

Mexican wolf management needs transparency in methods and data inclusion to support suggested policy decisions; a response to Breck et al. (2023)

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1 **Keywords**

2 Data transparency, genetic management, illegal killing, management removal, Mexican
3 wolves, policy implications, releases, translocation

4

5 **Summary**

6 1. Mexican wolves (*Canis lupus baileyi*), an endangered subspecies of gray wolves,
7 were extirpated in the Southwest United States by the 1970s. Since 1998,
8 reintroduced Mexican wolves have been listed as an endangered species under
9 the U.S. Endangered Species Act. Policies that govern how wolves are managed
10 have changed over time intending to reduce conflict, improve wolf survival, and
11 better manage the recovery of the population.

12 2. In their analysis on the factors affecting Mexican wolf recovery, Breck et al.
13 (2023) searched for correlates of population growth rate, mortality, and illegal
14 killing and presented a result that led to the suggestion that releases of captive-
15 bred adult wolves should be minimized. Here we identify four shortcomings in
16 Breck et al. (2023) that we argue compromise and dilute their policy
17 recommendations and conclusions: i) policy misalignment, ii) data mismatches,
18 iii) deviations from Liberg et al. (2012) and iv) lack of consideration for genetic
19 consequences.

20 3. In this forum we describe our concerns with Breck et al. (2023)'s analysis
21 phases, which are based on institutional knowledge and not citable policy
22 implementation and termination dates.

- 23 4. We explain how some of the data Breck et al. (2023) chose to include, or
24 exclude, in their analyses do not align with publicly available agency data. We
25 also describe how Breck et al. (2023) deviate from the methods employed by
26 Liberg et al. (2012) without sufficient clarity and explanation despite citing Liberg
27 et al. (2012) as the basis for their modeling.
- 28 5. Breck et al. (2023)'s conclusion to limit releases does not consider the genetic
29 consequences their recommendations can have on long-term recovery. Here we
30 describe this oversight.
- 31 6. *Synthesis and applications*: Breck et al. (2023) has several shortcomings, such
32 as omissions in the interpretation of policy periods, lack of clarity on data
33 inclusion and exclusion, unclear use of and changes to a referenced model and
34 insufficient consideration of genetic diversity. While democratic, participatory, and
35 transparent processes are needed for fostering coexistence between Mexican
36 wolves and people, recommending reductions in approaches that enhance
37 genetic diversity in this endangered population seems premature without
38 stronger supporting evidence.

39

40 **Introduction**

41

42 Breck et al. (2023) analyzed the factors affecting Mexican wolf (*Canis lupus baileyi*)
43 recovery in the US Southwest, by searching for correlates of population growth rate,
44 mortality, and illegal killing. They did so by using the number of wolf removals,
45 translocations and releases as predictors. Louchouart et al. (2021) conducted a

46 survival analysis on this same population of wolves and inferred that there existed a
47 positive correlation between Mexican wolf unobserved, i.e. cryptic poaching, and
48 policies that removed wolves. However, based on their analysis, Breck et al. (2023)
49 assert that less than one wolf per year was cryptically poached and that illegal killing
50 increased when wolf removals decreased. They also report a positive relationship
51 between the illegal killing of Mexican wolves and the release of captive-reared adult
52 wolves and/or translocation of wolves.

53

54 Here we identify four shortcomings in Breck et al. (2023) that we argue compromise
55 their policy recommendations and conclusions. First, the detailed policy history is not
56 adequately explained with sufficient transparency. Second, there are inconsistencies in
57 the method description, and the use of particular data sets. Third, Breck et al. (2023)'s
58 methods are confusing as they do not follow the models they refer to, and why certain
59 data was included and others excluded. Finally, Breck et al (2023), do not fully consider
60 the genetic consequences of their recommendations. These issues could have
61 significant implications for the recovery of the endangered and genetically compromised
62 Mexican wolf population. We find that in combination, these shortcomings result in
63 Breck et al. (2023) making premature conclusions.

64

65 **i) Policy Misalignment**

66

67 Mexican wolves were extirpated in the Southwest United States by the 1970s (USFWS,
68 2019). In 1978, the first pups were born in captivity and in 1998, the first wolves were

69 released into the recovery zone in New Mexico and Arizona. Since then, reintroduced
70 Mexican wolves and their wild progeny have been listed as a non-essential,
71 experimental population under section 10(j) of the U.S. Endangered Species Act (ESA).
72 Two notable policies have impacted wolf management during the study period:
73 Standard Operating Procedure 13.0 (“SOP 13”), in effect from 2005 to 2009, and a
74 change in the 10(j) rule in 2015. SOP 13 was a binding commitment by the United
75 States Fish and Wildlife Service (USFWS) to take lethal or permanent wolf removal
76 actions in response to livestock predation (AMOC, 2005). Removals of wolves under
77 SOP 13 resulted in the population growth rate flattening from 2003 to 2009 (Fitzgerald,
78 2018). The change in the 10(j) rule increased the recovery area for initial releases of
79 captive-reared wolves and increased allowable forms of take of Mexican wolves among
80 other policy changes. However, after finalization of the new 10(j) rule, state wildlife
81 agencies no longer allowed captive adult wolves to be released into the recovery zone,
82 only allowing the release of fostered pups into wild dens.

83

84 Breck et al. (2023) examined how periods with different wolf removal rates and release
85 and translocation policies correlated to population growth rate, mortality, and illegal
86 killing by dividing their analysis into two phases, the first from 1998 - 2007 (“Phase 1”)
87 and the second from 2008 - 2019 (“Phase 2”). Their rationale for this choice of periods
88 was based on institutional knowledge about the implementation dates of SOP 13 (Breck
89 et al, 2023 Appendix S1). Although management removals did decrease in 2008, as
90 Breck et al. (2023) suggest, SOP 13 did not officially end until 2009 (USFWS, 2022b).
91 Past studies examining wolf survival or population dynamics in response to policy

92 changes, including one in this same system, suggest that policy start and end dates
93 have important impacts on illegal killing (Chapron & Treves 2016; Louchouart et al.
94 2021). Given the evidence in the literature does not support their approach, we urge
95 Breck et al. (2023) to justify their decision to use implementation dates and numbers of
96 wolves removed by management rather than the start and end dates of SOP 13.
97 Further, if Breck et al. (2023) were examining how policies affecting wolf releases relate
98 to illegal killing and mortality, we question why they chose not to mention the change in
99 the 10(j) rule, nor clarify how releasing only fostered pups after 2015 might impact their
100 results.

101

102 **ii) Data Mismatches**

103

104 Some of the data Breck et al. (2023) chose to include, or exclude, in their analyses do
105 not align with publicly available USFWS data (USFWS, 2022a,b,c) as we detail below.
106 Moreover, we argue that the discrepancies in these datasets have consequences for
107 Breck et al. (2023)'s conclusions.

108

109 Breck et al. (2023)'s Table S1 groups all Mexican wolf management removals from the
110 wild for various reasons into one column as a parameter for their model. The USFWS
111 data publicly available divides those removals into four categories: livestock, nuisance,
112 boundary, and other (Table 1; USFWS, 2022b). The 'other' category may include the re-
113 pairing of wolves, pup management or fostering, veterinary care, or genetic
114 considerations (USFWS, 2022b). Management removals can therefore be split into

115 conflict removals, for livestock and nuisance issues, and non-conflict removals, i.e.,
116 removals of wolves crossing the delineated 10(j) recovery area boundary. These
117 removals occur for different reasons, but they were not treated separately in Breck et al.
118 (2023)'s data and model (Table 1). Grouping the causes of management removals of
119 wolves in conflict situations and non-conflict situations poses questions about Breck et
120 al. (2023)'s conclusions that "the removal of wolves that cause conflict could equate to
121 lower illegal killing rates" (Breck et al., 2023). Livestock and Nuisance removal data
122 includes adult wolves with dependent wolf pups in 2005, 2006, & 2007, thereby inflating
123 the number of removals with dependent pups, which are unlikely to cause conflicts
124 (USFWS 2022b).

125

126 Breck et al. (2023) assert the most significant finding from their model was the positive
127 relationship between the illegal killing of Mexican wolves and the release of captive-
128 reared adult wolves and/or translocation of wolves. They conclude that this increase in
129 illegal mortality is the result of naive wolves being placed into unfamiliar territories and
130 thus recommend limiting releases and translocations when possible in order to lower
131 the illegal mortality of Mexican wolves (Breck et al. 2023, p. 8). However, the data Breck
132 et al. (2023) included on releases and translocations is inconsistent with the publicly
133 available data from USFWS (see Breck et al., 2024, Table S1; Table 2). Of the 133
134 translocated wolves included in their data (Table 2), 53 were boundary-related
135 management removals and translocations (Table 1), i.e., dispersers who crossed
136 outside the 10(j) designated management boundary and were often translocated back
137 to their natal pack territories, which are not unfamiliar areas on the landscape for wolves

138 as the authors claim (USFWS, 2015b). Breck et al (2023)'s data also include at least
139 two wolves (M1695 and M1394) captured in the U.S. wild population in 2019 and
140 subsequently translocated to Mexico, which is outside the scope of their analysis
141 (USFWS, 2022b). Breck et al. (2023) do not explain which wolves were included or
142 excluded in their translocation data. It appears that in several years their data includes
143 wolves that were lethally removed from the wild, or captured and retained in captivity
144 under the column of "Translocation", i.e. see data for 2003 and 2011 (see Breck et al.,
145 2024, Table S1; Table 2). Therefore, of the 133 'translocated' wolves on which they
146 based their conclusions, at least 55 (41%) were either not true translocations of new
147 wolves, or were wolves translocated out of the study area and not into it.

148
149 In addition, the Breck et al. (2023) data includes four years (2016 - 2019) of fostered
150 pups (n = 30) into the wild as initial releases. We find their inclusion confusing in light of
151 their policy recommendations. The USFWS defines pup fostering as "the transfer of
152 offspring from their biological parent(s) and placement with surrogate parents" (USFWS,
153 2022d). In a captive-to-wild fostering event, the pups reside with their birth parents in
154 captivity for 14 days or less, until being transferred to the wild and placed in a den with
155 surrogate parents (USFWS, 2022d). Without separating the adult wolf releases from the
156 fostered pup releases in their data, we question how the authors can conclude that adult
157 captive-reared wolves have naïve and nonadaptive behaviors in the wild that lead to
158 more illegal killings (Breck et al., 2023, p. 8, citing Harding et al., 2016). Breck et al.
159 (2023) assert that translocated and released wolves are not familiar with the landscape,
160 may be more likely to cause conflicts and therefore be killed illegally. However, as we

161 explain above, the data the authors use to support this claim is made up of an unknown,
162 and likely significant proportion of wolves who are familiar with the landscape either
163 because they were translocated back to their pack territories. Nearly 24% of the wolf
164 releases in their data consist of fostered pups <14 days of age who were raised by a
165 pack in the wild, which seems to contradict the conclusion that captive-reared releases
166 lead to increased illegal mortality (USFWS, 2022a,d).

167

168 Further, although Breck et al. (2023)'s data stopped in 2019 (see Breck et al., 2024,
169 Table S1), they assert in the discussion that the slower population growth rate from
170 2020 to 2021 was due to lower pup survival, disease outbreaks, drought or other
171 undetected factors. They specifically state that it was "*not a result of increased removal*
172 *rates or other mortality*" (Breck et al. 2023, p. 8). However, the USFWS public data
173 show a high level of mortality, including illegal mortality and legal mortality for each of
174 these years, as well as high management removals in 2020 and 2021 – potentially
175 contradicting the authors' conclusions (USFWS, 2022c). There were five lethal removals
176 of Mexican wolves in 2020, tied as the highest year for lethal removals since the
177 reintroduction program began, when five wolves were lethally removed in 2006
178 (USFWS, 2022b). The above quotation by Breck et al. (2023) highlights the lack of
179 clarity around which data were included or omitted in Table S1, when compared to the
180 publically available USFWS Mexican wolf Population data (see Table 1 & 2) (USFWS,
181 2015a,b,c,d).

182

183 **iii) Deviations from Liberg et al. (2012)**

184
185 Breck et al. (2023) test two hypotheses regarding illegal mortality, i.e., poaching: 1) that
186 reintroduction and translocation of wolves would cause increased poaching, and 2) that
187 increased management removals would reduce poaching. Breck et al. (2023) claim to
188 use “*the technique developed by Liberg et al. (2012) to estimate illegal killing rates*
189 *more accurately,*” (Breck et al., 2023 p. 2202), but then deviated from Liberg et al.
190 (2012) in three important ways that Breck et al. (2023) do not justify.

191
192 First, Breck et al. (2023)’s process model updates an overall non-removal mortality rate
193 and subsequently allocates a portion of that model-estimated mortality rate as the
194 poaching rate. In doing so, Breck et al. (2023) assume that unobserved mortality mirrors
195 the patterns of observed mortality, in contrast with Liberg et al. (2012), who assumed
196 that unaccounted-for mortality was overwhelmingly likely to be poaching. In short, given
197 the same dataset, Breck et al. (2023)’s approach will estimate lower cryptic
198 (unobserved) poaching than Liberg et al. (2012)’s approach (Treves et al., 2017). This
199 deviation is material to Breck et al. (2023)’s hypotheses regarding poaching.

200
201 Second, Breck et al. (2023)’s modeling approach assumes that cryptic poaching and
202 observed poaching are not fundamentally different processes that may respond
203 differently to policy signals, but rather a single poaching process that is imperfectly
204 observed. This assumption contrasts with Liberg et al. (2012), who treated these as
205 separate mortality variables. Moreover, a previous study of the same Mexican wolf
206 population (Louchouart et al., 2021) alongside other studies of gray wolf populations

207 (Chapron & Treves, 2016; Santiago-Ávila et al., 2020; Santiago-Ávila & Treves, 2022)
208 and a red wolf population (Agan et al., 2021; Santiago-Ávila et al. 2022) have
209 repeatedly observed different patterns of cryptic and observed poaching. Sometimes
210 rates of the two types of poaching change in opposite directions as policies changed,
211 hinting at how Breck et al. conflating the two might obscure important patterns.

212

213 Third, Breck et al. (2023) do not compare their population-model estimate of cryptic
214 poaching to the number of wolves “lost to follow up,” (i.e. disappeared from monitoring
215 because of a failed or destroyed radio collar) as Liberg et al. (2012) did. In particular, 67
216 collared wolves were considered “lost to follow up” from 1998 to 2016; 29% of the
217 population dropped out of the monitoring data for this reason (Louchouart et al., 2021).
218 While individuals lost to follow up are often censored in survival analyses, the decision
219 to do so should be justified and done with care to avoid under-estimation bias for certain
220 causes of death that are associated with transmitter failure such as poaching. We argue
221 that Breck et al. (2023) did not adequately consider or discuss one of Liberg et al.
222 (2012)’s main insights: that disappearances of known individuals from the isolated,
223 closed population of wolves in Scandinavia most likely reflected cryptic poaching.

224

225 Moreover, the lack of mention of the disappearances of collared Mexican wolves does
226 not adequately reflect on prior work in the Mexican Wolf recovery zone. Louchouart et
227 al. (2021) recently demonstrated that the hazard and incidence of Mexican wolf
228 disappearances from 1998 to 2016 correlated with two policies that authorized the
229 removal of wolves, a finding particularly relevant to Breck et al. (2023). Wolves may

230 disappear from a monitored population for three reasons: 1. The wolf migrated out of
231 monitoring range. This is not likely in this case or would affect few collared wolves,
232 given “*the intensive monitoring efforts accompanying the Mexican wolf recovery*
233 *program*” (Breck et al. 2023, pg.8). 2. The radio collar may fail. While we are well aware
234 single collars fail (Habib et al. 2014 estimate this rate at 13-14% for VHF collars), a
235 series of collar failures would be unusual and would denote a faulty batch of collars.
236 Further, due to the intensive monitoring of the population, a live wolf with a failed collar
237 is more likely to be recovered quickly, and this is generally shown in the data, unless the
238 data are incomplete or not transparently shared. And finally, 3. Wolves die and the
239 carcass disappears with concurrent transmitter failure, which results show (Louchouart
240 et al. 2021) correlates to the SOP 13 and 10(j) rule change policy periods because
241 these disappearances are most often cryptic poaching (Treves et al. 2017; Liberg et al.
242 2012) unless the collar failed first (see point 2).

243

244 While Breck et al. (2023) refer to Liberg et al. (2012)’s work as the basis for their model,
245 they do not make clear their reasons for substantial analytical deviations from Liberg et
246 al.’s work. In the discussion, they attribute differences between their findings and those
247 of Liberg et al. (2012) to socio-ecological system differences without mention of
248 important methodological differences. We suggest Breck et al. (2023) were free to adapt
249 the model but they should state and justify their modifications of Liberg et al.’s model
250 that are pertinent to their hypotheses, as we have detailed here.

251

252 **iv) Consideration of Genetic Consequences**

253

254 Breck et al. (2023)'s conclusion to limit releases considers only the change in the
255 population over time, which they defined in their methods to mean the population size
256 with demographic losses and gains (section 2.2, p. 4). However, the authors did not
257 mention the genetic consequences their recommendations can have on the long-term
258 recovery and persistence of a small, reintroduced endangered population.

259

260 All Mexican wolves alive today descended from just seven individual founders from the
261 1980s. This means the Mexican wolf population descends from one of the smallest
262 effective founder populations of any endangered species ever reintroduced from near
263 extinction (Hedrick, 2017). Mexican wolves have the lowest levels of genetic
264 heterozygosity of any gray wolf population due to human-caused population declines
265 (Taron et al., 2021). Releases and translocations of Mexican wolves serve two
266 important purposes: to increase population numbers and to increase the population's
267 genetic diversity and evolutionary adaptive potential. These important management
268 objectives should be carefully considered before adopting policies that limit wolf
269 releases.

270

271 The release of captive-reared adult wolves is a method by which managers attempt to
272 increase genetic diversity as part of a recovery program and was the established
273 technique used to increase genetic diversity in the wild for Mexican wolves since 1998.
274 (USFWS, 2015). However, in 2015, in response to the new 10(j) rule, the game and fish
275 commission of Arizona unanimously opposed the release of any captive-reared adult

276 wolves, and, later that same year, New Mexico denied permits to the USFWS to
277 conduct releases of captive-reared adults (AZGFD, 2015; NMDGF, 2015). Although the
278 USFWS had the federal authority to continue releases in accordance with the 10(j) final
279 rule, they adopted the states' policies to cease adult wolf releases since 2016 (USFWS,
280 2015; USFWS, 2022a).

281
282 Further, the policy decisions by the Arizona and New Mexico state game and fish
283 commissions to oppose captive-reared adult wolf releases were made prior to the first
284 attempted fostering of captive Mexican wolf pups in 2016 (AZGFD, 2015; NMDGF,
285 2015). Captive-to-wild pup fostering of Mexican wolves had never been done before,
286 and there was no evidence that fostering would be a successful technique for increasing
287 genetic diversity in the wild population (USFWS, 2022a). Breck et al. (2023)'s
288 conclusion to limit captive-reared adult wolf releases aligns with the states' policy
289 decisions, but as we have argued above it is premature due to uncertainties and lack of
290 clarity in Breck et al (2023)'s data and analysis.

291

292 **Conclusions**

293

294 We argue that there are shortcomings in Breck et al (2023)'s policy evaluation due to i)
295 omissions in the interpretation of the policy periods, ii) lack of clarity on the inclusion
296 and exclusion of essential available data, iii) unclear modification of the published model
297 they claimed to use, and iv) insufficient consideration of genetic diversity in
298 management recommendations. Therefore, it remains unclear whether the policies

299 limiting adult wolf releases or translocation correlate to illegal mortality, though
300 Louchouart et al. (2021) suggest they do.

301
302 Democratic, participatory, and transparent processes that are informed by scientific
303 evidence and consensus are essential for fostering the coexistence of Mexican wolves
304 and people. However, in the meantime, it seems premature to recommend reductions in
305 approaches that enhance the genetic diversity in an endangered population of wolves
306 without stronger evidence to support the conclusions for doing so.

307

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387

388 **Figure Legends**

389

390 Table 1: A comparison between the data used in Breck et al. (2023) collectively
391 presented as “Management removal” and publicly available data from the USFWS
392 (orange) that detail the causes of Mexican wolf management removals from 1998-2022
393 (USFWS 2022b). Unexplained discrepancies in the data are highlighted in yellow.

394

395 Table 2: Mexican wolf removals from Breck et al. (2024) versus USFWS, 2022b. Data
396 highlighted in yellow represent discrepancies.

Table 1:

	<i>Breck et al. (2024) data (see Table S1)</i>	Causes of Mexican wolf management removals 1998-2022 (from USFWS, 2022b)				
Year	<i>Management removal</i>	Livestock	Nuisance	Boundary	Other	Total
1998	6	0	2	1	3	6
1999	12	9	0	0	3	12
2000	23	6	6	5	6	23
2001	10	2	2	6	0	10
2002	7	2	1	4	0	7
2003	15	2	1	12	0	15
2004	7	4	1	2	0	7
2005	21	10*	5	5	1	21
2006	18	16*	1	1	0	18
2007	23	19*	1	3	0	23
2008	2	0	0	2	0	2
2009	7	0	0	4	3	7
2010	0	0	0	0	0	0
2011	2	1	1	2	0	4
2012	1	1	0	0	0	1
2013	6	2	1	2	1	6
2014	13	2	0	2	9	13
2015	4	1	1	0	2	4
2016	2	2	0	0	0	2
2017	10	4	0	1	4	9
2018	4	1	0	1	3	5
2019	9	7	0	0	6	13
	202	91	23	53	41	208

*Includes adult wolves and dependent pups; see USFWS Annual Reports for additional details.

Other = e.g., re-pairings, cross-foster of wolf pups, wolf pup removal due to adult abandonment, veterinary care, genetic management of population.

Table 2:

<i>From Breck et al. (2024) data (see Table S1)</i>		Outcomes of Mexican wolf management removals 1998-2022 (from USFWS, 2022b)				
Year	<i>Translocation</i>	Lethal Control	Translocated in U.S. population	Translocated in Mexico population	Retained in Captivity	Total
1998	3	0	4	0	2	6
1999	2	0	9	0	3	12
2000	18	0	16	0	7	23
2001	6	0	7	0	3 ^b	10
2002	7	0	4	0	3	7
2003	15	1	13	0	1	15
2004	9	1	6	0	0	7
2005	16	1	15 ^d	0	5 ^{d,e}	21
2006	6	5	3	0	10 ^{d,b}	18
2007	5	3	11 ^d	3 ^d	6 ^d	23
2008	6	0	2	0	0	2
2009	6	0	5 ^e	0	2 ^e	7
2010	1	0	0	0	0	0
2011	4	1	2	0	1	4
2012	0	0	0	0	1	1
2013	3	0	2	0	4 ^e	6
2014	12	0	11 ^e	0	2	13
2015	1	1	1 ^e	1 ^e	1	4
2016	0	0	0	0	2	2
2017	2	1	2 ^e	0	6 ^e	9
2018	5	0	4 ^e	0	1	5
2019	6	1	5 ^e	2	5 ^e	13
	133	15	122	6	65	208

^a Translocations indicated above may not have occurred in the year of removal

^b One wolf died during non-lethal removal activities

^c Standard Operating Procedure 13.0 (Control of Mexican Wolves) was finalized on 10 October 2005, however, management-related wolf removals throughout the remainder of 2005 were conducted under the auspices of an earlier draft version. SOP 13.0 guidelines were authorized through 2 December 2009.

^d includes adult wolves and dependent pups; see USFWS Annual Reports for additional details.

^e e.g., re-pairings, cross-foster of wolf pups, wolf pup removal due to adult abandonment, veterinary care, genetic management of population.
(from USFWS, 2022b)