability in the distance to the nest was observed seem to be slightly superior, we recommend their use in future studies. This is because despite sex, individual and year-to-year (e.g. due to body condition or food availability) differences in the age at which Eagles become independent, in the same region all chicks are expected to abandon the natal home range within a few weeks (usually less than 2 months; Walker 1987, Ferrer 1992, Grant \& McGrady 1999). Hence, a criterion that suggests that some individuals begin their juvenile dispersal when they are around 70 days old, but that some others do not disperse until they are 300 days old, seems much less reliable than one that suggests that Eagles leave the natal area when they are between 80 and 160 days old (see Table 2). Regardless, the criterion of maximum 'monthly' variability has the advantage that it can be used even in the absence of detailed knowledge of the spatial distribution of nests and territories. As distance between nests may vary widely throughout the species' geographical range, and knowledge is often incomplete, the maximum variability criterion might sometimes be the only reliable option available. Moreover, we argue that it would always be better than using an arbitrary value extrapolated from other areas without a clear understanding of why such a value was used, and has the advantage of being computed easily from the data gathered. The question remains as to how it would fare for other species or in situations where the onset of dispersal may not be defined simply.

Thanks are due to the Conselleria de Territori i Habitatge of the Generalitat Valenciana (P. Mateache, M. Romanillos, J. Jimeinei and A. Izquierdo), the Consejería de Agricultura, Agua y Medio Ambiente for Murcia (E. Aledo and E. Cerezo), the Departamento de Medio Ambiente of the Generalitat de Cataluña (X. Parellada), the Ministerio de Medio Ambiente (V. García Matarranz and F. Garcia), and the Universidad Miguel Hernández (J. A. Sánchez-Zapata and M. Carrete) for their help in the capture and tagging of the individuals studied. We are also grateful to the staff of Argos CLS (A. Breonce, F. Vigier and M. Baquié) and Microwave Telemetry Inc. for technical assistance, and to Luis Cadahía for his collaboration in the field and with retrieval of the data. Finally, we are very grateful to Phil Whitfield and an anonymous referee for comments and suggestions that helped to improve the manuscript. This paper forms part of the PhD thesis of A.S. at the Universidad de Alicante.

## REFERENCES

Arroyo, B., Ferreiro, E. \& Garza, V. 1992. Factores Limitantes de la Población de Águila Perdicera en España. Technical report. Madrid: ICONA.
Bahat, O. 1992. Post-fledging movements of Golden Eagles Aquila chrysaetos homeyeri in the Negev Desert, Israel, as determined by radio-telemetry. In Priede, I.G. \& Swift, S.M. (eds) Wildlife Telemetry:612-621. Chichester: Ellis Horwood Ltd.
Cadahía, L., Urios, V. \& Negro, J.J. 2005. Survival and movements of satellite tracked Bonelli's Eagles during their first winter. Ibis 147: 415-419.
Clobert, J., Danchin, E., Dhont, A.A. \& Nichols, J. (eds) 2001. Dispersal - Causes, Consequences and Mechanisms of Dispersal at the Individual, Population and Community Level. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
Ferrer, M. 1992. Regulation of the period of postfledging dependence in the Spanish Imperial Eagle Aquila adalberti. Ibis 134: 128-133.
Ferrer, M. 1993a. Juvenile dispersal behaviour and natal philopatry of a long-lived raptor, the Spanish Imperial Eagle Aquila adalberti. Ibis 135: 132-138.
Ferrer, M. 1993b. Ontogeny of dispersal distances in young Spanish Imperial Eagles. Behav. Ecol. Sociobiol. 32: 259263.

Ferrer, M. 2001. The Spanish Imperial Eagle. Barcelona: Lynx Edicions.
Fremming, O.R. 1980. Kongeørn i Norge. Viltrapport 12: 1-63.
Gadgil, M. 1971. Dispersal: population consequences and evolution. Ecology 52: 253-261.
González, L.M., Heredia, B., González, J.L. \& Alonso, J.C. 1989. Juvenile dispersal of Spanish Imperial Eagle. J. Field Ornithol. 60: 369-379.
Grant, J.R. \& McGrady, M.J. 1999. Dispersal of Golden Eagles Aquila chrysaetos in Scotland. Ring. Migr. 19: 169-174.
Greenwood, P.J. \& Harvey, P.H. 1982. The natal and breeding dispersal of birds. Ann. Rev. Ecol. Syst. 13: 1-21.
Haller, H. 1994. Der Steinadler Aquila chrysaetos als Brutvogel im schweizerischen Alpenvorland: Ausbreitungstendenzen und ihre populations - ökologischen Grundlagen. Der Ornithologische Beobachter 91: 237-254.
Haller, H. 1996. Der Steinadler in Graubünden. Langfristige Untersuchungen zur Populationsökologie von Aquila chrysaetos im Zentrum der Alpen. Der Ornithologische Beobachter Beiheft 9: 1-167.
Hays, G.C., Åkesson, S., Godley, B.J., Luschi, P. \& Santidrian, P. 2001. The implications of location accuracy for the interpretation of satellite-tracking data. Anim. Behav. 61: 1035-1040.
Howard, W.E. 1960. Innate and environmental dispersal of individual vertebrates. Am. Midl. Nat. 63: 152-161.
Johnson, M.L. \& Gaines, M.S. 1990. Evolution of dispersal: theoretical models and empirical test using birds and mammals. Annu. Rev. Ecol. Syst. 21: 449-480.
Kenward, R.E. 2001. A Manual for Wildlife Radio Tagging. London: Academic Press.
Kenward, R.E., Rushton, S.P., Perrins, C.M., Macdonald, D.W. \&

South, A.B. 2001. From marking to modelling: dispersal study techniques for land vertebrates. In Bullock, J.M., Kenward, R.E. \& Hails, R.S. (eds) Dispersal Ecology: 50-71. Oxford: Blackwell.
McLeod, D.R.A., Whitfield, D.P., Fielding, A.H., Haworth, P.F. \& McGrady, M.J. 2002. Predicting home range use by Golden Eagles Aquila chrysaetos in western Scotland. Avian Sci. 2: 183-198.
O'Toole, L.T., Kennedy, P.L., Knight, R.L. \& McEwen, L.C. 1999. Postfledging behavior of Golden Eagles. Wilson Bull. 111:472-477.
Paradis, E., Baillie, S.R., Sutherland, W.J. \& Gregory, R.D. 1998. Patterns of natal and breeding dispersal in birds. J. Anim. Ecol. 67: 518-536.

Real, J., Mañosa, S. \& Codina, J. 1998. Post-nestling dependence period in the Bonelli's Eagle Hieraaetus fasciatus. Ornis Fennica 75: 129-137.
Sánchez-Zapata, J.A., Calvo, J.F., Carrete, M. \& Martínez, J.E. 2000. Age and breeding success of a Golden Eagle Aquila chrysaetos population in southeastern Spain. Bird Study 57: 235-237.
Soutullo, A., Urios, V. \& Ferrer, M. 2006a. How far away in an hour? - daily movements of juvenile Golden Eagles (Aquila chrysaetos) tracked with satellite telemetry. J. Ornithol. 147: 69-72.
Soutullo, A., Urios, V., Ferrer, M. \& Peñarrubia, S.G. 2006b. Dispersal of Golden Eagles Aquila chrysaetos during their first year of life. Bird Study in press.
Steenhof, K., Kochert, M.N. \& Moritsch, M.Q. 1984. Dispersal and migration of Southwestern Idaho Raptors. J. Field Ornithol. 55: 357-368.
Urios, V. 1986. Biología, requerimientos ecológicos y relaciones interespecíficas del águila real Aquila chysaetos homeyeri Severtrov, 1888 y del águila perdicera Hieraaetus fasciatus fasciatus Viellot, 1822 (Accipitriformes, Accipitridae) en la Provincia de Valencia. BSc thesis, Universidad de Valencia.
Vincent, C., McConnel, B.J., Fedak, M.A. \& Ridoux, V. 2002. Assessment of Argos location accuracy from satellite tags deployed on captive grey seals. Mar. Mammal Sci. 18: 301322.

Walker, D.G. 1987. Observations on the post-fledging period of the Golden Eagle Aquila chrysaetos in England. Ibis 129: 92-96.
Walls, S. \& Kenward, R.E. 1995. Movements of radio-tagged Buzzards Buteo buteo in their first year. Ibis 137: 177-182.
Watson, J. 1997. The Golden Eagle. London: T. \& A.D. Poyser.
Wiens, J.A. 2001. The landscape context of dispersal. In Clobert, J., Danchin, E., Dhondt, A.A. \& Nichols, J.D. (eds) Dispersal - Causes, Consequences and Mechanisms of Dispersal at the Individual, Population and Community Level: 96-109. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
Zar, J.H. 1999. Biostatistical Analysis, 4th edn. New Jersey: Prentice Hall.


[^0]:    *Corresponding author.
    Email: a.soutullo@gmail.com

