

1 Causes of Morbidity and Mortality in Wild Raptors of Northern California Presented to the  
2 University of California, Davis Veterinary Medicine Teaching Hospital from 1995-2022

3  
4 By Alexis Durant

5  
6 Submitted in Partial Fulfillment  
7 of the Requirements for the Degree

8  
9 MASTER OF PREVENTIVE VETERINARY MEDICINE (MPVM)

10  
11 Office of Graduate Studies

12  
13 University of California, Davis

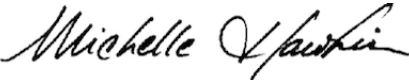
14  
15 Davis, California

16  
17 November 2024

18  
19 Reviewed and Approved by

20  
21 Michelle Hawkins, VMD, DABVP  
22 Professor, UC Davis School of Veterinary Medicine: Exotic Animal Medicine and Surgery

23  
24 Terra Kelly, DVM, PhD, Dipl. ACZM  
25 Director, EpiEcos, Faculty Member of MPVM Program, UC Davis School of Veterinary  
26 Medicine

27  
28  
29 

30  
31 

---

Michelle G. Hawkins, VMD, DABVP

32  
33  
34  
35  
36 

37  
38  
39 

---

Terra Kelly, DVM, PhD, Dipl. ACZM

40  
41  
42  
43

44

45 **Abstract**

46 Morbidity and mortality studies using data from wildlife rehabilitation facilities can be useful for  
47 understanding threats to free-ranging raptor populations. This study utilized medical and  
48 necropsy records of free-ranging sick and/or injured raptors presenting to the UC Davis  
49 Veterinary Medicine Teaching Hospital from 1995-2022 (n=3,840). A similar published study  
50 evaluating raptors at the same institution from 1983-1994 provides a unique opportunity to  
51 assess patterns in morbidity and mortality among raptors presenting to this hospital over a forty-  
52 year period. A supervised machine-learning approach was utilized to classify each case  
53 according to a diagnostic category from free text data entered into the fields of ‘presenting  
54 complaint,’ ‘physical exam findings,’ and ‘clinical diagnosis,’ in the raptors’ medical records.  
55 Diagnostic categories were entered manually from necropsy records. A time series analysis  
56 evaluated trends over time in numbers of raptor admissions and logistic regression models  
57 evaluated factors associated with increased odds of survival. Red-tailed hawks (*Buteo*  
58 *jamaicensis*), barn owls (*Tyto alba*), and great-horned owls (*Bubo virginianus*) were the most  
59 common species admitted to the hospital for clinical care. This dataset, compared to the  
60 previously published study, had comparatively fewer western screech owls (*Megascops*  
61 *kennicottii*) and American kestrels (*Falco sparverius*) while red-shouldered hawks (*Buteo*  
62 *lineatus*) and Cooper’s hawks (*Accipiter cooperii*) numbers were increased. The most common  
63 infectious diseases identified were *Aspergillus* spp., *Chlamydia* spp., West Nile virus (WNV),  
64 and *Trichomonas* spp. Overall, traumatic injury and infectious disease were the most common  
65 causes of morbidity and mortality in this study. No significant trends were detected in the  
66 numbers of cases presenting across our study period nor in the numbers of traumatic, infectious,

67 and orphaned cases. Disease category, life stage, and season were significantly associated with  
68 survival. Birds with an infectious diagnosis had lower odds of survival while orphaned birds had  
69 higher odds of survival. Species, life stage, and season were significantly associated with  
70 infectious disease status. Summer, fall, and winter were associated with a higher odds of  
71 aspergillosis. Diurnal species also had higher odds of being diagnosed with aspergillus. Winter  
72 and spring seasons, diurnal species and sub-adult birds were all significantly associated with a  
73 chlamydia diagnosis. Summer, diurnal and adult life stage were significantly associated with  
74 WNV diagnosis. Nocturnal species was significantly associated with trichomoniasis diagnosis.  
75 The data compiled over this extensive forty-year period provides a valuable resource for  
76 understanding the causes and dynamics of morbidity and mortality in California raptor  
77 populations, which can be useful in informing wildlife conservation strategies and rehabilitation  
78 efforts.

79

## 80 **Introduction**

81 Due to their ecological position as top predators and their sensitivity to environmental  
82 change, raptors can serve as sentinel species or valuable indicators of the health of the  
83 environment and potential threats to other species. Furthermore, raptors provide valuable  
84 ecosystem services as scavengers and predators, contributing to the removal of carrion that can  
85 serve as a source of pathogens; preventing expansion of invasive, facultative scavenger species;  
86 and preying on pest species (Buechley and Şekercioğlu 2016; Jareño et al. 2023). Understanding  
87 causes of mortality and anthropogenic impacts on birds of prey can therefore be important for  
88 ecosystem conservation efforts. Analysis of morbidity and mortality data has been used to gauge  
89 threats to free-ranging raptor populations globally (Fix and Barrows 1990; Deem et al. 1998;

90 Morishita et al. 1998; Wendell et al. 2002; Ress and Guyer 2004; Komnenou et al. 2005;  
91 Rodriguez et al. 2010; Molina-López et al. 2011; Thompson et al. 2013; Montesdeoca et al.  
92 2016; Smith et al. 2018; Hernandez et al. 2018; Panter et al. 2022; Cococetta et al. 2022;  
93 Kadlecova et al. 2022). These studies have revealed that in addition to infectious diseases,  
94 raptors commonly die from anthropogenic causes such as collisions with man-made structures,  
95 exposure to environmental toxins, and electrocution. For example, DDT historically contributed  
96 to the population decline of many avian species, including bald eagles (*Haliaeetus*  
97 *leucocephalus*) and peregrine falcons (*Falco peregrinus*) (Cox 1991). A ban on DDT use in the  
98 U.S. coupled with reintroduction efforts have allowed bald eagle and peregrine falcon  
99 populations to rebound (Grier 1982; Sorenson et al. 2017). In addition, deaths due to the  
100 ingestion of carrion contaminated with lead from ammunition in one of the most critically  
101 endangered birds, the California Condor (*Gymnogyps californianus*), affected a total legislative  
102 ban on the use of lead ammunition for hunting in California in 2019, partially achieving policy  
103 objectives for reducing cases of lead poisonings in this endangered species (Schulz et al. 2023).

104 Morbidity and mortality records from wildlife rehabilitation organizations can serve to  
105 illustrate how threats to free-ranging raptors change over time. For instance, several infectious  
106 diseases of importance to raptors have emerged in recent history, significantly altering reasons  
107 for presentation to wildlife rehabilitation organizations (Alba et al. 2017; Hall et al. 2024).  
108 Rehabilitation records can be useful for learning about these diseases that would otherwise be  
109 difficult to study in free-ranging raptor populations (Alba et al. 2017; Hall et al. 2024). The  
110 causes of morbidity and mortality among free-ranging raptors has also been found to vary  
111 seasonally, highlighting the importance of understanding temporal patterns for informing raptor  
112 conservation efforts. For instance, some infectious diseases of raptors, including West Nile Virus

113 (WNV) and chlamydiosis, demonstrate distinct seasonal patterns (Ellis et al. 2007; Seibert 2017;  
114 Alba et al. 2017; Seibert et al. 2021). Published reports also indicate seasonality in the incidence  
115 of traumatic injury in raptors (Molina-López et al. 2011). Both long-term trends and seasonal  
116 variations in the various species admitted to rehabilitation organizations have also been observed  
117 (Panter et al. 2022; Cococchetta et al. 2022). Temporal patterns in the number and species  
118 admitted to rehabilitation organizations are also informative, as they may indicate high-risk time  
119 periods during which there is increased vulnerability of and/or threats to certain species.  
120 Admission patterns over time and season could also indicate a changing abundance or  
121 distribution of a species, as there is evidence for distribution shifts in several raptor species likely  
122 in response to climate change (Paprocki et al. 2014).

123         Variables pertaining to individual raptors, such as species and life stage, can also  
124 influence the infectious diseases that threaten raptor populations. For example, infectious disease  
125 risk in raptors can vary according to differences in age-class, foraging behavior, prey sources,  
126 habitat utilization, and evolutionary histories. There have been trends in life stage observed with  
127 WNV, although the results are not entirely straightforward: one study revealed a higher odds of  
128 WNV in immature red-tailed hawks as compared to adults (Smith et al. 2018); on the other hand,  
129 investigators in Ontario found that birds over one year of age were more likely to experience  
130 mortality due to WNV (Gancz et al. 2004). Species differences have also been observed, with  
131 barn owls exhibiting less severe clinical signs and lesions with WNV infection compared to other  
132 species, such as red-tailed hawks (Nemeth et al. 2006). Furthermore, a serology study of owl  
133 species in northern California only found 1/71 samples testing positive for WNV, perhaps  
134 suggesting they are less likely to be exposed (Captanian et al. 2017). In addition, trichomoniasis,  
135 another common infectious disease of raptors, is more prevalent in young birds, as has been

136 documented in nestling Cooper's hawks: this increased prevalence is believed to be linked to  
137 differences in oral pH in nestlings and other age classes (Urban and Mannan 2014). Similarly,  
138 species differences in vulnerability have been reported : in Spain, a relationship between  
139 trichomoniasis lesion severity and avian order was demonstrated, with Falconiformes and  
140 Strigiformes exhibiting more severe lesions compared to Accipitriformes (Martínez-Herrero et  
141 al. 2020).

142         Several factors influence the likelihood of survival and release of wild animals following  
143 rehabilitation, including issues related to their initial presentation as well as conditions that may  
144 develop during their care. This includes euthanasia of animals due to severe illness or injury that  
145 precludes successful recovery for release back to the wild. While researchers have investigated  
146 factors that contribute to successful wildlife rehabilitation outcomes, few studies have  
147 specifically focused on raptors. Studies investigating a range of wildlife species have identified  
148 severity of injury, clinical diagnosis, season, and body condition as factors that influence the  
149 likelihood of survival and release back to the wild (Kelly and Bland 2006; Molony et al. 2007;  
150 Parsons et al. 2018). A study of raptor rehabilitation conducted in Italy determined that season  
151 of admission, body condition score (BCS), and reason for admission all significantly influenced  
152 the odds of raptor survival (Cococetta et al. 2022). Raptors presenting to organizations in South  
153 Africa as a result of being orphaned or grounded (unable to fly) had a significantly higher odds  
154 of survival until release than those that were involved in a vehicle collision (Maphalala et al.  
155 2021). Similarly, a study in Great Britain found orphaned raptors to have higher odds of survival  
156 than birds with infectious diseases (Panter et al. 2022). These studies are informative for  
157 determining prognosis for rehabilitation patients and prioritizing cases that have a higher  
158 probability of successful release.

159           The goal of this study was to investigate causes of morbidity and mortality in free-  
160 ranging raptors presenting to the UC Davis Veterinary Medicine Teaching Hospital (VMTH)  
161 from 1995 through 2022. The VMTH is associated with the California Raptor Center, a  
162 rehabilitation and educational center that works exclusively with raptors. We aimed to determine  
163 factors that influenced the odds of survival until release in this patient cohort. We also aimed to  
164 assess the most common infectious diseases affecting this population of raptors, and explore  
165 factors that may place birds at a higher risk of death due to these diseases. A prior study  
166 examined the causes of morbidity and mortality in raptors admitted to this same hospital from  
167 1983-1994 (Morishita et al. 1998), provided a unique opportunity to compare causes of raptor  
168 mortality observed at the same institution over a 40-year period.

169

## 170 **Methods**

### 171 *Medical Records*

172           All medical records of raptor species native to California and admitted to the VMTH  
173 from 01/01/1995 through 12/31/2022 were extracted from the hospital's patient records database  
174 (the Veterinary Medical and Administrative Computer System). Only data from the first visit for  
175 each individual bird were retained for this study. The data fields extracted for analyses were:  
176 date, species, sex, life stage (adult versus sub-adult), presenting complaint/reason for admission,  
177 physical examination findings, clinical diagnosis, and disposition (alive, dead, or euthanized).  
178 Adult versus sub-adult classification was based on which of these designations was entered into  
179 the medical record by the clinician. Because the UC Davis VMTH also provides care for non-  
180 releasable educational ambassador birds from nearby zoos and raptor centers, birds with medical  
181 records ranging over more than one year were excluded from the study.

## 182 *Classification of Raptor Cases According to Diagnostic Categories*

183 To classify all the raptor cases into distinct diagnostic categories for the purposes of  
184 analysis, a supervised machine-learning approach was employed, utilizing a Bidirectional  
185 Encoder Representations from Transformers (BERT)-based model fine-tuned for multi-class,  
186 multi-label classification of cases. The model used free text data entered into the fields of  
187 ‘presenting complaint,’ ‘physical exam findings,’ and ‘clinical diagnosis,’ in the raptors’ medical  
188 records to derive diagnostic categories for each case.

189 A total of 1,006 raptor cases were randomly selected to form the training dataset for the  
190 machine learning model. Each case was annotated with one or more of the diagnostic categories  
191 by a subject matter expert (traumatic, infectious, inflammatory, orphaned, congenital, toxicosis,  
192 and undetermined). From this dataset, 20% (approximately 200 cases) were randomly chosen to  
193 create an independent test dataset for model validation, while the remaining 80% was used for  
194 training and cross-validation of the model.

195 The text data were preprocessed using the "bert-base-uncased" tokenizer from the  
196 Hugging Face Transformers library (Wolf et al. 2020). The tokenizer converts the input text into  
197 tokenized sequences by applying subword tokenization, segmenting words into meaningful  
198 pieces. Unlike a "bag of words" approach (Zhang et al. 2010), this method preserves the context  
199 and order of words, which is crucial for understanding the nuances of clinical language. The  
200 classification model was built using the AutoModelForSequenceClassification function, which  
201 leverages a pre-trained BERT model as the backbone. The model architecture included an input  
202 layer which took in tokenized text sequences, each padded to a fixed length (up to 256 tokens) to  
203 accommodate the BERT model's requirements. This was followed by a layer with classification  
204 head which includes a dense layer that maps the final hidden state of the [CLS] token (a special



205 token representing the entire sequence) to a vector of logits, with a dimension equal to the  
206 number of diagnostic categories (number of labels = 6). In this case, a sigmoid activation was  
207 used to handle the multi-label classification, where each label is predicted independently with the  
208 final vector of probabilities corresponding to each diagnostic category as an output. The entire  
209 modeling process, including tokenization, training, and evaluation, was implemented in Python  
210 using the Hugging Face Transformers and Datasets libraries (Wolf et al. 2020).

### 211 *Pathology Records*

212 An additional and separate search was performed to retrieve all pathology records of  
213 raptor species native to California from another VMTH database maintained by the VMTH  
214 Anatomic Pathology Service from the same time period. The data fields extracted for analysis  
215 were: date of request, species, sex, life stage, clinical abstract, necropsy findings and diagnoses,  
216 and final comments. Birds determined to have been in captivity for at least one year as per the  
217 clinical abstract in the pathology record were also excluded from analysis. Additionally, only  
218 pathology records with full necropsies performed were retained for analysis.

219 The primary cause of mortality from the pathology records was determined for each  
220 record by evaluating all sections of the pathology report. Cause of mortality was categorized  
221 using the following diagnostic categories: vascular, metabolic, neoplastic, degenerative,  
222 congenital, inflammatory, toxicologic, nutritional, infectious, traumatic and undetermined.  
223 Traumatic and infectious causes of death were further subcategorized, as these were the two  
224 most common categories observed in the dataset. Individuals with more than one cause of  
225 mortality were also noted and contributing mortality causes were classified according to the  
226 same scheme. Information from the pathology report was also used to generate data for the life  
227 stage and sex data fields whenever possible.

228 *Time Series Analysis*

229 Time series analyses were performed to evaluate trends in admissions for the overall  
230 number of cases as well as for all cases of infectious disease, traumatic injury, and orphaned  
231 animals in the clinical dataset. These diagnostic categories were selected for time series analyses  
232 because they had sufficient sample size to evaluate trends. To assess the presence of trends  
233 within each time series, a Kwiatkowski-Phillips-Schmidt-Shin (KPSS) test for trend was  
234 performed.

235 *Factors Associated with Survival*

236 A logistic regression model was developed to investigate factors associated with survival  
237 until release in raptors using data entered into the birds' medical records. The outcome of interest  
238 was bird status (alive or dead/euthanized). Predictors evaluated in the model included: species,  
239 life stage, season of admission, presence of feather lice, BCS, diagnostic category (traumatic  
240 injury, infectious, inflammatory, orphaned, and toxicosis), and presence of comorbidity. Because  
241 the accuracy of model predictions for congenital and toxicologic cases was low, these diagnostic  
242 categories were not included in the model. Life stage was categorized as adult or sub-adult, as  
243 indicated in the medical record. Season of admission was organized as: fall (September 1<sup>st</sup> –  
244 November 30<sup>th</sup>, winter (December 1<sup>st</sup> – February 28<sup>th</sup>), spring (March 1<sup>st</sup> – May 31<sup>st</sup>), and  
245 summer (June 1<sup>st</sup> – August 31<sup>st</sup>). Each bird was categorized as to whether it was a diurnal or  
246 nocturnal species. BCS (1-9) was collapsed into two categories (thin: scores 1-3 and not thin:  
247 scores 4-9). A bird was indicated to have a comorbidity if they had more than one diagnostic  
248 category as predicted by the machine learning model. Feather lice was explored as an indicator  
249 of level of debilitation (Hudelson and Hudelson 1995).

250 Predictors with significance ( $p < 0.05$ ) in the univariate modeling were incorporated into  
251 both full main effects and interaction effects multivariable logistic regression models. Prior to  
252 building the model, directed acyclic graphs were generated to assess for confounding. Predictors  
253 with significance in the full main effects or interaction effects model were then entered into a  
254 backward stepwise selection process to select the best fitting model based on Akaike information  
255 criterion (AIC) score (Bozdogan 1987). Variance inflation factor was evaluated to assess for  
256 multicollinearity of interdependent variables. The final model fit was evaluated by The Hosmer  
257 Lemeshow Goodness of Fit test and graphical residual diagnostics. Adjusted odds ratios with  
258 95% confidence intervals were estimated to assess the strength of association between each  
259 factor and survival.

#### 260 *Factors Associated with Infectious Diseases as Cause of Mortality*

261 Additional logistic regression models were performed for the most common infectious  
262 diseases in the pathology dataset: aspergillosis, WNV, chlamydiosis, and trichomoniasis. The  
263 outcome of interest was whether a bird had a diagnosis of each disease at time of necropsy.  
264 Predictors of interest included in each model were: season of admission, sex, life stage (adult  
265 versus sub-adult), and species according to activity pattern (nocturnal versus diurnal).

266 Predictors with significance ( $p < 0.05$ ) in the univariate modeling were incorporated into  
267 full main effects and interaction effects multivariable logistic regression models. Predictors with  
268 significance in the full main effects or interaction effects model were then entered into a  
269 backward stepwise selection process to select the best fitting model based on Akaike information  
270 criterion (AIC) score. Variance inflation factor was evaluated to assess for multicollinearity of  
271 interdependent variables. The final model fit for each model was evaluated by the Hosmer  
272 Lemeshow Goodness of Fit test ( $p > 0.05$ ) and residual diagnostics. Adjusted odds ratios with

273 95% confidence intervals were estimated to assess the strength of association between each  
274 factor and disease status.

275 All statistical analyses were performed in R (R Core Team 2023), using the MASS and  
276 tseries packages (Venables and Ripley 2002; Trapletti and Hornik 2023).

277

## 278 **Results**

### 279 *Descriptive Results from Medical Records*

280 Medical records for wild raptors admitted to the UC Davis VMTH from 1995-2022 (n =  
281 9,385) were extracted from the VMTH database. Any captive birds were excluded and only the  
282 first visit for each patient was retained (n=3,840) (Table 1). These records encompassed 26  
283 species representing three orders of birds (15 species within Acciptiriformes, three species within  
284 Falconiformes, and eight species within Strigiformes) (Table 2). The most common species  
285 represented within the dataset were barn owls (*Tyto alba*) (n=909, 23.7%) followed by red-tailed  
286 hawks (*Buteo jamaicensis*) (n=852, 22.2%) and great horned owls (*Bubo virginianus*) (n=312,  
287 8.3%). Among birds with data on BCS in the medical record (2,550/3,840), the majority were  
288 thin (n=1,465, 57.5%). For birds with information on life stage in the medical record  
289 (2,224/3,840), more were adults (n=1,410, 63.4%) than (n=814, 36.6%). Sex was recorded for  
290 only 250/3,840 (6.5%) raptors; 47.8% of these were female and 52.2% were male. The season  
291 with the greatest percentage of admissions was summer (n=1,347, 35.1%), followed by winter  
292 (n=868, 22.6%), spring (n=835, 21.7%), and fall (n=790, 20.6%). The most common diagnostic  
293 category was traumatic injury (n=2,466, 64.2%) followed by infectious disease (n=470, 12.2%),  
294 orphaned (n=185, 4.8%), toxicologic (n=26, 0.7%), inflammatory (n=22, 0.6%), and congenital  
295 disease (n=4, 0.1%). These categories were generated using the machine learning model, which

296 was highly accurate for classifying raptors according to common reasons for admission  
 297 (traumatic injury (93.0%), inflammatory disease (67.0%), orphaned (89.0%), and infectious  
 298 disease (90.0%)), and moderately accurate for classifying cases with less common diagnostic  
 299 categories such as toxicosis (47.0%) and congenital disease (57.0%) (Figure 1). Evidence of  
 300 feather lice was noted in 12.6% of the individuals (n=485).

301 Table 1: Characteristics of free-ranging raptors presenting to the UC Davis VMTH from 1995-  
 302 2022, that survived or died/were euthanized during the rehabilitation process.

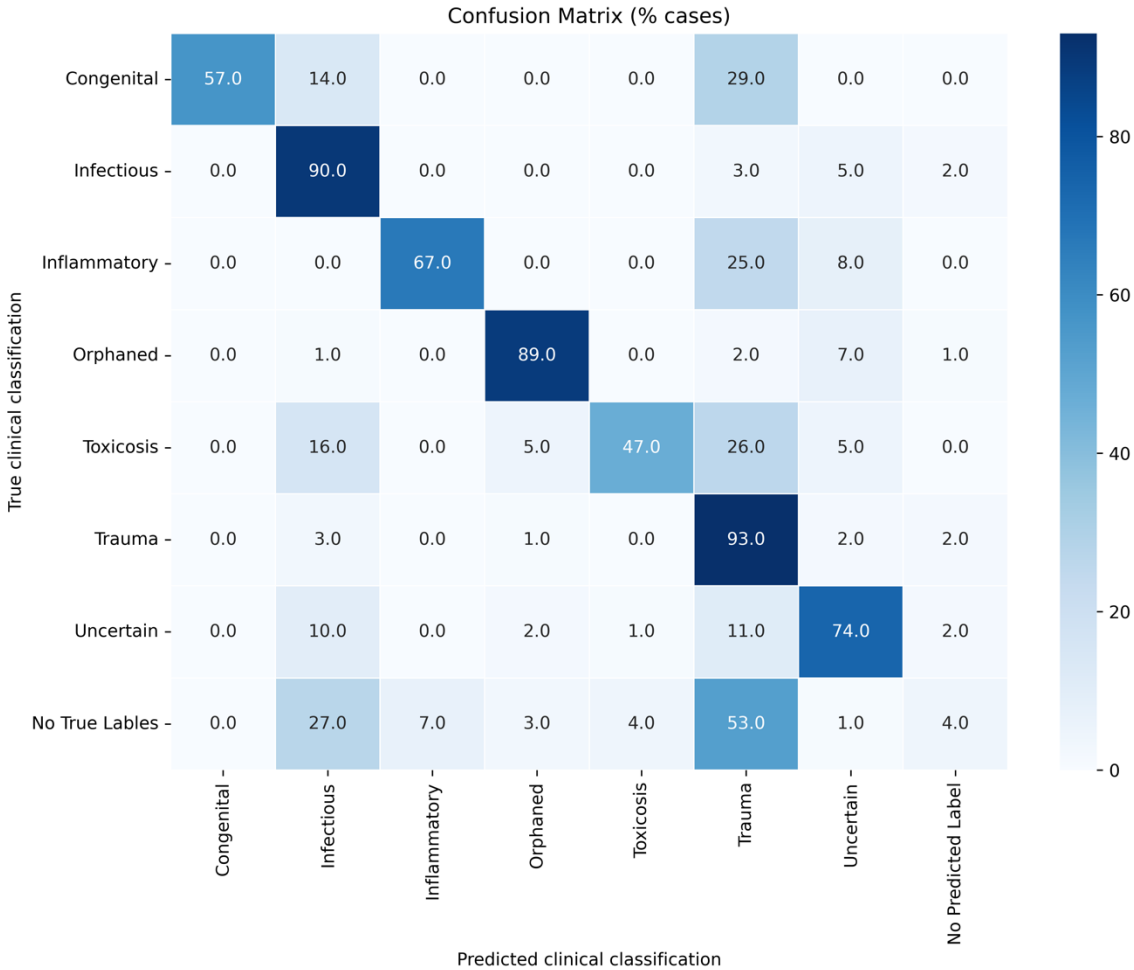
Description of Medical Record Dataset			
Characteristic	Survived (n=1,360)	Died/Euthanized (n=2,480)	p value <sup>1</sup>
Evidence of Feather Lice	164 (12.1%)	321 (12.9%)	0.4
Body Condition Score			<0.001
Not Thin (BCS 4-9)	510 (37.5%)	575 (23.2%)	
Thin (BCS 1-3)	428 (31.5%)	1,037 (41.8%)	
Uncertain	422 (31.0%)	868 (35.0%)	
Life Stage			<0.001
Adult	435 (32.0%)	975 (39.3%)	
Sub-Adult	415 (30.5%)	399 (16.1%)	
Uncertain	510 (37.5%)	1,106 (45.0%)	
Season Admitted			<0.001
Autumn	235 (17.3%)	555 (22.4%)	
Spring	378 (27.8%)	457 (18.4%)	
Summer	516 (37.9%)	831 (33.5%)	
Winter	231 (17.0%)	637 (25.7%)	
Species			0.001
Diurnal	756 (55.6%)	1,513 (61.0%)	
Nocturnal	604 (44.4%)	967 (39.0%)	
Infectious Diagnosis	145 (10.7%)	325 (13.1%)	0.027
Traumatic Diagnosis	690 (50.7%)	1,776 (71.6%)	<0.001
Orphaned Diagnosis	149 (11.0%)	36 (1.5%)	<0.001
Toxicosis Diagnosis	12 (0.9%)	14 (0.6%)	0.3
Inflammatory Diagnosis	7 (0.5%)	15 (0.6%)	0.7
Other/Undetermined Diagnosis	401 (29.5%)	408 (16.5%)	<0.001

<sup>1</sup> Pearson's Chi-squared test

304 Table 2: Distribution of raptor species presenting to the UC Davis VMTH, represented in the  
 305 medical records (“Clinical”), and necropsied by the Anatomic Pathology Service, represented in  
 306 the pathology dataset (“Pathology”), from 1995-2022.

Species Distribution in Medical and Pathology Datasets (% of Cases)

Species	Clinical	Pathology
American Kestrel ( <i>Falco sparverius</i> )	2.1	1.6
Bald Eagle ( <i>Haliaeetus leucocephalus</i> )	0.8	1.9
Barn Owl ( <i>Tyto alba</i> )	23.7	17.4
Burrowing Owl ( <i>Athene cunicularia</i> )	1.5	1.3
Cooper's Hawk ( <i>Accipiter cooperii</i> )	4.8	6.3
Ferruginous Hawk ( <i>Buteo regalis</i> )	0.1	0.2
Flammulated Owl ( <i>Psiloscops flammeolus</i> )	0.05	0.09
Golden Eagle ( <i>Aquila chrysaetos</i> )	1.8	3.6
Goshawk ( <i>Accipiter gentilis</i> )	0.1	NA
Great Grey Owl ( <i>Strix nebulosa</i> )	0.05	0.09
Great Horned Owl ( <i>Bubo virginianus</i> )	8.1	8.4
Long Eared Owl ( <i>Asio otus</i> )	0.2	0.3
Northern Harrier ( <i>Circus cyaneus</i> )	1.1	1.3
Osprey ( <i>Pandion haliaetus</i> )	0.3	0.7
Peregrine Falcon ( <i>Falco peregrinus</i> )	1.0	1.1
Prairie Falcon ( <i>Falco mexicanus</i> )	0.2	0.4
Red-Shouldered Hawk ( <i>Buteo lineatus</i> )	5.7	5.7
Red-Tailed Hawk ( <i>Buteo jamaicensis</i> )	22.2	31.2
Rough-Legged Hawk ( <i>Buteo lagopus</i> )	0.1	0.4
Sharp Shinned Hawk ( <i>Accipiter striatus</i> )	0.8	1.0
Spotted Owl ( <i>Strix occidentalis</i> )	0.1	NA
Swainson's Hawk ( <i>Buteo swainsoni</i> )	2.4	2.4
Turkey Vulture ( <i>Cathartes aura</i> )	1.9	1.9
Unidentified Eagle	0.1	NA
Unidentified Falcon	0.6	0.2
Unidentified Hawk	10.2	5.4
Unidentified Owl	5.9	1.6
Western Screech Owl ( <i>Megascops kennicottii</i> )	1.3	2.0
White-Tailed Kite ( <i>Elanus leucurus</i> )	2.7	2.8
Northern Pygmy Owl ( <i>Glaucidium californicum</i> )	NA	0.09
Spotted Owl ( <i>Strix occidentalis</i> )	NA	0.4



308

309 Figure 1: The confusion matrix compares the machine learning model’s predicted classifications  
 310 to classifications manually designated by an expert. The proportion of raptor cases in the medical  
 311 records (clinical dataset) correctly categorized by the machine learning model is displayed.

312 *Descriptive Results from Pathology Records*

313 Complete post-mortem examinations were performed by the VMTH Anatomic Pathology  
 314 Service on a portion (n=1,125) of raptor patients that died or were euthanized. Species  
 315 representation in this pathology dataset was similar to the larger clinical record dataset, with the  
 316 exception that the most common species in the pathology dataset was the red-tailed hawk while  
 317 the most common species in the medical record dataset was the barn owl. Among the birds in the

318 necropsy dataset, 44.4% were adults and 55.6% were sub-adults. Sex was identified in the  
319 majority of pathology cases (n=969/1,125) with an almost even distribution between males  
320 (46.7%) and females (53.3%). The most common cause of death in these birds was traumatic  
321 injury (n=458) followed by infectious disease (n=413). Among birds that died or were  
322 euthanized as a result of traumatic injury, the specific causes of the injury were most often  
323 unknown (n=335) with vehicle collision (n=38), gunshot (n=23), window collision (n=14) and  
324 electrocution (n=12) reported for those cases with known causes. Among birds with infectious  
325 disease as the cause of death, the most common infectious diseases were aspergillosis (n=105),  
326 West Nile virus (n=81), chlamydiosis (n=51), and trichomoniasis (n=42). Some birds (15.7%)  
327 had more than one contributing cause of mortality; 25.0% of birds who died or were euthanized  
328 due to traumatic injury also had evidence of infectious disease.

### 329 *Time Series Analysis*

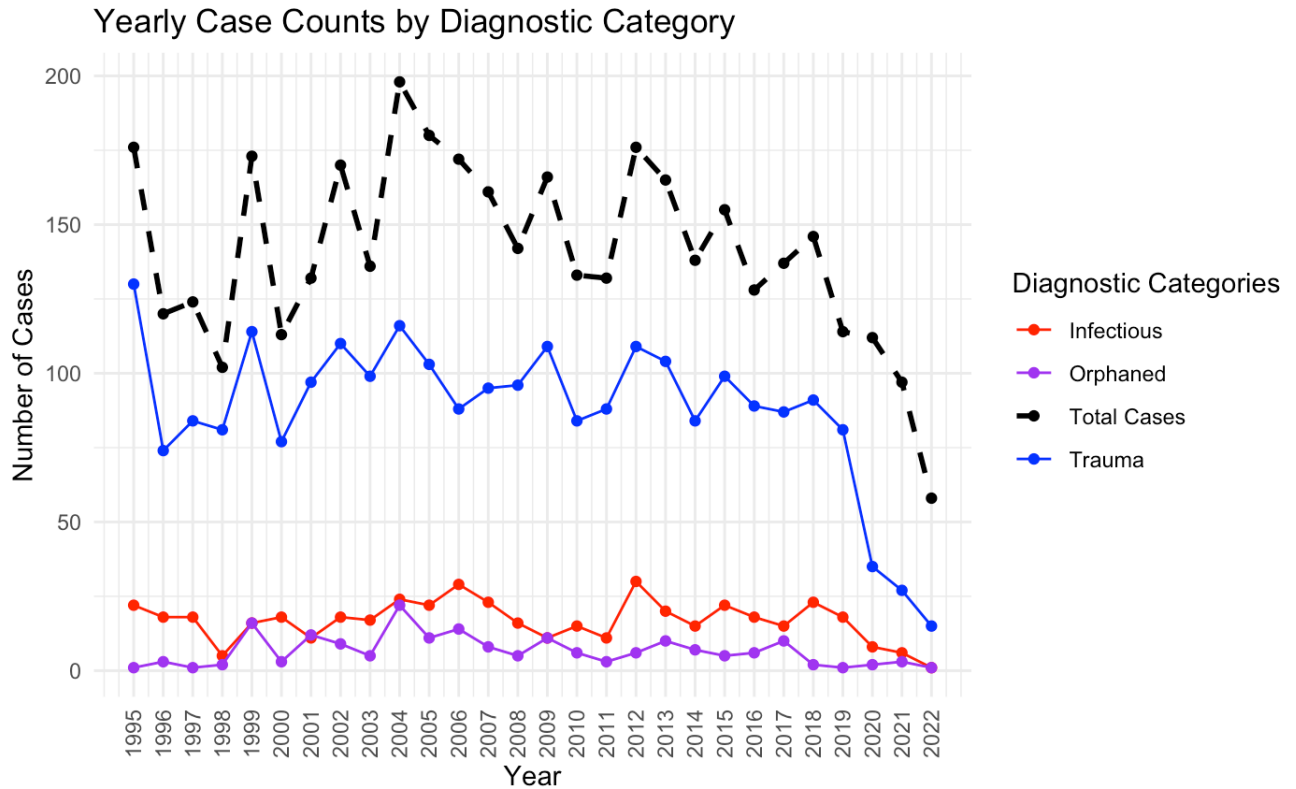
330 Annual raptor admissions to the UC Davis VMTH ranged from 55 (in 2022) to 180 (in  
331 2004), with a mean of 129 raptor patients admitted each year (Figure 2). Survival was variable  
332 across years, with the highest survival in 2005 (48.9%) compared to the lowest in 2019 (10.4%).  
333 Overall survival across all years was 34.8%.

334 No trend was detected in the number of infectious cases by month over the study period  
335 ( $p=0.1$ ). However, there was a significant downward trend in the overall number of cases by  
336 month over time ( $p=0.01$ ) as well as the number of orphaned ( $p=0.02$ ) and traumatic injury cases  
337 ( $p=0.01$ ). Visual inspection of the decomposed plots revealed a substantial decrease in the  
338 overall number of admissions in the last four years of the study period (2019-2022). The  
339 aforementioned significant trends were no longer significant when a subset of the data excluding



340 2019-2022 was explored to better understand the stationarity of the time series (overall:  $p=0.08$ ,  
341 orphaned:  $p=0.06$ , traumatic:  $p=0.1$ ).

342



343

344 Figure 2: Number of infectious, traumatic, orphaned, and total cases of raptors presenting to the  
345 UC Davis VMTH over time from 1995-2022.

### 346 *Factors Associated with Survival in Raptors Undergoing Rehabilitation*

347 Several factors were explored for association with survival (as opposed to death or  
348 euthanasia during rehabilitation). These included diagnostic category (traumatic, infectious,  
349 inflammatory, and orphaned), diurnal versus nocturnal species, season of admission, life stage,  
350 evidence of ectoparasites, presence of comorbidity, and body condition. Because sex was known  
351 for so few cases, it was not included in the analyses. The final best-fitting model included the  
352 following predictors: the main effects of season, body condition, life stage, traumatic injury,

353 orphaned, and infectious disease, as well as the interaction effects of traumatic injury and season,  
354 body condition, and life stage (Table 3, Figure 3). An orphaned diagnosis was associated with an  
355 increased odds of survival (OR=3.1, 95% CI 2.1-4.7,  $p<0.0001$ ), with orphaned birds having 3.1  
356 times higher odds of survival compared to those without an orphaned diagnosis. Alternatively,  
357 the results demonstrated that infectious disease was significantly associated with a decreased  
358 odds of survival (OR=0.7, 95% CI 0.5-0.9,  $p<0.001$ , with animals diagnosed with infectious  
359 disease having a 33% lower odds of survival compared to those without an infectious diagnosis.

360       Birds presenting with traumatic injuries had lower odds of survival (OR = 0.6, 95% CI  
361 0.4-0.9,  $p=0.01$ ) with 43% lower odds of survival in injured birds compared to those without a  
362 traumatic injury diagnosis. Similarly, birds in poor body condition had lower odds of survival  
363 (OR = 0.3, 95% CI 0.2-0.4,  $p<0.0001$ ) with animals in poor body condition (thin) having 71%  
364 lower odds of survival compared to birds that were categorized as “not thin”. The interaction  
365 between traumatic injury and being in the thin BCS category was significant in the model  
366 (OR=1.9, 95% CI 1.3-2.7,  $p<0.001$ ). The odds ratio suggests that the combined presence of both  
367 factors (i.e., traumatic injury and thin BCS) has a positive effect on survival, with a 1.9 times  
368 higher odds of survival in birds with both factors compared to birds with neither condition.

369       Patients presenting in spring and summer had increased odds of survival (OR = 2.4, 95%  
370 CI 1.6-3.6,  $p<0.0001$ ; OR = 1.8, 95% CI 1.3-2.6,  $p<0.001$ , respectively), compared with winter:  
371 birds presenting in spring had 2.4 times higher odds of survival than birds presenting in the  
372 winter, while birds presenting in the summer had 1.8 times higher odds of survival than birds in  
373 winter. However, the interaction between traumatic injury diagnosis and season (spring and  
374 summer) was significant and negative (spring: OR=0.6, 95% CI 0.3-0.9,  $p=0.01$ ; summer:  
375 OR=0.6, 95% CI 0.4-0.9,  $p=0.02$ ). This indicates that the combined effect of a traumatic injury

376 diagnosis and presenting in spring or summer reduced the odds of survival compared to animals  
377 with neither condition. In addition, sub-adults had 2.4 times higher odds of survival (OR=2.4,  
378 95% CI 1.7-3.3,  $p < 0.0001$ ) compared to adults. The interaction between traumatic diagnosis and  
379 life stage (sub-adult) was significant and negative (OR=0.5, 95% CI 0.3-0.8,  $p < 0.001$ ).  
380 Therefore, subadult raptors with a traumatic diagnosis had lower odds of survival compared to  
381 the baseline group (adult raptors without traumatic injury).

382

383

384

385

386

387

388

389

390

391

392

393

394

395

396

397

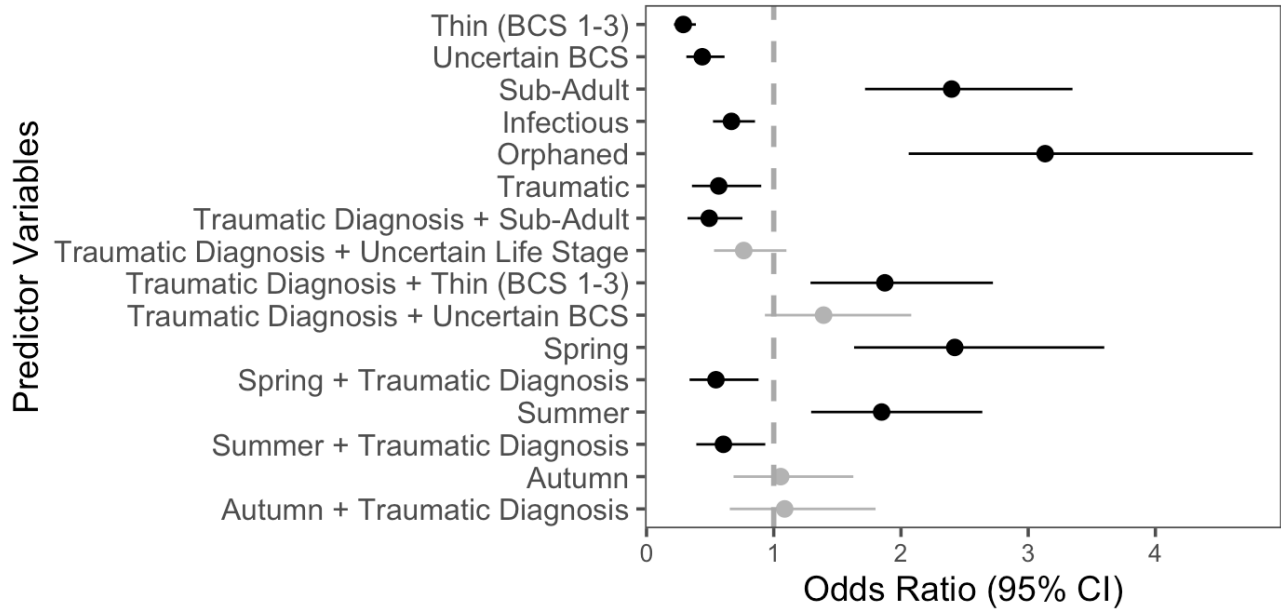
398 Table 3: Results from the best fitting logistic regression model for predicting survival in wild  
 399 raptor cases presenting to the UC Davis VMTH from 1995-2022. Odds ratios, 95% confidence  
 400 intervals, and p values are reported.

Variable	Odds Ratio	95% Confidence Interval	p value
<b>Body Condition Score</b>			
Thin (BCS 1-3)	0.3	0.2-0.4	<0.0001
Uncertain	0.4	0.3-0.6	<0.0001
Not Thin (BCS 4-9) (Reference Category)			
<b>Life Stage</b>			
Sub-Adult	2.4	1.7-3.3	<0.0001
Uncertain	1.1	0.8-1.4	0.7
Adult (Reference Category)			
<b>Season Admitted</b>			
Spring	2.4	1.6-3.6	<0.0001
Summer	1.8	1.3-2.6	<0.001
Autumn	1.1	0.7-1.6	0.8
Winter (Reference Category)			
<b>Diagnostic Category</b>			
Infectious	0.7	0.5-0.9	<0.001
Traumatic	0.6	0.4-0.9	0.01
Orphaned	3.1	2.1-4.7	<0.0001
Traumatic Diagnosis + Sub-Adult	0.5	0.3-0.8	<0.001
Traumatic Diagnosis + Uncertain Life Stage	0.8	0.5-1.1	0.1
Traumatic Diagnosis + Thin (BCS 1-3)	1.9	1.3-2.7	<0.001
Traumatic Diagnosis + Uncertain BCS	1.4	0.9-2.1	0.1
Traumatic Diagnosis + Spring Admission	0.6	0.3-0.9	0.01
Traumatic Diagnosis + Summer Admission	0.6	0.4-0.9	0.02
Traumatic Diagnosis + Autumn Admission	1.1	0.7-1.8	0.8

401

## Factors Predicting Survival

Significance    ●  $p \geq 0.05$     ●  $p < 0.05$



402

403 Figure 3: Results from the best fitting logistic regression model for predicting survival in wild  
 404 raptor cases presenting to the UC Davis VMTH from 1995-2022. Odds ratios are displayed with  
 405 their 95% confidence intervals.

406 *Factors Associated with Death due to Infectious Disease Cause*

407        Logistic regression models were used to evaluate factors associated with death due to  
 408 each of the most common infectious disease agents compared to other causes of death. Predictors  
 409 evaluated in each model were: diurnal versus nocturnal species, season, life stage, and sex. The  
 410 best fitting model for West Nile virus included season, species (diurnal versus nocturnal), and  
 411 life stage (Table 4, Figure 4). Birds had a significantly higher odds of dying due to West Nile  
 412 virus (OR=2.8, 95% CI 1.4-5.5,  $p=0.004$ ) in the summer months as compared to the fall, while  
 413 birds dying in the spring (OR=0.1, 95% CI 0.01-0.8,  $p=0.03$ ) or winter (OR=0.2, 95% CI .04-0.5,  
 414  $p=0.004$ ) had significantly lower odds of dying due to West Nile virus relative to fall. This

415 indicates that birds who died or were euthanized in the summer had 2.8 times the odds of being  
 416 diagnosed with West Nile virus compared to the fall. Furthermore, diurnal species had a  
 417 significantly higher odds of dying due to West Nile virus than nocturnal species (OR=34.9, 95%  
 418 CI 4.8-255.2, p<0.001). This indicates that diurnal species had 35 times the odds of being  
 419 diagnosed with West Nile virus on necropsy compared to nocturnal species. Similarly, adults had  
 420 a higher odds of dying due to West Nile virus as compared to sub-adult raptors (OR=1.9, 95% CI  
 421 1.0-3.4, p=0.04). This indicates that adult birds had 1.9 times the odds of being diagnosed with  
 422 West Nile virus at necropsy compared to sub-adult birds.

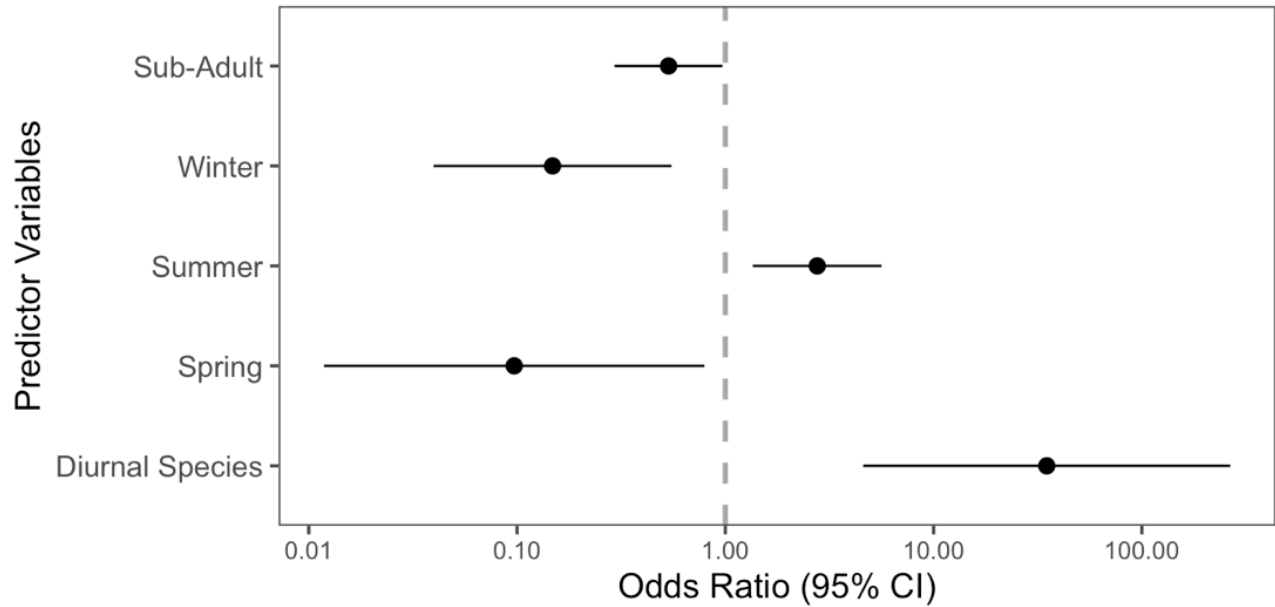
423 Table 4: Results from the best fitting logistic regression model for factors associated with  
 424 mortality due to WNV versus another cause in free-ranging raptors necropsied by the UC Davis  
 425 Anatomic Pathology Service from 1995-2022.

Variable	Odds Ratio	95% Confidence Interval	p value
<b>Species</b>			
Diurnal	34.9	4.8-255.2	<0.001
Nocturnal (Reference Category)			
<b>Season Admitted</b>			
Winter	0.2	0.04-0.5	0.004
Spring	0.1	0.01-0.8	0.03
Summer	2.8	1.4-5.5	0.004
Autumn (Reference Category)			
<b>Life Stage</b>			
Adult	1.9	1.0-3.4	0.04
Sub-Adult (Reference Category)			

426

## Factors Predicting WNV Diagnosis

Significance ●  $p < 0.05$



427

428 Figure 4: Results from the best fitting logistic regression model for factors associated with  
429 mortality due to WNV versus another cause in free-ranging raptors necropsied by the UC Davis  
430 Anatomic Pathology Department from 1995-2022.

431 The best fitting logistic regression model for avian chlamydiosis included season,  
432 species, and life stage (Table 5, Figure 5). Birds dying in the winter (OR=6.8, 95% CI 2.0-23.0,  
433  $p=0.002$ ) and spring (OR=4.5, 95% CI 1.1-17.5,  $p=0.03$ ) had significantly higher odds of  
434 mortality associated with chlamydia, compared to the fall. This indicates that birds who died or  
435 were euthanized in the winter had 6.8 times the odds of being diagnosed with chlamydia on  
436 necropsy compared to the fall. Furthermore, diurnal species and sub-adults had significantly  
437 higher odds of dying due to chlamydia than nocturnal species (OR=16.4, 95% CI 2.2-123.6,  
438  $p=0.008$ ) or adults (OR=2.5, 95% CI 1.3-5.0,  $p=0.008$ ), respectively. This indicates that diurnal  
439 species had 16 times the odds of being diagnosed with chlamydia on necropsy compared to

440 nocturnal species and adult birds had 2.5 times the odds of being diagnosed with chlamydia on  
441 necropsy compared to sub-adult birds.

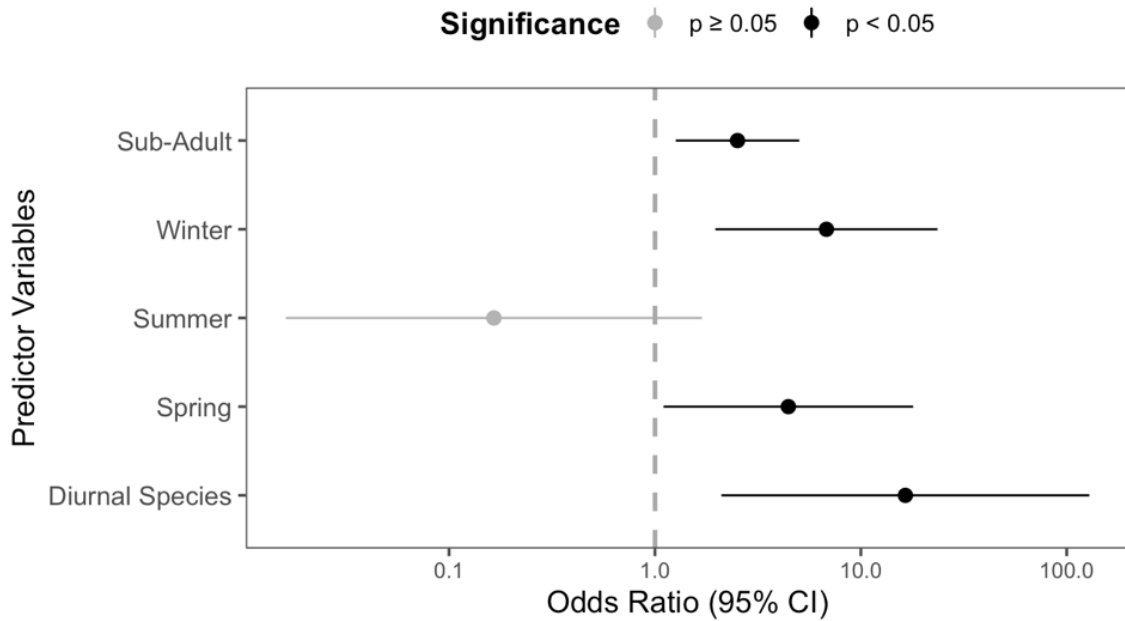
442 Table 5: Results from the best fitting logistic regression model for factors associated with mortality  
443 due to avian chlamydiosis versus another cause in free-ranging raptors necropsied by the UC Davis  
444 Anatomic Pathology Department from 1995-2022.

Variable	Odds Ratio	95% Confidence Interval	p value
Species			
Diurnal	16.4	2.2-123.6	0.007
Nocturnal (Reference Category)			
Season Admitted			
Winter	6.8	2.0-23.0	0.002
Spring	4.5	1.1-17.5	0.03
Summer	0.2	0.02-1.6	0.1
Autumn (Reference Category)			
Life Stage			
Sub-Adult	2.5	1.3-5.0	0.008
Adult (Reference Category)			

445



## Factors Predicting Chlamydia spp. Diagnosis



446

447 Figure 5: Results from the best fitting logistic regression model for factors associated with  
448 mortality due to avian chlamydiosis versus another cause in free-ranging raptors necropsied by the  
449 UC Davis Anatomic Pathology Department from 1995-2022.

450 The best fitting logistic regression model for aspergillosis included season and species  
451 (Table 6, Figure 6). Birds necropsied in the summer (OR=2.6, 95% CI 1.2-5.7,  $p=0.02$ ), fall  
452 (OR=2.9, 95% CI 1.3-6.5,  $p=0.01$ ), and winter (OR= 3.3, 95% CI 1.5-7.2,  $p=0.003$ ) had a  
453 significantly higher odds of dying due to aspergillosis than those necropsied in the spring. This  
454 suggests that bird necropsied in the summer had 2.6 times the odds of being diagnosed with  
455 aspergillus compared to those necropsied in the spring, birds necropsied in fall had 2.9 times the  
456 odds of being diagnosed with aspergillus compared to those necropsied in the spring, and birds  
457 necropsied in the winter had 3.3 times the odds of being diagnosed with aspergillus compared to  
458 those necropsied in the spring. Furthermore, diurnal species had significantly higher odds of  
459 dying due to aspergillosis than nocturnal species (OR=2.2, 95% CI 1.3-3.6,  $p=0.002$ ). This

460 suggests that diurnal species had 2.2 times the odds of aspergillus diagnosis on necropsy  
461 compared to nocturnal species. Sex and life stage were not found to be significant predictors of  
462 mortality due to aspergillosis.

463 Table 6: Results from the best fitting logistic regression model for factors associated with  
464 mortality due to aspergillosis versus another cause in free-ranging raptors necropsied by the UC  
465 Davis Anatomic Pathology Department from 1995-2022.

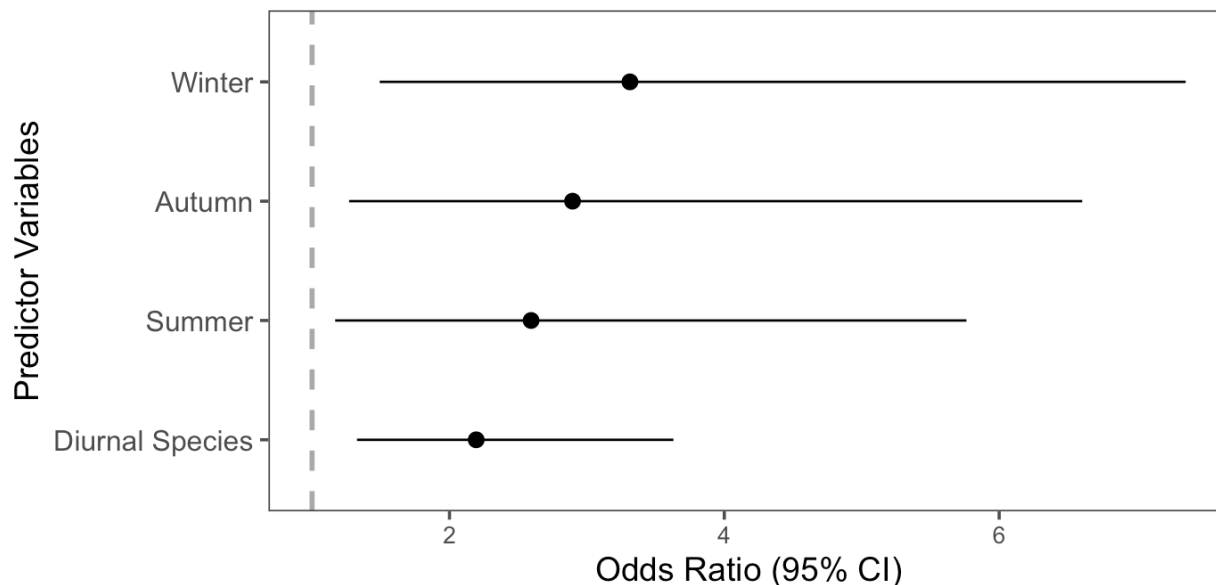
Variable	Odds Ratio	95% Confidence Interval	p value
Species			
Diurnal	2.2	1.3-3.6	0.002
Nocturnal (Reference Category)			
Season Admitted			
Winter	3.3	1.5-7.2	0.003
Autumn	2.9	1.3-6.5	0.01
Summer	2.6	1.2-5.7	0.02
Spring (Reference Category)			

466

467

## Factors Predicting Aspergillus spp. Diagnosis

Significance •  $p < 0.05$



468

469 Figure 6: Results from the best fitting logistic regression model for factors associated with  
470 mortality due to aspergillosis versus another cause in free-ranging raptors necropsied by the UC  
471 Davis Anatomic Pathology Department from 1995-2022.

472 The best fitting logistics regression model for trichomoniasis only included diurnal versus  
473 nocturnal species: diurnal species had significantly lower odds of dying due to trichomoniasis  
474 (OR=0.5, 95% CI 0.3-0.8,  $p=0.008$ ) than did nocturnal birds (Table 7, Figure 7). Season, sex,  
475 and life stage were not found to be significantly associated with mortality due to trichomoniasis  
476 in this study.

477

478

479

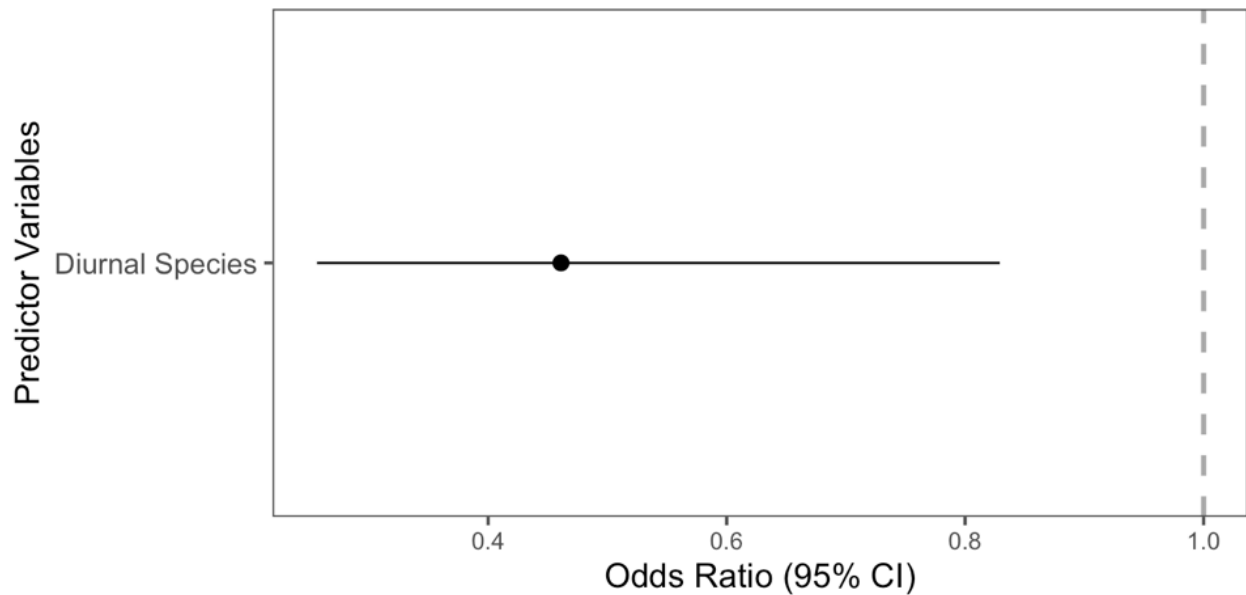
480 Table 7: Results from the best fitting logistic regression model for predicting mortality due to  
 481 trichomoniasis versus another cause in wild raptors necropsied by the UC Davis Anatomic  
 482 Pathology Department from 1995-2022.

Variable	Odds Ratio	95% Confidence Interval	p value
Species			
Diurnal	0.5	0.3-0.8	0.008
Diurnal (Reference Category)			

483

### Factors Predicting Trichomonas spp. Diagnosis

Significance ● p < 0.05



484

485 Figure 7: Results from the best fitting logistic regression model for predicting mortality due to  
 486 trichomoniasis versus another cause in wild raptors necropsied by the UC Davis Anatomic  
 487 Pathology Department from 1995-2022.

488

489 **Discussion:**

490 This study provides an overview of morbidity and mortality in free-ranging raptors  
491 presenting to the UC Davis VMTH over a 27-year period. The most frequently represented  
492 species among clinical and necropsy cases were red-tailed hawks, barn owls and great horned  
493 owls. A comparable species distribution was previously reported at the same hospital in the  
494 previous 11-year period (1983-1994), although Western screech-owls (*Megascops kennicottii*)  
495 and American kestrels (*Falco sparverius*) comprised a slightly larger proportion of necropsy  
496 cases at that time, whereas Cooper's hawks (*Accipiter cooperii*), red-shouldered hawks (*Buteo*  
497 *lineatus*), and Swainson's hawks (*Buteo swainsoni*) were seen less frequently (Morishita et al.  
498 1998). This could reflect changing mortality dynamics or changing local population sizes of  
499 these species between study periods, or could also be a result of chance fluctuations in overall  
500 species composition seen at the hospital throughout time. With the expansion of barred owl  
501 (*Strix varia*) populations throughout the Pacific Northwest, there has been concern about the  
502 impact of predation on smaller owl species such as the Northern spotted owl and Western-  
503 screech owl (Rugg et al. 2023): while Northern California is at the southern edge of barred owl  
504 range expansion, it would be interesting to explore if the decrease in screech owl cases is a true  
505 reflection of changing population size.

506 The most common cause of mortality was traumatic injury, which is consistent with the  
507 earlier Morishita et al. study and other investigations around the world (Fix and Barrows 1990;  
508 Deem et al. 1998; Morishita et al. 1998; Komnenou et al. 2005; Rodriguez et al. 2010; Molina-  
509 López et al. 2011; Montesdeoca et al. 2016; Cococetta et al. 2022; Kadlecova et al. 2022).  
510 While the cause of traumatic injury was unknown for most cases, anthropogenic causes (vehicle  
511 collision, window collision, and gunshot) were the most frequently identified causes among

512 cases with data, consistent with findings from the previous study from the same hospital  
513 (Morishita et al. 1998).

514         There was a dramatic shift in the most common infectious disease agents reported in  
515 1999-2022 compared to the prior study. While aspergillosis was common during both time  
516 periods, WNV, avian chlamydiosis, and trichomoniasis were not reported in the Morishita et al.  
517 study (Morishita et al. 1998). In the present study, the first case of WNV (as determined by  
518 necropsy) was documented in September 2004. West Nile virus was first identified in California  
519 in July 2003 and it has since constituted a major threat to avian populations throughout the state  
520 (Reisen et al. 2004; Snyder et al. 2020). *Chlamydia* spp. (originally identified as *C. psittaci*) was  
521 first isolated in raptors in North America in 1983 in four red-tailed hawks that died in northern  
522 California, and 41% of captive raptors subsequently tested were seropositive, suggesting avian  
523 chlamydiosis was endemic in the population at the time (Fowler et al. 1990). This pathogen has  
524 subsequently been identified as a new Chlamydial species, proposed as *C. buteonis*, with a PCR  
525 prevalence of 1.37% in healthy, free-ranging *Buteo* hawks (Luján-Vega et al. 2018; Laroucau et  
526 al. 2019). A more recent study of five rehabilitation centers in California found a 4.18% PCR  
527 prevalence of *Chlamydia* spp. among birds presented for rehabilitation, similar to the prevalence  
528 of 4.3% observed in the dataset reported here (Seibert et al. 2021). Avian poxvirus was  
529 frequently detected (17.7% of cases) among raptors in the previous study; however, it was only  
530 implicated in 1.6% of cases in the current study. This was likely due to an outbreak of avian  
531 poxvirus that occurred in raptors in Northern California between 1990 and 1994, which resulted  
532 in the higher number of avian poxvirus cases presenting to the VMTH during that period  
533 (Morishita et al. 1997).

534           There were no significant trends over the current study period in the number of overall  
535 clinical cases, or in the numbers of traumatic, infectious, or orphaned cases. Initial trend analysis  
536 indicated significant patterns for overall cases, as well as for traumatic and orphaned cases  
537 during the study period. However, visual inspection of the time series graphs suggested that the  
538 observed significance was likely driven by a decrease in case numbers during the last four years  
539 of the study period (2019-2022). This is likely a result of the changing hospital protocols in these  
540 years due to both COVID-19 and highly pathogenic avian influenza (HPAI) biosecurity  
541 protocols, which limited the number of birds admitted to the VMTH. We therefore decided to re-  
542 evaluate the trends excluding this four-year period, upon which the trends became non-  
543 significant. This indicates that the number of overall clinical cases as well as infectious,  
544 traumatic, and orphaned cases over time during our study period was relatively stable, neither  
545 increasing nor decreasing significantly. It would be interesting to explore trends over time for  
546 sub-categories of disease such as specific infectious diseases or inciting causes of traumatic  
547 injury; however, a larger dataset would be needed to parse out these dynamics.

548           Season, body condition, life stage, and diagnostic category (traumatic, infectious, and  
549 orphaned) were all included in the best fitting model for investigating factors associated with  
550 survival. Raptors with an infectious disease diagnosis had significantly lower odds of surviving  
551 compared to other diagnostic categories, which is consistent with a similar study conducted in  
552 the United Kingdom (Panter et al. 2022). Because these clinical diagnoses were made upon  
553 admission to the hospital, these birds were most likely exhibiting clinical signs severe enough to  
554 warrant strong suspicion of an infectious illness. More mild infectious processes or underlying  
555 subclinical infectious diseases would likely not be diagnosed at this stage. Therefore, the  
556 infectious disease classification in the medical record dataset likely represents only the more

557 severe infectious disease cases. This could be a contributing reason for why infectious disease  
558 diagnosis is associated with decreased odds of survival. Orphaned raptors had significantly  
559 higher odds of surviving than birds with other diagnostic categories, which is also consistent  
560 with other studies of rehabilitated birds (Maphalala et al. 2021; Panter et al. 2022). This is  
561 logical, as orphaned birds are often relatively healthy on presentation as compared to other cases  
562 admitted sick or injured to wildlife rehabilitation organizations.

563       Traumatic injury was significantly associated with a decreased odds of survival. Another  
564 raptor rehabilitation center found birds with collision injuries to be associated with a decreased  
565 likelihood for release, suggesting that these injuries pose a major threat to raptors (Maphalala et  
566 al. 2021). It is also probable that euthanasia was opted for many of these cases when full  
567 recovery was determined to be unlikely; 64% of traumatic cases were euthanized at some point  
568 during rehabilitation while only 8% died naturally at some point during rehabilitaiton. The  
569 interaction effects of traumatic injury with season, body condition, and life stage in the model are  
570 more unexpected. The model demonstrates that raptors with a traumatic injury presenting in  
571 spring and summer have an even worse prognosis than if they had presented in the winter.  
572 However, the independent effect of presenting during the spring or summer is positive,  
573 prognostically. Prior studies have found seasonal patterns in types of traumatic injuries  
574 experienced by raptors, but this is primarily due to gunshot injuries being more commonly  
575 observed during the hunting season (Molina-López et al. 2011; Cococchetta et al. 2022). While  
576 gunshot injuries were one of the most commonly identified specific traumatic injuries in our  
577 dataset, the large number of traumatic injuries with an unidentified specific inciting cause  
578 precluded finer analyses. It is also possible that, because spring and summer are the busy seasons  
579 at the rehabilitation center, that cases with better prognoses (such as orphaned chicks) may have



580 been prioritized over traumatic cases thereby decreasing the prognosis for traumatic cases in  
581 these seasons. The model also illustrates that sub-adult birds presenting with traumatic injuries  
582 had even lower odds of survival than adult birds with traumatic injuries. Falling from the nest  
583 was another common subcategory of traumatic injury which would be unique to sub-adult birds.  
584 This therefore may carry a worse prognosis than other types of traumatic injuries more likely to  
585 be experienced by adult raptors. The fracture repair options also tend to differ between adult  
586 birds and chicks, which could influence rehabilitation outcome.

587         There was also a significant positive interaction effect between traumatic diagnosis and a  
588 body condition score (BCS) of thin. This interaction indicates that while traumatic diagnosis and  
589 thin BCS each reduce the likelihood of survival when considered individually, animals with both  
590 conditions had a higher chance of survival than would be expected from the main effects alone.  
591 This was a somewhat surprising finding: it has been previously reported in raptors that having a  
592 higher body condition score is greatly associated with increased likelihood of rehabilitation  
593 success (Molina-López et al. 2015; Cococchetta et al. 2022). These birds were likely less  
594 debilitated, as their higher body condition score indicated less impairment of their hunting  
595 abilities. Independent of a traumatic diagnosis, raptors in our study population with thin body  
596 condition scores had significantly decreased odds of survival, which is consistent with this line  
597 of reasoning. It is possible that due to the advanced stage of debilitation, injured and thin birds  
598 may have been provided with more intensive care, increasing their odds of survival. However, it  
599 is also possible that these results are spurious due to some bias or misclassification in the dataset.

600         Season, species and life stage were all significantly associated with mortality due to  
601 WNV in this study. Relative to the fall season, the odds of mortality due to WNV was higher in  
602 the summer and lower in the spring and winter months. This is consistent with WNV

603 surveillance in California, in that the most WNV positive mosquito pools are identified between  
604 July and October and the highest number of dead birds occur in August (Snyder et al. 2020).  
605 Taxonomy was also a significant predictor of mortality in this model, with diurnal species 41  
606 times more likely to die from WNV compared to nocturnal species. Of the nocturnal species,  
607 there was only a single barn owl diagnosed with WNV at necropsy in this dataset. A study of  
608 natural and experimental infection of WNV in raptors found that levels of viremia, amount of  
609 viral shedding and severity of pathological lesions were reduced in barn owls compared to other  
610 species, suggesting they are less susceptible to the disease (Nemeth et al. 2006). It has been  
611 proposed that this may be due to their evolutionary history, as they were likely exposed to the  
612 virus as Old World birds (Nemeth et al. 2006). Conversely, great horned owls are affected by  
613 WNV in other regions of North America, as demonstrated by a survey of wildlife rehabilitators  
614 in the midwestern states and a mortality event in captive owls in Ontario in 2002 (Gancz et al.  
615 2004; Saito et al. 2007). Thus, it is interesting there are no cases in great horned owls in this  
616 dataset. A previous study from this institution found only 1/71 samples were positive for WNV  
617 antibodies, although the reason remains unclear. It was suggested that owls in Northern  
618 California may be less exposed to mosquitoes, as most species are predominantly active at night,  
619 or perhaps owls may die due to WNV in locations where they are less likely to be found and  
620 reported by the public (Captanian et al. 2017). Life stage also had a significant influence in the  
621 model with sub-adults having lower odds of dying due to WNV compared to adults.

622         Similar to West Nile virus, season, species, and life stage were also significantly  
623 associated with mortality due to avian chlamydiosis. Spring and winter were found to be  
624 associated with an increased odds of mortality due to chlamydia, compared to fall. Another  
625 study evaluating chlamydia infections in hawks at rehabilitation centers in California also found

626 infections to be most prevalent in the winter (Seibert et al. 2021). Winter is often a stressful  
627 season, especially for young raptors that commonly present with emaciation during this time of  
628 year due to difficulty learning to hunt and prey scarcity (Graham and Heatley 2007). This stress  
629 could contribute to immunosuppression which would leave these young birds more vulnerable to  
630 infectious agents during this period. Life stage was also found to be significant with sub-adults  
631 having higher odds of death due to avian chlamydiosis compared with adults. Diurnal species  
632 had higher odds of dying from avian chlamydiosis than nocturnal species. A study of raptor  
633 rehabilitation centers in California found a 6.4% prevalence of avian chlamydiosis (as  
634 determined by PCR) in the family Accipitridae and only 2% in the family Strigidae, with the  
635 most PCR-positive birds being red-tailed hawks (Seibert et al. 2021). More research is needed to  
636 characterize the host preference of this chlamydial species.

637         Raptors necropsied in the summer, fall, and winter had higher odds of aspergillus  
638 diagnosis than those necropsied in the spring. Prevalence of aspergillosis was highest in winter  
639 (36%) followed by summer (33%), fall (24%) and spring (7%). In North American waterfowl,  
640 most aspergillosis outbreaks occur in fall or early winter, which may be attributed to a seasonal  
641 change in birds' susceptibility to, or in the amount of, fungal spores in the environment (Arné et  
642 al. 2021). Seasonal trends of atmospheric concentrations of aspergillosis have been reported but  
643 are geographically variable: one study across the United States found fungal concentrations to be  
644 highest in the fall and summer but no seasonal variation was found in a study in California,  
645 perhaps due to general lack of seasonality in the state's climate (Shelton et al. 2002; Martony et  
646 al. 2019). Furthermore, *A. fumigatus* is an opportunistic pathogen that more commonly causes  
647 disease in captive birds that are often immunosuppressed (Beernaert et al. 2010). As discussed  
648 previously, winter is a stressful season for raptors which may lead to immunosuppression and

649 therefore perhaps contribute to the seasonal trends of aspergillosis observed here. One review of  
650 aspergillosis noted that young raptors, specifically immature red-tailed hawks, seem to be more  
651 susceptible to aspergillosis than adults (Arné et al. 2021), although this was not observed in our  
652 model. Diurnal species were twice as likely to die from aspergillosis than nocturnal species. This  
653 is interesting, as avian isolates of aspergillus have not demonstrated host or geographic  
654 specificity (Lofgren et al. 2022). It is possible that nocturnal species may have had higher odds  
655 of death due to a different cause, which may be contributing to the trend observed.

656         Only taxonomical classification was included in the best-fitting model for predicting  
657 death due to trichomoniasis, with diurnal species having significantly lower odds of dying of  
658 trichomoniasis than nocturnal species and most of these patients being barn owls. A study of  
659 lesions associated with trichomoniasis across avian taxa found that the anatomic location of  
660 lesions differed with Strigiformes more commonly having lesions involving the upper region of  
661 the oropharyngeal cavity, eye, and skull base, instead of extending down the esophagus which  
662 was observed for other taxa (Martinez et al. 1993). A study in Germany sampling wild birds  
663 found the highest prevalence of trichomoniasis in Strigiformes (58%) compared to  
664 Accipitriformes (36%) and Falconiformes (28%) (Quillfeldt et al. 2018). It is speculated that  
665 species differences observed could be due to differential consumption of urban Columbiformes  
666 (Quillfeldt et al. 2018). However, we expect there to be overlap in the diet of the most common  
667 species of this dataset (red-tailed hawks, barn owls, and great-horned owls) with evidence that all  
668 of these species consume other birds and therefore could be exposed to trichomonas carried by  
669 Columbiformes (Marti et al. 1993; Bogiatto et al. 2003; Kross et al. 2016). It is therefore unclear  
670 at this point what is driving this trend in our model and if there are underlying differences in  
671 exposure or disease severity among species. Although life stage was not found to be significant

672 in this model, a previous study of Cooper's hawks found younger birds to be more susceptible to  
673 trichomoniasis because their oral pH is less acidic (Urban and Mannan 2014). Avian oral pH  
674 development and how it relates to trichomoniasis infection has not been evaluated in other raptor  
675 species and would be interesting to explore across other taxa.

676 Machine learning is a powerful tool that can be used for health monitoring and  
677 surveillance, including for the identification and analysis of morbidity and mortality trends  
678 across wildlife rehabilitation centers. The ability to quickly categorize cases according to clinical  
679 presentations or syndromes using pre-diagnostic data can allow for early detection of mortality  
680 events, which in turn can facilitate action and preparedness (Kelly et al. 2021). The application  
681 of machine learning here facilitated categorization of diagnoses using data from the large  
682 medical record dataset for the purposes of data analyses. The machine learning model  
683 performance was adequate to then utilize the outputs in further analysis, with some limitations.  
684 Some less common diagnostic categories with limited sample sizes, such as toxicosis and  
685 congenital disease, demonstrated less accuracy in the machine learning outputs, precluding their  
686 use in further modelling. In addition, some of the diagnostic categories were misclassified as  
687 traumatic injury, which likely introduced some degree of error into the models run with the  
688 medical record dataset. The overall agreement for traumatic disease was quite high (93%), so we  
689 anticipate this error to be minimal. Overall, this framework could be applied to many avenues of  
690 clinical research, allowing for more efficient organization of data from hospital patient databases.

691 While medical and necropsy records of raptor patients presenting to rehabilitation centers  
692 and veterinary hospitals can inform our understanding of the threats to these free-ranging  
693 populations, there are limitations and biases. There is likely an over-representation of  
694 anthropogenic causes of morbidity and mortality, as birds are brought in by members of the

695 public who may be less likely to witness and report natural causes of mortality. Furthermore, not  
696 all raptor cases resulting in death were fully necropsied, and there is bias in the type of cases that  
697 were sent to the pathology department, with fewer trauma cases having a full necropsy  
698 performed. Another limitation with this dataset is that there were many birds for which sex and  
699 life stage were listed as unknown in the medical and necropsy records, which limited our ability  
700 to assess the impact of these variables. It would be interesting in future analyses to investigate  
701 life stage and species in finer detail, parsing out dynamics in individual species and stages of  
702 development.

703 We also anticipate that two major threats to raptor populations during this time period are  
704 under-represented in this dataset: we were limited in our ability to categorize toxicosis cases and  
705 any suspected highly pathogenic avian influenza cases because these carcasses were immediately  
706 submitted to the California Department of Fish and Wildlife for sampling and therefore would  
707 not be captured in the pathology database. Lead and rodenticide toxicity are two significant  
708 threats to raptors, so it was surprising that so few cases were definitively diagnosed. This may be  
709 in part due to fewer cases being sent for testing due to expenses, but it is also possible that this  
710 was in part due to how data was collected from the online record system. Toxicity results are  
711 added to records later as a separate pdf attachment; if results were not manually written into the  
712 record, the data was not collected into the data sheet for subsequent analysis. A study of  
713 rehabilitation centers in California detected anticoagulant rodenticide residues in 95% of turkey  
714 vultures tested and 67% of golden eagles (Kelly et al. 2013). In addition to the adverse effects  
715 posed by anticoagulant rodenticides on individual raptors, there are conservation concerns about  
716 the impacts on populations of vulnerable species, and alternate methods of pest control should be  
717 encouraged (Gomez et al. 2021). Highly pathogenic avian influenza (HPAI) is a significant

718 threat to raptor populations since the detection of the current clade in 2021, as raptors are  
719 ecologically positioned to have regular exposure through infected prey and carcasses (Nemeth et  
720 al. 2023). Especially severe impacts have been observed in the critically endangered California  
721 condor populations, with 21 of the estimated 350 remaining free-roaming birds dying from HPAI  
722 in 2023 (Kozlov 2023; Puryear and Runstadler 2024).

723           In conclusion, causes of morbidity and mortality in raptors have broadly remained similar  
724 throughout time with traumatic injuries and infectious diseases remaining highly prevalent.  
725 Although, there have been shifts in the most common infectious diseases afflicting wild raptor  
726 populations. These diseases also show trends across season, species, and life stage, most of  
727 which are not yet fully understood. Different disease types also carry different prognoses, as does  
728 presenting body condition score, season, and life stage. Understanding these patterns and their  
729 underlying causes is important for improving efforts to support raptors in the wild as well as at  
730 rehabilitation centers.

731

732

733

734

735

736

737

738

739

740

741 **References**

- 742 Alba A, Perez AM, Ponder J, Puig P, Wünschmann A, Vander Waal K, Alvarez J, Willette M.  
743 2017. Syndromic surveillance for West Nile virus using raptors in rehabilitation. *BMC Vet*  
744 *Res* 13:368.
- 745 Arné P, Risco-Castillo V, Jouvion G, Le Barzic C, Guillot J. 2021. Aspergillosis in Wild Birds.  
746 *JoF* 7:241.
- 747 Beernaert LA, Pasmans F, Van Waeyenberghe L, Haesebrouck F, Martel A. 2010. *Aspergillus*  
748 *infections* in birds: a review. *Avian Pathology* 39:325–331.
- 749 Bogiatto RJ, Sardella BA, Essex JJ. 2003. Food habits of great horned owls in Northeastern  
750 California with notes on seasonal diet shifts. *Western North American Naturalist* 63:258–  
751 263.
- 752 Bozdogan H. 1987. Model selection and Akaike's Information Criterion (AIC): The general  
753 theory and its analytical extensions. *Psychometrika* 52:345–370.
- 754 Captanian N, Hawkins MG, Fiorello C, Thurber M, Reisen WK. 2017. Low prevalence of West  
755 Nile virus antibodies in select Northern California owl species (2007-2014). *Journal of Zoo*  
756 *and Wildlife Medicine* 48:1239–1241.
- 757 Cococchetta C, Coutant T, Collarile T, Vetere A, Di Ianni F, Huynh M. 2022. Causes of Raptor  
758 Admission to the Wildlife Rehabilitation Centre in Abruzzo (Central Italy) from 2005–  
759 2016. *Animals* 12:1916.
- 760 Cox C. 1991. Pesticides and Birds: From DDT to Today's Poisons. *Journal of Pesticide Reform*  
761 11.
- 762 Deem S, Terrell SP, Forrester DJ. 1998. A Retrospective Study of Morbidity and Mortality of  
763 Raptors in Florida: 1988-1994 on JSTOR. *Journal of Zoo and Wildlife Medicine* 29.  
764 [https://www.jstor.org/stable/20095739?casa\\_token=9GpdMZLVO5UAAAAA%3A5hkxfUI](https://www.jstor.org/stable/20095739?casa_token=9GpdMZLVO5UAAAAA%3A5hkxfUI10ti6F8zM7hsJMQcO4nh_sTJB2XVw-Oil4AcwIbSE7rKTWEV-)  
765 [10ti6F8zM7hsJMQcO4nh\\_sTJB2XVw-Oil4AcwIbSE7rKTWEV-](https://www.jstor.org/stable/20095739?casa_token=9GpdMZLVO5UAAAAA%3A5hkxfUI10ti6F8zM7hsJMQcO4nh_sTJB2XVw-Oil4AcwIbSE7rKTWEV-)



766 kX49zkr5uqM\_R150rJsWM80K9h0ZiOa\_qBHERVSHzfIhS7MBfm6sXeTuElw.  
767 Accessed.

768 Ellis AE, Mead DG, Allison AB, Stallknecht DE, Howerth EW. 2007. Pathology and  
769 epidemiology of natural West Nile viral infection of raptors in Georgia. *Journal of Wildlife*  
770 *Diseases* 43:214–223.

771 Fix AS, Barrows SZ. 1990. Raptors rehabilitated in Iowa during 1986 and 1987: a retrospective  
772 study. *Journal of Wildlife Diseases* 26:18–21.

773 Fowler ME, Schulz T, Ardans A, Reynolds B, Behymer D. 1990. Chlamydiosis in Captive  
774 Raptors. *Avian Diseases* 34:657.

775 Gancz AY, Barker IK, Lindsay R, Dibernardo A, McKeever K, Hunter B. 2004. West Nile Virus  
776 Outbreak in North American Owls, Ontario, 2002. *Emerg Infect Dis* 10:2135–2142.

777 Gomez EA, Hindmarch S, Smith JA. 2021. Conservation Letter: Raptors and Anticoagulant  
778 Rodenticides. *Journal of Raptor Research*.  
779 [https://meridian.allenpress.com/rapt/article/doi/10.3356/JRR-20-](https://meridian.allenpress.com/rapt/article/doi/10.3356/JRR-20-122/473421/Conservation-Letter-Raptors-and-Anticoagulant)  
780 [122/473421/Conservation-Letter-Raptors-and-Anticoagulant](https://meridian.allenpress.com/rapt/article/doi/10.3356/JRR-20-122/473421/Conservation-Letter-Raptors-and-Anticoagulant). Accessed August 2024.

781 Graham JE, Heatley JJ. 2007. Emergency Care of Raptors. *Veterinary Clinics of North America:*  
782 *Exotic Animal Practice* 10:395–418.

783 Grier JW. 1982. Ban of DDT and Subsequent Recovery of Reproduction in Bald Eagles.  
784 *Science* 218:1232–1235.

785 Hall V, Cardona C, Mendoza K, Torchetti M, Lantz K, Bueno I, Franzen-Klein D. 2024.  
786 Surveillance for highly pathogenic avian influenza A (H5N1) in a raptor rehabilitation  
787 center—2022. *PLoS ONE* 19:e0299330.

788 Hernandez CL, Oster SC, Newbrey JL. 2018. Retrospective Study of Raptors Treated at the  
789 Southeastern Raptor Center in Auburn, Alabama. *Journal of Raptor Research* 52:379–  
790 388.

791 Hudelson S, Hudelson P. 1995. Dermatology of raptors: A review. *Seminars in Avian and Exotic*  
792 *Pet Medicine* 4:184–194.

793 Kadlecova G, Voslarova E, Vecerek V. 2022. Diurnal raptors at rescue centres in the Czech  
794 Republic: Reasons for admission, outcomes, and length of stay. *PLoS ONE*  
795 17:e0279501.

796 Kelly TR, Pandit PS, Carion N, Dombrowski DF, Rogers KH, McMillin SC, Clifford DL, Riberi A,  
797 Ziccardi MH, Donnelly-Greenan EL, et al. 2021. Early detection of wildlife morbidity and  
798 mortality through an event-based surveillance system. *Proc R Soc B* 288:20210974.

799 Kelly TR, Poppenga RH, Woods LA, Hernandez YZ, Boyce WM, Samaniego FJ, Torres SG,  
800 Johnson CK. 2013. Causes of mortality and unintentional poisoning in predatory and  
801 scavenging birds in California. *Veterinary Record Open* 1:e000028.

802 Komnenou AT, Georgopoulou I, Savvas I, Dessiris A. 2005. A retrospective study of  
803 presentation, treatment, and outcome of free-ranging raptors in Greece (1997-2000).  
804 *Journal of Zoo and Wildlife Medicine* 36:222–228.

805 Kozlov M. 2023. US will vaccinate birds against avian flu for first time — what researchers think.  
806 *Nature* 618:220–221.

807 Kross SM, Bourbour RP, Martinico BL. 2016. Agricultural land use, barn owl diet, and vertebrate  
808 pest control implications. *Agriculture, Ecosystems & Environment* 223:167–174.

809 Laroucau K, Vorimore F, Aaziz R, Solmonson L, Hsia RC, Bavoil PM, Fach P, Hölzer M,  
810 Wuenschmann A, Sachse K. 2019. *Chlamydia buteonis*, a new *Chlamydia* species  
811 isolated from a red-shouldered hawk. *Systematic and Applied Microbiology* 42:125997.

812 Lofgren LA, Lorch JM, Cramer RA, Blehert DS, Berlowski-Zier BM, Winzeler ME, Gutierrez-  
813 Perez C, Kordana NE, Stajich JE. 2022. Avian-associated *Aspergillus fumigatus* displays  
814 broad phylogenetic distribution, no evidence for host specificity, and multiple genotypes  
815 within epizootic events. *G3* 12:jkac075.

816 Luján-Vega C, Hawkins MG, Johnson CK, Briggs C, Vennum C, Bloom PH, Hull JM, Cray C,  
817 Pesti D, Johnson L, et al. 2018. Atypical chlamydiaceae in wild populations of hawks  
818 (*Buteo* spp.) in California. *Journal of Zoo and Wildlife Medicine* 49:108–115.

819 Maphalala MI, Monadjem A, Bildstein KL, Hoffman B, Downs C. 2021. Causes of admission to a  
820 raptor rehabilitation centre and factors that can be used to predict the likelihood of  
821 release. *African Journal of Ecology* 59:510–517.

822 Marti CD, Steenhof K, Kochert MN, Jeffrey SM. 1993. Community trophic structure: the roles of  
823 diet, body size, and activity time in vertebrate predators. *Oikos* 67.

824 Martinez V, Jimenez M, Gonalons E, Vergara P. 1993. Mechanism of action of CCK in avian  
825 gastroduodenal motility: Evidence for nitric oxide involvement. *American Journal of*  
826 *Physiology - Gastrointestinal and Liver Physiology* 265:G842–G850.

827 Martínez-Herrero MC, Sansano-Maestre J, Ortega J, González F, López-Márquez I, Gómez-  
828 Muñoz MT, Garijo-Toledo MM. 2020. Oral trichomonosis: Description and severity of  
829 lesions in birds in Spain. *Veterinary Parasitology* 283:109196.

830 Martony M, Nollens H, Tucker M, Henry L, Schmitt T, Hernandez J. 2019. Prevalence of and  
831 environmental factors associated with aerosolised *Aspergillus* spores at a zoological  
832 park. *Veterinary Record Open* 6:e000281.

833 Molina-López RA, Casal J, Darwich L. 2011. Causes of Morbidity in Wild Raptor Populations  
834 Admitted at a Wildlife Rehabilitation Centre in Spain from 1995-2007: A Long Term  
835 Retrospective Study | PLOS ONE.  
836 <https://journals.plos.org/plosone/article?id=10.1371/journal.pone.0024603>. Accessed  
837 June 2023.

838 Molina-López RA, Rafael A, Casal J, Darwich L. 2015. Prognostic indicators associated with  
839 early mortality of wild raptors admitted to a wildlife rehabilitation centre in Spain.  
840 *Veterinary Quarterly* 35:9–15.

841 Montesdeoca N, Calabuig P, Corbera JA, Orós J. 2016. Causes of Admission for Raptors to the  
842 Tafira Wildlife Rehabilitation Center, Gran Canaria Island, Spain: 2003–13. *Journal of*  
843 *Wildlife Diseases* 52:647.

844 Morishita TY, Fullerton AT, Lowenstine LJ, Gardner IA, Brooks DL. 1998. Morbidity and  
845 mortality in free-living raptorial birds of Northern California: a retrospective study, 1983-  
846 1994. *Journal of Avian Medicine and Surgery* 12:78–81.

847 Morishita TY, Pyone PA, Brooks DL. 1997. A survey of diseases of raptorial birds. *Journal of*  
848 *Avian Medicine and Surgery*:77–92.

849 Nemeth N, Gould D, Bowen R, Komar N. 2006. Natural and experimental West Nile virus  
850 infection in five raptor species. *Journal of Wildlife Diseases* 42:1–13.

851 Nemeth NM, Ruder MG, Poulson RL, Sargent R, Breeding S, Evans MN, Zimmerman J,  
852 Hardman R, Cunningham M, Gibbs S, et al. 2023. Bald eagle mortality and nest failure  
853 due to clade 2.3.4.4 highly pathogenic H5N1 influenza a virus. *Sci Rep* 13:191.

854 Panter CT, Allen S, Backhouse N, Mullineaux E, Rose C, Amar A. 2022. Causes, temporal  
855 trends, and the effects of urbanization on admissions of wild raptors to rehabilitation  
856 centers in England and Wales. *Ecology and Evolution* 12:e8856.

857 Puryear WB, Runstadler JA. 2024. High-pathogenicity avian influenza in wildlife: a changing  
858 disease dynamic that is expanding in wild birds and having an increasing impact on a  
859 growing number of mammals. *JAVMA*:1–9.

860 Quillfeldt P, Schumm YR, Marek C, Mader V, Fischer D, Marx M. 2018. Prevalence and  
861 genotyping of *Trichomonas* infections in wild birds in central Germany. *PLoS ONE*  
862 13:e0200798.

863 R Core Team. 2023. R: A Language and Environment for Statistical Computing. R Foundation  
864 for Statistical Computing, Vienna, Austria. <https://www.R-project.org/>. Accessed.

865 Reisen W, Lothrop H, Chiles R, Madon M, Cossen C, Woods L, Husted S, Kramer V, Edman J.  
866 2004. West Nile Virus in California. *Emerg Infect Dis* 10:1369–1378.

867 Ress S, Guyer C. 2004. A Retrospective Study of Mortality and Rehabilitation of Raptors A  
868 Retrospective Study of Mortality and Rehabilitation of Raptors in the Southeastern  
869 United States. *J Raptor Res* 38:77–81.

870 Rodriguez B, Rodriguez A, Siverio F, Siverio M. 2010. Causes of Raptor Admissions to a  
871 Wildlife Rehabilitation Center in Tenerife (Canary Islands).  
872 [https://bioone.org/journals/journal-of-raptor-research/volume-44/issue-1/JRR-09-](https://bioone.org/journals/journal-of-raptor-research/volume-44/issue-1/JRR-09-40.1/Causes-of-Raptor-Admissions-to-a-Wildlife-Rehabilitation-Center-in/10.3356/JRR-09-40.1.full)  
873 [40.1/Causes-of-Raptor-Admissions-to-a-Wildlife-Rehabilitation-Center-in/10.3356/JRR-](https://bioone.org/journals/journal-of-raptor-research/volume-44/issue-1/JRR-09-40.1/Causes-of-Raptor-Admissions-to-a-Wildlife-Rehabilitation-Center-in/10.3356/JRR-09-40.1.full)  
874 [09-40.1.full](https://bioone.org/journals/journal-of-raptor-research/volume-44/issue-1/JRR-09-40.1/Causes-of-Raptor-Admissions-to-a-Wildlife-Rehabilitation-Center-in/10.3356/JRR-09-40.1.full). Accessed June 2023.

875 Rugg NM, Jenkins JMA, Lesmeister DB. 2023. Western screech-owl occupancy in the face of  
876 an invasive predator. *Global Ecology and Conservation* 48:e02753.

877 Saito EK, Sileo L, Green DE, Meteyer CU, McLaughlin GS, Converse KA, Docherty DE. 2007.  
878 Raptor mortality due to West Nile virus in the United States, 2002. *Journal of Wildlife*  
879 *Diseases* 43:206–213.

880 Seibert B. 2017. Chlamydial Infections in birds of prey presented to rehabilitation facilities.  
881 University of California, Davis.

882 Seibert BA, Keel MK, Kelly TR, Nilsen RA, Ciembor P, Pesti D, Gregory CR, Ritchie BW,  
883 Hawkins MG. 2021. Chlamydia buteonis in birds of prey presented to California wildlife  
884 rehabilitation facilities. *PLoS ONE* 16:e0258500.

885 Shelton BG, Kirkland KH, Flanders WD, Morris GK. 2002. Profiles of Airborne Fungi in Buildings  
886 and Outdoor Environments in the United States. *Appl Environ Microbiol* 68:1743–1753.

887 Smith KA, Campbell GD, Pearl DL, Jardine CM, Salgado-Bierman F, Nemeth NM. 2018. A  
888 retrospective summary of raptor mortality in Ontario, Canada (1991-2014), including the  
889 effects of West Nile virus. *Journal of Wildlife Diseases* 54:261.

890 Snyder RE, Feiszli T, Foss L, Messenger S, Fang Y, Barker CM, Reisen WK, Vugia DJ, Padgett  
891 KA, Kramer VL. 2020. West Nile virus in California, 2003–2018: A persistent threat.  
892 *PLoS Negl Trop Dis* 14:e0008841.

893 Sorenson KJ, Burnett LJ, Stake MM. 2017. Restoring a Bald Eagle Breeding Population in  
894 Central California and Monitoring 25 Years of Regional Population Growth. *Journal of*  
895 *Raptor Research* 51:145–152.

896 Thompson LJ, Hoffman B, Brown M. 2013. Causes of admissions to a raptor rehabilitation  
897 centre in KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa | *African Zoology*. *African Zoology*:359–366.

898 Trapletti A, Hornik K. 2023. tseries: Time Series Analysis and Computational Finance.  
899 <https://CRAN.R-project.org/package=tseries>. Accessed.

900 Urban EH, Mannan RW. 2014. The potential role of oral pH in the persistence of *Trichomonas*  
901 *gallinae* in Cooper's hawks (*Accipiter cooperii*). *Journal of Wildlife Diseases* 50:50–55.

902 Venables WN, Ripley BD. 2002. *Modern Applied Statistics with S*. New York.

903 Wendell MD, Sleeman JM, Kratz G. 2002. Retrospective study of morbidity and mortality of  
904 raptors admitted to Colorado State University veterinary teaching hospital during 1995 to  
905 1998. *Journal of Wildlife Diseases* 38:101–106.

906 Wolf T, Debut L, Sanh V, Chaumond J, Delangue C, Moi A, Cistac P, Ma C, Jernite Y, Plu J, et  
907 al. 2020. Transformers: State-of-the-Art Natural Language Processing.

908 Zhang Y, Jin R, Zhou Z-H. 2010. Understanding bag-of-words model: a statistical framework. *Int*  
909 *J Mach Learn & Cyber* 1:43–52.

910