# AFRICAN WILD DOG DEMOGRAPHY IN AN ECOSYSTEM WITH REDUCED PREY AND DOMINANT COMPETITORS

by

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# ABSTRACT

Conservation of competitively subordinate carnivores presents a difficult challenge because they are limited by dominant competitors. Prey depletion is one of the leading causes of large carnivore decline worldwide, but little is known about the net effect of prey depletion on subordinate carnivores when their dominant competitors are also reduced. African wild dogs are often limited by high densities of dominant competitors, particularly lions. We measured African wild dog density and survival, using mark-recapture models fit to 8 years of data from 425 known individuals in the Greater Kafue Ecosystem, Zambia. The GKE is affected by prey depletion, particularly of large herbivores, and thus the density of lions is significantly lower than ecologically comparable ecosystems. Counter to expectations from mesopredator release theory, wild dog density in GKE was far lower than comparable ecosystems with higher lion and prey density, though annual survival rates were comparable to large and stable populations. Average pack size was small and home range size was among the largest recorded. Our results show that low lion density did not competitively release the GKE wild dog population and we infer that the low density of wild dogs was a product of low prey density. Our results suggest that there is an optimal ratio of prey and competitors at which wild dogs achieve their highest densities. This finding has immediate implications for the conservation of the endangered African wild dog, and broad implications for the conservation of subordinate species affected by resource depletion and intraguild competition.

# CHAPTER ONE

# INTRODUCTION TO THESIS

## Background Information & Overview of Thesis

Large carnivore populations around the world have dramatically declined in the last century and continue to face serious threats due to a myriad of anthropogenic pressures (Estes et al., 2011; Ripple et al., 2014). Large carnivores occupy niche levels at the top of the food chain and are directly influenced by bottom-up effects from lower tropic levels, and intraguild competition. The expansion of the super-predator (*Homo sapiens*) to almost every ecosystem and continent on the planet, has led to an introduction of competition and subsequent direct persecution of large carnivores across the globe (Pardi and Smith, 2016). Large body size, need for large prey-base, and perceived threats to safety, have put large carnivores in direct competition with the competitively superior homo sapiens making them historically vulnerable to direct persecution, reduction, and extirpation (Pardi and Smith, 2016; Vitousek et al., 1997). Today, these already reduced carnivore populations continue to face a myriad of human threats including: habitat loss, human wildlife conflict, over-exploitation, disease, and prey depletion (Crooks et al., 2011; Ripple et al., 2014; Wolf and Ripple, 2017, 2016). The disappearance and reduction of large carnivores can have cascading effects through tropic levels which threaten the functional stability of many ecosystems (Berger et al., 2001; Estes et al., 2011). Not only do carnivores supply an invaluable source of ecosystem services; they also hold significant importance for many cultures. Local wildlife economies of which large carnivores are often the focus, often have lower unemployment rates, higher household incomes, and increased economic stability throughout many regions of the world (Duffield et al., 2006; Lindsey et al., 2005; Rasker and Hackman, 1996).

Large carnivore guilds can have complex interactions between competing carnivores that occupy the same guild which can induce species level effects on spatial-temporal dynamics, resource selection, demography, and energetics (Creel, 2001; Creel and Creel, 1996; Dröge et al., 2017; Durant, 1998; Gallagher et al., 2017; Gorman et al., 1998; Polis and Holt, 1992). Competitive effects within the large carnivore guild are rarely equal between species, with most systems having dominant and subordinate competitors, of which top-down effects from dominant competitors disproportionally effect subordinate carnivores (Caro and Stoner, 2003). For example, cheetah (*Acinonyx jubatus*) hunt during crepuscular hours and generally avoid hunting at night (especially females) in order to avoid competitive interactions with the dominant African lion (*Panthera leo*), and spotted hyena (*Crocuta crocuta*) (Durant, 1998; Hayward and Slotow, 2009); and Asiatic dholes (*Cuon alpinus*) spatially avoid areas within ecosystems that are heavily used by tigers (Panthera tigris) (Steinmetz et al., 2013).

Populations of subordinate carnivores are often strongly affected by top-down competitive effects of dominant competitors due to direct predation and fear-induced behavioral modifications that can limit resource acquisition (Ritchie and Johnson, 2009). Populations of subordinate carnivores therefore often occur at lower densities than their dominant counterparts in areas of co-occurrence (Fedriani et al., 2000; Palomares and Caro, 1999). Conservation of subordinate carnivores is challenging because they generally have large home-ranges, occur at low densities, and are generally more extinction prone than their dominant counterparts in many ecosystems due to their lower population densities (Creel, 2001).

Reducing or eliminating dominant competitors from an ecosystem often increases subordinate competitor densities and is known as mesopredator release (Creel and Creel, 1996; Linnell and Strand, 2000; Ritchie and Johnson, 2009; Trewby et al., 2008). This phenomenon has been well tested across diverse ecosystems and taxa, however strength of meso-predator release and circumstances that enable it, can be inconsistent (Jachowski et al., 2020). For example, In Australia, evidence of mesopredator release is non-existent in experimental designs that eliminated the dominant dingo (*Canis familiaris*) from large tracts of land over multiple years (Castle et al., 2021). And in Zambia, the reduction of dominant competitors show no detectible release of the subordinate leopard (*Panthera pardus*) (Vinks et al., 2021a). Inconsistencies in the strength of mespredator release can be attributed to differences in taxonomic life-history traits of both the dominant and subordinate competitor, prey selection, and other ecological complexities (Jachowski et al., 2020). Reductions of dominant competitors are often caused by anthropogenic disturbances which can affect multiple trophic levels in complex ways (Estes et al., 2011). One such disturbance that is increasing throughout much of the developing world is prey depletion (Ripple et al., 2015), which has been shown to have considerable negative effects on dominant competitors that are directly linked to prey density (Ramakrishnan et al., 1999; Vinks et al., 2021b; Wolf and Ripple, 2016). Little is known of the effects of prey depletion on subordinate competitors; on one hand, positive effects of reduced dominant competitor density could release subordinate competitor populations, on the other hand, negative effects of reduced prey density could outweigh the benefits of reduced dominant competitors.

Anthropogenic pressures that affect dominant competitors within the large carnivore guild may not have the same effects on subordinate competitors. Habitat fragmentation can reduce connectivity between populations of all members of the carnivore guild with differing effects based on the species' life history traits (Creel et al., 2020; Crooks et al., 2011; Wang et al., 2015). Disease can affect parts of the large carnivore guild but not others, for example rabies can have severe population effects on African wild dogs, but does not affect hyenas or lions (Berentsen et al., 2013). Reductions of available prey species could also affect guild members in differing ways, especially if rates of prey off-take differ among prey species (Creel et al., 2018). Within fully functioning ecosystems, subordinate and dominant competitors occupy different niche space with larger more dominant competitors generally focusing on large prey items and subordinates focusing on medium to smaller prey items (Frame, 1986; Hayward et al., 2006; Hayward and Kerley, 2005; Mills and Biggs, 1993; Mitchell et al., 1965). If rates of offtake differ among prey size-classes, then this could have disproportionate effects on certain species within the large carnivore guild (Creel et al., 2018).

Large-carnivore conservation throughout the world is focused on a myriad of anthropogenically induced ecological challenges (Ripple et al., 2014). Over-exploitation, human wildlife conflict, and disease are topics that have been studied extensively in many ecosystems, but the effects of prey-depletion on large carnivores has received less attention as it is a fairly recent emerging threat worldwide (Wolf and Ripple, 2016). In addition, historical approaches have focused on single-species studies of which the species was often a dominant competitor within a large carnivore guild (Jachowski et al., 2020). Recent research has broadened the focus to entire large carnivore communities, but impacts of anthropogenic disturbances on subordinate carnivores tend to be less well understood because of their low population densities and the ecological complexities of their competitive limitations by dominant competitors. Additionally, very few studies have investigated impacts of prey-depletion and subsequent reduction of dominant competitors on subordinate carnivore populations.

My research aims to describe the demographic status of a subordinate carnivore, the African wild dog (*Lycaon pictus*), within a system that has a documented reduction of both prey and lions. I compare the demographic signature of my study population, to demographic signatures of wild dog populations in systems that are ecologically similar and hold intact prey and predator communities. This research provides the first baseline demographic estimates of density, age & sex specific survival rates, reproduction & recruitment, home-range size & overlap, yearly population growth rates, and average pack size, for wild dogs in the Greater Kafue Ecosystem (GKE). In addition, this research provides inferences on the effects of prey depletion on a subordinate social carnivore, and the competitive release (or lack thereof) of a subordinate carnivore when both dominant competitors and prey are reduced.

The African wild dog is a highly endangered canid endemic to Sub-Saharan Africa that weighs roughly 18 - 28kg and stands 63 - 75 cm at the shoulder (Smithers, 1983). Wild dogs are hypercarnivores, considered to be a member of the African large-carnivore guild in which they primarily compete with cheetah, leopard, African lion, and spotted hyena. Wild dogs are obligate communal breeders and occur in packs of 2-27 adults and yearlings (Creel and Creel, 2002). Generally, a single alpha pair breed and produce a single litter of pups on average numbering 7.9 per litter (Creel and Creel, 2002) but reaching up to 15 (personal obs.). The entire pack contributes to raising, protecting, and feeding the pups. Adult and yearling pack members regurgitate food at the den for pups and allow pups to eat first on kills, they also take turns "babysitting" pups when the rest of the pack goes off to hunt and aid in defense pups from predators (Malcolm and Marten, 1982).

Wild dogs provide a good opportunity to study the effects of prey depletion and suppression by dominant competitors because they are affected by interference and exploitive competition from lions and spotted hyenas (Creel, 2001; Creel and Creel, 1996; Mills and Gorman, 1997). Lions kill wild dogs, and are usually the leading natural source of adult mortality within ecosystems (Creel and Creel, 2002, 1996; Groom et al., 2016; Mills and Biggs, 1993). Hyenas engage in kleptoparisitism by stealing food from wild dogs, which has high energetic costs for packs and individuals (Creel and Creel, 1996; Estes and Goddard, 1967; Fanshawe and Fitzgibbon, 1993; Gorman et al., 1998). Competitive limitations from dominant competitors result in consistently lower population densities than dominant competitors (Creel and Creel, 2002, 1996; Fanshawe et al., 1991; Mills and Gorman, 1997). Competition with dominant competitors can be so intense that wild dog populations can be locally extirpated from open, homogenous ecosystems such as Ngorongoro crater, Serengeti, and Liuwa plains ecosystems when dominant competitor densities attain their highest levels (Creel and Creel, 1996; Dröge et al., 2017; J. R. Ginsberg et al., 1995). Much research has focused on wild dogs' ability to cope with their dominant counterparts by utilizing the "fringe" areas within ecosystems where prey and competitor densities are both low (Creel, 2001; Creel and Creel, 1996; Darnell et al., 2014; Dröge et al., 2017; Gorman et al., 1998; Mills and Gorman, 1997; Swanson et al., 2014). Spatial avoidance of dominant competitors, particularly lions, is so strong that wild dog occupancy is negatively associated with preferred prey density (Mills and Gorman, 1997). The massive home-ranges of wild dogs incorporate large areas of refuge (low predator and prey densities) where wild dogs escape intraguild competition, and they increase use of these areas during times of increased vulnerability such as denning (Groom et al., 2016; Jackson et al., 2014). The cursorial nature of wild dogs and ability to travel long distances over short temporal intervals likely contributes to the wild dogs ability to persist in areas with lower prey density and serves as a mechanism to coexist with dominant competitors (Mills and Gorman, 1997).

Wild dogs face a large number of anthropogenic threats in addition to natural threats imposed by their dominant competitors, including disease transmitted from domestic dogs (Berentsen et al., 2013; Creel and Creel, 2002; J. R. Ginsberg et al., 1995; Kat et al., 1996), roadkill (Fanshawe et al., 1991, personal obs), snare mortality as a result of bycatch (J R Ginsberg et al., 1995; Van Heerden et al., 1995) direct persecution (Creel and Creel, 2002), habitat loss (Fanshawe et al., 1991; Woodroffe and Ginsberg, 1999), and prey depletion. Of the threats listed, prey depletion has garnered the least amount of research investigating effects on wild dog populations. Wild dogs have been shown to persist on small prey species, but only when the small prey is abundant and large dominant competitors are reduced (Woodroffe et al., 2007).

This research will be the first to describe effects of prey depletion on the demography of a wild dog population, while also describing the effects on demography from a reduction of dominant competitors. The Greater Kafue Ecosystem (GKE) located in central Zambia, provides a natural experiment to test these effects. Decades of poaching pressure in the GKE have led to reductions of prey densities across all major prey species (Overton et al., 2017; Vinks et al., 2020), a subsequent reduction in lion density (Vinks et al., 2021b) and niche compression within the large carnivore guild (Creel et al., 2018). This study is not intended to establish population trend over time, because there are no previous population estimates for GKE wild dogs published. While we do provide yearly population growth rates within our study period, we do not make substantial inferences about the historical demographics of the Kafue wild dog population. Rather, this study serves as the first recorded estimate of population density and associated demographic vital rates from which future studies can be based upon. Additionally, this study is not intended to establish mechanisms of limitation or population release from prey depletion or dominant competitors; rather, we want to establish whether this population is suffering from effects of prey depletion or released due to reductions of lions. These results will provide valuable insight for the conservation and management of wild dogs in prey depleted systems across their ranges, and more broadly, for subordinate carnivore populations that are being affected by prey depletion (an increasing conservation concern) across the globe.

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# CHAPTER TWO

# LOW APEX CARNIVORE DENSITY DOES NOT RELEASE A SUBORDINATE COMPETITOR WHEN DRIVEN BY PREY DEPLETION

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## Abstract

Conservation of competitively subordinate carnivores presents a difficult challenge because they are limited by dominant competitors. Prey depletion is one of the leading causes of large carnivore decline worldwide, but little is known about the net effect of prey depletion on subordinate carnivores when their dominant competitors are also reduced. African wild dogs are often limited by high densities of dominant competitors, particularly lions. We measured African wild dog density and survival, using mark-recapture models fit to 8 years of data from 425 known individuals in the Greater Kafue Ecosystem, Zambia. The GKE is affected by prey depletion, particularly of large herbivores, and thus the density of lions is significantly lower than ecologically comparable ecosystems. Counter to expectations from mesopredator release theory, wild dog density in GKE was far lower than comparable ecosystems with higher lion and prey density, though annual survival rates were comparable to large and stable populations. Average pack size was small and home range size was among the largest recorded. Our results show that low lion density did not competitively release the GKE wild dog population and we infer that the low density of wild dogs was a product of low prey density. Our results suggest that there is an optimal ratio of prey and competitors at which wild dogs achieve their highest densities. This finding has immediate implications for the conservation of the endangered African wild dog, and broad implications for the conservation of subordinate species affected by resource depletion and intraguild competition.

### ***Keywords***

Intraguild competition, Large carnivore, Interspecific competition, African wild dog, Prey depletion, Kafue National Park

## Introduction

Large carnivores are experiencing rapid population declines and range reduction, with losses accelerating across the globe (Estes et al., 2011). For most carnivores, these declines are driven by a combination of habitat loss, prey depletion, over-exploitation and direct persecution in response to human conflict (Crooks et al., 2011; Ripple et al., 2014). Many carnivore guilds are strongly influenced by interspecific competition, and the conservation of subordinate competitors is further complicated by the limiting effects of competition with larger, dominant competitors (Creel, 2001; Fedriani et al., 2000; Gorman et al., 1998; Linnell and Strand, 2000; Palomares and Caro, 1999). Understanding how interspecific competition limits subordinate carnivore presence, abundance, ecology and behavior is of importance for management and conservation planning for many species (Dröge et al., 2017; Palomares and Caro, 1999; Steinmetz et al., 2013). Both dominant and subordinate competitors are affected by widespread declines in the densities of their large herbivore prey (Creel et al., 2019), but the demographic responses of subordinate carnivores to decreased densities of both prey and dominant competitors are not well described. A reduction in prey density typically leads to a reduction in predator density, but if dominant competitors are strongly affected by the loss of prey, there may be an offsetting benefit for subordinate competitors, and we know little about the net effect.

Large herbivore populations are declining across much of sub-Saharan Africa as a consequence of habitat loss and high levels of illegal offtake (Lindsey et al., 2013; Ripple et al., 2015; Western et al., 2009; Wolf and Ripple, 2016). The densities of dominant competitors such as lions (*Panthera leo*) are strongly correlated to prey density (Van Orsdol et al., 1985), and thus decrease in response to prey depletion (Vinks et al., 2021b). The survival rates and population densities of subordinate competitors such as the African wild dog (*Lycaon pictus*) and cheetah (*Acinonyx jubatus*) are less tightly correlated with prey density, but are negatively correlated with the density of dominant competitors (Creel and Creel, 1996; Kelly et al., 1998; Mills and Biggs, 1993; Mills and Gorman, 1997; Swanson et al., 2014). The expected effect on subordinate competitor populations from a decline of both prey and competitors is not entirely clear, and has immediate conservation implications. (Creel et al., 2018).

African wild dogs provide a good opportunity to study the effects of resource depletion on subordinate competitors that are limited by interference and exploitative competition. Wild dogs are limited by interactions with lions and spotted hyenas (*Crocuta crocuta*) in many ecosystems through the effects of kleptoparasitism and intraguild predation (Broekhuis et al., 2013; Creel and Creel, 1996; Fanshawe and Fitzgibbon, 1993; Gorman et al., 1998; Mills and Gorman, 1997; Speakman et al., 2015; Swanson et al., 2014). As a result, wild dogs consistently select areas with low lion density (Dröge et al., 2017; Estes and Goddard, 1967; Mills and Gorman, 1997; Vanak et al., 2013), and populations respond positively to low densities of lions and hyenas (Creel and Creel, 2002; Pole, 2000). Wild dogs have historically occurred at low density (Selous, 1908) and they never attain population densities comparable to their dominant competitors (Creel and Creel, 1996). They have long been considered endangered by the IUCN, with fewer than 6000 individuals remaining (Fanshawe et al., 1991; Woodroffe and Sillero-Zubiri, 2020), though there is considerable uncertainty about this number and how it may be changing.

Central Zambia's Greater Kafue Ecosystem (GKE), comprised of Kafue National Park (KNP) and surrounding Game Management Areas (GMAs), is thought to hold Zambia's second largest wild dog population. The GKE comprises 13% of the Kavango Zambezi Transfrontier Conservation Area (KAZA TFCA) which might hold the largest remaining wild dog population in Africa, if the protected areas it encompasses function as one population. The GKE has long been considered a potential stronghold for wild dogs in both Zambia and the KAZA TFCA (DNPW, 2019) but no rigorous estimates of population size have previously been available (Fanshawe et al., 1991). Low prey density as a result of bushmeat poaching is well documented in the GKE (Lindsey et al., 2013; Overton et al., 2017; Vinks et al., 2020) and has altered the diets of large carnivores, particularly lions, with an array of potential ecological consequences (Creel et al., 2018). The lion population is now at a lower density than expected for a miombo ecosystem with the rainfall of the GKE (1020 mm/year) (Vinks et al., 2021b), and the long-term decline of large prey species in the GKE has led to niche compression, prey-base homogenization, and greatly increased dietary overlap between lions and other large carnivores including wild dogs (Creel et al., 2018). Historically, the GKE has apparently not held high densities of spotted hyenas for poorly-understood reasons (Mitchell et al., 1965), and sightings in the field remain relatively rare.

To test the demographic response of wild dogs to low densities of both prey and dominant competitors, we fit mark-recapture models to data from wild dogs in the GKE that were intensively monitored from 2012 to 2019. We obtained precise estimates of population density and annual survival rates (while avoiding bias by accounting for imperfect detection), and recorded parallel data on reproduction, recruitment, home-range size, and home-range overlap to provide a comprehensive description of wild dog demography under these conditions. Finally, we used these data to estimate annual population growth rates. Similar data have been collected for wild dogs in other populations (Creel and Creel, 2002; Mills and Gorman, 1997; Woodroffe, 2011) and we compared our results to published estimates to comprehensively evaluate the consequences of prey depletion and reduced competitor density on the demography and density of wild dogs. A better understanding of wild dog response to a reduction of both prey and competitors is broadly applicable to conservation planning and policy-making, because most protected networks that hold wild dogs are experiencing (or vulnerable to) prey depletion. More generally, these results will help to better understand the consequence of global declines of large herbivores for the conservation of complete carnivore guilds, which are often strongly structured by interspecific competition (Palomares and Caro, 1999).

## Materials and Methods

### Study Area

Our 10,968 km$^2$ study area was located in the central and northern section of the Kafue National Park and surrounding Mumbwa-West, Kasonso-Busanga, and Lunga-Busanga Game Management Areas, encompassing the eastern and western portions of the Kafue and Lufupa rivers, and areas just to the north and south of the major M9 highway (Figure. 1). Kafue National

Park is located in western Zambia (S14.5394, E26.0782) and is the largest protected area in the country (22,319 km$^2$), surrounded by GMAs managed for multiple use (hunting, wildlife protection, farming and fishing). Hunting safari companies lease management blocks in GMAs for 5-10 years, with harvest quotas set annually by the Department of National Parks and Wildlife for lions, leopards, and most large herbivores. The national park and these surrounding GMA's make up the 66,000 km$^2$ Greater Kafue Ecosystem, which forms the northernmost portion (and 13%) of the Kavango-Zambezi Transfrontier Conservation Area (KAZA TFCA), which spans Angola, Botswana, Namibia, Zambia, and Zimbabwe. The ecosystem is dominated by Miombo woodland (*Brachystegia* and *Julbernadia spp*.) and a mosaic of *Acacia* woodland, termitaria woodland, riverine woodland, savannah grassland and seasonally inundated grasslands. The region receives an average of 1,020mm of total rainfall per year (Midlane et al., 2014), which is comparable to other miombo woodland ecosystems (Creel and Creel, 2002; Gillingham and Lee, 2003). There is a pronounced rainy season between December and April with extensive flooding and a dry season between May and November. During the rainy season, most of the park is inaccessible by vehicle.

## Data Collection

We recorded 4270 sightings of 425 individually identified wild dogs in 43 unique packs and single-sexed groups between 2012 and 2019, using direct observations supplemented with photographs collected via citizen science. As in prior research on wild dogs, individuals were readily identified by their unique coat patterns (Creel and Creel, 2002). Photos were stored in a digital photo-ID database and unique IDs were assigned to each individual. Radiocollars were used for re-detection, with at least one collar in 15 of the 43 packs, using a combination of

Satellite-GPS, store on board-GPS and VHF collars (Telonics Inc., Mesa, Arizona, USA). From 2017 onward, all collared packs had at least 1 Satellite-GPS collar providing locations at 12-hour intervals (morning and evening). We radiocollared wild dogs by intramuscular injection of a combination of Medetomidine and Zoletil (typically 1.2 mg medetomidine and 20 mg Zoletil), reversing the medetomidine by intramuscular injection of Atipamezole after 45 minutes to one hour. Anesthetic drugs were delivered by darting with an air-powered DanInject rifle, with all procedures performed by an experienced and Zambian-registered veterinarian, in collaboration with the Zambia Department of National Parks and Wildlife, with a protocol approved by the MSU IACUC (approval number 2020-123).

Whenever wild dogs were located, we recorded (at minimum) the location, time, and identity of all individuals present, referring to a digital database of ID photos and taking photographs for confirmation of any uncertain identities. All adults were sexed by observation of genitalia, which is unambiguous for wild dogs. Age was known for most individuals by detecting them first as pups or yearlings, and was estimated from tooth wear and pelage for individuals first encountered as adults. Prior research on wild dogs in several populations has shown linear, Type II survivorship curves with little effect of age on survival amongst adults (Creel et al., 2004), so we pooled adults into a single age class prior to analysis, thus avoiding errors due to uncertainty about age.

Data on recruitment, litter size, and pup survival were gathered by visiting dens approximately 1 month after initial denning date (we did not visit newly established dens to avoid disruption). Initial denning date was determined from satellite-GPS data showing when the pack’s resting locations became centralized on one point, or from consistent VHF monitoring that revealed dogs returning to the same area after hunting in successive days, following observations of a pregnant female in that pack. Pups were counted, sexed (genitalia are easily visible even in small pups) and IDs were assigned using digital photos. We investigated recruitment by recording the number of yearlings on June 1st of the following year or as soon as possible thereafter. We calculated average pack size for 25 intensively monitored packs between 2013 and 2019. Pack size was recorded on or near July 1st in order to standardize across all groups and reflect pack numbers in the middle of the denning season, when pack size most directly affects demography.

### Estimating Annual Survival Rates

We used Bayesian methods to fit Cormack-Jolly-Seber (CJS) models to detection records for 425 individuals to estimate age- and sex-specific annual survival rates ($\varphi$) and detection probabilities ($p$) that allowed for individual heterogeneity (Pledger et al., 2010). Detections were binned into 3 occasions per year, each of three months duration (April – June, July – September, October –December), for a total of 24 occasions over 8 years (2012 – 2019) with a total of 4,270 unique detections. We did not include detections from January to March in our analysis due to inaccessibility of the study area in the rainy season yielding sparse data.

Wild dogs were categorized into three biologically meaningful age-classes: pups (0-0.99 years old, which depend on older packmates for food and protection), yearlings (1-1.99 years old, partially independent but not yet at full body size, not sexually mature and with limited hunting skill), and adults (2 years or older). All adults and yearlings, and most pups were of known sex, and sex was assigned randomly to a small number of pups (<1% of individuals) to keep the data set constant and thus allow comparison of models using information criteria.

CJS models fit one function to estimate survival (φ) and a second function to estimate detection probability (*p*) in a hierarchical fashion that allows an overlapping set of variables to affect each of these parameters. We used Bayesian methods to fit CJS models to allow flexibility in defining model structure through constraints on the parameters, to provide credible intervals (rather than confidence intervals) for parameter estimates, and to take advantage of tailored posterior predictive checking to assess goodness of fit (Kéry and Royle, 2015; Kéry and Schaub, 2011).

Using the R package R2jags (Yu and Yajima, 2012), we constructed a model in which survival rates varied by age and sex, as these effects were of interest *a priori* to allow comparison to other wild dog populations. The model allowed for extra-binomial variation between individuals in the probability of detection (‘overdispersion’) by adding an individual random effect on detection with a Gaussian distribution on logit scale (Kéry, 2010). We used uninformative uniform prior distributions for both φ and *p*, with bounds following recommendations by Kery & Schaub (2011), and fit the model with three Markov chains, retaining 45,000 iterations after a 5000 step burn in. We assessed the model’s goodness of fit by: (*a*) comparing its deviance information criterion (DIC) score with simpler models that did not include the effects of age or sex on survival and did not allow for individual random effects on detection, and (*b*) posterior predictive checking. For posterior predictive checking we simulated individual capture histories with the model and compared the simulated frequency of individuals with few (<5) detections to the real data (Figure 2). DIC scores unambiguously supported the *a priori* model, and posterior predictive checking confirmed that the model fit the data well (simulated median *p* for rarely detected individuals = 0.18, median *p* for data from the same individuals = 0.19).

## Estimating Population Density

We used Bayesian methods to fit closed mark-recapture models to estimate wild dog abundance in each year, using the same capture histories as our survival analysis. Two abundance models were compared using DIC scores, one modeling effects of individual heterogeneity in the probability of detection, $p$ (Huggins, 1989), and one without individual heterogeneity. DIC scores unambiguously supported the model including effects of individual heterogeneity in probability of detection ($\Delta$DIC scores >10). As with the CJS model, we modeled variation in $p$ as a random effect of individual identity with a Gaussian distribution on logit scale. To account for variation among years we analyzed each year's detection histories separately using the same time bins as the survival analysis with a 3-occasion encounter history for each individual in each year. To produce accurate estimates of population density, these estimates of population size were limited to well-monitored resident groups whose patterns of space use were well-described. This included all resident packs and single-sexed groups of dispersers that established a resident home-range within the study area. Our criterion for inclusion was that the group was seen for over 1 year within the study area and all individuals were identified. Consistent with prior estimates of wild dog density (Creel and Creel, 2002; Mills and Gorman, 1997; Woodroffe, 2011), we did not include pups in the estimate of density (i.e., we limited the analysis to yearlings and adults to allow comparison to published estimates).

We estimated abundance for four years, 2016 through 2019. We converted the estimate of population size ($\widehat{N}$) for each year to an estimate of density ($\widehat{D}$) by dividing $\widehat{N}$ by the area ($\hat{A}$) used by the individuals with capture histories. Home-ranges were estimated using the 95th percentile isopleth of a kernel utilization distribution (KUD) (Worton, 1989) based on GPS locations collected at 12-hour intervals, twice daily, for the groups with capture histories that met the criterion for inclusion described above, using the adehabitatHR package in R (Calenge, 2006). To estimate density in a manner that accounts for variation across years in the area that was used by adequately monitored groups, we first fit a separate KUD to locations from each group in each year, and determined the total extent of these KUDs combined, counting areas of overlap only once (Figure 1). We also provide alternative density estimates using the area of a single 90% KUD fit to locations from all groups combined and clipped to exclude the east side of the Kafue river for which we did not have adequate monitoring data (Figure 1). These alternative density estimates have the advantage of applying to a constant area of 6,374 km$^2$ but do not directly account for variation across years in the area monitored.

Many recent studies have used spatially explicit capture recapture (SECR) models (Royle et al., 2013; Royle and Young, 2008) to estimate carnivore densities (Broekhuis and Gopalaswamy, 2016; Elliot and Gopalaswamy, 2017). These models are well suited to data sets in which the sightings used to model detection probability also provide the only information about the area used by the detected animals (*e.g.*, data from camera traps). However, most SECR analyses rely on simple models of space use (often by assuming that each individual's probability of use drops in a smooth, bivariate normal fashion from a single point of peak use). Incorporating information from telemetry into SECR models can improve estimates of density, but this approach relies on the same logic as the approach we used to model abundance from detection histories and convert abundance to density using a well-established KUD method to model the area sampled. Our approach aligns well with empirical descriptions of space use by large carnivores, whose movements are shaped by irregular distributions of prey, competitors, vegetation, rivers, and roads. We had extensive locational data from GPS and satellite GPS radio-collars (*n* = 9,624 unique locations, greatly outnumbering the 4,270 binned detections) that allowed us to fit flexible KUD models to describe the area used by each group. Apart from providing a good description of the use of space, this approach maximized precision by using all observed locations for all group members (including more than one location for many individuals in many time intervals) when determining the total area occupied.

## Results

### Population Density, and Growth Rate

In 2019, we estimated that the population held 53.13 individuals (excluding pups < 1 years old; 95% CRI: 52 - 57) in an area of 6,752 km$^2$. This yields an estimated density of 0.79 adult and yearling wild dogs per 100 km$^2$. Yearly population density estimates for 2016 - 2019 are compiled in Table 1, and for each year, alternative density estimates are provided, based on a constant area determined from the 90% KUD for all years combined. Both methods reveal that wild dog density in the Greater Kafue is substantially lower than almost all other ecosystems studied to date, including ecosystems with similar vegetation and rainfall (the primary ecological determinants of ungulate densities (East, 1984)) such as the Selous Game Reserve (SGR). The annual population growth rate ($\lambda$) ranged from 0.82-1.07 (geometric mean = 0.94) using densities based on yearly pack home-ranges (Table 2). Population growth rates were considerably different when estimated for a constant area, ranging from: 0.73 – 2.3 (geometric mean = 1.20) (Table 2). We caution that these fluctuations in $\lambda$ are probably strongly stochastic and suggest that the geometric mean $\lambda$ of 0.94 that accounts for annual variation in the area monitored is a more accurate representation of the population trend for Kafue wild dogs (see discussion).

## Age and Sex-Specific Annual Survival, Reproduction, and Recruitment

Annual survival rates and patterns of variation between the sexes and age-classes were closely comparable to prior estimates from higher-density wild dog populations. Males had higher survival than females at all age classes (Figure 3). Estimated annual survival for yearling males and females (1-1.99 years old) was highest of all age-classes at 0.63 (95% CRL 0.49 - 0.68) and 0.56 (95% CRL 0.45 – 0.61) respectively (Figure 2). Estimated annual survival for adult males and females (1.99 years or older) was 0.60 (85% CRL 0.53 – 0.67) and 0.54 (95% CRL 0.47 – 0.56) respectively (Figure 2). Mean detection probability (*p)* was 0.44 (95% CRL 0.37 – 0.51).

Our ability to detect very young pups was limited because initial den visits occurred one month after denning began (to avoid disturbance). Consequently, pups who died before our initial den visit would go completely undetected, creating an uncorrectable bias (overestimation) in estimated pup survival rates. Pups that were first detected several months after birth in packs that were less intensively monitored might represent a life stage with higher (or lower) survival than earlier stages of the pup's life. To avoid errors due to these problems, we did not estimate annual survival for pups using the same modeling approach, and instead report pup annual recruitment and average litter size. Litter size at first count averaged 7.53 pups (95% CI: 6.17 - 8.89, N = 19), and the average number of yearlings recruited averaged 4.63 individuals (95% CI: 2.66 – 6.69, N = 11). This yields an estimated survival rate of 61.4% for pups in Kafue National Park (between one month and one year), or 58.7% when annualized.

## Pack Size, Home Range Size and Overlap

Packs averaged 8.40 yearlings and adults (95% CI: 6.35 - 10.45, N = 25), of which 5.44 were adults (95% CI: 4.44 - 6.44, N = 25). Eleven annual home ranges for breeding packs between 2013 – 2019 averaged 1375.8 km$^2$ (95% CI: 970.1 - 1781.5). Home-range overlap between adjacent breeding packs averaged 21.8% (95% CI: 14% - 28%) of the KUD 95% isopleth for 9 adjacent packs that overlapped each other in the same year.

## Discussion

Wild dog density in the GKE was 4.8-fold lower than a comparable miombo system with higher densities of both dominant competitors and prey (Creel and Creel, 2002). Kafue holds one of the lowest densities of African wild dogs recorded (Table 2), even though our estimates of density pertain to the core of the GKE, with higher levels of protection than areas outside of our study site that face more anthropogenic pressure (Overton et al., 2017; Watson et al., 2015). Average pack size in GKE was ~25% lower than ecosystems with higher densities of wild dogs, lions, and prey (Table 2). Average home-range in the GKE was nearly twice the size of those in any other ecosystem (Table 2), and over three times the size of home-ranges observed in comparable miombo woodland in Selous (using similar methods).

Low wild dog density was not associated with low survival rates, a pattern also observed for lions in the GKE, and for leopards in prey-depleted Game Management Areas in Zambia's Luangwa Valley (Rosenblatt et al., 2016; Vinks et al., 2021b). This result further supports Vinks et al.'s suggestion that survival rates alone may not be a sensitive tool to evaluate the effect of prey depletion on carnivore populations.

We infer that wild dog carrying capacity, and thus density, has slowly declined together with lion carrying capacity in response to prey depletion. Annual population growth rates (λ) fluctuated appreciably but suggested decline (Table 1.). For a population this small, stochastic annual variation in λ is expected (Lande, 1988). Here, such events included the colonization of an unutilized area by a pack of 4 adults, the pack's growth to 11 the next year with the addition of pups, and the pack's demise the following year due to rabies or canine distemper. Such events were common: a pack of 17 wild dogs was killed off by rabies in 2019 just outside of our study area. The alpha male of one study pack was killed by lions and nine of the packs eleven pups died subsequent to his death. The death of the alpha male in another pack led the pack to split, and no offspring were produced the following year. Because such events cause an appreciable change in the growth rate of a population this small, inferences about the current mean growth rate should be made with caution. We recommend targeted analysis that continues to monitor this population's trend as data accumulates.

Despite the low density of lions in the GKE (Vinks et al., 2021b), the density of wild dogs is one of the lowest ever recorded. This can be attributed to the depletion of prey in the GKE reported by Vinks et al. (2020). Vegetation structure and rainfall are strong determinants of large herbivore density (East, 1984; Fritz and Duncan, 1994), and both rainfall and vegetation structure are closely comparable between the GKE and Selous, but the higher density of prey in Selous supported a 4.8-fold higher density of wild dogs despite a 3.2-fold higher density of lions (Rodgers 1979, Creel and Creel 2002, Vinks et al., 2021,2020). Thus, low lion density in the GKE does not offset the negative effects of prey depletion and allow 'competitive release' of the wild dog population.

In contrast to their very low density, annual survival rates for wild dogs in the GKE are comparable to those in large, stable populations (Table 2). We therefore cannot attribute the low density of wild dogs to high current levels of direct mortality, despite the local prevalence of wire-snare bycatch, disease, and encroachment. We do not imply that these anthropogenic factors are not important, but they are clearly not driving low population density in the core of KNP by reducing adult or yearling survival rates relative to high-density wild dog populations. GKE wild dogs live in small packs with exceptionally large home ranges, but within those packs their survival is comparable to that of dense, stable populations. These results suggest that there may be an optimal ratio of prey and supported dominant competitors, both at intermediate densities, which allows wild dogs to achieve their highest population densities (Figure 3). Systems with the highest density of competitors (e.g., Serengeti National Park and Ngorongoro Crater Conservation Area) exclude wild dogs, particularly in open habitats that promote interference competition (Carbone et al., 1997). Systems with very low prey density also do not support high densities of wild dogs, despite low competitor density, as seen in Kafue.

Unsustainable bushmeat poaching has been linked to prey depletion in the GKE (Overton et al., 2017; Schuette et al., 2018), with larger-bodied herbivores showing greater reductions in density than smaller-bodied herbivores (Vinks et al., 2020). This uneven prey reduction has important ecological consequences for large carnivores and the competition among them (Creel et al., 2018, Vinks et al., 2021). Lions now prey heavily on smaller bodied ungulates, and therefore dietary niche overlap between large carnivore competitors has increased (Creel et al., 2018). This increase in niche overlap may be one reason that wild dogs do not benefit from meso-predator release in the GKE.

For a group-living species like the wild dog, low population density must be associated with mean pack size that is small, mean home range size that is large, or both. Average pack size in the GKE was roughly 25% lower than other populations, and 39% lower than packs in the ecologically similar miombo woodland of Selous (mean adult pack size = 8.9). While it has previously been suggested that small pack size may be related to low population density, evidence for this relationship has been elusive (Courchamp and Macdonald, 2001). With the addition of this study, we have shown a correlation between pack size and population density (Figure. 4.), even after accounting for sampling error in mean pack size (Figure. S1. supplemental material). This relationship does not establish that small pack size drives low density through Allee effects as suggested by Courchamp and Macdonald (2001). It is possible that Allee effects occur, but it is also likely that low wild dog density and small pack size are both consequences of low prey density. Past studies have consistently found a positive relationship between pack size and reproductive success in wild dogs, suggesting that small pack size could have negative effects on population growth. Adults, and to a lesser extent yearlings, cooperate to kill prey and defend dens, babysit, and feed pups (Malcolm and Marten, 1982). Pup survival and litter size are positively correlated with increased pack size (Courchamp et al., 2002; Creel et al., 2004), though adult and yearling annual survival decrease as pack size increases (Creel and Creel, 2015). Increases in lion populations have also resulted in decreases in both pack size and pup survival (Groom et al., 2016). Small wild dog packs focus on small prey (Creel and Creel, 2002) so the decrease in mean prey size and density in Kafue (Creel et al., 2018) could cause the optimal pack size for hunting to decrease in parallel (Creel et al., 2018; Creel and Creel, 2015; Vucetich and Creel, 1999). However, there is no reason to assume that optimal pack size for pup rearing and defense should decrease in the same manner. Fewer individuals in the pack mean fewer to babysit and defend pups, and fewer to bring food back to the den to feed pups. Pup survival has a strong effect on population growth (Creel et al., 2004), and our estimates of pup survival were low (Table 2), even though adult and yearling survival rates were comparable. Studies have shown that small prey can support large packs, but only if that prey is abundant and dominant competitors are suppressed (Woodroffe, 2011; Woodroffe et al., 2007).

Home ranges in the GKE were among the largest reported in a study system (Table 2), yet home range overlap was comparable to other systems (Creel and Creel, 2002; Pole, 2000; Reich, 1981), Average yearly home-range in Kafue was nearly double the next largest home-range calculations in a similar system, which come from Moremi Game Reserve in Botswana (739 km$^2$ ± 81 ), a relatively well-protected area (Pomilia et al., 2015). We also calculated utilization distributions using dynamic Brownian Bridge movement models (Kranstauber et al., 2012) and still found very large ranges, even though this method tends to exclude ‘donut holes’ that are included in the KUDs we reported (873 km$^2$, ± 127). Low density is thus related to both small pack size and large ranges. These exceptionally large home ranges might increase the exposure of wild dogs to threats known to be present in the GKE, such as viral disease transmission from domestic dogs and wire snares.

The effects of prey depletion are likely affecting protected areas and their carnivore inhabitants throughout the world, especially in developing countries (Wolf and Ripple, 2016). Our results show that wild dog density appears to decrease in parallel with prey depletion, and that the costs of low prey density on the wild dog population in the GKE far outweighed the benefits of meso-carnivore release due to low lion density. Because wild dog densities are invariably lower than lion densities (even in undisturbed ecosystems), their populations are likely to reach critically low numbers prior to their dominant competitors as an ecosystem becomes prey depleted. The combined effects of prey depletion and meso-carnivore release are not well understood, and this pattern may hold true for other competitively subordinate carnivores. This finding has important implications for conservation strategy, because it calls into question the recommendation to target wild dog conservation and reintroductions in areas of low competitor density. If dominant competitor densities are low as a consequence of low prey density (as is common), our data suggest this strategy will not work well. Conservation efforts should instead focus on areas with intact prey communities and effective protection. In ecosystems like the GKE, increasing protection and addressing the drivers of prey depletion is likely to be the most effective strategy to conserve wild dogs, their competitors, and their prey.

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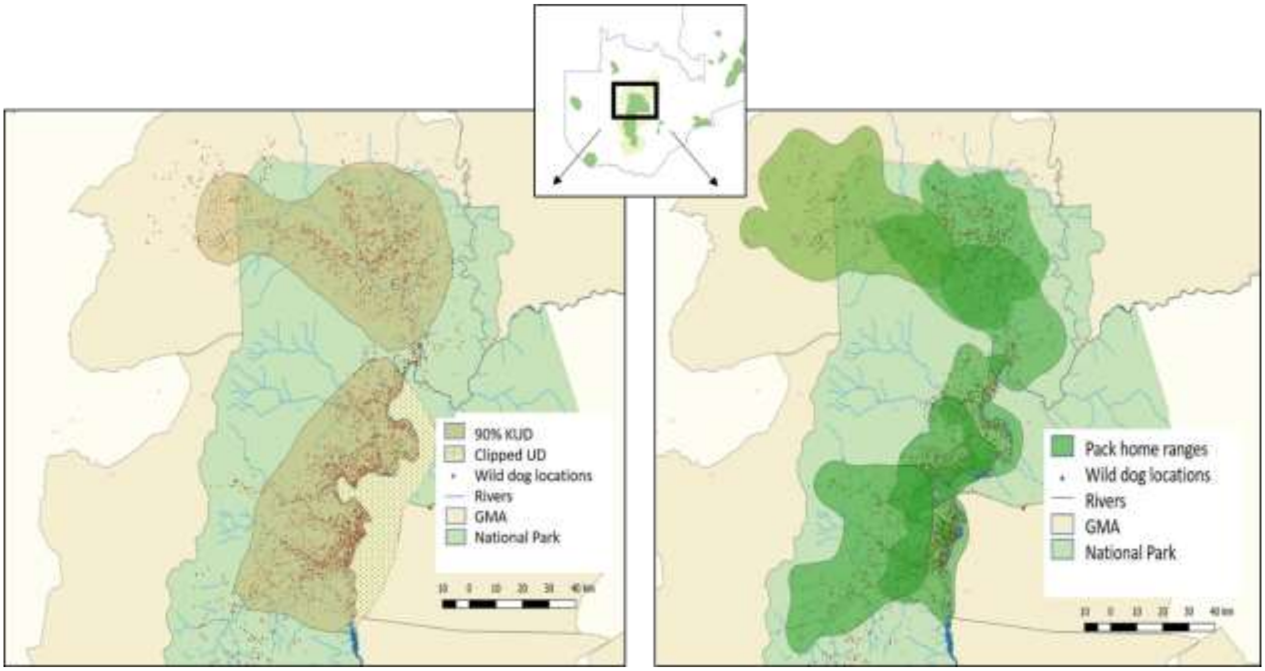

Figure 2.1: The study area used by intensively monitored wild dogs in GKE. Left: the area encompassed by the 90% isopleth of a kernel utilization distribution fit to all locations for all monitored wild dogs, cropped to exclude an unmonitored area east of the Kafue River that was little-used by the monitored individuals. Right: The area encompassed by the 95% isopleth of kernel utilization distributions fit to annual locations for each pack. Area was calculated by combining these home-ranges for each year of study.

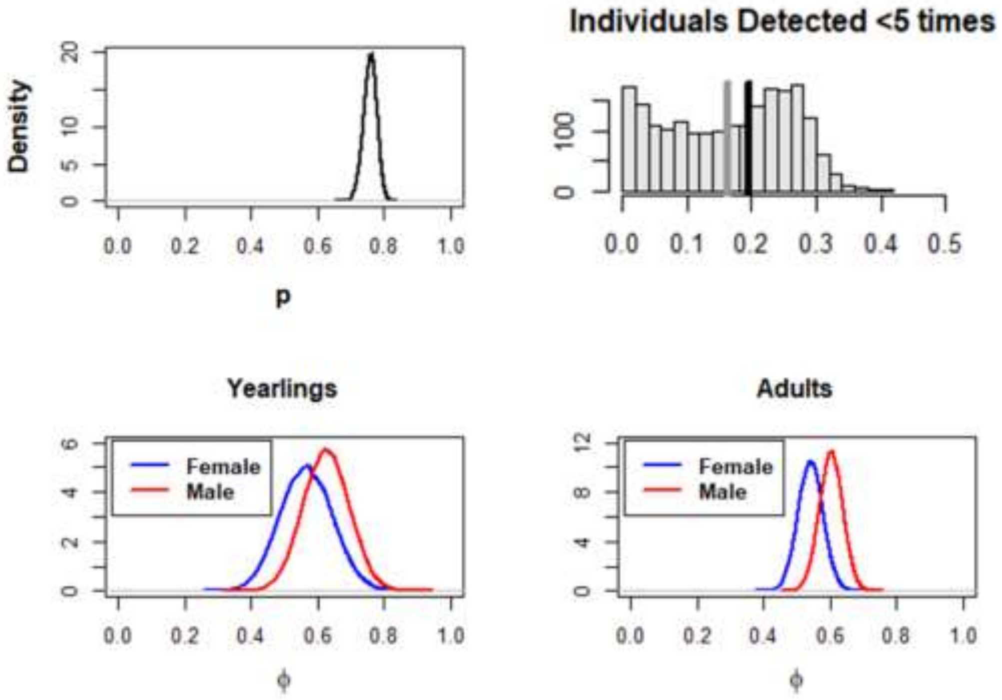

Figure 2.2: (A) Posterior distribution of estimated annual detection probability, *p*. (B) Posterior predictive checking of the model's fit, comparing a discrepancy statistic for the observed data with data simulated under the fitted model. The plot shows the frequency distribution for *p* simulated under the model (histogram with median denoted by vertical grey line) vs. the median for the original data (black line) for individuals with fewer than 5 detections. Posterior distributions of apparent survival rates (φ) of wild dog adults (A) and yearlings (B) from a Cormack-Jolly-Seber model fit to data from 2012 to 2019 using Bayesian methods.

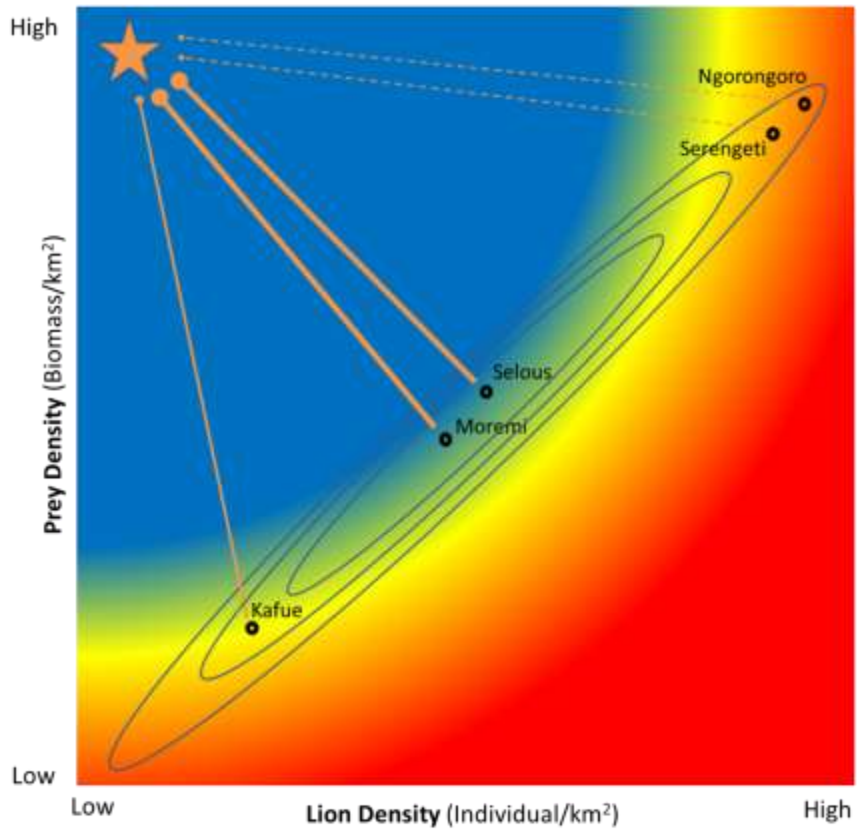

Figure 2.3: A graphical model of wild dog density in relation to lion density and prey density. Variation in wild dog density is shown by heat mapping, where blue is associated with conditions that allow for high wild dog density and red is associated with conditions that lead to intermittent populations characterized by extirpation/recolonization cycles. The star represents the ideal state of these limiting factors for wild dogs: an ecosystem with high prey density and no lions. Concentric ellipses enclose the observed set of conditions in real ecosystems, where lion density is positively correlated with prey biomass. Within the set of real-world conditions defined by the ellipses, wild dog density is highest at points that fall in the central ellipse that are closest to the ideal conditions at top left: these populations are identified by shorter and thicker lines. Five populations are plotted as examples consistent with published data. Wild dog populations have been locally extirpated or only intermittently present in areas with high prey density and very high lion density (Ngorongoro and Serengeti, long dashed lines). Populations with low prey and lion density persist at low densities (Kafue, long solid line). Ecosystems with intermediate densities of prey and lions support the highest wild dog densities (Selous and Moremi, short solid lines).

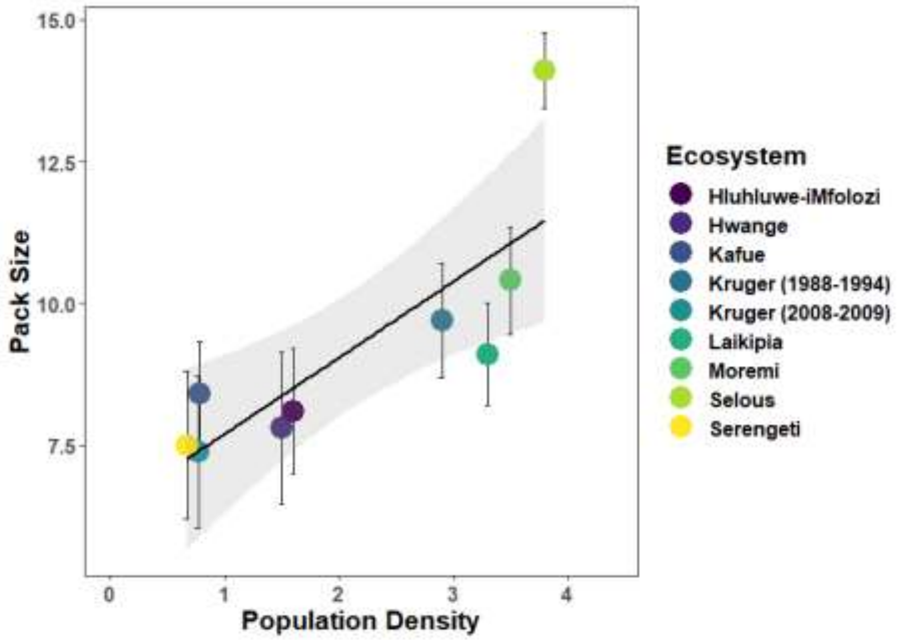

Figure 2.4: Average pack size in relation to population density for African wild dogs across multiple studies. Error bars show +/- one standard error. Pack size is positively correlated with population density (b = 1.35, r2 = 0.61, t = 3.70, P < 0.01). (Burrows et al., 1994; Creel et al., 2004; Creel and Creel, 2002; Fuller et al., 1992; Ginsberg et al., 1995; Marnewick et al., 2014; Somers et al., 2008; Woodroffe, 2011).

Table 2.5: Annual estimates of wild dog population density and growth rate for Kafue National Park, using two methods to estimate area to calculate density. Yearly Pack Range (left) uses an area that changes according to monitoring effort each year. Uniform Area (right) uses a constant area. See Methods for details.

| | Yearly Pack Range | | | Uniform Area (6372 km$^2$) | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Year | Area (km$^2$) | Density (adults and yearlings per 100km$^2$) | Lambda | Density (adults and yearlings per 100 km$^2$) | Lambda |
| 2016 | 3185 | 0.94 | -- | 0.47 | -- |
| 2017 | 8101 | 0.89 | 0.95 | 1.1 | 2.3 |
| 2018 | 5853 | 0.73 | 0.82 | 0.8 | 0.73 |
| 2019 | 6752 | 0.79 | 1.07 | 0.82 | 1.03 |
| Average across years | | 0.84 | 0.94 | 0.8 | 1.20 |

Table 2.6: Comparison of wild dog population densities and population parameters for eight protected areas in Africa. Populations are listed from lowest to highest density, together with associated average pack size, litter size, home-range size, annual survival rates, population growth rate, lion density and hyena density. 95% confidence intervals and standard errors are reported where available.

| PA | Wild Dog Density (adults & yearlings / 100km^2 | Lion Density (individuals per 100 km^2) | Hyena Density (individuals per 100 km^2) | Avg Pack Size (Yearlings & Adults) | Avg Litter Size | Pup survival | Yearling Survival | Adult survival | Home-range size (km^2) & Method | Lambda | Source |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Serengeti National Park 1985-91 | 0.67 | 14 | 110 | 7.5 +/- 1.3 | 9.2 +/- 1.1 | 0.40 +/- .12 | No Data | .73 ± .05 | 665 (MCP) | Not reported | (Burrows et al., 1994; J. R. Ginsberg et al., 1995; Hofer and East, 1995) |
| Kafue Ecosystem, Zambia | 0.79 | 3.43 | No Data | 8.4 (6.35 - 10.45) | 7.53 (6.17 - 8.89) | 0.61 (0.35 - 0.89) | 0.60 (0.47 - 0.65) | 0.57 (0.50 - 0.62) | 1376 +/- 206, (95% KUD) | 0.95 | (This Study; Vinks et al. 2020b) |
| Save Valley, Zimbabwe | 1.4 | 0.24 | 0.49 | 4.9 +/- 0.7 | 8.0 +/- 0.8 | 0.84 | No Data | No Data | 499 +/- 158 (MCP) | No Data | (Pole, 2000) |
| Hluhuwe-iMfolozi Game Reserve, SA | 1.6 | 4.3 | 32.4 | 8.1 +/- 1.1 | 7.9 +/- 0.8 | 0.75 | 0.8 | 0.88 | No Data | 1.01 +/- 1.19 | (Somers, 2008) |
| Samburu - Laikipia, Kenya | 3.3 | 5.5 | No Data | 9.1 +/- 0.90 | 7.3 +/- 0.53 | 0.71 (0.61 - 0.80) | 0.69 (0.29 - 0.90) | 0.75 (0.62 - 0.86) | 423 (95% KUD) | 1.21 | (Woodroffe. 2011) |
| Kruger National Park, SA | 1.9 - 3.9 | 9.55 | 8-12 | 9.7 ± 1.0 | 9.4 +/- 0.70 | 0.35 (0.29 - 0.52) | 0.45 (0.34 - 0.57) | 0.72 | 537 (MCP) | 1.00 | (Creel et al., 2004; Ferreira and Funston, 2010; Mills et al., 2001; Mills and Gorman, 1997) |
| Moremi Game Reserve, Botswana | 3.5 | 8.4 | 14.4 | 10.4 +/- 0.95 | 10.1 +/- .32 | 0.48 (0.42 - 0.54) | 0.74 (0.72 - 0.79) | 0.40 - 0.67 | 739 +/- 81, (95% KUD) | 1.00 | (Cozzi et al., 2013; Creel et al., 2004; Mcnutt and Silk, 2008) |
| Selous Game Reserve, Tanzania | 3.8 | 11 | 32 | 14.1 | 7.5 +/- 0.56 | 0.75 (0.66 - 0.84) | 0.84 (0.73 - 0.91) | 0.71 | 433 +/- 64, (95% KUD) | 1.04 | (Creel & Creel, 1995; Creel & Creel, 1996; Creel & Creel, 2002) |

# CHAPTER THREE

## CONCLUSION TO THESIS

The results of this study clearly show that an African wild dog population is not released when dominant competitors are reduced as a result of prey depletion. This population holds one of the lowest densities of wild dogs ever recorded. The population is characterized by massive home-ranges with minimal overlap, and small pack sizes. The demographic signature of this population shows survival rates that are within the bounds of healthy populations of wild dogs, indicating that additive mortality from road mortality, disease, and snare by-catch are not the drivers of low population density.

Wild dog conservation has focused on negative anthropogenic effects like disease, habitat loss, snare bycatch, and roadkill. To our knowledge this is the first test of effects of prey depletion on an African wild dog population. Our results show clearly that prey depletion negatively effects wild dogs. The small pack sizes with massive average home-ranges, and minimal overlap indicate there is less food on the landscape and dogs are likely at carrying capacity for the system. Optimal pack size has likely reduced because of this reduction of prey and reduction of average prey size, since benefits of cooperative hunting are not allocated equally among individuals for social carnivores (Creel and Creel, 2015).

The focus of this thesis was to establish baseline estimates of demographic vital rates and density for the GKE wild dog population, from which future studies can be based. As mentioned in chapter two, these estimates largely pertain to the core of the Kafue National Park, which likely has a higher level of protection than interior portions of the park and surrounding GMA's. We therefore noted that wild dog densities and other demographic vital rates could be even lower in other less-protected areas of the GKE. In this study we had insufficient data to estimate area specific vital rates and density. With increased data-collection over the next several years, it will be worth reinvestigating survival and density in GMA's and less visited interior portions of the national park that may experience higher-levels of poaching pressure and other anthropogenic affects. Additional data is also needed to investigate cause-specific mortality for the Kafue wild dog population, which will allow us to better understand drivers of demography and target conservation efforts in the system.

This study system had the benefit of prior research that showed the GKE is suffering from prey depletion, increased dietary overlap within the large carnivore guild, and reduced lion density (Creel et al., 2018; Vinks et al., 2021b, 2020). Additionally, demographic vital rates and density estimates for wild dogs were well described for many other ecosystems, some with healthy densities of prey and dominant competitors, others without. These previous estimates (Table 2) provided key comparisons which allowed us to expand our inferences on effects of prey depletion and reduced dominant competitors on subordinate carnivore demography. The low density of wild dogs observed in the GKE compared to the high wild dog density observed in the ecologically similar Selous Game Reserve (SGR) (Creel and Creel, 2002), indicates that lower lion density will not necessarily release a wild dog population, since the lions in the GKE are 3.4 times lower than in SGR (Vinks et al., 2021b). The limitation of wild dog populations by competition with dominant competitors has been well described (Creel, 2001; Creel and Creel, 2002, 1996; Fanshawe and Fitzgibbon, 1993; Frame, 1986; Mills and Gorman, 1997). However, these limitations were generally observed in systems that have a healthy carnivore and prey communities, with relatively few anthropogenic disturbances. Research has shown that wild dogs respond positively at a population level to a reduction in lion density, but only when lions were reduced by human causes and in all cases prey base remained relatively high (Pole, 2000;

Woodroffe, 2011; Woodroffe et al., 2007). Wild dogs can effectively persist in areas that have lower densities of prey (and thus dominant competitors) within ecosystems (Creel and Creel, 1996; Dröge et al., 2017; Mills and Gorman, 1997). Therefore, it would be reasonable to predict that wild dogs and perhaps other similar subordinate carnivore populations may find refuge in prey depleted systems due to the lack of intraguild competition with dominant carnivores. Our study is the first to show that if lions are depleted as a result of prey depletion, then wild dog density will not increase. In the case of our study, the negative effects of prey depletion seemingly outweigh the positive effects of reduced dominant competitor density. To our knowledge, this is the first population analysis of any subordinate carnivore population within a prey depleted system that has reduced dominant competitor density, and it is the first evidence to show that subordinates are not released in areas with less dominant competitors and less prey.

Prey depletion is an increasing threat to ecosystems across much of the developing world, especially in African protected networks (Lindsey et al., 2017; Wolf and Ripple, 2016). Evidence from this research indicates that wild dogs are likely to reach critically low population thresholds sooner than their dominant competitors in systems that are experiencing prey depletion. Even the healthiest populations of wild dogs hold less than 5 adults and yearlings per 100 km$^2$ (Creel and Creel, 2002). The naturally low population density of wild dogs within ecosystems, combined with the parallel reduction in wild dog density with dominant competitors, puts them at higher risk of local extinction when ecosystems are prey depleted. Less than 1,400 mature adult wild dogs persist in Sub-Saharan Africa today (Woodroffe and Sillero-Zubiri, 2020), which makes immediate conservation action all the more important. Intensive monitoring of wild dogs in prey depleted systems is necessary to ensure that populations do not reach critically low thresholds, while increasing protection and addressing drivers of prey depletion in ecosystems is of the utmost importance.

This research focused on effects of prey depletion and reduced dominant competitors on the demography of African wild dogs. We did not attempt to identify the mechanisms of population suppression for wild dogs in this system. Although we did explain that low pack sizes and massive home-ranges are the demographic signature that indicates the GKE wild dog population is suffering from effects of prey depletion, we did not evaluate the mechanisms that drive small pack sizes, large home-ranges, and low population density. Future research will aim to investigate what factors drive the demographic characteristics of this population. We have established that ecological conditions for wild dogs within a prey depleted system with reduced dominant competitors, are not ideal for wild dog populations. But it is still not clear which ecological variables are responsible for these sub-optimal demographic signatures. For example, top-down effects from dominant competitors, or anthropogenic effects in addition to prey depletion may be the mechanisms that limit wild dogs in the GKE. A logical step for future research would be to investigate bottom-up (predictors of prey density), top-down (variables representing short-term and long-term risk of encountering lions), and anthropogenic effects on movement, space-use, and hunting success of wild dogs within the GKE. Movement represents an energetically costly undertaking for a cursorial predator like the African wild dog (Alexander, 2013; Taylor et al., 1982) and increases in energetic expenditure can have demographic consequences (Gorman et al., 1998). Space-use within an ecosystem relates to resource allocation and competition, and thus spatial and temporal avoidance of rich foraging patches by subordinates may reduce carrying capacity for the population (Linnell and Strand, 2000). Movement, space-use, and hunting success can scale up to demographic rates within a population, thus giving us valuable insight into the mechanisms that drive wild dog demography in prey depleted systems.

African wild dogs in particular are highly endangered and their populations continue to decline with many populations reaching critically low levels (Woodroffe and Sillero-Zubiri, 2020). Targeted conservation efforts and research that address drivers of population reductions and limitations for wild dogs and other endangered subordinate carnivores are needed throughout Africa and across the globe (Marneweck et al., 2021). We have highlighted that prey depletion is a larger threat to African wild dog populations than previously expected, and this likely holds true for other subordinate carnivores around the world. Long-term and intensive monitoring of subordinate carnivores will likely detect declines and alert conservation managers to critically low population levels. Investigating mechanisms of limitation of wild dog populations in systems with depleted prey and dominant competitors will aid in conservation-oriented decision making across many systems characterized by intraguild competition, and suffering from prey-depletion. Our findings show that wild dog populations achieve their highest densities in systems with intact prey communities that hold moderate dominant competitor densities. Addressing drivers of prey depletion to allow the restoration of both the prey communities and large carnivore guilds within ecosystems, should be an immediate priority for conservation managers.

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# APPENDIX A

## SUPPORTING INFORMATION FOR CHAPTER TWO

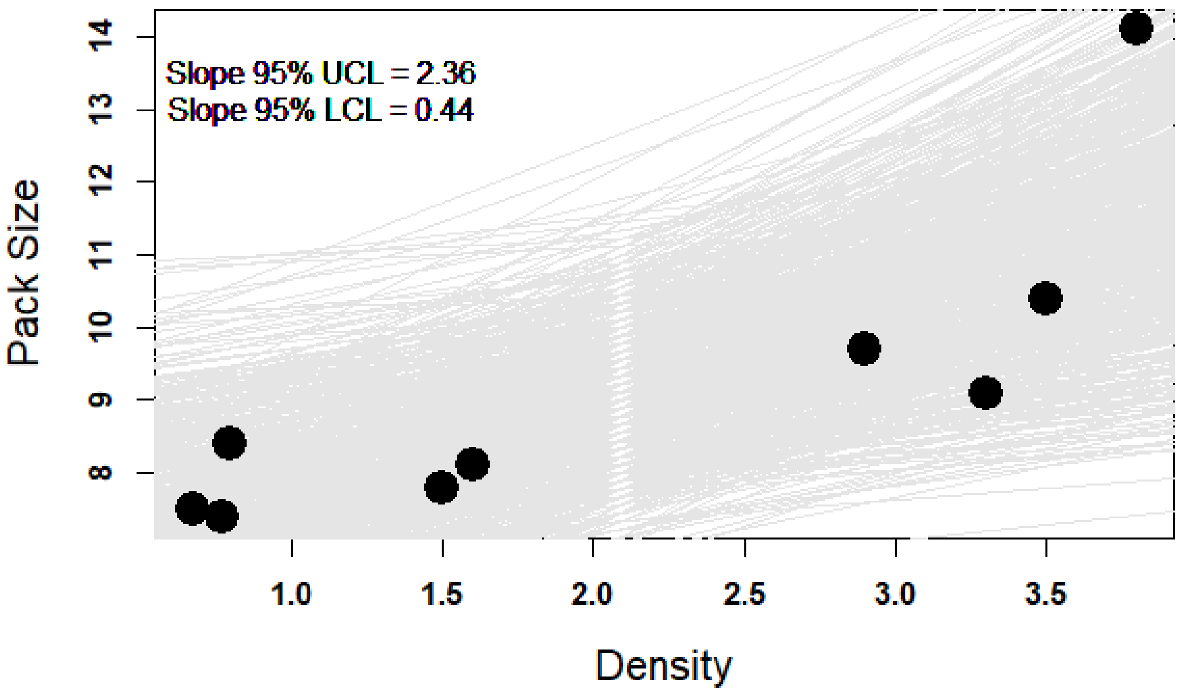

Figure A1: A hierarchal model of the relationship between pack size and population density, produced by selecting 1000 random draws from a Poisson distribution with the parameter set to the mean pack size for each of eight populations listed in Table 2. 1000 regression lines were fit to these random draws, producing confidence intervals that incorporate uncertainty in estimates of mean pack size. A significant positive slope is maintained in the relationship between population density and pack size.