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Agenda Item 25.1

PROPOSAL FOR THE INCLUSION OF THE STEPPE EAGLE *(Aquila nipalensis)* ON APPENDIX I OF THE CONVENTION

Summary:

The Government of Mongolia has submitted the attached proposal* for the inclusion of the Steppe Eagle *(Aquila nipalensis)* on Appendix I of CMS.

A proposal for the inclusion of the same taxon on Appendix I of CMS has been submitted independently by the Government of Saudi Arabia. The proposal is reproduced in document UNEP/CMS/COP12/Doc.25.1.13(b).

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PROPOSAL FOR THE INCLUSION OF THE STEPPE EAGLE *(Aquila nipalensis)* ON APPENDIX I OF THE CONVENTION ON THE CONSERVATION OF MIGRATORY SPECIES OF WILD ANIMALS

A. PROPOSAL

Listing the entire population of Steppe Eagle *Aquila nipalensis* on CMS Appendix I.

B. PROPONENT: Government of Mongolia.

C. SUPPORTING STATEMENT[1]

1. Taxonomy

1.1 Class:	Aves
1.2 Order:	Accipitriformes
1.3 Family:	Accipitridae
1.4 Genus, species or subspecies, including author and year:	*Aquila nipalensis* (Hodgson, 1833)
1.5 Scientific synonyms:	No scientific synonyms
1.6 Common name(s), when applicable:	EN- Steppe Eagle, FR- Aigle Des Steppes, ES- Águila esteparia

2. Overview

The Steppe Eagle is a migratory raptor which has undergone extremely rapid population declines within its European range and rapid declines in other parts of its range. The speed and severity of these declines justified the species being moved from 'Least Concern' to 'Endangered' in the 2015 IUCN Red List assessment. The Steppe Eagle is listed on Annex I (List of Species) of the Raptors MOU and at Raptors MOU MOS2 (October 2015) it was re-classified within Annex 3 (Action Plan), moving from Table 1 Category 2 to Category 1 in recognition of its globally threatened IUCN conservation status. CMS Appendix I already lists the globally 'Vulnerable' eagles Spanish Imperial Eagle (*Aquila adalberti*), Greater Spotted Eagle (*Clanga clanga*), Eastern Imperial Eagle (*Aquila heliaca*), Pallas's Fish-Eagle *(Haliaeetus leucoryphus*) and Steller's Sea-Eagle (*Haliaeetus pelagicus*) and the globally 'Least Concern' White-tailed Sea-Eagle (*Haliaeetus albicilla*). The addition of the 'Endangered' Steppe Eagle to CMS Appendix I would therefore be fully justified.

While the threats to Steppe Eagle are not fully documented, they include habitat loss/ degradation, electrocution on/ collision with energy infrastructure, poisoning through herbicides/ pesticides/ veterinary drugs in food sources, persecution, mortality of juveniles in fires, taking of chicks and disturbance.

Steppe Eagles may make migratory movements of many thousands of kilometres crossing numerous national jurisdictional boundaries. International cooperation will therefore be an essential ingredient in the recovery and long-term conservation of this species.

3. Migrations

3.1. Kind of movement, distance, the cyclical and predictable nature of migration

The Steppe Eagle is a long-distance trans-equatorial migrant (Bildstein 2006). Unlike many other eagles, the species migrates in large, loose flocks (Rasmussen and Anderton 2005). Its migration is cyclical and predictable; individuals leave their breeding grounds for wintering grounds between August and October, returning to breeding areas between January and May (Ferguson-Lees and Christie 2001). Steppe Eagles, like other soaring birds, minimise the

[1] Unless otherwise referenced, this proposal draws on information from BirdLife International (2016).

length of sea crossings and thus on migration form large concentrations at bottleneck sites (del Hoyo *et al.* 1994, Snow and Perrins 1998, Ferguson-Lees and Christie 2001).

Birds from European Russia, eastern Kazakhstan and Turkey (*A. n. orientalis*) winter in the Middle East, Arabia and East and Southern Africa (Meyburg and Boesman 2013). Birds from Altai, Siberia eastwards (*A. n. nipalensis*) winter mainly in south and south-east Asia (BirdLife International 2016).

In the 1990s 16 Steppe Eagles were fitted with satellite transmitters during migration or on their wintering grounds (fifteen in Saudi Arabia, one in South Africa). Adult and immature Steppe Eagle migration strategies were markedly different in terms of timing (adults returned to breeding territories in southern Russia and Kazakhstan in late March and early April, whereas immatures arrived in mid-May) but not in terms of route and wintering area. Immature birds remained on the wintering grounds for substantially longer than adults, typically for about six months. An adult took almost eight weeks to cover 9,543 km from Botswana to Kazakhstan, averaging 177 km daily. The longest mean daily flight distance among all tracked individuals was approximately 355 km. In 1998, an adult male was recorded through a complete annual cycle; it spent 31.5 per cent of the period in the wintering area in Ethiopia and Sudan, 41.9 per cent in the breeding area in Kazakhstan, and 26.6 per cent on migration (Meyburg *et al.* 2012).

Steppe Eagles wintering in Africa appear to have a loop migration around the Red Sea, arriving via Bab-el-Mandeb Strait (between Yemen and Djibouti) and departing via the Suez, Egypt–Eilat, Israel (the northern end of the Red Sea), probably because the prevailing easterly winds between October and April make return migration via Bab-el-Mandeb more difficult (Meyburg *et al.* 2003). A similar phenomenon may happen for Steppe Eagles migrating along the Himalayas in spring and autumn, with some individuals taking a more northerly route in spring to fly more directly towards breeding grounds in areas such as Mongolia (den Besten 2004). The number of Steppe Eagles migrating along the Himalayas was counted in Dharamsala, Himachal Pradesh, India, during autumn 2001 and spring 2002. A total of 8,194 Steppe Eagles was counted passing north-west during autumn 2001, and a total of 10,000-11,000 individuals was extrapolated. In spring 2002, 5,204 individuals were counted, and a total of 5,900-6,600 was estimated (den Besten 2004). Not all Steppe Eagles from the eastern populations cross the Himalayas in autumn: an adult female fitted with a satellite transmitter in south-east Mongolia in 1995 wintered in south-east Tibet (Ellis *et al.* 2001).

3.2. Proportion of the population migrating, and why that is significant

The Steppe Eagle is a long distance, trans-equatorial migrant (Welch and Welch 1991; Bildstein 2006). Knowledge of migratory movements is incomplete but there is some evidence that immature individuals and adults may have similar migration routes, but slightly different migration timing, with immatures spending longer on wintering grounds and arriving on breeding grounds later than adults (Meyburg *et al.* 2012). If the cohort of individuals so far satellite tagged is representative of the broader population, evidence gathered so far (Section 3.1) suggests that the majority of the population is likely to be making migratory movements each year, spanning thousands of kilometres and crossing numerous national jurisdictional boundaries.

4. Biological data

4.1. Distribution (current and historical)

The Steppe Eagle breeds east of 43°E in European Russia from the Republic of Kalmykia (Karyakin *et al.* 2016), across Kazakhstan into Kyrgyzstan, eastern China and Mongolia (Meyburg and Boesman 2013). In 2015 it was proven to breed in a small area of Turkey, although the exact range, numbers and trends are still unknown (M. Horvath and I. Karyakin *in litt*. 2016). It formerly bred in the Republic of Moldova, Romania and Ukraine. Steppe Eagles wintersin sub-Saharan Africa across a huge area, extending from the eastern Sahel south to South Africa and Namibia (Meyburg *et al.* 2012). The species also winters in the Arabian Peninsula, the Indian subcontinent and south-western China.

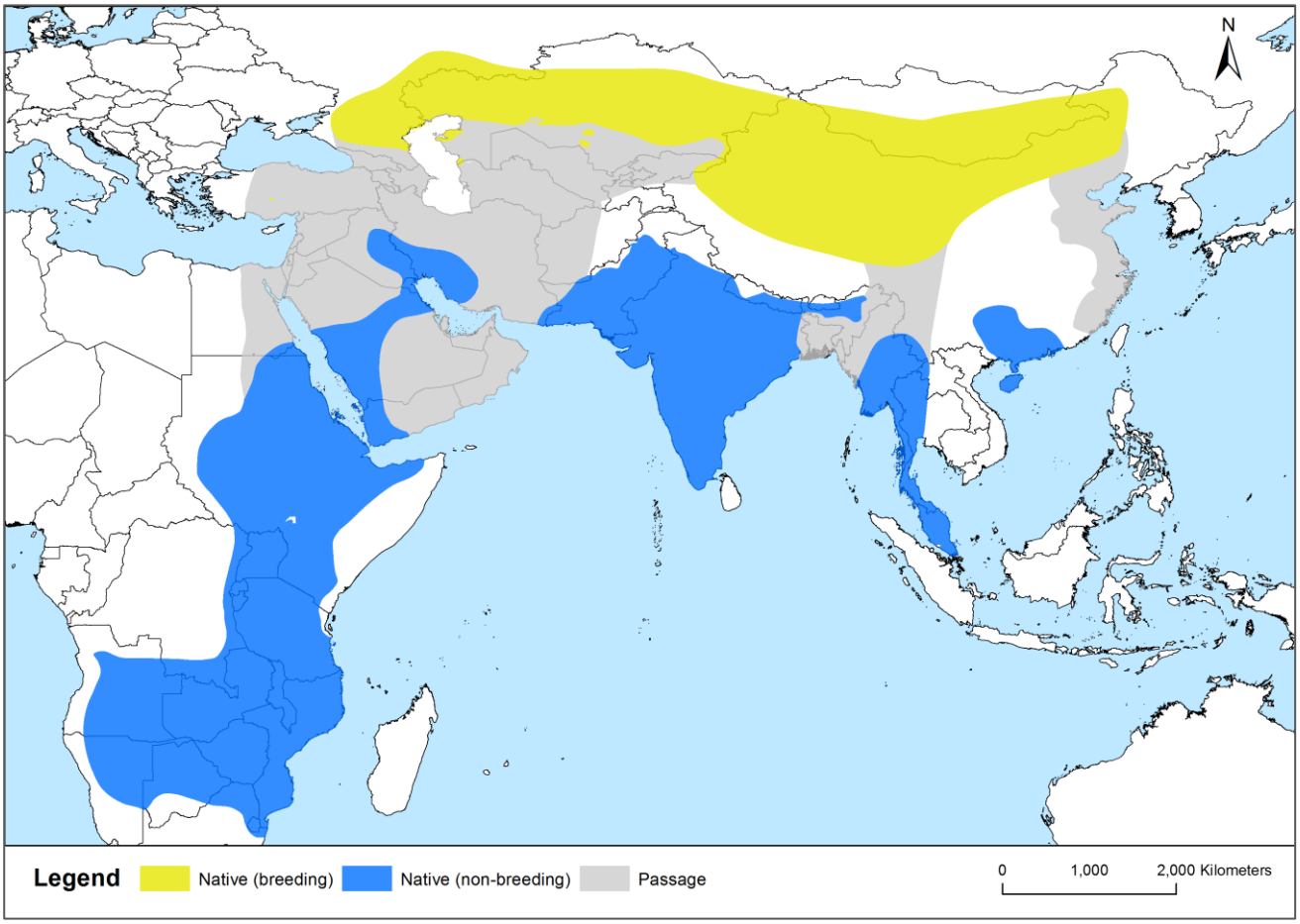

Fig 4.1. *Range map of Steppe Eagle (BirdLife International and Handbook of the Birds of the World 2017).*

4.2. Population (estimates and trends)

Combined totals from across the whole range estimate the number of pairs at 31,372 (26,014-36,731) which equates to 62,744 (52,028-73,462) mature individuals or 94,116 (78,042-110,193) individuals (I. Karyakin *in litt*. 2015; BirdLife International 2016). The global population is estimated to number less than 37,000 pairs (Karyakin *et al*. 2016).

The European population is estimated to be 800–1,200 breeding pairs or 1,600–2,400 adults. In the Russian Federation, the population is estimated to be 2,478–3,688 breeding pairs (including 1,176–1,895 breeding pairs in European Russia), in Kazakhstan there are an estimated 22,000–31,000 pairs (I. Karyakin *in litt*. 2016). The largest numbers are found within the Russian Federation: Republic of Kalmykia – 194 known breeding territories with an estimated 500-700 breeding pairs; Volgograd district – 50 known breeding pairs, estimated 300–500 breeding pairs; Orenburd district – 139 known breeding pairs, estimated 200–350 breeding pairs; Republic of Altai – 301 known breeding pairs, estimated 400–600 breeding pairs; Republic of Tyva – 140 known breeding pairs, estimated 300–400 breeding pairs (I. Karyakin *in litt*. 2016). The most important breeding populations are: Western Kazakhstan (Usturt Plateau, Emba river basin, Mugodzhary mountains, Or river basin) which forms the transboundary Russian-Kazakh population consisting of approximately 12,000 breeding pairs in an area of c.419,867 km^2; Eastern Kazakhstan population estimated at approximately 9,000 breeding pairs (in an area of c.188,080 km^2); Western Mongolia (forming the transboundary Russian-Mongolian population, the majority of which are in the Altai-Sayan region in Russia in an area of c.372,283 km^2) with an estimated 3,000 breeding pairs; approximately 2,600 breeding pairs in the Volga-Urals (steppe region between the Volga and Ural rivers to the south to the Urda sands) (in an area of c.69,472 km^2); approximately 2,000 breeding pairs in Dahuria (transboundary Russian-Mongolian population) in an area of c.153,896 km^2) and an estimated 4,000 breeding pairs in Central Mongolia (410,736 km^2) (Karyakin *et al*. 2016). In Mongolia the population may range from 1,500-2,000 up to 6,000-18,000 pairs (Karyakin 2013, I. Karyakin

in litt. 2016).

Steppe Eagle has undergone extremely rapid population declines within its European range, decreasing by 80 per cent or more in 49.8 years (three generations) (BirdLife International 2015a), resulting in its extirpation from Romania, Republic of Moldova and Ukraine (Ferguson-Lees and Christie 2001, Meyburg and Boesman 2013). The European population represents only a small proportion of the global population; the majority of the species' range lies outside Europe, but even in the rest of its range the population is now thought to be exposed to greater threats than had previously been understood. Overall, very rapid recent declines have resulted across much of Steppe Eagle's global range with combined totals from across the range suggesting a decline of 58.6 per cent between 1997-2011 and 2013-2015 (I. Karyakin *in litt*. 2015).

4.3. Habitat

The Steppe Eagle inhabits areas of steppe and semi-desert, and the race *nipalensis* is recorded breeding up to 2,300 m in mountainous regions (del Hoyo *et al.* 1994), while *orientalis* breeds in lowlands and low hills. In the Indian subcontinent Naoroji (2006) reports that the species favours open lightly-wooded to scrub habitat in the Desert, Semi-arid, Gangetic Plain, Deccan Peninsula and Himalayan zones in the vicinity of open irrigated cultivation, waterbodies and marshes. It is a versatile species with a diet which includes a wide range of live prey and carrion. The species may be particularly opportunistic when migrating and wintering, utilizing sources of abundant food like poultry farms and garbage dumps as well as natural prey (Naoroji 2006) and immatures may take more carrion than adults (del Hoyo *et al.* 1994). In mid-February 2001 more than 50 birds were seen at a carcass dump in the Rajasthan desert (Naoroji 2006 del Hoyo *et al.* 1994). Nests were originally built on the ground, but more recently owing to habitat alteration and persecution they have increasingly been found higher in bushes, small trees and on artificial structures (del Hoyo *et al.* 1994).

4.4. Biological characteristics

The Steppe Eagle is remarkably long-lived, reaching up to 41 years in captivity (del Hoyo *et al.* 1994). Age of first breeding is not yet known, probably around four years. One - four eggs are laid. Incubation time is about 45 days. The young stay in the nest for about 60 days (Mebs and Schmidt 2006). Breeding success depends on the availability of susliks (del Hoyo *et al.* 1994). For example in Mongolia, breeding success was on average 0.89 young fledged per pair (±0.8 SD, range 0-3; n = 37; Sundev *et al.* 2010).

The Steppe Eagle has recently been shown to be susceptible to poisoning through ingestion of scavenged carcasses of animals treated with the veterinary non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drug (NSAID) Diclofenac (Sharma *et al.* 2014). It is also susceptible to the rodenticide Bromadiolone (Natsagdorj and Batbayar 2002).

4.5. Role of the taxon in its ecosystem

The Steppe Eagle is a higher trophic level species and therefore performs a key role in shaping natural ecosystems. With other soaring birds, it provides important ecological services, particularly in agricultural landscapes where it controls pest populations, such as rodents, and disposes of carrion (BirdLife International 2015b).

5. Conservation status and threats

5.1. IUCN Red List Assessment

Steppe Eagle has been uplisted to 'Endangered' in the 2015 IUCN Red List Assessment (BirdLife International 2016).

5.2. Equivalent information relevant to conservation status assessment

N/A

5.3. Threats to the population (factors, intensity)

Key threats affecting Steppe Eagle according to IUCN Red List data (using IUCN threat categories. Impact calculated by assessing timing, scope and severity)

Threats	**Threat impact**
Agro-industry farming	medium
Utility and service lines	medium
Renewable energy	medium
Herbicides and pesticides	medium

In the Russian Federation and Kazakhstan a number of factors have been identified as having detrimental impacts on Steppe Eagle: increased mortality owing to collisions with power lines, pesticide poisoning and direct persecution; a reduction in the area of suitable habitat and a reduction in available food; poor breeding success owing to destruction of nests and juvenile mortality during spring fires and disturbance by people and livestock (Strategy of the Steppe Eagle Conservation in the Russian Federation 2016).

The Steppe Eagle is thought to have declined in the west of its breeding range (including extirpation from Romania, the Republic of Moldova and Ukraine), as a result of the conversion of steppes to agricultural land combined with direct persecution (Ferguson-Lees and Christie 2001, Meyburg and Boesman 2013), but the impact of energy infrastructure may also have been significant. The species can be adversely affected by power lines and is highly vulnerable to the impacts of poorly located or designed wind energy developments (Strix 2012, Meyburg and Boesman 2013). It was recently found to be the raptor most frequently electrocuted by power lines in a study in western Kazakhstan (Levin and Kurkin 2013) and collision may also be a problem. North of the Caspian Sea in Kazakhstan, 932 Steppe Eagle were found to have been electrocuted along 1,500 km of power line in a single survey season (Moseikin 2003). Given that the Russian Federation and Kazakhstan have at least 50,000–70,000 km of this type of power line, this pressure alone may explain a large proportion of the raptor declines reported in this region (BirdLife International 2004). Locally some populations are declining owing to heavy predation of chicks (Ferguson-Lees and Christie 2001, Meyburg and Boesman 2013).

This species is also vulnerable to poisoning from the veterinary drug Diclofenac (Sharma *et al.* 2014), which was intensively used in the species' wintering range in Pakistan and India (M. Horvath *in litt*. 2016), and could be of concern elsewhere in the species' range. Steppe Eagle is also susceptible to the rodenticide Bromadiolone (Natsagdorj and Batbayar 2002). The potential impacts of these toxins on the Steppe Eagle population have not yet been quantified.

A decline in the number of birds and a reduction in the proportion of juveniles migrating over Eilat, Israel began immediately after the Chernobyl nuclear accident in 1986, leading Yosef and Fornadari (2004) to suggest that the species may have been affected by radioactive contamination.

5.4. Threats connected especially with migrations

A study conducted in the Crimean steppes, Ukraine, shows that powerlines are hazardous to birds during migrations and in winter. Greater collision risk is associated with lines cutting across landscape features and in areas where birds congregate in high numbers (Andriushchenko Yu and Popenko 2012). The potential effects of wind energy installations on birds are also well documented, with impacts ranging from collision, disturbance displacement, barrier effects and habitat loss (Drewitt and Langston 2006). The impacts of collision may be being particularly evident along migratory routes (Hüppop *et al.* 2006). Steppe Eagle could be threatened by wind farms along its migration routes (e.g. in Gebel El Zeit Important Bird Area (IBA), Egypt; Hilgerloh *et al.* 2011).

Overall, the Steppe Eagle could be highly vulnerable to the cumulative impacts on the population of mortality from electrocutions and collisions with energy infrastructure throughout its migratory cycle.

5.5. National and international utilization

The Steppe Eagle is sometimes kept in captivity or used for display (BirdLife International 2016) and young eagles are sometimes taken from wild nests in order to sell them to western European countries (Mebs and Schmidt 2006).

6. Protection status and species management

6.1. National protection status

Owing to its relatively recent uplisting to globally Endangered on the IUCN Red List, many countries within its range do not yet have legal protection in place for the Steppe Eagle.

6.2. International protection status

All migratory species within the Accipitridae Family are listed on CMS Appendix II. The Steppe Eagle also appears on Raptor MOU Annex 1 and is categorized in Annex 3 (Action Plan), Table 1 as category 1 (globally threatened or near-threatened species). Steppe Eagle is listed on Appendix II of CITES and is listed as Critically Endangered in the European Red List of Birds (BirdLife International 2015a).

6.3. Management measures

In the Russian Federation a national strategy is being developed for Steppe Eagle conservation (RRRCN 2017[2]). The Steppe Eagle is one of the priority species of the Russian Raptor Research and Conservation Network (RRRCN 2017). As well as carrying out research and monitoring, the network implements some practical conservation measures for Steppe Eagles including:

Provision of nest platforms

This can increase productivity by reducing predation and risk of nest destruction by fire.

Bird-safe power infrastructure

RRRCN work with power providers to identify power network features and locations causing high mortality and fit Bird Protection Devices. Where necessary appeals are made to the judiciary to compel power companies to take remedial action on their power infrastructure.

Education

RRRCN work with target groups of the local farming population who are in direct contact with Steppe Eagles in their natural habitat and provide lectures and literature designed to encourage positive attitudes and action towards Steppe Eagles and their conservation.

6.4. Habitat conservation

Presence of the Steppe Eagle has triggered the creation of 36 Important Bird Areas (IBAs) in Europe, Central Asia and Asia (BirdLife International 2016). In the Russian Federation, the RRRCN (2017) has been working on establishing protected areas to safeguard breeding areas and manage the land appropriately and further work is being planned.

6.5. Population monitoring

In the Russian Federation and Kazakhstan, the RRRCN (2017) reports that monitoring of key Steppe Eagle breeding groups takes place in the Samaran and Orenburg regions, the

[2] 'Strategy of the Steppe Eagle conservation in the Russian Federation 2016. Moscow' as referred to in RRRCN 2017.

Republics of Kalmykia, Altai, Khakassia, Tuva and the Altai and Krasnoyarsk Krais in Russia, and in the Atyrau, Mangistau, Aktobe and Kostanai regions in Kazakhstan. Work includes nest monitoring, banding and research into population dynamics, establishing gender and age composition of breeding groups, and investigating impacts of natural and anthropological factors on population dynamics to aid planning of concrete conservation measures. In addition joint expeditions are made to known and potential nesting sites in Kazakhstan and Mongolia to confirm their existence and obtain population information. A satellite tracking study has begun to elucidate migration. Contact is maintained internationally with other Steppe Eagle researchers, particularly from Turkey and China as well as those based in USA and Germany. Conferences and discussions are organized for exchange of experience. As well as health studies, genetic and isotope analysis are underway using feathers, tissue of birds killed by energy infrastructure and blood samples. Aims of this work include better understanding of phylogeny, relationships between Steppe Eagle populations and the origin of birds being killed on energy infrastructure on migration.

In order to determine anthropological factors affecting the Steppe Eagle, information is collected on all recorded Steppe Eagle deaths or incidences of nest destruction. Surveys among local people are used to assess pressure from poaching. In breeding areas, monitoring is carried out of steppe undergrowth burning to analyse impact on breeding attempts and quantify change in distribution of nesting pairs in those areas where burning had taken place. Frequency of depredation of nests is also monitored.

A manual with recommendations for conducting Steppe Eagle monitoring in the Russian Federation and Kazakhstan, was published within the framework of a project by the UNDP, Global Environment Facility and the Ministry of Natural Resources (Karyakin 2012).

7. Effects of the proposed amendment

7.1. Anticipated benefits of the amendment

It is clear that international cooperation will be an essential ingredient in the long-term conservation of Steppe Eagles. Most of the key threats thought to be driving its decline are shared by multiple countries in the African-Eurasian region and trans-national conservation measures will be required to successfully tackle these issues. Listing this species in the CMS Appendix I will ensure consistent treatment between CMS Appendices and Raptors MOU Annex 3, table 1. support the Raptors MOU action. It will also encourage range state governments to engage in efforts to reduce threats and work together to safeguard the Steppe Eagle throughout its range.

The Steppe Eagle is listed on CITES Appendix II. Appendix II species require an export permit or re-export certificate to be traded internationally, but can be imported without an import permit (unless required by national law). Export permits are only granted if the export is not detrimental to species' survival, the species was not obtained illegally, and transportation is conducted appropriately. Authorization of trade should only be granted in highly exceptional situations. Listing Steppe Eagle on CMS Appendix I would reinforce the provisions already in place under CITES by prohibiting the taking of this species unless for scientific purposes, for the purpose of enhancing propagation or survival, to accommodate the needs of traditional subsistence users or if extraordinary circumstances so require.

7.2. Potential risks of the amendment

Despite the provisions under CMS Article III to avoid this, listing on Appendix I could unintentionally constrain (or increase the logistical/bureaucratic burden associated with) useful research activities such as capture, marking, tracking, health screening and research. All of the above activities can and do contribute greatly to increasing our understanding of the Steppe Eagle and promoting its conservation. Should captive breeding/rearing/rehabilitation or moving Steppe Eagles and their eggs between countries become a necessary conservation action in the future, their listing on CMS Appendix I could unintentionally constrain (or increase the logistical/bureaucratic burden associated with) these activities. However, given the restrictions

on export already in place by virtue of CITES Appendix II listing and the provision under CMS Article III for exceptions to prohibition of taking for scientific or enhanced propagation/survival, the conservation benefits of CMS Appendix I listing are likely to far outweigh the risks.

7.3. Intention of the proponent concerning development of an Agreement or Concerted Action

A regional agreement under CMS already exists, which covers Steppe Eagle. The Memorandum of Understanding on the Conservation of Migratory Birds of Prey in Africa and Eurasia (Raptors MOU) was concluded in 2008. It has so far attracted 57 Signatories (56 countries and the European Union). Mongolia signed the Raptors MOU on 22 October 2008.

8. Range States

Country (*CMS parties)	Current Seasonality/Status
Afghanistan*	Passage
Albania*	Vagrant
Angola*	Vagrant
Armenia*	Passage
Azerbaijan	Passage
Bahrain	Passage
Bangladesh*	Passage
Belarus*	Vagrant
Bhutan	Non-breeding
Botswana	Non-breeding
Bulgaria*	Vagrant
Burundi*	Non-breeding
Cameroon*	Vagrant
Chad*	Vagrant
China (mainland)	Breeding
Croatia*	Vagrant
Czech Republic*	Vagrant
Democratic People's Republic of Korea,	Vagrant
Democratic Republic of the Congo, *	Non-breeding
Denmark*	Vagrant
Djibouti*	Non-breeding
Egypt*	Non-breeding and Passage
Eritrea*	Non-breeding
Estonia*	Vagrant
Ethiopia*	Non-breeding
Finland*	Vagrant
France*	Vagrant
Georgia*	Non-breeding and Passage
Germany*	Vagrant
Greece*	Vagrant
Hungary*	Vagrant
India*	Non-breeding
Iran, Islamic Republic of*	Non-breeding and Passage
Iraq*	Non-breeding and Passage
Israel*	Passage

Country (*CMS parties)	Current Seasonality/Status
Italy*	Vagrant
Jordan*	Passage
Kazakhstan*	Breeding
Kenya*	Non-breeding
Kuwait	Non-breeding
Kyrgyzstan*	Breeding and Passage
Lebanon	Passage
Malawi	Non-breeding
Malaysia	Non-breeding
Mali*	Vagrant
Mongolia*	Breeding
Mozambique*	Non-breeding
Myanmar	Non-breeding
Namibia	Non-breeding
Nepal	Non-breeding
Netherlands*	Vagrant
Niger*	Vagrant
Nigeria*	Vagrant
Norway*	Vagrant
Oman	Passage
Pakistan*	Non-breeding
Palestinian Authority Territories	Non-breeding
Poland*	Vagrant
Qatar	Passage
Russia	Breeding
Rwanda*	Non-breeding
Saudi Arabia*	Non-breeding and Passage
Singapore	Non-breeding
Slovakia*	Vagrant
Somalia*	Non-breeding
South Africa*	Non-breeding
South Sudan	Non-breeding
Spain*	Vagrant
Sudan	Non-breeding
Swaziland*	Non-breeding
Sweden*	Vagrant
Syria*	Passage
Tajikistan*	Passage
Thailand	Non-breeding
Tunisia*	Vagrant
Turkey	Breeding
Turkmenistan	Breeding and Passage
Uganda*	Non-breeding
Ukraine*	Breeding
United Arab Emirates*	Passage
United Republic of Tanzania*,	Non-breeding
Uzbekistan*	Passage
Vietnam	Vagrant
Yemen*	Non-breeding and Passage
Zambia	Non-breeding
Zimbabwe*	Non-breeding

9. Consultations

This Listing Proposal has been developed in close cooperation with the Coordinating Unit of the CMS Raptors MOU. An earlier draft was reviewed by the Technical Advisory Group of the CMS Raptors MOU and revised in light of the comments received from this group of specialists. This final version was circulated by the Coordinating Unit to all Range States of the Steppe Eagle in advance of submission to the CMS Secretariat.

10. Additional remarks

11. References

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