

1 **Title:** Investigating determinants of compliance with wildlife protection laws: Bird persecution in
2 Portugal.

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16 **Abstract**

17 Conservation interventions are generally underpinned by formal rules. These rules often suffer from
18 high rates of non-compliance which is difficult to investigate due to its clandestine nature. Here we
19 apply socio-psychological approaches to investigate the prevalence and determinants of three illegal
20 bird-threatening behaviours - shooting raptors, trapping passerines for consumption, and poison use -
21 by surveying 146 respondents in Portugal. We apply the Theory of Planned Behaviour to understand
22 behavioural determinants, and an indirect questioning method, the Unmatched Count Technique
23 (UCT), to estimate behaviour prevalence. The UCT estimated a high prevalence of trapping for
24 consumption (47% SE 15) and shooting raptors (14% SE 11); both estimates being higher than from
25 direct questioning. Poisoning had a lower prevalence according to direct questioning (7%), while the
26 UCT generated a negative estimate suggesting that poisoning is a particularly sensitive behaviour.
27 Different demographic groups were associated with different behaviours and determinants; men with
28 greater rule knowledge were more likely to trap birds, while locally-born people were less likely to
29 approve themselves, or to think others approved of, trapping. Those with more positive attitudes to
30 poisoning were more likely to admit to it, and these positive attitudes were found more in older non-
31 hunters. Rule knowledge was better in younger male hunters. These findings suggest that NGOs
32 aiming to reduce poisoning could enlist the support of hunters, while locally-born people may be
33 more receptive than others to working with NGOs to reduce trapping. These groups may be powerful
34 allies in reducing illegal behaviours in their communities.

35 **1. Introduction**

36 Conservation interventions commonly rely on the use of rules and regulations to alter human
37 behaviour (Keane et al. 2008). However rules are often rendered ineffective due to high rates of non-
38 compliance (Rowcliffe et al. 2004). Understanding rule-breaking involves investigating the complex
39 processes by which different factors, such as knowledge of the rules, attitudes and societal norms,
40 combine to impact behaviour (St John et al. 2013). Effective rules are designed based on an
41 understanding of the factors that affect compliance (Schlager 2005).

42 Despite having some of the strongest legal protection in the world (Stroud 2003), European birds
43 continue to suffer from illegal persecution that threatens their conservation status (Birdlife 2011). The
44 Portuguese Society for the Study of Birds (SPEA) has identified a number of illegal activities that
45 continue to threaten birds in Portugal, including trapping songbirds for consumption, poison use, and
46 shooting of raptors (Birdlife 2011). These activities are illegal under the European Birds Directive
47 (Council Directive 79/209/EEC) and the Berne Convention (19.IX.1979), both of which Portugal is a
48 signatory. Despite investigation of these behaviours in neighbouring Mediterranean countries
49 (Martínez-Abraín et al. 2013; Mateo-Tomás et al. 2012; Murgui 2014) there remains limited
50 information on the prevalence of these activities in Portugal (Birdlife 2011). Without data on
51 prevalence rates and the demographic groups involved it remains difficult to tackle these issues.

52 Identifying ineffective conservation rules requires understanding associated rates of non-compliance,
53 the true extent of which is difficult to quantify. Participants' fear of reprimand and legal sanction
54 makes investigation susceptible to bias due to low response rates and evasive answers (Gavin et al.
55 2010). Indirect questioning techniques have been developed to minimize these sources of bias and
56 have been applied to the investigation of conservation problems (Nuno and St John 2014). The
57 Unmatched Count Technique (UCT) (Droitcour et al. 1991) has been shown to work well when
58 investigating sensitive behaviours that threaten wildlife (Nuno et al. 2013). In the western Serengeti,
59 researchers using direct questions to assess prevalence of illegal bushmeat hunting reported
60 participation rates of between 8 (Kaltenborn et al. 2005) and 57 percent (Loibooki et al. 2002) of

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households, depending on the study. In the same area of the Serengeti, a UCT study reduced rates of evasive answers and suggested that 18% (SE 5) of people hunted bushmeat illegally (Nuno et al. 2013).

To intervene effectively, it is not only necessary to know the prevalence of behaviours, but also the characteristics of those involved, and what affects their personal choices to comply. Socio-psychological models have been advocated to investigate the complexities of the decision-making process in conservation (Schlüter et al. 2012; St John et al. 2010). The Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB) (Ajzen 1985), a well-researched theory of human behaviour, posits that an individual's behavioural intention is shaped by three aspects; their attitude towards a behaviour, their perceptions of social expectations (subjective norms), and the measure of control they perceive they have over performing a behaviour (perceived behavioural control; Fig. 1). Meta-analyses of studies using the TPB to investigate multi-domain (Armitage and Connor 2001) and pro-environmental (Bamberg and Moser 2007) behaviours illustrate the importance of these aspects in predicting behavioural intention, while highlighting the need to expand the TPB with additional aspects to increase its explanatory power.

The TPB has been applied to the investigation of compliance with rules regarding digital downloading (Wang and McClung 2011), drug use (Armitage et al. 1999), and recently to compliance with wildlife-protection laws (Shrestha et al. 2012). Normative compliance is influenced by what people regard as just and moral. The TPB reveals psychological aspects relevant to normative compliance in the form of personal attitudes and perceived social norms. The different aspects of the TPB framework vary in their influence, depending on the behaviour. For example, attitudes have been found to be of importance in relation to the conservation of forest habitat (Primmer and Karppinen 2010), natural resource use (Holmes 2003) and illegal poaching (St John et al. 2012), but not compliance with protected area restrictions (Aipanjiguly et al. 2003; Seeland et al. 2002). Subjective norms have been shown to influence conservation behaviours including compliance with fishery regulations (Gezelius 2004; Hatcher et al. 2000) and protected area restrictions (Aipanjiguly et al. 2003) and to vary in importance by behaviour and demographic group (Beedell and Rehman 2000;

88 Zubair and Garforth 2006). Identification of the most important behaviour-specific aspect(s) of the
89 TPB can inform the design of behaviour-change interventions (St John et al. 2013).

90 Instrumental compliance is the behaviour occurring in response to external factors, such as formal
91 rules and regulations. Knowledge of conservation rules may influence a person's behaviour and
92 compliance (Keane et al. 2011) but there is limited evidence as to the routes by which it affects
93 behavioural intention (whether directly, or through aspects of the TPB; Fig. 1). We use the TPB to
94 investigate the influence of attitudes, subjective norms, and rule knowledge on the decisions of
95 individuals to comply with wildlife-protection laws. Rather than explicitly testing the theory itself, we
96 chose key aspects of the TPB to frame the investigation of predictors of compliance (knowledge,
97 attitudes and subjective norms), similar to previous work (Steinmetz et al. 2014). We do not
98 investigate perceived behavioural control, because our study aims to explore the TPB aspects most
99 relevant to the public engagement activities of NGOs.

100 As well as understanding the predictors of non-compliance, it is also important to understand the
101 characteristics of rule-breakers. Hunting, including of birds, is an important part of rural culture in
102 Portugal, practiced by 8% of the adult male population (Apollonio et al. 2010), although the number
103 of younger hunters has been decreasing. Laying of poison in this region is associated with the control
104 of pest and predator species on agricultural and hunting land (Hernández and Margalida 2008). We
105 investigate three demographic characteristics: age, gender, and locality of birth, to test whether the
106 individuals associated with the illegal activities investigated are similar to the demographics typical of
107 the Portuguese hunting and agricultural industries i.e. the older, rural male population.

108 We apply the UCT to estimate prevalence rates and the TPB to identify important behaviour-specific
109 aspects of three illegal behaviours that threaten biodiversity in Portugal: the shooting of raptors,
110 trapping of passerines for consumption, and use of poison to control wild animals (Birdlife 2011).

111 Given the lack of data for validation purposes, we followed previous researchers' assumption that any
112 prevalence estimate produced by the UCT higher than one produced by direct questioning is
113 potentially more accurate (Dalton et al. 1994; Rayburn et al. 2003; Tsuchiya et al. 2007). We test the

UCT alongside direct questioning to assess whether it does estimate higher prevalence rates in this study system. To investigate predictors of the three behaviours, we apply the TPB to quantify the role of attitudes, subjective norms, and wildlife rule knowledge on individuals' self-reported behaviours under direct questioning.

2. Materials and Methods

2.1 Study system and population

Portugal supports 308 bird species, including eight globally threatened species including *Neophron percnopterus* (Egyptian Vulture) (Birdlife International 2014). Hunting, including of birds, is an important part of rural Portuguese culture, practiced by 8% of the adult male population (Apollonio et al. 2010). A general hunting licence is required to hunt game birds in Portugal, which is obtained by passing an examination on hunting capabilities and knowledge.

2.2 Data collection

Between 1st and 31st May 2012 interviews were conducted in two villages in the Alentejo, Portugal. Village identities are not reported to preserve respondents' anonymity. The two villages had demographic and livelihood profiles consistent with the region as a whole but were of interest due to the presence of an environmental organisation in one of the villages (Village A). This organisation had not worked on hunting or bird conservation, but was interested in our findings. Village B had a slightly larger population than A, and was the location for meetings of a local hunting association. 146 interviews were conducted in Portuguese, by the first author (AF) or local interpreters. Sampling was conducted opportunistically through household visits. In 48 households, two interviews were conducted with different household members simultaneously in separate rooms. These interviews were treated as independent data points, because decisions about the behaviours concerned are made by individuals not at household level. As a pilot methodological study, issues of non-independence could not be addressed with the sample size available; for this reason the study focus is on areas of future investigative potential rather than drawing general conclusions about the wider population. Research was conducted according to the Imperial College London research ethics policy.

140 2.3 Interview protocol

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3 141 Respondents were randomly assigned to a control or treatment group for the UCT using a coin toss.
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5 142 The questionnaire commenced with an explanation of the study purpose, the interviewer's
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7 143 independent student status, and assurances that participants' responses would be anonymous, at which
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9 144 point respondents could decline to proceed. Consenting respondents (146/147) were firstly asked
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11 145 several socio-demographic questions, then administered the UCT, followed by a series of attitudinal
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13 146 questions, a rule knowledge quiz, a series of perceived subjective norms questions, and finally the
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15 147 direct questions.

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19 148 To administer the UCT, respondents were shown four cards, one initial non-sensitive training card,
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21 149 and one card for each of the three behaviours investigated. For each card, respondents were asked to
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23 150 state a number in response to the question, "How many of these activities have you conducted in the
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25 151 past 12 months?". Each control card depicted four non-sensitive behaviours. Each treatment card
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27 152 contained the addition of one of the illegal behaviours under investigation. Cards were shown to all
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29 153 respondents in the same order. All non-sensitive items related to legal behaviours typical of the local
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31 154 population and were chosen based on the authors' knowledge of the study system. Items were
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33 155 grouped based on similarity of activity. For example, catching wild birds was grouped with other
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35 156 activities related to harvesting resources, such as picking olives. Laying of poison was grouped with
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37 157 other activities related to the use of chemical substances such as the use of insect repellent.

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43 158 Next, respondents were asked about their attitudes toward the three investigated behaviours by stating
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45 159 on a seven-point Likert scale (1="completely disagree" through 7="completely agree") their feelings
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47 160 towards the statements, "[Conducting specific sensitive behaviour] *would be useful*", and,
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49 161 "[Conducting specific sensitive behaviour] *would be enjoyable*".

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53 162 Next, respondents were shown a randomised series of cards depicting 13 Portuguese animal species
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55 163 accompanied by their locally-common names and asked to state whether killing of the species was
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57 164 '*always legal*', '*always illegal*', or '*legal only at certain times of the year*'.

165 Respondents were then asked about their perceived subjective norms by stating in a seven-point
166 Likert scale their feelings towards the statements “*The majority of people in this village* [conduct
167 specific sensitive behaviour]”, “*The majority of people important to me think that I should/I should*
168 *not* [conduct specific sensitive behaviour]”, and “*The approval of my family and friends is important*
169 *to me.*”.

170 Finally, respondents were asked the direct question, “Have you undertaken [sensitive behaviour] in
171 the past 12 months?”, and asked to respond with either “Yes”, “No”, “I don’t know”, or “I don’t want
172 to answer”. The order of asking about the three behaviours was randomised. A sample questionnaire,
173 full list of UCT behaviours, and full list of the species tested and protection status are provided in the
174 Electronic Supplementary Material.

175 **2.4 Statistical Analysis**

176 **2.4.1 Prevalence estimates**

177 UCT prevalence estimates were calculated as the mean difference between the sample means of the
178 UCT treatment (74) and control (72) group counts (i.e. number of self-reported activities). As
179 respondents were randomly assigned to the two groups, the difference in means represents the
180 estimated proportion of the treatment group engaging in the sensitive behaviour. Welch’s t-test was
181 employed to calculate the standard error of the estimates as the variance of the error term was likely to
182 be different between the two groups. Direct question prevalence estimates were calculated as the
183 proportion of respondents who answered “Yes” to the direct questions regarding participation in each
184 behaviour investigated.

185 **2.4.2 Multivariate analysis**

186 One drawback of the UCT is that large sample sizes are required to conduct multivariate analysis
187 using UCT counts. Unfortunately the sample size of this study was not sufficient to reliably conduct
188 multivariate analysis with the UCT data. Instead, multivariate analysis was used to identify predictors
189 of two illegal behaviours based on the direct question data. TPB variables were used as predictor

190 variables, as well the demographic variables which were judged to be of importance. Due to the small
191 number of respondents answering affirmatively to the direct question regarding shooting of raptors
192 this behaviour was omitted from multivariate analysis. Those answering positively to direct questions
193 are a biased sub-sample of those who have actually undertaken the behaviour (hence the need for
194 indirect questioning for accurate prevalence estimation). Therefore, the results of this analysis are an
195 indication of who is prepared to admit to the behaviour rather than of who is actually undertaking it.

196 Data were visually assessed for normality. The two variables related to attitude were combined to
197 generate a composite score, and similarly for the two variables related subjective norms. Composite
198 scores were not checked for internal consistency as they were a product of just two variables each.
199 These two composite scores, along with the answer to whether others' approval mattered to the
200 respondent, were binomially transformed, due to their positive skew. To estimate the correlates of
201 behaviour, generalised linear models (GLMs) were fitted with a binomial error structure and a logit
202 link function, with respondents' direct question answers as binomial dependent variables. Where TPB
203 variables were included in the top models, their predictors were investigated using GLMs fitted with
204 binomial error structure and a logit link function, with composite attitude, social norm, and approval
205 scores as binomial dependent variables. Residuals of all models were checked with QQ-plots and
206 found to be Normal.

207 Knowledge scores were computed as the total of correctly answered questions regarding the legal
208 protection of 13 Portuguese animal species, and arc-sine transformed for normality. GLMs fitted with
209 a Gaussian error structure were employed to model knowledge scores against demographic and TPB
210 variables. Respondents' ability to correctly classify species' protection status (game, protected,
211 unregulated) was compared using Wilcoxon paired-tests for proportional data.

212 In all multivariate analyses, the relative importance of predictor variables was computed as the sum of
213 the Akaike weights (based on the Akaike information criterion, AIC) for the variables included in the
214 averaged models (Burnham & Anderson 2002). GLMs were fitted in R v.2.15.1 (R Development Core
215 Team 2011). Parameter estimates were averaged across models with $\Delta AIC < 4$, and the corrected AIC

216 was used to select and rank the most parsimonious models using the MuMIn package v.1.7.7 (Bartoń
217 2012). Details of predictor variables and models considered are given in the Electronic Supplementary
218 Material.

219 **3. Results**

220 **3.1 Sample characteristics**

221 More men (60%) were interviewed than women (40%). The treatment group contained significantly
222 more men (Treatment: 70% Control: 49%, $\chi^2(1)=6.24, p=0.013$) and non-significantly more hunters
223 (T: 32% C: 18%, $\chi^2(1)=3.26, p=0.071$) than the control group. The groups did not differ by age (χ^2
224 (7)=8.16, $p=0.32$), village ($\chi^2(1)=0.055, p=0.81$), knowledge (two-sample t-test (144)=-0.15, $p=$
225 0.56), or locality of birth ($\chi^2(1)=0.99, p=0.32$).

226 **3.2 Prevalence estimates**

227 UCT prevalence estimates suggest that trapping birds for consumption was conducted by
228 approximately 47% (15 SE) and shooting of raptors by approximately 14% (11 SE) of respondents
229 during the 12 months prior to interview, 31% and 12% higher than direct question estimates
230 respectively (Fig. 2). In the case of poison use, the UCT failed to produce a valid prevalence estimate,
231 estimating a negative prevalence rate for the behaviour (Fig. 2).

232 **3.3 Correlates of trapping and poison use behaviours**

233 Due to the small sample size of this study, the direct question results were used to investigate
234 determinants of the illegal behaviours rather than the results of the UCT, which limits inference to the
235 characteristics of people prepared to admit to the behaviour in question. Individuals admitting to
236 trapping birds for consumption in answer to a direct question tended to be male hunters who scored
237 highly on the knowledge quiz (Table. 1). Those admitting to trapping were more likely to come from
238 village B. Three variables from the TPB, relating to social norms, social approval and individual
239 attitudes, were also positively but weakly related to admitting to trapping (Table 1). The admission of
240 using poison to control populations of wild animals was strongly predicted by an individual's attitude

241 towards the behaviour, with individuals with a positive attitude being more likely to admit to
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2 242 engaging in it (Table. 1).
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243 **3.4 Correlates of underlying constructs affecting trapping and poison use**

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8 244 We investigated the correlates of TPB aspects that were included in the minimum model set for
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10 245 trapping birds (attitudes, approval and social norms). The main correlate of all three aspects was
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12 246 respondents' location of birth (Table. 2). Locally born respondents held a more negative attitude
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14 247 towards trapping and perceived it to be less socially acceptable, while also attributing less importance
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16 248 to the approval of others. Older hunters perceived trapping to be less socially-acceptable, while male
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18 249 respondents attributed greater importance to the approval of others. We investigated the correlates of
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20 250 attitudes surrounding poison use, as attitude was an important predictor in the minimum model set.
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22 251 Individuals who held a positive attitude towards poison use tended not to hold a hunting licence, to be
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24 252 older, and scored highly on the knowledge quiz (Table. 2).
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30 253 **3.5 Knowledge of wildlife laws**

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32 254 Respondents correctly classified on average 86% of protected and unregulated species and 65% of
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34 255 game species. Game species were correctly classified significantly less often than protected
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36 256 (W=968.5, $p<0.001$, paired-test) and unregulated species (W=1163.5, $p<0.001$, paired-test).
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38 257 Knowledge of wildlife laws was a relatively important correlate of admitting to trapping birds for
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40 258 consumption and was strongly associated with age, gender, and possession of a hunting licence
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42 259 (Table. 3). Younger male respondents scored highest in the quiz, while respondents in possession of a
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44 260 hunting permit scored higher than those without (W=1063, $p<0.001$). Respondents from village B
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46 261 performed better than respondents from village A, and locally born respondents performed better than
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54 263 **4. Discussion**

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56 264 Here we use two socio-psychological approaches, the UCT and the TPB, to investigate illegal
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58 265 wildlife-threatening behaviours. The UCT revealed that trapping birds for consumption remains
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266 widely practiced in our sample, and that a smaller number of people continue to shoot raptor species.

267 Our analysis indicated that the characteristics of self-confessed rule-breakers were behaviour-specific.

268 A positive attitude towards poisoning was found to be the most important correlate of admitting to

269 poison use whereas men from one of the villages and those with a good knowledge of game laws were

270 more likely to admit to trapping birds for consumption. We also showed that the demographic groups

271 who approved of these behaviours differed. Those who felt trapping was socially acceptable and held

272 a positive attitude towards this behaviour tended to be from outside the area, while those admitting to

273 poisoning were less likely to be registered hunters.

274 There currently exists only limited and anecdotal information on the prevalence of shooting, trapping

275 and poisoning of birds in Portugal (Birdlife 2011). Our results reveal that Portuguese bird populations

276 continue to be threatened by these illegal activities, and that the demographics of offenders differ

277 between the activities. Ongoing initiatives include a broad national assessment of illegal bird

278 persecution behaviours in Portugal which has focused on law enforcement records, advertisements in

279 online platforms, reports on injured, sick and dead animals, and direct observation reports by the

280 public (Leitão et al. 2014). Our results highlight the need for further investigation into this topic using

281 techniques from social science to understand the attitudes and characteristics of offenders. There is

282 also a need for greater conservation attention on these behaviours in Portugal, and in the other

283 Mediterranean countries where these behaviours remain widespread.

284 The characteristics of respondents admitting to catching birds for consumption were congruent with a

285 formal association to hunting. This finding suggests that a targeted conservation intervention to tackle

286 this behaviour in the region should focus resources on changing behaviours of the hunting

287 community. Respondents admitting to using poison to control populations of wild animals were

288 strongly predicted by expressing a positive attitude towards this behaviour and tended not to be

289 hunters. Examples of conservation behaviour-change interventions elsewhere suggest that members of

290 local hunting organisations are likely to influence attitudes and subjective norms of the local

291 community more than external environmental organisations (Heberlein 2012). This, together with the

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292 importance of holding a hunting licence as a correlate in our models for knowledge and attitudes,
293 suggests that Portuguese hunters are potential partners for organisations wishing to tackle poison use
294 in this region. A partnership between hunting associations and *Programa Antídoto*, a national
295 platform incorporating a range of organisations dedicated to tackling this issue, could focus on
296 influencing the attitudes of non-hunters towards the use of poison in Portugal. Successful partnership
297 on this issue may then make it easier to work with hunters to reduce their trapping of songbirds for
298 consumption.

299 Our results suggest that the UCT was effective in reducing the response bias associated with
300 investigation of two illegal activities, but not for poison use. It is unclear why this might be in the
301 absence of more detailed study. The confidence interval of the UCT overlaps both zero and the
302 estimate of the direct question, suggesting that people were answering the sensitive card in a strategic
303 manner to avoid revealing their behaviours. One explanation may be that poison use is a highly
304 sensitive behaviour because of its indiscriminate nature; there were anecdotal claims that domestic
305 pets had been killed by poisoning in the villages and that this was a source of conflict between people.
306 The direct question regarding poison use noticeably elicited the most evasive answers, with one
307 respondent refusing to respond and two respondents appearing to give false negative answers. It has
308 been argued that conservationists should take advantage of social taboos by using them in partnership
309 with formal rules, involving cooperation between conservationists and local communities (Colding
310 and Folke 2001). This supports our argument for a partnership between the Portuguese hunting and
311 conservation communities to tackle poison use, with hunters strengthening the social taboo of the use
312 of poison and acting as advocates for conservation.

313 Alternatively, it may also be that the non-sensitive behaviours on this card were not well aligned with
314 the sensitive behaviour, revealing it too clearly as being an outlier. This experience highlights the
315 limitations even of indirect questioning methods when the behaviour concerned is seen as particularly
316 shameful, when prevalences are relatively low and sample sizes small.

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317 Unfortunately we did not have the sample size to be able to use the UCT results in the TPB model. A
318 larger sample size would have allowed this work to be extended to use the UCT estimates in
319 multivariate analyses including socio-psychological constructs, thereby producing an integrated
320 approach to investigating illegal behaviours. We propose that such an integrated approach could
321 facilitate the investigation of illegal and socially-unacceptable behaviours that threaten biodiversity,
322 and could be used to supplement SPEA's ongoing investigation into illegal activities in Portugal. Our
323 results suggest that the illegal trapping of birds for consumption, use of poison to control populations
324 of wild animals, and shooting of raptor species continue to be practiced in Portugal. Future
325 conservation efforts aimed at combating these activities require a greater understanding of the
326 characteristics of the demographic groups undertaking each activity, and of the attitudes and
327 perceived subjective norms which they hold. Conservation interventions designed to alter human
328 behaviours must take these differences into account and should tailor behaviour-changing
329 interventions to specific activities and target groups.

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336 College's Grand Challenges in Ecosystems and the Environment initiative. This study complies with
337 the current laws of the countries in which it was performed. The authors declare that they have no
338 conflict of interest.

339 **6. Electronic Supplementary Material**

340 The Electronic Supplementary Material contains Portuguese and English versions of the study
341 questionnaire, UCT protocol and example set of UCT cards, list of the species included in the

342 knowledge quiz and their protection status, and a summary of the predictor variables used in the
343 multivariate analysis and details of all models considered.

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36 461 **8. Figures**

37
38 462 **Fig. 1** Adapted model of the theory of planned behaviour which includes knowledge of conservation
39
40 463 rules as a predictor of behavioural intention, attitudes, and subjective norms. Knowledge may affect
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42 464 several aspects so we consider multiple pathways. Shading indicates the aspect not present in Ajzen's
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44 465 (1985) original model. Dashed lines indicate relationships that were investigated in this study
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49 466 **Fig. 2** Prevalence rates (+/- standard error) estimated by the UCT and direct questions for illegal
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51 467 trapping of birds for consumption, shooting of raptors, and use of poison in the villages in the 12
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53 468 months prior to the study
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56 469 **9. Tables**

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470 **Table. 1** Parameter estimates obtained from the averaged generalised linear models for answers to
471 direct question about (a) trapping birds for consumption, and (b) using poison. Variables of
472 importance <40% omitted

473 **Table. 2** Parameter estimates obtained from the averaged generalised linear models for : (a) perceived
474 subjective norms of trapping birds for consumption, (b) attitudes towards trapping birds for
475 consumption, (c) respondent's stated importance of approval, and (d) attitudes towards poison use.
476 Variables of importance <40% omitted

477 **Table. 3** Parameter estimates obtained from the full generalised linear model of knowledge of wildlife
478 laws. Variables of importance <40% omitted

Figure 1

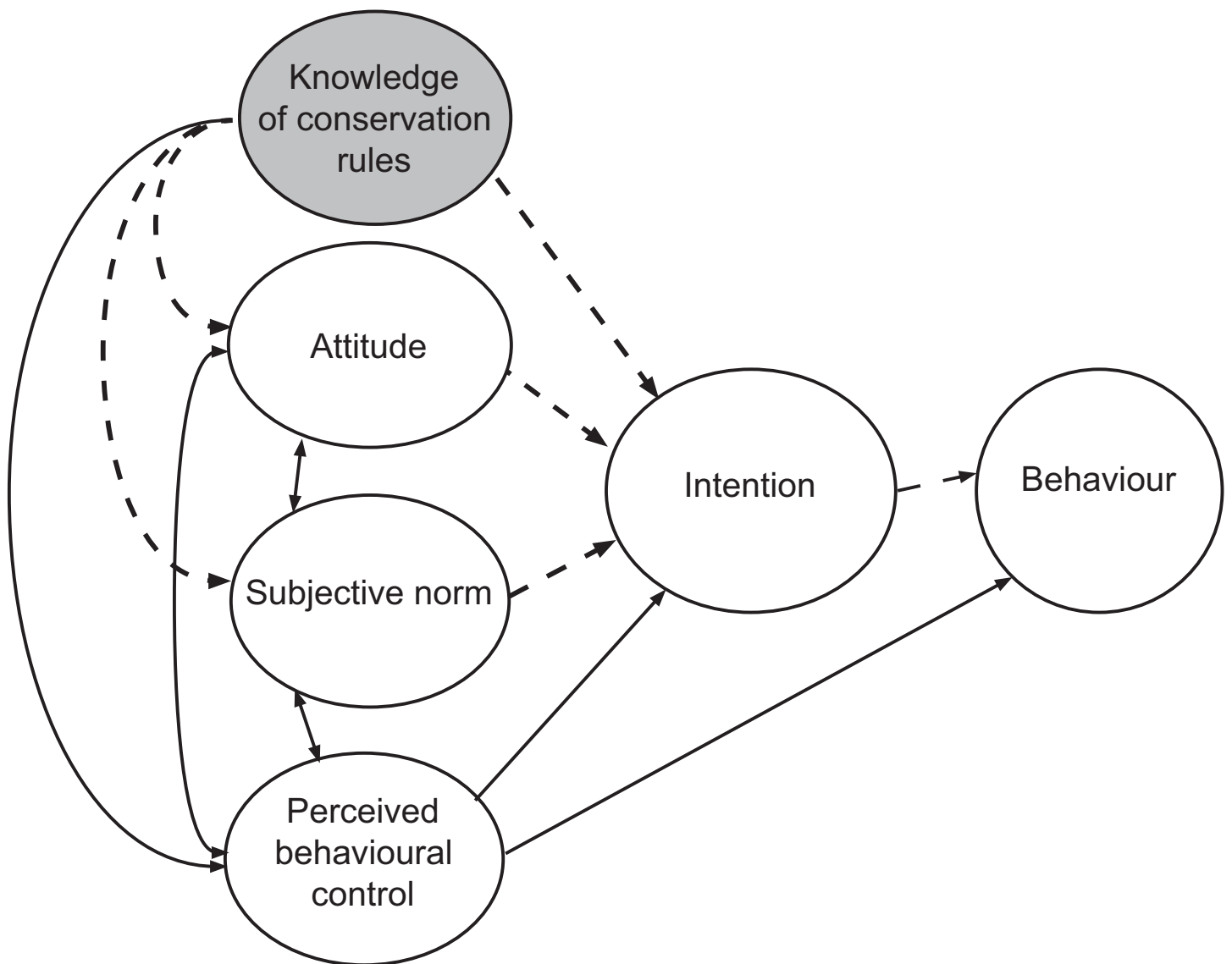


Figure 2

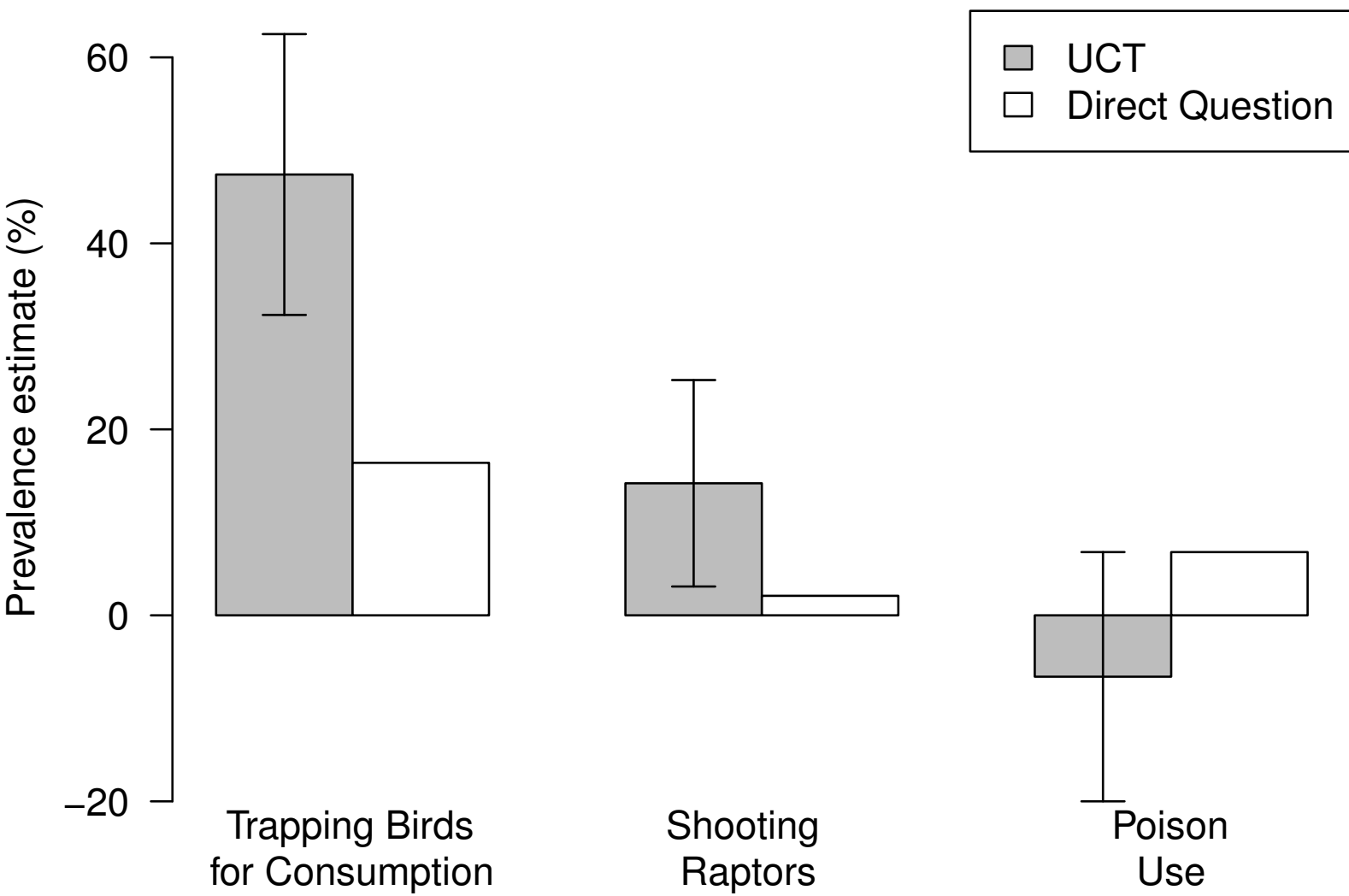


Table 1

Parameter	Estimate	S.E.	z-value	Relative variable importance
<i>(a) Model of predictors of answers to direct questions about trapping birds for consumption</i>				
<i>Intercept</i>	-7.470	2.051	3.622	1
<i>Gender: Male</i>	2.630	1.108	2.353	1
<i>Knowledge</i>	2.358	1.131	2.069	0.85
<i>Village: B</i>	1.169	0.555	2.088	0.83
<i>Hunting permit: Yes</i>	0.949	0.597	1.578	0.54
<i>Social norm</i>	0.939	0.627	1.486	0.52
<i>Approval</i>	0.797	0.604	1.310	0.47
<i>Attitude</i>	0.822	0.588	1.386	0.46
<i>(b) Model of predictors of answers to direct questions about poison use</i>				
<i>Intercept</i>	-4.623	1.352	3.395	1
<i>Attitude</i>	2.664	0.833	3.170	1

Table 2

Parameter	Estimate	S.E.	z-value	Relative variable importance
<i>(a) Model of predictors of perceived subjective norms of trapping birds for consumption</i>				
<i>Intercept</i>	2.728	0.928	2.918	1
<i>Local Born: Yes</i>	-2.104	0.771	2.704	1
<i>Age</i>	-0.015	0.010	1.487	0.52
<i>Hunting permit: Yes</i>	-0.520	0.442	1.168	0.42
<i>(b) Model of predictors of attitudes towards trapping birds for consumption</i>				
<i>Intercept</i>	1.677	0.753	2.211	1
<i>Local Born: Yes</i>	-1.291	0.586	2.182	0.97
<i>(c) Model of predictors of respondents stated importance of approval</i>				
<i>Intercept</i>	0.839	0.624	1.336	1
<i>Local Born: Yes</i>	-1.253	0.484	2.567	1
<i>Gender: Male</i>	0.495	0.379	1.296	0.46
<i>(d) Model of predictors of attitudes towards poison use</i>				
<i>Intercept</i>	-2.538	1.374	1.839	1
<i>Hunting Permit: Yes</i>	-1.748	0.678	2.560	1
<i>Age</i>	0.023	0.012	1.969	0.83
<i>Knowledge</i>	1.387	0.931	1.477	0.52

Table 3

Parameter	Estimate	S.E.	z-value	Relative variable importance
<i>Intercept</i>	1.083	0.064	16.746	1
<i>Age</i>	-0.002	0.001	2.527	1
<i>Hunting Permit: Yes</i>	0.195	0.052	3.661	1
<i>Gender: Male</i>	0.114	0.043	2.582	1
<i>Village: B</i>	0.069	0.042	1.624	0.57
<i>Local Born: Yes</i>	0.065	0.052	1.240	0.43

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