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Leopard (Panthera pardus) density in southern Mozambique: Evidence from spatially explicit capturerecapture in Xonghile Game Reserve

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Greater Limpopo Transfrontier conservation initiative. The estimated population density was of 2.60 (SE= \pm 0.96) leopards per 100 km2. Our study provides a baseline leopard density for the region, as well as the first empirical density estimate in southern Mozambique. In addition, our results suggest that current methods used to set trophy hunting quotas for leopard, both in Mozambique and elsewhere in Africa, might be leading to overinflated quotas, and highlight the importance of robust empirical data in guiding conservation policy.

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- 1 TITLE: Leopard (Panthera pardus) density in southern Mozambique: Evidence from spatially
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18 Panthera pardus; SECR; trophy hunting

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35 ABSTRACT

Rigorous status estimates of large carnivore populations are necessary to inform their 36 37 management and help evaluate the effectiveness of conservation interventions. The African 38 leopard (Panthera pardus) faces rising anthropogenic pressures across most of its contracting sub-39 Saharan range, but the scarcity of reliable population estimates means that management decisions 40 often have to rely on expert opinion or educated guesses. This is particularly true for 41 Mozambique, where as a result of prolonged conflict very little is known on the ecology or 42 conservation status of leopard populations across the country. We used camera trapping and 43 spatially explicit capture-recapture models to provide a leopard density estimate in Xonghile 44 Game Reserve, southern Mozambique, part of the Greater Limpopo Transfrontier conservation 45 initiative. The estimated population density was of 2.60 (SE= ± 0.96) leopards per 100 km². Our 46 study provides a baseline leopard density for the region, as well as the first empirical density 47 estimate in southern Mozambique. In addition, our results suggest that current methods used to 48 set trophy hunting quotas for leopard, both in Mozambique and elsewhere in Africa, might be 49 leading to overinflated quotas, and highlight the importance of robust empirical data in guiding 1ez 50 conservation policy.

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60 INTRODUCTION

61 The leopard (Panthera pardus) is vulnerable to extinction in fragmented landscapes due to its low 62 densities, large spatial requirements and potential for conflict with humans (Nowell & Jackson, 63 1996; Balme et al., 2010). Leopard populations in Africa are increasingly threatened by growing 64 anthropogenic pressures, leading to a rising conservation concern and calls for reliable 65 population estimates to better inform conservation management (Jacobson et al., 2016). In the 66 absence of robust population estimates, management decisions are often reliant on expert 67 opinion or educated guesses, making it difficult to identify areas of concern, prioritise 68 conservation investments, and evaluate the effectiveness of interventions (Balme et al., 2014; 69 Gray & Prum, 2012).

70 In this context, density estimation, such as through capture-recapture modelling, has become a 71 key process in wildlife ecology, conservation, and management (Gray & Prum, 2012). Initially, 72 capture-recapture techniques estimated abundance rather than density, and relied on estimating 73 the survey's effective sampled area to obtain the latter. However, no theoretical basis exists for 74 this process, and the reliability of this approach is therefore questionable (Efford, 2004; Borchers 75 & Efford, 2008; Royle et al., 2009). Recently developed methodologies, know as spatially-explicit 76 capture-recapture (SECR) overcome these issues by estimating density directly as an explicit 77 parameter (Efford, 2004; Royle et al., 2009)

Since being first applied to tiger populations in India (Karanth, 1995), capture-recapture techniques have been employed to obtain density estimates of most large carnivores, including for leopards in various African countries, such as South Africa (Balme *et al.*, 2009; Chase-Grey *et al.*, 2013; Swanepoel *et al.*, 2015), Gabon (Henschel, 2011), Tanzania (Cavallo, 1993), and Namibia (Stein *et al.*, 2011). Nevertheless, there is still paucity of such data across much of the continent, precluding effective conservation management (Balme *et al.*, 2014). This is particularly

the case for Mozambique, where armed conflicts during much of the latter half of the 20th century contributed to large declines in wildlife populations across the country (Hatton *et al.* 2001), and considerably hindered conservation efforts. As a result, very little research has been conducted on the status, distribution or ecology of the leopard in Mozambique.

Leopards are legally hunted for trophies in several locations in Mozambique, with the current 88 89 quota set at 120 permits per annum (CITES, 2007). This quota is based on efforts to estimate the 90 overall abundance of leopards in Mozambique by Martin & de Meulenaer (1988), who employed 91 a predictive model to estimate a country-wide population of 37,542 leopards, based on an average density of 0.10/km² (10 leopards per 100 km²). Such estimates have been widely rejected 92 93 as exaggerated for a number of reasons, including omitting from the model critical factors such 94 as anthropogenic mortalities and prey availability, and relying on the assumption that leopards 95 occur at maximum potential densities in all available habitats (Jackson, 1989; Balme et al., 2010). 96 Nevertheless, this approach was employed as a justification for the most recent increase in 97 trophy hunting quota, with a lack of alternative in-country estimates of population densities cited 98 as the principal reason for this (CITES, 2007). Consequently, more accurate assessments of 99 leopard populations in Mozambique are needed to assess the reliability of current quota setting 100 methods in the country, and to ensure that future changes in trophy hunting quotas are based on 101 robust population data.

Here we use a closed-population SECR methodology to estimate density of leopards in Xonghile Game Reserve (XGR), a legally protected area in southern Mozambique. The aim of the study was to obtain the first empirical density estimate for a leopard population in southern Mozambique, and provide information that can guide management and act as a baseline to assess conservation interventions. Finally, the implications of findings for trophy hunting in Mozambique are explored.

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111 STUDY AREA

112 Xonghile Game Reserve (Fig. 1) is a legally protected area in southern Mozambique. Its 113 northern-most border is located approximately 13 km south of Limpopo National Park's (LNP) 114 southern border, the country's largest national park. XGR is unfenced, bordering South Africa's 115 Kruger National Park (KNP) to the west and unprotected land to the north, east and south. The 116 reserve covers approximately 450 km², and is part of the Greater Limpopo Transfrontier 117 Conservation Area (GLTFCA), a trans-boundary initiative where protected parks and reserves in 118 Mozambique, South Africa and Zimbabwe are linked by non-protected areas. The predominant 119 habitat in XGR consists of sand plains ('sandveld') characterized by low woodlands and thickets 120 on deep sandy soils, as well as short-grass 'pans' (seasonally flooded depressions). Although large 121 mammal populations in the region were severely depleted during the country's many years of 122 armed conflicts (1964-1992; Hanks, 2000), the removal of fencing along the KNP border in 123 recent years has provided the potential for movement of wildlife into the area. No human population permanently resides in XGR, with the main anthropogenic impacts coming from 124 125 relatively low levels of poaching for bushmeat, anti-poaching efforts, and the low levels of 126 tourism the reserve experiences (Andresen & Everatt; unpublished data). Trophy hunting does 127 not currently take place in XGR.

128 Figure 1 here

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130 METHODS

131 Camera Trapping

132 29 digital motion-activated cameras of multiple models (Reconyx HC500, Spy Point Tiny-W2,

133 Bushnell Trophy Cam) were deployed at 26 stations over an area of c. 300 km² in XGR (Fig. 1),

between August 24 - November 23, 2012. Twenty-three stations had a single camera at thestation, while at three stations two cameras were deployed.

136 The majority of stations were located at a distance of between 0.5-3 km from one other, ensuring 137 that multiple cameras were likely to be present in an individual's home range. This was the case 138 for all but three stations, which were placed between 5 and 6 km from the nearest station. While 139 there was therefore a small possibility that an individual's home range did not contain a station, 140 SECR models allow for the presence of such 'holes' in the trap array when estimating density 141 (Borchers & Efford, 2008), and low prey densities in the study area (Andresen & Everatt, 142 unpublished data) suggest this is unlikely. Cameras were set on trees along roads and game trails at 143 a height of 35cm. The survey length of 92 days was considered adequate for assuming 144 demographic closure, consistently with numerous previous studies of large felids (e.g. Karanth, 145 1995; Alexander et al., 2015; Boron et al., 2016).

146 **Density Estimation**

Density was modelled in a SECR framework, using the package secr (Efford, 2015) running in R
v3.2.3 (R Core Development Team, 2015). A maximum-likelihood framework was chosen over a
Bayesian one as it provides results comparable with other studies (Tobler & Powell, 2013; Noss *et al.*, 2013) with quicker computation times (Efford, 2015).

151 Leopards were identified from their pelage patterns and sexed by visual inspection of external 152 genitalia. The flank with the greater number of captures (left) was chosen for identification of 153 individual leopards. Individual spatial capture and trap effort histories were developed following 154 the recommended procedures (Efford, 2015), with each day (24 hours) treated as a separate 155 sampling occasion, as recommended by recent findings (Goldberg et al., 2015). Information on 156 varying effort from different camera stations (exact number of days active) was included in order 157 to improve estimates of detection probability. The buffer width around the trapping grid was 158 increased until density estimates stabilised, ensuring that no individual outside of the buffer area

159 could be captured, and a half-normal detection function was fitted to the distance between home 160 range centre and station. This is the most commonly used function in spatial capture-recapture 161 analyses (Efford, 2004; Boron et al., 2016), and describes the probability of capture (P) of an 162 individual i at a trap j as a function of distance (d) from the activity centre of the individual to the trap, as follows: $P_{ij} = g0 \exp(-d_{ij}^2/(2\sigma^2))$, where g0 is the probability of capture at exactly the 163 164 home rang centre, and sigma (σ) is a spatial parameter related to home range size (Efford, 2004). 165 A Bernoulli or binomial encounter model was fitted to the data, as this is most relevant to 166 camera trapping studies; under this model, an individual can be recorded at different camera 167 stations during one sampling occasion, but only once at each station (Royle et al., 2009; Noss et 168 al., 2013).

169 Given that leopard populations have been shown to have unequal ranging patterns between 170 sexes (Bailey, 1993; Kittle et al., 2017), in turn potentially impacting capture parameters, sex was 171 modelled as a covariate (Sollmann et al., 2011; Tobler & Powell, 2013; Goldberg et al., 2015). This 172 was achieved by fitting a hybrid mixture model, which accommodates for individuals of 173 unknown sex (Efford, 2015). The impact of sex on both parameters g0 and σ was tested through 174 the comparison of four alternative models using the Akaike Information Criterion, adjusted for 175 small sample size (AICc; Burnham & Anderson, 2002): "secr.0" (null model), "secr.sex.g0" (g0 176 varies between males and females), "secr.sex. σ " (σ varies between males and females), and 177 "secr.sex" (both g0 and σ vary between males and females) (Efford, 2015; Boron *et al.*, 2016).

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179 **RESULTS**

180 Sampling effort & capture success

181 A total sampling effort of 1,021 trap nights by 26 stations (mean trap nights per camera = 39.3)
182 yielded 57 leopard capture events. Of these, 31 (54%) were used to identify nine individual
183 leopards (five males, two females, two unsexed); the remaining 26 events (46%) were not suitable

184	for identification (due to picture quality and/or wrong flank) and therefore discarded. Capture
185	frequencies were 9, 3, 2, 2, and 1 for the five males; 6 and 4 for the two females; and 3 and 1 for
186	the two unsexed individuals.
187	Density estimation
188	The best SECR model (AICc=360.36) did not allow either g0 or σ to vary with sex (secr.0), with
189	the model receiving significantly more support than the next best alternative (secr.sex. σ ,
190	Δ AICc=10.47; Table 1).
191	The leopard density estimate of the best fitted model (secr.0) was $2.60 \pm SE 0.96$ adults per 100
192	km ² . Capture probability at home range centre (g_0) was estimated at 0.043 ± SE 0.013, and the

- 193 scale parameter, σ , at 1,936 ± 279 m (Table 2). Buffer width stabilised at 10,000m, as reported by
- 194 similar leopard density studies (Gray & Prum, 2012; Borah et al., 2013).
- 195 Table 1 Here
- 196 Table 2 Here
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- 198 DISCUSSION
- 199 Leopard density
- 200 Our study provides a baseline leopard density estimate for a relatively well-protected area of the
- 201 region, which is also the first empirical estimate for a leopard population in Mozambique. Using
- 202 SECR models, we estimated leopard density in XGR at 2.60 \pm 0.96 adults per 100 km². While
- 203 density estimates obtained in XGR are on the lower end of the spectrum relative to studies
- 204 elsewhere in sub-Saharan Africa, they are nonetheless higher than estimates from other protected
- 205 areas of southern Africa, including the densities of 0.60 leopards per 100 km² in the dry
- 206 savannahs of the Kalahari Gemsbok National park (South Africa; Bothma & Le Riche, 1984); of
- 207 0.62 per 100 km² in the savannah/woodland Cederberg Wilderness Area (South Africa; Martins

& Harris, 2013); and of 1.50/100 km² in the savannah habitat of the Kaudom Game Reserve,
Namibia (Stander *et al.*, 1997).

210 In South Africa's KNP, contiguous with XGR's western border, high leopard densities of 211 $30.3/100 \text{ km}^2$ were reported for the Sabie riverine area (Bailey, 1993), and of $12.7/100 \text{ km}^2$ in the 212 N'wantesi concession (Maputla et al., 2013). We believe the observed differences are most likely a 213 reflection of contrasting habitats, and consequently prey availability, between study sites. While 214 density estimates from KNP came from highly productive riverine forests (Bailey, 1993) and 215 savannah woodlands (Maputla et al., 2013), XGR is predominantly comprised of nutrient-poor, 216 lower-productivity sandveld that is able to sustain lower animal densities (Redfern et al., 2003; 217 Scholes et al., 2003). Furthermore, the relatively high level of protection enjoyed by the reserve 218 (Andresen & Everatt, unpublished data.) indicate that artificially low prey densities due to human 219 hunting are unlikely.

220 Nonetheless, we cannot exclude the possibility that XGR could be acting as a population sink for 221 leopards dispersing from KNP, through anthropogenic mortalities occurring in the adjacent non-222 protected areas (NPAs). While no estimates for anthropogenic leopard mortalities in the area are 223 available, it is possible that individuals venturing into the NPAs adjoining the reserve could be 224 suffering relatively high anthropogenic mortality rates, which in turn could attract leopards from 225 surrounding areas (e.g. KNP). This 'vacuum effect' has been documented in large carnivores and 226 in leopards in particular, and it may cause edge effects that affect the interior of even very large 227 protected areas (Loveridge et al., 2007). Indeed, multiple incidents of poisoned leopards have 228 been recorded in nearby Limpopo National Park (Andresen & Everatt, unpublished data). Longer 229 term camera trapping or GPS collaring efforts, combined with social surveys targeting the 230 communities outside the reserve, are necessary to ascertain whether this is the case.

231 Methodological considerations and sex specific parameters

The majority of our stations comprised only one camera-trap, rather than the two-camera set-up (one for each flank) recommended (Karanth, 1995). Our strategy was a result of limited resources, allowing us to survey a larger area and thus increase the number of captured individuals. While we believe that in our case this was the best strategy, the trade-offs between surveying a larger area and obtaining higher identification rates should be considered on a caseby-case basis.

238 Interestingly, even though males commonly occupy territories overlapping with those of two to

four females (Bailey, 1993), more males (n=5) than females (n=2) were captured during our

study (although the gender of n=2 individuals could not be determined). Maputla *et al.* (2013)

also recorded a marked male-bias in capture rates, and cited several potential reasons for this, as

identified by Krebs (1999); heterogeneity in behaviour between genders in the vicinity of the

trap, and in tendencies to use trap locations (*e.g.* roads), were suggested as particularly probablecauses.

The SECR model which received the most support in the ranking was the model where sex did not influence neither the detection (g0) nor scale (σ) parameters. However, rather than indicating the absence of widely described sex-dependent heterogeneity in behaviour and ranging patterns (e.g. Bailey, 1993; Kittle *et al.*, 2017), we believe that the relatively small sample size did not provide enough data to allow for the inference and modelling of sex-specific differences in detectability and ranging patterns.

251 Implications for conservation policy in Mozambique

Trophy hunting has been shown to have substantial potential to foster conservation of large carnivores (Lindsey *et al.*, 2007; Loveridge *et al.*, 2007), and it is estimated that each leopard hunted in Mozambique has the potential to contribute in the region of \$ 24,000 to the local and national economy (Jorge *et al.*, 2013). However, if poorly managed or additive to other source of anthropogenic mortality, excessive harvesting of a species can reduce numbers to such an extent that a population is no longer viable in the long term. Demonstrating that hunting practices,
including quotas, are biologically sustainable is therefore essential if trophy hunting is to be
considered an effective tool in the management and conservation of large African carnivores
((Swanepoel *et al.*, 2014; Braczkowski *et al.*, 2015).

261 Our results lead us to question the reliability of the estimates being employed to set leopard 262 quotas in Mozambique. The study by Martin & de Meulenaer (1988), quoted as the primary 263 justification for a recent trophy export quota increase in Mozambique (from 60 to 120 264 individuals per annum; CITES, 2007), states that up to 80% of Mozambique supports leopard at 265 between 3-10 individuals per 100 km². In addition, it also suggests that only 3% of the country's 266 total land area should exhibit leopard population densities lower than those found by the present 267 study. However, our estimated of 2.60 per 100 km² in XGR, one of the better protected areas in 268 the country, suggests that it is unlikely that many areas in Mozambique exhibit the densities cited 269 in the quota revision application. Although some landscapes will yield higher primary 270 productivity levels than XGR, it seems plausible that the high levels of anthropogenic 271 disturbances common in much of the country (Hatton et al., 2001) would often more than 272 counteract this. Thus, while we appreciate that trophy hunting has not taken place in our study 273 area in almost 10 years (Andresen & Everatt, unpublished data.), and we acknowledge the 274 limitations of our study in terms of size and number of individuals encountered relative to the 275 overall range and total population, we believe that it is unlikely that leopard densities as high as 276 those cited in the quota increase application are common in the majority of areas where hunting 277 currently takes place.

As a result, we recommend further assessments of leopard population status and densities across different habitats and land-use types across the country, in both hunting and potential protected source areas. This would be an important first step towards the development of a sustainable and empirical leopard trophy hunting quota allocation system in Mozambique, similar to that being currently developed for neighbouring South Africa, which includes age-based hunting regulations, adaptive management strategies, and dynamic, evidence-based quota systems (Department of Environmental Affairs, 2017). Camera trapping surveys such as ours would be a relatively rapid method to obtain robust estimates of leopard numbers at moderate cost (Balme *et al.*, 2009), and, if followed by effective management interventions, would play an important role in the species' successful recovery and conservation in many recuperating post-conflict landscapes across the country.

Finally, we believe the identified conservation problems are not exclusive to Mozambique, with both Tanzania and Namibia employing the Martin & de Meulenaer (1988) density estimates for justification in previous leopard quota modifications approved by CITES (CITES 2002, 2004). Our results reinforce the need for caution when setting leopard quotas, and the importance of reliable population estimates across its range. We suggest similar research be carried out in other regions where such estimates are used to set leopard harvest quotas, in the hope of a continentwide shift towards evidence-based processes being employed to guide management and policy.

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AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

Data was collected by LA and KE; analyses were performed by PS; write-up was a collaboration CLICZ

between all authors.

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- 446 TABLES
- 447 Table 1

TABLES						
Table 1						
Table 1 Model selection parameters for Spatially Explicit Capture Recapture (SECR) models in R package 'secr'						
Model	AICc	∆AICc	AIC wt	К	Dev.	
g0 (.) sigma (.)	360.364	0.000	1	4	324.364	
	370.835	10.471	0	5	322.663	
g0 (sex) sigma (.)	371.280	10.916	0	5	323.281	
g0 (sex) sigma (sex)	394.663	34.299	0	6	322.835	

AICc = Akaike Information Criterion, adjusted for small sample size; ΔAICc = difference in AICc values between each model and best ranking (lowest AIC) model; AICc wt = AICc model weights; K = number of model parameters; Dev. = Model deviances. q0 = probability of capture at home range centre; $\sigma = spatial parameter related to home range size. secr.0: null$ model; secr.sex.g0: g0 varies between males and females; secr.sex: both g0 and o vary between males and females; secr.sex.o: σ varies between males and females.

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450 Table 2

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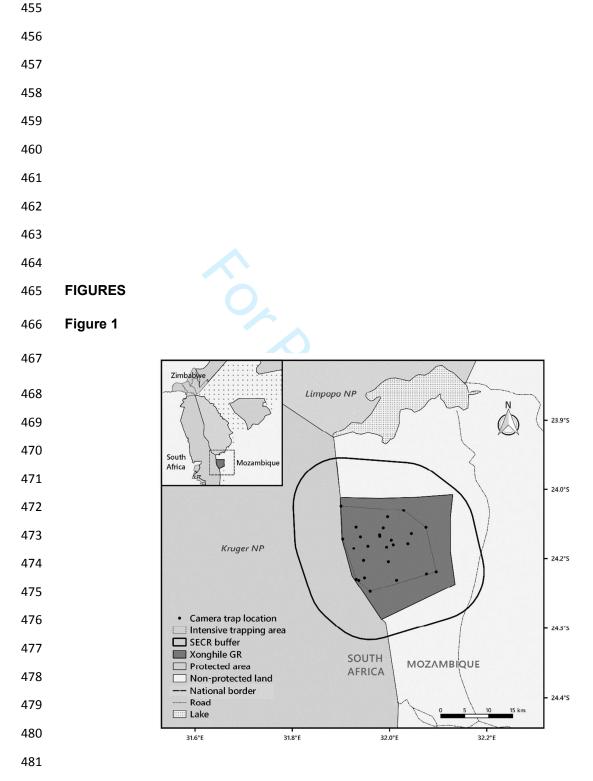
Table 2 Density and parameters estimated by the best Spatially Explicit Capture Recapture (SECR) model (secr.0)

	Value	SE	95% LCI	95% UCI
g0	0.043	0.013	0.024	0.078
Σ̃(m)	1963	279	1464	2562
D (N/100km ²)	2.599	0.957	1.292	5.231

SE = Standard error; LCI and UCI = lower and upper confidence intervals respectively; D = Density. g0 = probability of capture at the home range centre; σ = spatial parameter related to home range size

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482 Figure 1 Legend

Fig.1 Xonghile Game Reserve (XGR), including camera locations and intensive trapping area within a
 10 km buffer zone, as required by the SECR models. Inset map: XGR in the context of the wider

485 GLTFCA, comprising both protected areas (grey) and non-protected lands (dotted).

to per period