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Wind Energy and Wildlife Conservation

A Description of the Biosis Model to Assess Risk of Bird Collisions With Wind Turbines

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ABSTRACT We describe the model of Biosis Propriety Limited for quantifying potential risk to birds of collisions with wind turbines. The description follows the sequence of the model's processes from input parameters, through modules of the model itself. Aspects of the model that differentiate it from similar models are the primary focus of the description. These include its capacity to evaluate risk for multi-directional flights by its calculation of a mean presented area of a turbine; its use of bird flight data to determine annual flux of movements; a mathematical solution to a typical number of turbines that might be encountered in a given bird flight; capacity to assess wind-farm configurations ranging from turbines scattered in the landscape to linear rows of turbines; and the option of assigning different avoidance rates to structural elements of turbines that pose more or less risk. We also integrate estimates of the population of birds at risk with data for numbers of their flights to predict a number of individual birds that are at risk of collision. Our model has been widely applied in assessments of potential wind-energy developments in Australia. We provide a case history of the model's application to 2 eagle species and its performance relative to empirical experience of collisions by those species.

KEY WORDS bird, collision, model, risk, turbine, wind energy.

A number of mathematical models have been developed for the purposes of either describing the interaction of a bird with a wind turbine or to predict the risks of bird collisions with turbines (Tucker 1996*a*, *b*; Podolsky 2003, 2005; Bolker et al. 2006; Band et al. 2007). Tucker (1996*a*, *b*) and Band et al. (2007) detailed their models in the peer-reviewed literature. The collision risk model developed by Biosis Propriety Limited has been widely used to assess wind-energy developments in Australia since 2002, but it has not previously been described in detail. Given high levels of interest in effects of wind turbines on fauna, we believe it is important for the model to be accessible.

Our model provides a predicted number of collisions between turbines and a local or migrating population of birds. It has the potential to be modified to accommodate Monte-Carlo simulation, although at its core it uses a deterministic approach. It is modular by design, and allows various customizations, depending upon the unique configuration of the wind facility and characteristics of the taxa modeled.

The initial calculation involves species-specific parameters for speed and size of birds and specifications of the turbine, including its dimensions and rotational speed of its blades. Using these parameters, we derive the mean area of turbine presented to a bird in flight. This allows the model to accommodate flight approaches from any potential direction. Alternatively, unidirectional flights can be modeled by using the relevant turbine surface area presented to birds approaching from a given direction.

Data for bird flights are collected at the wind-farm site according to a specific and consistent field methodology. These data are used to determine the flux (density) of bird flights. When combined with turbine specifications, this yields the probability of collision during a single flight–turbine interaction. The density flux approach has not been used for this application previously.

The number of movements at risk of collision with one turbine is then scaled according to a typical number of turbines that a bird might encounter in a given flight. This is further refined by a metric for the capacity of the particular species to avoid collisions. Where a population census or estimate is available for the number of birds that may be at risk, a further deduction is used to attribute the number of flights-at-risk to individuals, and hence provide a final model output as the number of individuals at risk of collisions. The ability to transform from flights-at-risk to individuals-at-risk has been uniquely developed and applied as a routine component of our model.

DESCRIPTION OF THE MODEL

The model requires data for input parameters and, using these, functions in a sequence of modules (Fig. 1).

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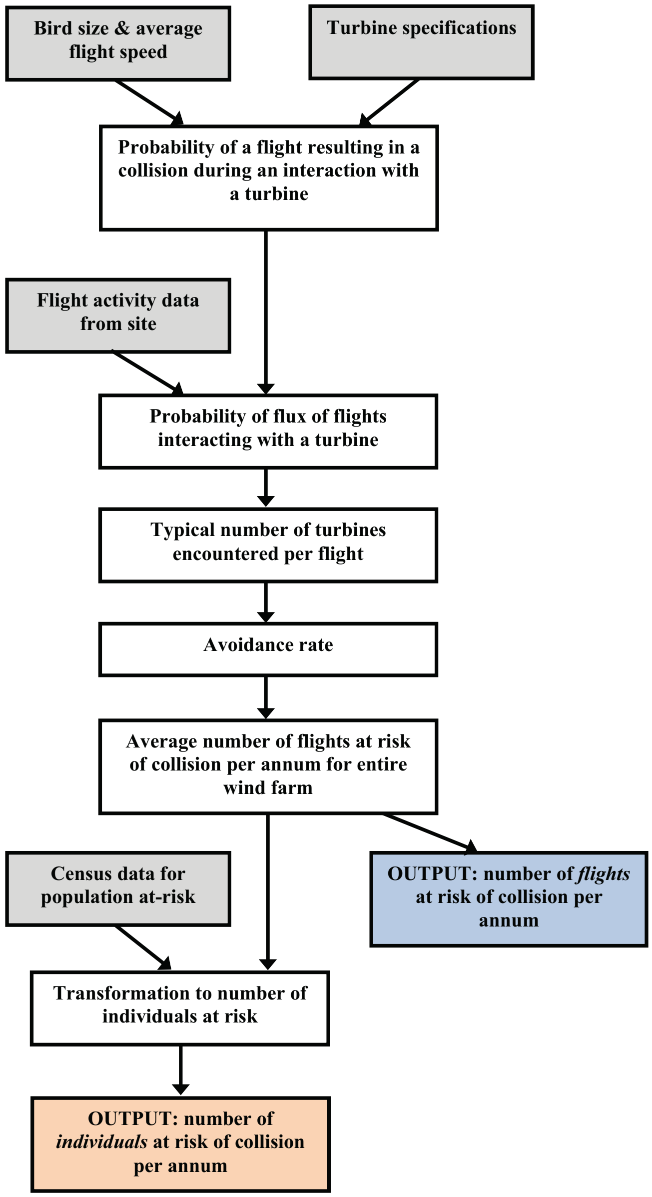

Figure 1. Overview of the collision risk model that quantifies risk to birds of colliding with wind turbines, showing input parameters (gray boxes), modules, and sequence.

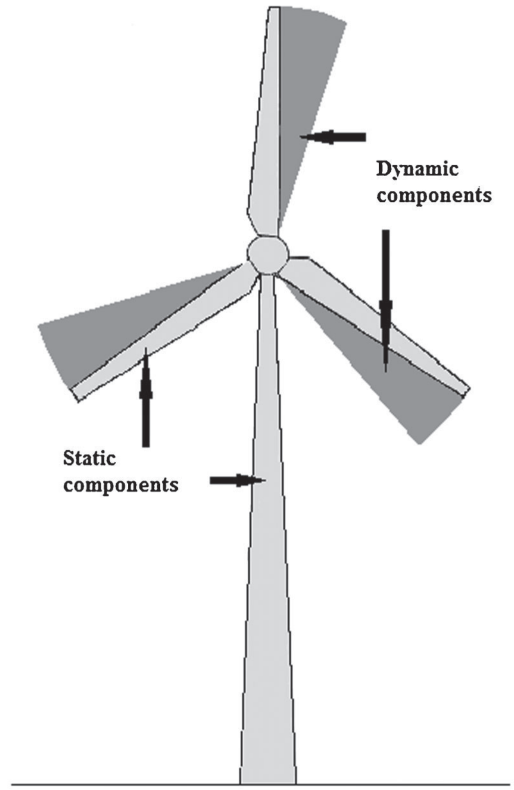

Figure 2. Schematic indication of the static and dynamic components of a wind turbine that may be encountered by a flying bird. The dynamic component is the area swept by rotor blades during the time that a bird of a particular species would take to pass through the rotor-swept zone.

Model Inputs

Turbine parameters.—The primary risk faced by a flying bird, whether it may strike or be struck by a turbine, is that the machine presents a potential obstacle in its path. Ultimately this equates to the surface area of the turbine presented to the bird from whatever its angle of approach. Other models, such as probably Band et al. (2007), use individualistic representations of birds. Our model uses a projection of the presented area onto all possible flight angles. For this reason, multiple dimensions of turbine components and rotor speed for the particular type of turbine are used as input values to the risk model. Turbine specifications are as provided by the machine's manufacturer.

The modeled wind turbine consists of 2 fundamental components representing potentially different risks. We refer to these as the static and dynamic components (Fig. 2). The static areas of a turbine include all surfaces of the entire machine comprising a tower, which in current turbines is a simple taper with known base and top diameters; a rectangular nacelle housing the generator; a hemi-spherical hub; and rotor blades that taper in 2 planes. The dynamic component is the area swept by the leading edges of rotor blades during the time that a bird would take to pass through the rotor-swept zone.

Size and flight speed of birds.—For each taxon, the model requires values for the total length of the bird in flight, from bill tip to tip of the tail or outstretched legs, and the average speed of the species' flights. We obtained bird lengths either from museum specimens or from standard ornithological texts.

Accurate determinations of bird flight speeds can be complex and difficult to obtain (Videler 2005, Pennycuick 2008) and published data are not available for most species. However, published radar studies (e.g., Bruderer 1995, Bruderer and Boldt 2001) provide ranges of flight speeds for a variety of species, including congenerics with similar morphologies and ecological traits to a number of species we have assessed. Use of radar to collect bird flight data at the wind-farm site may provide flight speeds for species of interest. We consider that average ground speed (as opposed to air speed) is appropriate for modeling of multidirectional movements of birds.

Bird flight data.—The model requires data from the wind-farm site for the number of flights made by species of interest within a measured time and volume of airspace. Movement data may be obtained from fixed-time point counts using a methodology adapted from Reynolds et al. (1980), incorporating an effective detection range (Buckland et al. 1993). It may be collected by human observers or by using horizontal and vertical radar combined with call recording or visual species identification (e.g., Gauthreaux and Belser 2003, Desholm et al. 2006). Data represent the number of flights that birds make within a cylinder of airspace that is centered horizontally on the observer and the height of which is the maximum reached by rotor blades of the turbines. The data collection regime is designed with the aim of providing a representative sample of flight activity across the local range of diel, seasonal, and other environmental variables.

Model Modules

Probability of a single flight interacting with a turbine.—In some situations, such as during highly directional migratory passage, the presented area of turbines is determined from the angle of the birds' flight relative to the compass orientation of turbines. However, for the great majority of species (including temporary or permanent residents at an on-shore wind farm) this does not apply, and flights can be expected to approach turbines from any direction. For this situation, all dimensions of the turbine contribute to the area with which a flying bird might collide and the model uses a simple integration to determine a mean presented area. This represents a substantial advance over other collision risk models that depend on the assumption of a specific angle of approach as a bird encounters a turbine (e.g., Tucker 1996*a*, *b*; Bolker et al. 2006; Band et al. 2007).

We calculate the area presented by the static components of a turbine using a conservative assumption that none of them overlap or obscure any others. The area of each component is calculated individually, and these are then summed to determine a total static area for the turbine. Static areas are calculated from the simple length × width dimensions of all components visible by line of sight. These are then projected onto an arbitrary approach direction (effectively scaling by the cosine of the approach angle). For example, viewed directly from one side, only the side panel of the nacelle is visible. However, approached from 45° to the turbine, both the front and side panels are visible, and are thus scaled by $\cos(45)\varrho 1/\sqrt{2}$ to match that particular angle of view.

We calculate the dynamic area, swept during the movement of blades, from the dimensions of the stationary blades and the distance they travel at their average speed during the time taken by a bird to fly through the rotor-swept area. We assume that all flights involve forward movement, so the swept-area is derived from the length and speed of the particular species of bird, in combination with the thickness of the sweeping blade.

Each rotor blade is tapered in 2 planes. Thus the thickness of the blades, used to determine the time taken for a bird to cross through the swept area, is actually a function of the point in the rotor radius at which an individual bird's flight intersects the swept area. This presents a complication that we overcome by defining an effective blade, which is a simple rectangular cross-section that sweeps out precisely the same volume of space as the physical blade. In doing so, we calculate a constant thickness of blade that accounts for the fact that the thinner tips actually sweep far more space than the thicker base of the blade. This ensures also that our flux calculation is not compromised by introduction of a spatial variation at odds with other aspects of the model.

A further input parameter is the percentage of time per annum when rotors are not turning due to inappropriate wind speeds and routine turbine maintenance. Prior to commissioning of a wind farm, wind speed data are usually gathered and the expected percentage of downtime due to inappropriate wind speeds is determined. During downtime periods the rotor simply stops turning; and so risks associated with dynamic components only are reduced by this percentage of time, while all static components of the turbine remain as potential obstacles to flying birds.

Combining all presented areas of the turbine.—Modeling for multidirectional bird movements requires no dependence on approach angles nor on complexities of interactions between flight direction and wind direction. We thus reduce the turbine to its mean presented area. This is solved by the equation

$$\frac{1}{\pi}\int_{0}^{\pi} A(\theta)\,\mathrm{d}\theta$$

where A is the presented area of the turbine as a function of approach angle θ. We solve this numerically using a trapezoidal integrator (Press et al. 1992).

Probability of multiple flights interacting with a turbine.—Because counts of bird flights have been made across the wind-farm site and there is no obligatory relationship between point-count locations and particular sites proposed for turbines, we combine the data collected from all point counts. This provides a measure of flight activity, which is assumed to be constant across the site. Thus the field data reduce to a single ratio value for the subject species, which is the sum of all flights documented during all counts divided by the total time of observations. This equates to a maximum likelihood estimation of the mean of an assumed Poisson distribution.

To calculate a number of flights at risk of collision, we first reduce documented bird movements (M) to a measure of flux (F) using the equation

$$F = \frac{M}{T_{\mathrm{obs}} A_{\mathrm{obs}}}$$

where T_{obs} is the combined total time of all point counts and A_{obs} is the area of the vertical plane dissecting the observation cylinder. This flux is a measure of bird movements per time per square meter of vertical airspace. The third dimension, volume of airspace, is redundant (or tacit) due to the assumption that, unless involved in a collision, flight paths do not end arbitrarily in space.

We next multiply activity measure by the number of minutes in which the species is active during the 24-hour diel period, T, and the total presented area of the turbine, A. For year-round resident species, the "active minutes" are calculated for the entire year, while for seasonal or migratory species, they are calculated for the portion of the year that the species is present at the site. This then gives a measure of risk to the bird movements, $M_{\text{risk}} = \text{FTA}$.

Because the flight data are a measure of movements by the species in question and do not discriminate the number of individuals making the movements, the measure (M_{risk}) quantifies the total movements-at-risk for the species and does not reflect risk to individual birds.

To determine a risk rate from total of recorded movements-at-risk, it is necessary to extrapolate to a total number of expected bird movements per annum, M_{yearly}. We calculate this from the flight data, extrapolating the movements to a yearly total through the equation

$$M_{\text{yearly}} = M\frac{T_{\text{yearly}}}{T_{\text{obs}}}$$

We then deduce a probability of flights at risk of collision as $M_{\text{risk}}/M_{\text{yearly}}$. Note that T_{year} is the total time in a year, and not the diel activity period of the species, which has already been factored into the calculation of movements at risk.

The resultant value is now a probability of flights being at risk of collision with a single turbine. To this point, no account is taken of the bird's own ability to avert a collision. This is modified later through use of an avoidance factor.

Estimating number of turbines encountered per flight.—Every turbine is presumed to represent some risk for birds, so the total number of turbines proposed for the wind farm is an input to the model. Turbine layout of modern wind farms is primarily determined by the wind resource and turbines are micro-sited accordingly. Consequently, the machines are usually scattered on the landscape. Older wind farms had turbines arrayed in rows, and occasional modern facilities may be linear where they follow a single topographic feature.

To account for the number of turbines with which a single flight might interact, it would be necessary either to know precisely the route of every flight or to make informed assumptions about flight paths. The manner in which turbines are arrayed in the landscape is important to ascertain a typical number of turbines that a bird might encounter in a given flight. This number differs according to whether turbines are in a scattered array or a single row, and these require different calculations.

For a row of turbines, the likely number of encounters can be visualized by considering a row of N turbines in plan view and a flight path at angle Φ to the row. A flight directly along the line of turbines (Φ') will interact with all N turbines. As the angle of flight relative to the row increases toward 90°, flight paths have potential to interact with fewer turbines until an angle (Φ'') is reached at which the path has potential to interact with a maximum of one turbine.

For a single row of turbines, we define the piecewise smooth function, which gives the number of turbines for a given angle of crossing with,

$$n_{\text{interaction}} = \begin{cases} N, & \text{if } \theta \leq \phi\prime \\ \cot(\theta), & \text{if } \phi' < \theta \leq \phi'' \\ 1, & \text{if } \phi'' < \theta \leq \frac{\pi}{2} \end{cases}$$

This gives us an expected number of interactions as

$$\langle n_{\text{interaction}} \rangle = \frac{2}{\pi}\left[N\arctan\left(\frac{1}{N}\right) + \frac{\pi}{4} - \ln\left(\sqrt{2}\sin\left(\arctan\left(\frac{1}{N}\right)\right)\right)\right]$$

For scattered turbine arrays it is not realistic to assume that a bird will encounter all turbines in the wind farm in a given flight. We assume each flight has potential to cross between any 2 points on the outer edges of the farm. Given the size of most on-shore wind farms, this is a reasonable assumption for typical species of concern, such as raptors. When multiple flight paths are drawn randomly across the plan view of a wind farm, some paths may be circuitous and have potential to encounter many turbines, while others will pass through a small portion of the site and have potential to encounter relatively few turbines.

To deduce an average number of turbines likely to be encountered by any flight we use a topological, non-affine mapping technique. This spatial transformation can be illustrated as follows: if we were to throw a lasso around the perimeter of the site and shorten it to its minimum, we would find that all the turbines had collected in a circle. A straight flight path through this "lassoed" site is mathematically equivalent to a random walk across the unconstrained layout. The average of all flight paths crossing the center of this remapped farm will intersect with $\sqrt{N}$ turbines (where N is the total no. of turbines in the wind farm). This value is used in the model for the number of turbines that might be encountered per flight within a scattered turbine array.

For arrays that are neither entirely scattered nor linear, the model employs a simple weighted average of the values for fully scattered and entirely linear arrays.

Application of turbine avoidance capacity.—Birds have substantial ability to avoid obstacles; therefore, it is necessary to incorporate this capacity into the model. In common with other workers (Percival et al. 1999), we use "avoidance" in specific reference to behavior on the part of a bird that averts a potential collision with a turbine. The "avoidance rate" equates to the proportion of flights that might otherwise have involved interaction with a turbine but where the bird alters course and the flight does not result in a collision. For the purposes of the model it is of no consequence whether or not this is a result of a cognitive response by the bird to the presence of the turbine.

Turbine avoidance remains little-studied for any species, and empirical information about actual avoidance can be obtained for a given site only by studying the responses of birds in the presence of operational turbines (Chamberlain et al. 2006). One recent investigation has compared flight behaviors of 2 species of eagles in the presence of turbines at

2 operating wind farms with their behaviors at a site without turbines (Hull and Muir 2013).

Avoidance rate is incorporated into the model by scaling the movements at risk by $(1 - v)$, where v is a measure of the bird's ability to avoid objects. In this scenario, $v = 0$ corresponds to a blind, non-responsive projectile, and $v = 1$ represents a perfectly responsive bird able to avoid any object.

A novel feature of our model is its capacity to apply different avoidance values to the static and dynamic portions of a turbine. As noted by Martin (2011), birds are known to collide with both stationary and moving parts of turbines. This aspect of our model allows for differences in capacity of birds to detect and avoid the large, static components of modern turbines relative to their capacity to detect and avoid the small and fast-moving leading edges of rotor blades.

Size of population at risk.—When information about the size of the population at-risk is available, this can be factored directly into our model to provide results in the form of an expected number of individuals at risk of collision per annum. This is an important consideration because an input measured in terms of bird movements cannot provide an output in terms of individual birds. This aspect appears to have been largely overlooked by other workers, although Chamberlain et al. (2006) alluded to the use of a number of flights only, without incorporation of the number of individuals, as a potential issue in evaluation of collision estimates provided by the Band model (Band et al. 2007).

To deduce a predicted number of individual birds that are at risk of collision, a valid estimate is required of the number of individuals that may interact with turbines at the wind farm in the course of a year. If it is not feasible to obtain this for a species, then the output of the collision risk model will necessarily be the number of flights-at-risk per annum. Although this metric is not predictive of the number of individuals that might collide, it permits risk to be compared for various designs of a wind farm or between one facility and another. In rare cases, such as where there is a single migration passage through the site per annum, the number of movements may equate with the number of individual birds that are at risk. The great majority of risk modeling we have undertaken has been for raptors that are year-round residents. Due to their territoriality and relatively low densities, our studies at wind-farm sites have been able to ascertain the number of individuals using a site per annum, including both resident adults and juveniles, with a high level of confidence. For some other species, such as cranes (Gruidae), we have undertaken home-range studies to determine numbers present during the breeding season, and we have obtained local census data to estimate numbers of individuals that might encounter turbines during non-breeding seasons.

Given a population estimate, the number of flights at risk is attributed equally to the relevant number of individuals through the simple relation $M_{\text{individuals}} = \text{Yearly Movements}/\text{Population}$. We can then attribute individual mortality through

$$\text{mortality} = \text{Population}\left(1 - \frac{\text{Movements At Risk}}{\text{Yearly Movements}}\right)^{M_{\text{individuals}}}$$

MODEL VALIDATION

The model we describe here has been used to assess potential turbine collision risk for numerous species of birds for 23 commercial-scale wind farms proposed in Australia and one in Fiji. Eleven of these facilities have subsequently been built and are now operational. The model's projections have been used by regulatory authorities in determination of approval or modification to wind-farm designs for a range of species of concern. These include taxa as diverse as the orange-bellied parrot (*Neophema chrysogaster*), wedge-tailed eagle (*Aquila audax*), brolga (*Grus rubicunda*), and the large and readily observable Pacific fruit-bat (*Pteropus tonganus*) in Fiji.

The model's performance can be validated only when it can be compared with post-construction mortality data that are sufficient to permit calculation of an actual annual mortality rate and a 95% confidence interval for that rate. Conditions of regulatory approval for most wind farms that have been built to-date in Australia have varied considerably between state jurisdictions and over time. Generally they have not required rigorous investigation or public reporting of avian collisions that occur during operation. We have thus had limited opportunity to validate our model against empirical information for actual collisions. However, where these are available, we can compare the model's predicted average estimates with the measured confidence interval for actual mortalities to assess its predictive capacity. We present one such case study below.

Comparing the Model's Predictions With Empirical Data—A Case History

Substantial investigations have been undertaken at Bluff Point and Studland Bay wind farms in northwestern Tasmania entailing a number of studies of wedge-tailed eagle and white-bellied sea-eagle (*Haliaeetus leucogaster*). These have included utilization surveys designed to measure eagle activity before and after development of the wind farm; collision monitoring; eagle breeding success; eagle behaviors and movements relative to turbines and observers; and investigations and trials aimed at reduction of collisions (Hull et al. 2013). Commissioning of turbines began at Bluff Point Wind Farm in 2002 and at Studland Bay Wind Farm in 2007. Bluff Point Wind Farm consisted of 37 Vestas V66 turbines in a scattered array on an area of 1,524 ha. Studland Bay Wind Farm was situated 3 km south of Bluff Point and comprised 25 Vesta V90 turbines in a scattered array over an area of 1,410 ha. Both wind farms were close to the coast of northwestern Tasmania and resident white-bellied sea-eagles and Tasmanian subspecies of wedge-tailed eagle (*A. a. fleayi*) occurred at both sites.

Monitoring Eagle Flights

Movement data for both species were collected during point counts at Bluff Point Wind Farm site in 3 years prior to construction of turbines and in 4 years after they commenced operating. At Studland Bay, they were collected in 6 years prior to turbine construction and in 3 years after turbines commenced operation. As prescribed by regulatory authorities, point counts were undertaken in the austral autumn and spring. Ten replicate point counts were made in each season at 18 locations per wind farm. There were 545 point counts undertaken at Bluff Point between 1999 and 2007 and 854 point counts at Studland Bay between 1999 and 2009.

Collision Risk Model Results

We used the model to estimate risk based on movement data collected prior to construction for populations of 6 wedge-tailed eagles and 4 white-bellied sea-eagles at-risk per annum at each of the 2 wind farms.

State regulatory authorities have required that the collision risk model be re-run with the accumulated sum of eagle movement data obtained during the entire period of both pre-construction and operation of the 2 wind farms spanning the period from 1999 to 2009 (Table 1). We modeled static avoidance rate at 99% in all cases.

Documented Eagle Collisions

Carcass monitoring surveys were conducted at the Bluff Point and Studland Bay wind farms since they commenced operating. Fences to exclude mammalian scavengers were maintained at 27% of turbines across the 2 sites. All turbines, both fenced and unfenced, were searched routinely within a 100-m radius of the tower base. Search frequency was initially informed by trials to determine rates of loss to scavengers and of observers' capacity to detect carcasses. Since 2007, searches were carried out twice weekly during periods that may have represented higher risk to the species (i.e., eagle display period Jun–Aug, inclusive; and eagle fledging period mid-Dec–Feb, inclusive) and fortnightly outside these periods (Hull et al. 2013). Assessment of the extent of undetected eagle collisions (Hydro Tasmania 2012; Hull et al. 2013) concluded that it is unlikely that significant numbers of eagle carcasses were missed because they are conspicuous; the search zone around turbines was adequate to detect eagle carcasses where they will fall after colliding with turbines (Hull and Muir 2010); personnel on site had capacity to detect carcasses that may have been moved from the formal search zones; eagle carcasses in vegetation were found not to decompose readily and, even when scavenged, remains were identifiable; avian scavengers did not remove all evidence of carcasses and, although mammalian scavengers could remove carcasses, this was controlled at the subset of fenced turbines; survey intensity was informed by predetermined scavenger removal rates; and, although a small number of eagles survived collision with a turbine, in all documented cases such birds were unable to fly and are likely to have been detected because both scavenger exclusion and farm fences prevented them from leaving the site.

Table 1. Modeled mean annual turbine collision estimates for 2 eagle species based on movement data collected over the span of pre-construction and operation of 2 wind farms in northwestern Tasmania, Australia, from 1999 to 2009. Estimates are shown for 4 potential dynamic avoidance rates. Static avoidance rate was modeled at 99% in all cases

	White-bellied sea-eagle		Wedge-tailed eagle	
Dynamic avoidance rate (%)	Bluff Point	Studland Bay	Bluff Point	Studland Bay
90	0.9	0.8	2.7	1.9
95	0.5	0.4	1.5	1.1
98	0.2	0.2	0.7	0.5
99	0.1	0.1	0.4	0.3

Comparison of Collision Risk Model Estimates With Actual Mortality Rates

Given constraints of statistically low collision numbers, the model's estimates of annual collisions, based on the combined total of movement data from pre-construction and operation of the 2 wind farms from 1999 until 2009 (Table 1), compare well with actual mortality of the 2 eagle species at both wind farms (Table 2). The model's estimate of the number of wedge-tailed eagle collisions per annum at Bluff Point at a 95% avoidance rate was 1.5, which is the same as the mean number of documented mortalities per annum. Estimates provided for this case by model iterations for 90% and 95% avoidance rates fell within the 95% confidence interval of measured mortality rates. The model's estimates for number of collisions at a 95% avoidance rate for white-bellied sea-eagles at Bluff Point (0.5) and for wedge-tailed eagles at Studland Bay (1.1; Table 1) also closely approximated the mean numbers of documented mortalities per annum for the 2 species (0.4 and 1.0, respectively; Table 2). For those cases, the model's estimates for the range of avoidance rates between 90% and 99% fell within the 95% confidence interval of measured mortality rates. No white-bellied sea-eagle collisions have yet been reported from Studland Bay so, to date, the model's estimates are higher than actual experience for that species there.

MANAGEMENT IMPLICATIONS

We consider that there are 2 different, although not mutually exclusive, applications for modeling of bird collision risks at prospective wind farms. These are to provide projections of long-term effects of a particular wind-energy facility on key bird species; and to determine relative risks for key species that are associated with different wind-farm sites, different portions of large wind farms, and different types of turbines and/or turbine configurations.

In many respects, we consider the latter use of collision risk modeling is the most important contribution it offers. This application provides a tool for planning of wind farms to avoid, reduce, or mitigate potential risks to birds. The model we describe here has now been used in such an iterative manner for a number of prospective sites to evaluate relative risks to key species posed by different types, sizes, numbers, and layouts of turbines.

The integration in our model of data for numbers of bird flights with numbers of birds in the population at-risk is key to the accurate prediction of potential numbers of collisions. This aspect appears not to have been adequately considered previously but has real implications to the appropriate determination of actual risks posed by a wind farm. Our model's use of bird flight data to determine annual flux of movements; a mathematical solution to the typical number of turbines that might be encountered in a bird flight; capacity to assess wind-farm configurations ranging from turbines scattered in the landscape to linear rows of turbines; and the option of assigning different avoidance rates to components

Table 2. Average annual mortality rate and variance for 2 eagle species based on carcasses detected at 2 wind farms in northwestern Tasmania, Australia

	White-bellied sea-eagle		Wedge-tailed eagle	
Wind farm	**Mean annual mortality**	**Annual variance (95% CI)**	**Mean annual mortality**	**Annual variance (95% CI)**
Bluff Point 2002–2012	0.4	0.1–1.0	1.5	0.8–2.6
Studland Bay 2007–2012	0.0	0.0–0.7	1.0	0.3–2.2

of turbines that pose more or less risk, all represent refinements designed to improve the predictive capacity of turbine collision risk modeling.

In the cases outlined here, where long-term mortality data sets have permitted validation of the model's collision estimates at given avoidance rates, the two have closely approximated each other. We will seek further opportunities to compare the results of our model with empirical mortality information from operating wind farms, with a view to wider application of the model.

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