

1 **Response to Roberts, Stenglein, Wydeven, and others**

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20 **Abstract**

21 Human-caused mortality has been the major cause of death among wolves worldwide. In 2017,

22 we summarized a 33-year dataset of >933 gray wolf deaths from Wisconsin, USA and estimated

23 that poaching was the major source of mortality. Roberts et al. challenge our reinterpretation of

24 data on causes of death and disappearances and urge us to use standard known-fates survival
25 models rather than the combined time-to-event and total accounting methods we used. They do
26 not cite subsequent time-to-event and competing risk and incidence models we published, raising
27 an issue of selective citation of only their own work. Regarding reinterpretations, Roberts et al.
28 neither present evidence for their claims nor revisit records of cause of death to argue their
29 claims. Regarding traditional known-fate survival models, we review the violation of a critical
30 assumption of such models. Namely, causes of death were not independent of censoring among
31 Wisconsin collared wolves. Rates of disappearance approximating 42% of all collared animals
32 are incompatible with the assumption that unknown-fate, collared wolves died of the same
33 causes as known fate animals. We demonstrate that Roberts et al. made an erroneous claim that
34 wolves frequently out-live the operational lives of their VHF collars. We present evidence of
35 undisclosed competing interests among Roberts et al.'s co-authors. In scientific debates, the most
36 transparent assumptions, methods, and data prevail, because outside reviewers can judge for
37 themselves. We stand by the conclusions of our combined analyses 2017-2023.

38 **Key words:** fact by assertion, mortality, radio-collar, research integrity, time-to-event models,
39 wolf

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43 *A. Summary of scientific debate and nature of the data for Wisconsin wolf mortality*

44 Roberts et al. criticize our 7-year-old paper on gray wolf mortality in Wisconsin 1979-2012

45 (Treves et al. 2017a), challenging our reinterpretation of data on causes of death and

46 disappearances. However, Roberts et al. neither present new data nor revisit specific records of

47 cause of death. They do not engage with the high rate of errors we found in age estimation and

48 low rate of questionable estimates of cause of death we meticulously described in the original
49 (Sections B and C below). Given Roberts et al. and some of the co-authors persistently resist
50 sharing data or specifying records of cause of death that deserve re-examination, we are not
51 persuaded. We also point out a problem with information sharing as Roberts et al. refused to
52 disclose potentially competing financial and non-financial interests (Section E below). Roberts et
53 al. also urge us to use standard known-fates survival models rather than the combined time-to-
54 event and total accounting methods we used in 2017. Mysteriously, they do not acknowledge
55 subsequent time-to-event and competing risk and incidence models we published for Wisconsin
56 wolves (Santiago-Ávila, Chappell and Treves 2020; Santiago-Ávila and Treves 2022) or three
57 other populations (Louchouart et al. 2021; Santiago-Ávila et al. 2022; Louchouart 2023). We
58 document several other instances of selective citation in Roberts et al., which feels to us like a
59 manuscript that sat on a shelf for years and was not informed by our subsequent work.

60 While we agree that advanced survival models and hazard and competing risks models
61 that treat disappearance as an endpoint are superior to our 2017 effort to combine simple time-to-
62 event analysis with a total accounting method for wolves that died in Wisconsin, Roberts et al.
63 make a blatant error by ignoring a feature of the dataset that violates a key assumption of
64 traditional known-fate survival models (section D below). Namely, wolf disappearances they
65 would censor are not independent of cause of death. In particular, cryptic poaching presents this
66 problem as theft or destruction of transmitters or other concealment of poaching results in non-
67 random censoring (Liberg et al. 2012). To dismiss this issue, Roberts et al. assert without
68 evidence that we exaggerate cryptic poaching and that Wisconsin wolves “frequently out-live the
69 operational life of their radio-collars” (line 3.58, p.3). We present evidence that renders that
70 assertion untenable (Section D below). The bias Roberts et al. introduce is a negative bias for

71 poaching and a positive bias for accurately recorded causes of death such as legal killing and
72 vehicle collisions (Treves et al. 2016; Treves et al. 2017b). Before focusing where we agree or
73 disagree, we summarize the relevant nature of the data, (which Roberts et al. omitted), because it
74 is essential to understanding and resolving this scientific debate.

75

76 *B. Nature of the Wisconsin wolf mortality data*

77 The original sources of data for our paper are the same sources as cited by Roberts et al.
78 with the possible differences of a handful of wolves included or excluded by either analysis
79 (Stenglein et al. 2015). Namely, the original sources of information came from field agents of the
80 Wisconsin Department of Natural Resources (WDNR) who collected or inspected >933 canid
81 carcasses in the field. WDNR necropsied some of those carcasses (34.6%) and a subset of those
82 were also radiographed (22.1% of 933 wolf carcasses). Therefore, causes of death for the
83 majority were estimated without veterinary or pathologist input.

84 The methods used in the field to estimate cause of death systematically and categorically
85 have never been described scientifically by (ex-)WDNR authors, many of whom are also co-
86 authors in Roberts et al. Many different agents worked from 1979–2012 with carcasses in
87 variable states of decomposition, adding subjectivity about causes of deaths. Consequently, most
88 of the original mortality causes are not subject to re-analysis and the field-estimation methods
89 cannot be reproduced. Therefore, all subsequent peer-reviewed analyses of wolf mortality are
90 secondary sources that interpret the primary field data.

91 As with Stenglein et al. (2015), we attempted an objective, collaborative, standardized
92 estimation from primary sources. Our study was also funded by the WDNR and US Fish &
93 Wildlife Service (MSN136619 and MSN146937). However, our study stands out as more

94 transparent by presenting line by line each wolf carcass and its interpretation for cause of death
95 (detailed in our original paper in SD 1-3 and permanently archived here
96 https://faculty.nelson.wisc.edu/treves/data_archives/Treves_etal_2017_with_SuppInfo.zip
97 accessed 7 January 2024). It also stands out because we found and corrected errors in field
98 estimates, which Roberts et al. do not address or refute, as below.

99 Roberts et al. misstate the veterinary record. JAL, our veterinary expert conducted many
100 of the necropsies and interpreted radiographs for the WDNR for many years of the study period
101 and also co-authored (Stenglein et al. 2015), JAL played a clear, explicit role: "JAL reviewed
102 necropsy data with ..help...[from] K. Miller, N. Thomas, and B. Richards of the United States
103 Geological Survey and National Wildlife Health Center for access to and review of pathology
104 data." (p.30 and SD4A in Treves et al. 2017a). JAL was one of the original veterinarians who
105 conducted necropsies and JAL reviewed a number of reinterpreted or reaffirmed necropsy
106 reports before our analysis. For one example, JAL found scientific reasons to reinterpret cause of
107 death to poaching for wolf #WI-2007-077," (p.25 and SD4A in Treves et al. 2017a). JAL's
108 concerns about WDNR mortality reports at the time were not always heeded. Roberts et al. do
109 not cite a single case to rebut one of our reinterpretations, relying instead on plausible
110 hypotheticals.

111 Also, we found what we interpret as errors in age estimation in 13% of records, e.g.,
112 carcasses aged as pups but reported dead between November and April, a period when pups born
113 the previous spring would be near adult size and therefore should have been estimated at an older
114 age (Fuller 1989). No pup <7 months old has been recorded during that period in Wisconsin to
115 our knowledge. Roberts et al. do not mention this rather sizable, apparent error we documented
116 in official records. Further, 15% of the records had missing or ambiguous data fields and "a

117 notable proportion did not account for necropsy or radiography data properly. For an example of
118 the latter, our nonrandom subset of necropsies and radiographs indicated that 6% of nonhuman
119 deaths and 37% of collision deaths included perimortem or premortem gunshot that was not a
120 result of legal killing, and 16% of the cases we reevaluated in detail were found to be unreported
121 poaching." (p.27, Treves et al. 2017a). Even considering the above reinterpretations and
122 estimated error rates, the data we published (Treves et al. 2017a) and those used by Stenglein et
123 al. (2015, 2018) are largely the same because of the large sample that were not re-interpreted by
124 either set of authors. The reinterpretations of cause of death that we published constitute
125 approximately 2% of the entire sample of ~933 carcasses with cause of death, see SD1-3 for
126 specifying each reinterpretation published (Treves et al. 2017a). It's unclear if that amounts to
127 much difference in outcomes. Furthermore, we have published the data and the original
128 population reports by the WDNR (https://faculty.nelson.wisc.edu/treves/data_archives/ accessed
129 8 January 2024), which make our work reproducible. By contrast, the WDNR took these
130 population reports down from its public-facing webpages and never posted mortality data.
131 Likewise, Roberts et al.'s co-authors working for the WDNR could have presented those reports
132 to their readers as a webpage but chose not to do so without explanation or citation to our
133 webpages. Therefore, we stand by our transparent, line-by-line reports on each wolf carcass and
134 the associated re-interpretations. Roberts et al.'s allusions to their "experience" with data are
135 simply claims of authority, not a substitute for evidence or for and reproducible methods.

136 Our 2017 re-interpretation of the original estimates should come as no surprise to anyone
137 working with long-term field data collected by dozens of diverse observers whose methods may
138 have been buried over time and idiosyncratic. Skepticism about field estimations of age and
139 cause of death are not only reasonable but should be aired to raise confidence in published

140 results. We note a tendency to ignore or dismiss skepticism of WDNR methods or results
141 germane to wolf monitoring, whether it is the independence of census methods from estimates of
142 reproductive output first questioned by APW and AT in (Wydeven et al. 2004) or questions
143 about the uncertainty around wolf abundance estimates at every scale of analysis from individual
144 census-takers (within- and between-individual variability in wolf counts within survey blocks in
145 the same year) to state-wide estimation techniques (Treves et al. 2021; Treves and Santiago-
146 Ávila 2023). Roberts et al.'s co-authors have routinely ignored those and other peer-reviewed,
147 published requests for transparency or explanations about data, methods, or even figures in
148 Results (Chapron and Treves 2017; Santiago-Ávila, Chappell and Treves 2020). Dismissal of
149 skepticism by Roberts et al. arose again in the current context. Specifically, our 2017 paper with
150 its cautions and reinterpretations of the cause of death and age estimation in the field did not
151 prompt Roberts et al.'s co-authors to a cautious reconsideration of each dead wolf record by
152 record, but rather a wholesale assumption that all the records were correct as originally reported
153 (Stenglein, Wydeven and Van Deelen 2018); i.e., their critique does not include a re-analysis of
154 the data in question. We infer an undisclosed value judgment held communally among Roberts et
155 al.'s co-authors that the unpublished mortality data have always been accurate and precise. A
156 similar assertion of authority without evidence leads Roberts et al. to claim “familiarity” and
157 “experience” before they make an unsupported and extreme claim about radio-collared wolves
158 that were lost to monitoring (LTM) as we describe next.

159

160 *C. LTM and the limits of traditional time-to-event analyses*

161 Roberts et al. down-play cryptic poaching by emphasizing “...long-range dispersal [sic]
162 and collar failure. Experience with long-term monitoring of wolves suggests that both of these

163 alternative outcomes also occur frequently”. (line 2.80-2.81, p.2). The error about long-range
164 dispersal is explained below. They also write that marked animals “frequently out-live the
165 operational life of their radio-collars” (line 3.58, p.3). Again, they present no evidence. While it
166 is not for us to explain what they mean by “frequently” in either quotation, we find their claim is
167 not credible, so we will consider what “frequently” and “also” might mean, below.

168 Given we repeatedly mentioned that some LTM wolves died unmonitored without
169 succumbing to cryptic poaching and some migrated out-of-state despite active collars, Roberts et
170 al. do not mean that wolves with VHF collars *occasionally* eluded monitoring for innocuous
171 reasons of out-of-state migration or transmitter failure because that would agree with us. Nor do
172 we think they mean that migration out-of-state and collar failure together exceed 51% of LTM
173 because the separate use of frequently for either case would make the sum of LTM exceed 100%.
174 Therefore, we infer they mean migration out-of-state and collar failure exceed our estimates and
175 cryptic poaching is therefore lower than we estimated. We addressed this possibility in the same
176 journal in a second paper published in 2017 that Roberts et al. did not cite (Treves et al. 2017b)
177 and in our first commentary on the topic (Treves et al. 2016). Nor did Roberts et al. summarize
178 our meticulous enumerations of what was known about migration out-of-state among Wisconsin
179 wolves in Treves et al. (2017a). Because their summary of the data and their summary of our
180 work was incomplete, we review the issue of migration out-of-state and collar failures below.

181 First, any analyst of Wisconsin wolf radio-collar data must grapple with 236-238 LTM
182 VHF collars (54.7-55.2% of the total 431 collared hereafter 55%), which consisted of 180-182
183 LTM never recovered and 56 collared wolves that were found dead without the benefits of radio-
184 telemetry (11% of all collared wolves who were LTM for a finite period, Treves et al. 2017a). To
185 understand Roberts et al.’s claim of “frequently”, we have to consider all of the 55% above.

186 Regarding migration, we have to clarify that only migration out of state can explain LTM
187 in Wisconsin's aerial telemetry program — not dispersal necessarily as Roberts wrote — and
188 that migration must have taken the wolves out of aerial telemetry monitoring range by WDNR
189 and cooperating neighboring states — not simply long-range movements as Roberts et al. wrote.
190 Long-range but in-state movements were documented (Treves et al. 2009) and did not
191 necessarily result in LTM. Out-of-state migration by Wisconsin wolves being monitored provide
192 insights: “Eight radiocollared Wisconsin wolves died in Michigan out of a total of 264 with
193 known fates (3%; Supplementary Data SD1B and SD2). ... Another 19 radiocollared Wisconsin
194 wolves died in Minnesota (7% calculated as above)...” (Treves et al. 2017a:24). Our quoted text
195 suggests a point estimate of 10% out-of-state migrants with known fates among Wisconsin
196 collared wolves. Moreover, independently written and peer-reviewed research found wolf
197 migration out of established wolf pack ranges into non-wolf-ranges followed by death are rare
198 events which might conceivably have been overlooked during monitoring concentrated on the
199 established range (Agan, Treves and Willey 2021; Louchouart et al. 2021).

200 If we apply the 10% value for monitored wolves above to the unmonitored LTM also, we
201 should expect approximately 24 of 236–238 LTM wolves also migrated out-of-state but died
202 without collar recovery whatever their fate. Not assuming that some of these too would have
203 been poached and not reported (thus our interpretation is conservative here), we are still left with
204 ~212 LTM wolves in-state to consider (56 of which were found by other means, as above).
205 Hence 156 LTM wolves that died in-state were never recovered after we estimate the migrant
206 portion.

207 Second, we consider systematic studies of rates of VHF collar failure. Habib et al. (2014)
208 reviewed the performance of VHF transmitters from animal telemetry studies in India. They

209 inferred the common manufacturers used in the USA, "...Advanced Telemetry Systems, Wildlife
210 Materials and Telonics were comparatively reliable, with success rates of 100%, 96% and 86%,
211 respectively." (Habib et al. 2014), p.4. We accept the conservative value of 86% because it is
212 also consistent with Table 8 in Habib et al. (2014) enumerating performance of 195 individual
213 VHF transmitters (not implants or backpacks), in which 27 experienced "battery drained" (14%).
214 Habib et al. blamed that high rate on the heat in Indian field telemetry studies, which differ from
215 Wisconsin conditions. Using 14% for the 431 wolves ever radio-collared in our sample, one
216 might expect 61 LTM without human interference. This seems low as 56 were recovered without
217 the benefits of telemetry (some of which might have been tampered with by humans). Focus on
218 nonhuman causes of death illuminates the issue further.

219 Nonhuman causes of death among LTM can be estimated accurately from nonhuman
220 causes of death among known-fate collared wolves because humans were not involved in either
221 the death or any tampering with transmitters. Therefore, for nonhuman causes of death (only),
222 conditions for LTM fulfill the assumption of traditional known-fate survival models. Known-fate
223 survival analyses estimated "Natural" causes of death for Wisconsin at 27% of all collared, dead
224 wolves (Table 2 in Stenglein et al. 2015) or 29% for nonhuman causes among collared wolves
225 (Treves et al. 2017a, Table 3). Although these are imprecise point estimates, the component
226 relating to nonhuman causes of death are unbiased. As noted above, 56 LTM were recovered, of
227 which 10 (18%) were nonhuman causes of death (Treves et al. 2017a, Table 4). Using 27-29% as
228 the expected risk of nonhuman deaths, we expect 121 wolves died of nonhuman causes across
229 the entire collared sample. Ten of these were recovered in the LTM sample, 79 were known-fate
230 during monitoring, which left 32 LTM that were never recovered. That leaves the remainder of

231 approximately 114 LTM wolves (26.5% of the total) that cannot be accounted for by migration
232 out-of-state, collar failure or nonhuman death without recovery.

233 Some readers may wonder about vehicle collisions and legal killing (hundreds of wolves
234 were killed annually in Minnesota each year of our study (Fritts et al. 1992) and Wisconsin killed
235 a lesser number in some years of the study). These are causes of death that tend to be perfectly or
236 almost perfectly reported that cannot have contributed many, if any, to the disappearances of
237 collared wolves because the collars bore state identifiers and neighboring states were in close
238 communication and collaborations (Beyer et al. 2009; Wydeven, Van Deelen and Heske 2009).
239 Some drivers may have left road-killed, collared wolves behind and no subsequent motorist
240 found and reported them but there are no data to support any estimate of this let alone a large
241 number of such deaths. Instead, we consider the final piece of evidence from the time-to-death or
242 time-to-disappearance analyses we ran in 2017.

243 Using time-to-event analysis, we compared time-to-death or disappearance for radio-
244 collared wolves to reveal significant differences between time-to-endpoints: “the number of days
245 between radiocollaring and known fate (means for legal causes 461 ± 612 days, nonhuman
246 685 ± 723 , collisions 778 ± 832 , poached 558 ± 539 , and disappearances 529 ± 762).” (Treves et al.
247 2017a, p.27). That was our prima facie evidence that disappearances resembled poaching and
248 differed from legal causes, nonhuman, and vehicle collisions. Also, these data undermine the
249 claim Roberts et al. made about wolves outliving the operational life of VHF collars. We counter
250 wolves rarely did, although all of us lack a Wisconsin-specific measure of radio-collar
251 operational life when poachers do not steal or destroy the transmitters. But an even more
252 important point about time-to-event survival models surfaces from those data.

253 The similar time-to-poaching and time-to-disappearance demanded explanation and
254 undermines a critical assumption of known-fate survival analyses, namely that censored animals
255 are a random subset of all marked animals. Clearly LTM represented by time-to-disappearance
256 above are not the most variable subset (collisions are) nor do they occur late in the time series
257 (nonhuman and collision deaths do). Roberts et al. fail to mention this undisputed observation.
258 Their failure to mention it to readers is misleading.

259 The critical assumption of known-fate survival models becomes increasingly unreliable
260 as larger proportions of marked animals are censored by a subset of causes of death. Cryptic
261 poaching is the simplest explanation and the above estimate of 26.5% adds to reported poaching
262 to make total poaching the major cause of death in this population. In sum, another technique and
263 dataset were needed to illuminate the population-wide mortality patterns and overcome bias in
264 the radio-collar data. Sole reliance on time-to-event analysis for recovered radio-collars would be
265 unwise because it depends on several assumptions that are not well supported in this dataset.
266 First, collared wolves were not a random sample of the population at the time of collaring.
267 Therefore, simple extrapolation to the population from collared wolves was unwise. We
268 explained, "Had we estimated mortality patterns and rates from the actively monitored subset
269 only, we would have estimated relative risk with a bias for older, female, territorial residents in
270 core counties, which suffer differential hazard rates in other regions (Schmidt et al. 2015) and a
271 bias against poached wolves whose transmitters were inactivated...[citing elsewhere in our
272 article the source of that insight as (Liberg et al. 2012)]... An alternative approach is to estimate
273 the number of missing wolves and then reconstruct their fates, a total accounting approach."
274 (SD3, p.1 in Treves et al. 2017a). Roberts et al. also dismiss and mischaracterize our work,
275 when they write, "...reliance on naïve formulae to estimate mortality rates instead of conducting

276 proper time-to-event survival analysis” (p.1 line 1.87). This is misleading because ‘instead’
277 implies we did not run proper time-to-event analyses but in fact we did (above). Then we
278 realized the violation of the critical assumption demanded a supplemental approach we called
279 total accounting, following work in other subfields. Our work owed much to an early insight by
280 Liberg et al. (2012). The approach we followed is not common and clearly not the one preferred
281 by Roberts et al., but, far from “naïve”, it seemed both complementary and necessary given the
282 assumption violations of traditional time-to-event models present in the data.

283 Also, Stenglein et al. (2018) attempted to correct the error in Stenglein et al. (2015) and
284 credit us somewhat obliquely for the insight. It appears to us that Roberts et al. disparage our
285 work despite having benefited from it. Moreover, we subsequently published more sophisticated
286 time-to-event analyses than recommended by Roberts et al. all the while explicitly correcting for
287 disappearance as a separate endpoint (Santiago-Ávila et al. 2020; Santiago-Ávila and Treves
288 2022). The inferences that rates of disappearances are not random but predictable from human
289 behavior have been replicated repeatedly for independently peer-reviewed papers on various
290 populations by different lead authors, see Mexican gray wolves (Louchouart et al. 2021); red
291 wolves (Agan, Treves and Willey 2021) (Santiago-Ávila et al. 2022); and Michigan gray wolves
292 (Louchouart 2023). These studies agree that periodic changes in policy correlate strongly to
293 changes in the rate of disappearances in six states, which suggest collar failure is a relatively
294 infrequent cause of the high rates of wolf disappearances. In the intensively monitored and
295 geographically restricted red wolf and Mexican gray wolf populations, the relative risk of LTM
296 was 23% ($n=508$) and almost 30% ($n=223$) respectively, whereas the Michigan gray wolf
297 population that was monitored less frequently and at similar rates as Wisconsin (Beyer et al.
298 2009) had an LTM rate of 41% ($n=487$) analyzed in (Louchouart 2023). Therefore, Wisconsin’s

299 LTM rate is explainable in part by infrequent monitoring. Multiple studies corroborate the notion
300 that cryptic poaching is the major source of LTM wolves.

301 The above studies were not cited by Roberts et al. despite their direct relevance; but they
302 cite Chakrabarti et al. (2022) edited by a Roberts et al. co-author (TvD) and peer-reviewed by
303 another co-author (JLS), but fail to cite the reanalysis of Chakrabarti by Oliynyk (Oliynyk 2023),
304 who contradicted the main finding relating to poaching. Roberts et al.'s pattern of citing work
305 they agree with only and dismissing or ignoring work contrary to their favored studies
306 epitomizes selective citation, a practice described by the National Academies of Science
307 Engineering and Medicine as a breach of research integrity (NAS National Academies of
308 Sciences 2017) "...careless or negligent crediting of prior work violates the value of fairness"
309 (NAS 2017:36). That and their ad hominem use of "naïve" speaks to a loss of objectivity.

310 Regarding our total accounting effort, Roberts et al. criticize our estimate of uncollared
311 wolf mortality. We discussed the challenges in 2017, provided wide bounds of uncertainty from
312 long-run probabilistic simulations, and expressed caution with a range of values for uncollared
313 wolf mortality. By contrast, Roberts et al. did not acknowledge any uncertainty when citing a
314 point estimate from (Stenglein et al. 2015), which "... concluded that at most, mortality rates on
315 uncollared wolves exceeded that of collared wolves by 4.2%." (line 3.70, p.3 Roberts et al.). In
316 reality, Stenglein et al. (2015) noted the SD was 2.2%, so Roberts et al.'s "at most" in the
317 preceding quotation is inaccurate to the original. Moreover, we disagree with Stenglein et al.'s
318 low estimate. Other studies support our skepticism. Among Alaskan gray wolves unmarked
319 individuals had approximately 13% higher mortality rate than marked wolves (Schmidt et al.
320 2015). Also, Milleret et al. (2021) reported positive bias in survival of collared carnivores.

321 Relatedly, Roberts et al. criticized our use of population estimates for total accounting.
322 That critique seems hypocritical, given Stenglein et al. (2015) used the same input data and
323 wrote "The necessary data are a multi-year dataset with collared and non-collared carcass data
324 with various causes of mortality, an annual estimate of the population size, and the annual
325 number of radio-collared animals in the population..." p.1177. Although Stenglein et al. (2018)
326 revised time-to-event analyses with more careful accounting for disappearances than in 2015,
327 they did not re-evaluate their estimate of uncollared mortality rate. Instead, they estimated the
328 annual rates for 'unknown censored' (21.8%, SD=2.1) and 'known censored' (5.2%, SD=1.2)
329 and noted that the hazard of collar loss was highest in February and again in November
330 (Stenglein et al. 2018). While the estimates are low in our view and handling of unknown causes
331 of death was not informed by our work, their result partially corroborates our estimate of LTM
332 cryptic poaching here and our prediction of highest rates of illegal killing when many deer
333 hunters are afield in November. Both the November and February peaks were replicated by our
334 later survival analyses showing high hazard of collar loss in November and in snow-cover
335 months with hound training (Santiago-Ávila and Treves 2022). We find more in common with
336 Stenglein's work than Roberts et al. seem inclined to admit.

337

338 *E. Transparency*

339 Overall, we encourage scientific debates be published in reputable journals. It is essential
340 that the public gain confidence in science by seeing how disagreements are aired constructively,
341 new evidence presented, errors corrected, and scientific consensus built over time. We appreciate
342 that Roberts et al. have taken their disagreement to the pages of the original journal. We
343 anticipate a healthier debate with the WDNR keeping an open mind about the science rather than

344 predetermined policy preferences. When WDNR policy is based on contested claims, the best
345 remedy is sunlight. However, we see several features of the Roberts et al. critique that do not live
346 up to the ideal.

347 Disappointingly, Roberts et al. do not adequately substantiate numerous statements and
348 make misleading ones, such as, "...we have serious reservations about the approach used to
349 reclassify wolf mortalities *after the fact and without context*." (Line 1.43-1.45, p.1) emphasis
350 added. This is misleading because all mortality studies were after the fact, as we explained
351 above, and we provided much more detailed context than any other analysis of Wisconsin wolf
352 mortality (SD1-3, Treves et al. 2017a). Indeed, since 2017 we and other lead authors have asked
353 for transparency from the WDNR and the co-authors of Roberts et al. Our peer-reviewed
354 requests and comments in scientific journals have addressed non-transparency about data and
355 analyses (Chapron and Treves 2017; Santiago-Ávila et al. 2020; Treves et al. 2021, 2022; Treves
356 and Louchouart 2022a,b). We have also expressed concerns about non-disclosures of competing
357 interests by co-authors of Roberts et al.

358 ([https://journals.plos.org/plosone/article/comment?id=10.1371/annotation/4d92a9da-dc73-41bb-](https://journals.plos.org/plosone/article/comment?id=10.1371/annotation/4d92a9da-dc73-41bb-ad83-837ed707c948)
359 [ad83-837ed707c948](https://journals.plos.org/plosone/article/comment?id=10.1371/annotation/4d92a9da-dc73-41bb-ad83-837ed707c948) accessed 11 January 2024). Here we detail those concerns because thorough
360 transparency about potentially competing interests is essential to reliable research and fair
361 scientific debate (NAS 2017).

362 The journal policy states, "To enable our editors, peer reviewers, and readers to
363 assess professional credentials of authors, as well as any potential biases, we ask that authors
364 disclose all information about their employment affiliations and any financial interests
365 relevant to the work that the author has submitted for publication in JM."

366 https://academic.oup.com/jmammal/pages/general_instructions#Manuscript%20Preparation

367 accessed 8 August 2023). We also quote Roberts et al., “The authors declare no conflict of
368 interests. Some have argued that agency affiliation is a conflict of interest. Such insinuations
369 are without evidence and set a dangerous precedent that potentially undermines or silences
370 agency scientists altogether.” There are three problems with this statement in addition to non-
371 disclosure of financial interests and non-disclosure of competing non-financial interests, all
372 of which should concern readers as follows.

373 First, disclosure is not silencing; it is the opposite. Throughout this section, we explain
374 why disclosure is airing and giving voice to the influences on assumptions, methods, and
375 interpretations. Second, some of the co-authors of Roberts et al. have financial and non-financial
376 interests in wildlife policy (documented in Supplementary Data SD1) and all of them have a
377 connection to the WDNR, an agency with financial and non-financial interests in policy as we
378 explain in the next paragraph. We shared these with the editors of this journal and they invited us
379 to post the evidence in Supplementary Data SD1, rather than negotiate further with Roberts et al.
380 Third, Roberts et al. confuse insinuate with state plainly. ‘insinuate’ means “To convey (a
381 statement or notion) by indirect suggestion; to hint obliquely: now generally with implication of
382 cunning or underhand action.”

383 <https://www.oed.com/search/dictionary/?scope=Entries&q=insinuate>, accessed 7 January 2024).

384 Asking for transparency cannot undermine them unless they are concealing.

385 As to agency bias, just as everyone has personal bias, so too do organizations as research
386 has revealed. There is substantial evidence that agency staff are not impartial or unbiased in their
387 policy and management preferences (Koval and Mertig 2004; Karns et al. 2018; Manfredo et al.
388 2021). Additionally, co-authors employed by the Wisconsin DNR may be faced with pressure or
389 even the approval of political appointees in the agency who also control career advancement and

390 salary adjustments. A full and transparent disclosure of potentially competing interests would
391 include a statement of whether the WDNR requires approval of manuscripts, whether such
392 officials can or did alter wording, and which officials (by title not name) had to approve this
393 submission, if any. Without clear protections for internal dissent or whistle-blowing, the undue
394 political influence on science from agencies could be no different from the pressures on industry
395 scientists. We emphasize “could” because without disclosure of WDNR processes relating to
396 manuscripts, the reader cannot know if Roberts et al. enjoy freedoms similar to academics. By
397 not disclosing the process this manuscript underwent at WDNR, readers are free to assume
398 rightly or wrongly that their assumptions, methods, analyses, or interpretations are colored by
399 partisan politics or personal career advancement. Moreover, WDNR has an explicit policy
400 position that not only sanctions (mandated by law), but promotes the hunting/trapping of wolves,
401 and, similar to a private firm, receives funding from the sale of such hunting/trapping licenses.
402 Contrary to Roberts et al.’s statement, the above seems sufficient evidence that agencies and
403 their scientists can feel bias from particular policy positions and monetary interests. It would be
404 an unjust special privilege for the journal to allow agencies and their scientists to not have to
405 explicitly disclose such clear conflicts of interest, while requiring academic, advocacy and
406 industry scientists to do so.

407 Regardless of how one feels about agency staff, Roberts et al. co-authors omitted non-
408 agency competing interests documented in SD1. At least one co-author of Roberts et al. received
409 financial support from organizations other than their declared institutional affiliations (e.g., Au
410 Sable Foundation). Three at least serve as representatives of Wisconsin Green Fire (WGF),
411 provided an affidavit for litigation about wolves, or sat on WDNR advisory boards on wolf
412 policy with their affiliation listed as WGF or Timber Wolf Alliance. All these organizations and

413 other probable affiliations (e.g., The Wildlife Society) advocate positions on wolves and other
414 wildlife. We share the evidence for readers to see that the acknowledgments statement made by
415 Roberts et al. is inaccurate (SD1).

416 Affiliations are not problematic per se (everyone has one or more), but failure to disclose
417 them is questionable as a breach of research integrity (NAS 2017). Non-disclosure of these
418 interests robs readers of the ability to gauge bias. A culture of transparency has spread
419 throughout the modern scientific community because it makes science more trustworthy and
420 reproducible.

421

422

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425 telemetry signals.

426

427 **Conflict of interest**

428 We declare no conflicts of interest. However, as full transparency, we provide ‘statements of
429 competing interests’ here.

430 All funding awarded to AT in the last 10 years as of January 2024 are listed

431 here http://faculty.nelson.wisc.edu/treves/archive_BAS/funding.pdf, and a full CV

432 here http://faculty.nelson.wisc.edu/treves/archive_BAS/Treves_vita_latest.pdf. SWA is a

433 member of the USFWS Red Wolf Recovery Team. In 2020, the Carnivore Coexistence Lab at

434 the University of Wisconsin Madison contributed to her dissertation publication fees. The Center

435 for Biological Diversity supported SWA’s research on attitudes to red wolves. The USFWS

436 shared data for her dissertation. JAL retired from the Wisconsin Department of Natural
437 Resources and runs a private veterinary clinic. JVLB is affiliated to the Biodiversity Research
438 Institute (CSIC), Oviedo University, Principality of Asturias, Spain, the IUCN/SSC Canid
439 Specialist Group, Iberian Wolf Research Team, Claws & Laws, the Spanish Action Plan
440 against illegal trafficking and international poaching of wild species. NXL's CV is available at
441 https://faculty.nelson.wisc.edu/treves/archive_BAS/Louchouartn_CV_2024.pdf and currently
442 works as a post-doctoral researcher and lecturer for the University of Wisconsin- Madison and as
443 a river restoration project manager for the Grand Traverse Band of Ottawa and
444 Chippewa Indians. Before that, she conducted her doctoral research on carnivores and people at
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449 pro-bono Conservation Biologist, retired from the U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service (1999), and
450 serves as a Science Advisor to Project Coyote and the Carnivore Conservation Biologist for The
451 Rewilding Institute. DRP is a member and/or financial contributor to the following non-profit
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460 pass-through grant, worked for International Mapping (2011-2015), DigitalGlobe now called
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462 relationship to a principal of Colorado Wolf Adventures but has not affiliated with the company.
463 FJS-A's CV is at [https://faculty.nelson.wisc.edu/treves/archive_BAS/Santiago-](https://faculty.nelson.wisc.edu/treves/archive_BAS/Santiago-Avila_CV_2023.pdf)
464 [Avila_CV_2023.pdf](https://faculty.nelson.wisc.edu/treves/archive_BAS/Santiago-Avila_CV_2023.pdf) and currently works for Project Coyote. FJSA has and continues to serve as
465 a Fellow and board member for PAN Works and provide expert witness for litigation in various
466 cases regarding wolf policy. FSA is Science & Ethics Manager for Project Coyote, a national
467 (US-based) non-profit organization whose mission is to promote compassionate conservation and
468 coexistence between people and wildlife through education, science and advocacy, and which
469 has recently engaged in litigation against the state's (WI) policies towards wolves (2021).

470

471 **Author contributions**

472 All authors contributed in part or equally to methods, data collection, analysis, and interpretation
473 of articles that include them and were cited here. AT drafted and submitted the manuscript. All
474 authors provided feedback and proof-reading of the final submission.

475

476 **Supplementary Data**

477 Supplementary Data available at *Journal of Mammalogy* online.

478 **Supplementary Data SD1.**— Non-disclosure of potentially competing interests in

479 Roberts et al. 2024.

480

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