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The full details of the published version of the article are as follows:

TITLE: Dynamics of direct inter-pack encounters in endangered African wild dogs

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JOURNAL TITLE: Behavioural Ecology & Sociobiology

PUBLICATION DATE: August 2017

PUBLISHER: Springer

DOI: 10.1007/s00265



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16	Acknowledgments
17	We are grateful to the Office of the President of Botswana and the Department of Wildlife and
18	National Parks for permission to conduct research in Botswana, and to various leaseholders for
19	permission to work in the areas that they are responsible for, in particular the Sankuyo
20	community. Pack composition data were collected in the field by some of the authors and Briana
21	Abrahms, Arjun Dheer, Roman Furrer, Geoff Gilfillan, Dikatholo Kedikilwe, Kasim Rafiq, Drew
22	Vanetsky, Jessica Vitale, Reena Hallelujah Walker and Ari Whiteman. The photograph in Fig. 1
23	was taken by Roman Furrer. We would also like to thank two anonymous reviewers and the

editor for their constructive comments which improved the manuscript.

26 Abstract

27 Aggressive encounters may have important life-history consequences due to the potential for injury and death, disease transmission, dispersal opportunities or exclusion from key areas of 28 29 the home range. Despite this, little is known of their detailed dynamics, mainly due to the 30 difficulties of directly observing encounters in detail. Here we describe detailed spatial dynamics of inter-pack encounters in African wild dogs (Lycaon pictus), using data from custom-built high-31 32 resolution GPS-collars in 11 free-ranging packs. On average, each pack encountered another 33 pack approximately every 7 weeks, and met each neighbour twice each year. Surprisingly, intruders were more likely to win encounters (winning 78.6 % of encounters, by remaining closer 34 to the site in the short-term). However, intruders did tend to move farther than residents toward 35 their own range core in the short-term (1 h) post-encounter, and if this were used to indicate 36 37 losing an encounter then the majority (73.3%) of encounters were won by residents. 38 Surprisingly, relative pack size had little effect on encounter outcome, and injuries were rare (<15% of encounters). These results highlight the difficulty of remotely scoring encounters 39 involving mobile participants away from static defendable food resources. Although inter-pack 40 range overlap was reduced following an encounter, encounter outcome did not seem to drive 41 42 this, as both packs shifted their ranges post-encounter. Our results indicate that inter-pack encounters may be lower risk than previously suggested, and do not appear to influence long-43 term movement and ranging. 44

45 Significance Statement

Direct aggressive encounters between competitors are an important and potentially dangerous 46 47 aspect of territoriality. In spite of this, detailed data on movements in response to encounters 48 are lacking, especially for large mammals. Collecting observational data on competitors leaving 49 an encounter site in different directions is logistically challenging, and radiocollar technology has previously been ineffective in this regard due to low temporal resolution. We overcame these 50 51 issues by using custom-built high-resolution GPS collars, showing that intruding African wild dog packs were more likely to win inter-pack encounters (residents initially moved further away from 52 the encounter). Inter-pack encounters appeared to have only short-term impacts on movement, 53 54 with their outcome having no discernible impact on the long-term ranging patterns of African wild dog packs. 55 56

- 57
- 58 **Keywords:** territoriality, encounter, *Lycaon pictus*, inter-pack, aggression, home-range

59 Introduction

Inter-group encounters may have important life-history consequences, due to the potential for injury and death (e.g. gray wolf *Canis lupus*, Mech 1994; Cassidy et al. 2015; chimpanzee *Pan troglodytes*, Townsend et al. 2007; yellow baboon *Papio cynocephalus*, Shopland 1982), disease transmission (Craft et al. 2011), information exchange and dispersal opportunities (Sicotte 1993), or exclusion from important areas of their previous range (Ewing 1972). Although there may be considerable costs to direct inter-group encounters, relatively little is known of the detailed dynamics of these events.

67 Current knowledge of territorial encounters mainly comes from direct observations, and suggests that several factors may affect their outcome. In particular literature from social birds, 68 primates and carnivores suggests that relative group size is important in determining encounter 69 70 outcomes (e.g. green woodhoopoe, *Phoeniculus purpureus*, Radford and du Plessis 2004; 71 chimpanzee, Wilson et al. 2001; black howler monkey, Alouatta caraya, Kitchen 2004; banded mongoose, Mungos mungo, Rood 1975; Furrer et al. 2011). As the benefits of winning a contest 72 73 may vary according to where it occurs within the territory (e.g. Maynard-Smith 1982), location 74 has also been shown to affect encounter outcome in some species (e.g. banded mongoose, 75 Furrer et al. 2011, but see Rood 1975; chacma baboons, Papio cynocephalus ursinus, Kitchen 76 et al. 2004; Verreaux's sifaka, Propithecus verreauxi, Koch et al. 2016,) but not in others (e.g. chimpanzee, Wilson et al. 2001; black howler monkey, Kitchen 2004). In general, residents 77 usually defeat intruders (e.g. white-headed capuchin, Cebus capucinus, Crofoot et al. 2008; 78 79 white rhinoceros, Ceratotherium simum, Rachlow et al. 1998), and larger groups tend to defeat smaller ones (e.g. Ethiopian wolf, Canis simensis, Sillero-Zubiri and Macdonald 1998; gray wolf, 80 Cassidy et al. 2015; banded mongoose, Furrer et al. 2011). In some species however, pack 81 82 composition plays a more important role than pack-size per se in determining the outcome of 83 encounters. For example, in chacma baboons (Hamilton et al. 1975, 1976; Cheney 1987), after

controlling for location, the relative number of males in opposing groups appeared to play a role
in determining the outcome of inter-group contests, with groups containing more males winning
more often. Similar patterns have been reported for gray wolves, where packs with more males
or older individuals than their rivals were more likely to triumph in encounters (Cassidy et al.
2015).

Recent developments in remote sensing, particularly in the form of GPS-collars, may 89 90 offer a new window into rare encounters by providing more data than has previously been 91 collected by opportunistic direct observation. Additionally, the exhaustive GPS data provided by 92 remote monitoring at short intervals captures all encounter instances, many of which may have been missed previously. This is a considerable improvement on direct observations which tend 93 to be conducted somewhat opportunistically and thus can provide only minimum estimates of 94 95 encounter rates. Although some studies have begun to utilise collars for this purpose (e.g. 96 Crofoot et al. 2008), inter-fix intervals have generally been too wide to allow detailed assessment of the spatial consequence of encounters, or even to allow remote detection of all 97 encounters. 98

99 Here we use high-resolution GPS collar data from 11 free-ranging packs of African wild 100 dogs (Lycaon pictus) in the Okavango delta region of Botswana to record and analyse the spatial dynamics of inter-pack encounters. African wild dogs are endangered (Woodroffe and 101 Sillero-Zubiri 2012) pack-living canids (Mills and Gorman 1997), with large annual ranges (739 102 km² in northern Botswana; Pomilia et al. 2015) encompassing considerable areas of overlap 103 104 with their neighbours (30-35%, Kruger NP, South Africa, Reich 1981; 62%, Selous GR, 105 Tanzania, Creel and Creel 2002). Previous studies have indicated that direct encounters between packs are rare (Creel and Creel 2002; Woodroffe and Donnelly 2011), perhaps due to 106 107 temporal partitioning of the use of overlapping areas (Mills and Gorman 1997), or perhaps 108 simply because the size of their ranges and their low population density make chance

encounters unlikely. However, previous data were limited to near-simultaneous locations of
neighbouring packs acquired by tracking the animals with a combination of VHF collars and
direct observations (Mills and Gorman 1997; Creel and Creel 2002). This bias toward diurnal
data on encounters continued into studies using early-model GPS collars, collecting positional
data at low resolution and restricted to daylight hours (e.g. Woodroffe and Donnelly 2011), both
of which are likely to underestimate encounter rates.

In this study, we use data from high-resolution, custom-designed and built GPS 115 116 radiocollars to investigate and describe the frequency, outcome and detailed spatial dynamics (at pack-scale) of inter-pack encounters in African wild dogs over the complete 24h cycle. These 117 collars have been used previously to quantify African wild dog hunting dynamics (Hubel et al. 118 2016a) and energetic expenditure (Hubel et al. 2016b). Specifically we: (1) make the first direct 119 120 measurement of the frequency of inter-pack encounters in this species continuously over the 121 24h cycle; (2) assess which factors (residence status, pack-size ratio) affect the outcome of encounters; and (3) describe the detailed spatial dynamics of direct encounters between 122 competing packs at the time of encounters, and over a range of time-scales following 123 124 encounters. In line with previous literature described above, we predict that residents or larger 125 intruding packs will be more likely to win encounters, and will move least from the encounter site immediately following an encounter. We predict that losers will avoid the vicinity of encounter 126 sites in the long-term following an encounter, and may shift their range after an encounter to 127 128 reduce overlap with the winning pack.

129

130

131 Methods

132 Study population and site

133 Data were collected between November 2011 and February 2015 from 11 packs of free-ranging 134 African wild dogs in northern Botswana. The study area (*ca.* 2600 km²; 19°31'S, 23°37'E; elevation ca. 950 m) was bordered on the west and northwest by permanent swamp of the 135 136 Okavango Delta and included the eastern section of the Moremi Game Reserve and 137 neighboring Wildlife Management Areas. Further details can be found in McNutt (1996). This sub-population of African wild dogs has been studied since 1989, and each individual was 138 139 identified by its unique tricolour pelage pattern, distinctive ear notches and tail stripes. Pack size 140 (all adults and yearlings >1 year) and the demographic composition of participating packs were extracted from the closest observation sessions either side of each encounter, when any 141 observed injuries were also noted. It was not possible to record data blind because our study 142 involved focal animals in the field. 143

144

145 Collars and collaring

This study used data produced by innovative GPS-IMU (Global Positioning System with Inertial 146 Measurement Unit) animal collars (ca. 350g; described in detail in Wilson et al. 2013). Key 147 148 components of these collars comprised a GPS receiver (LEA-6T, uBlox AG) and a set of 3-axis 149 MEMS (Micro Electro-Mechanical Sensor) accelerometer and gyroscope sensors, controlled by an MSP430 series microcontroller (Texas Instruments Inc) running custom firmware written in 150 the 'C' programming language. A 2GB micro-SD flash card (Sandisk) provided data storage, 151 and a 2.4GHz radio link (Nanotron Technologies Gmbh) facilitated downloading of the collected 152 153 data to a nearby vehicle. A conventional VHF tracking transmitter (Sirtrack) was integrated into the collar to facilitate airborne and ground-based tracking and physical location of the animal. To 154 improve battery life, the collar was programmed to switch between different operating states 155 156 depending on time of day and on the level of animal activity, as measured by the on-board 157 accelerometer. If the animal was resting, GPS fixes were taken once per hour. When the animal

was determined to be active, the GPS fix interval was reduced to 5 minutes, thus providing fixeswith significantly improved temporal resolution during movement.

160 One individual in each pack was radiocollared following darting from a stationary vehicle 161 within 15 m using TELINJECT darting equipment to deliver a mixture of xylazine (55 mg), 260 162 ketamine HCL (50 mg) and atropine (1.1–1.2 mg) and reversed after 45 – 60 min with vohimbine (4 mg) or atipamezole (5.5 mg) (further details in Osofsky et al. 1996). Most collars 163 164 were removed and replaced when the dog was immobilized following collar expiry, but automatic drop-off units (Sirtrack, 70g) were used to release two collars (total collar weight ca. 165 420g) at the end of the study (see Fig. 1). During anaesthesia we recorded the general health of 166 each sedated animal, monitored vital signs, took body measurements and collected blood 167 samples. All sedated individuals safely recovered from the anaesthesia and showed no injuries 168 169 or signs of distress.

170

171 Data extraction and interpolation

To identify possible encounters between packs, the data were first reduced by exhaustive 172 173 automated searches of all of the GPS locations from all GPS-collars using custom-written code 174 in programming languages Perl (www.perl.org) and R (R Core Team 2016). This produced summary files with all inter-pack encounters within 800m and 12h of each other. The summary 175 files included KML maps showing locations, which allowed manual rejection of some false 176 177 encounters based on erroneous spatial data. These errors were usually single points that were 178 unrealistic distances from previous and subsequent points in a track; i.e. they would require the collar to move at unrealistic speeds (>19ms⁻¹) in comparison to those measured previously 179 (Hubel et al. 2016 a, b). Overall, 1.7% of points were removed from our raw dataset on this 180 181 basis.

182 GPS location data for each collar in an encounter were then extracted for 12 h before 183 and after the time when the packs were closest together (center point). Gaps between 5-minute 184 points were interpolated to 30s intervals, with interpolated points equidistantly spaced between 185 consecutive GPS fixes (i.e. we assumed that dogs moved directly and at constant velocity 186 between GPS fixes). Interpolation compensated for different collars taking fixes at different 187 times. Interpolated datasets were reprocessed through the automated search code, and 188 minimum distance center points (hereafter 'estimated encounter locations') were determined. All 189 estimated encounter locations with close spatial-temporal overlap (inter-pack distance <800m, 190 within 5 min) in raw data were considered further.

Although 800m is greater than the expected visibility in most habitats across the study 191 site, this distance was chosen to allow for temporal off-sets in GPS fixes (up to 150secs), during 192 193 which packs could diverge considerably. In practice, 12/15 encounters had minimum inter-pack 194 distances <310m (Table 1), and only Encounter 1 was >450m (614m). In all cases there was also clear evidence that the packs encountered one other, in that at least one of the packs 195 196 orchestrated a clear change in direction. This suggests that the packs had come closer to one 197 another during an inter-fix interval 'blackspot' in the raw data. As each pack's location was 198 estimated using a single collar, other individuals present at each encounter (12.07 ± 4.64 199 uncollared individuals [$\dot{x} \pm SD$], range 5-21), were likely to have been closer to inter-pack 200 individuals than these distances suggest.

From interpolated data, we extracted each collar's location, inter-fix speed (averaged over 30s), and closing speed between packs (negative values were converging, positive values diverging) every 30s for 12 h either side of each encounter. To evaluate whether packs avoided the general vicinity of encounter sites following encounters, estimated encounter locations were fed back into the data set as points of interest. GPS location data were subjected to the first level of automatic searching described above to extract all instances of close passes (<800m) to

these sites. Data from the packs involved in encounters at the specific sites were extracted to
give pre-and post-encounter rates of close passes to these sites in both the preceding and
following 120 days (excluding the day of the encounter).

210

211 Encounter frequency

An encounter could be detected only when both neighboring packs had an individual wearing a radiocollar at the same time. Because collars were fitted at different times, we had to account for each pack's potential to be detected encountering its neighbors. During the period that a given pack wore a collar, we summed the days that each of its neighbors also wore a collar, and pooled these. The number of encounters a pack experienced was then divided by this value to give the encounter rate of the focal pack.

218

219 Identifying neighbors and residence status

220 Packs with overlapping 95% kernel utility distributions [kud] during the study period were considered to be neighbors. Kud estimates were derived using the kernelUD function in the 221 222 adehabitat package in R (Calenge 2006), with a bivariate normal kernel, where the smoothing 223 factor (h) = 2400, grid=400, and grid extent=3. Pack kuds were estimated based on all location data from up to 120 days preceding the encounter (90 \pm 38.10 [x \pm SD], range 8-120, days per 224 kud, and based on 14634 ±16561 [x ± SD], range 215-77631, locations per kud, N=30). Given 225 226 the potential for the home range estimation method and the choice of parameters to influence 227 the shape and extent of the estimated range (e.g. Pomilia et al 2015), ranges were also drawn as minimum convex polygons (mcp) using the mcp function in the adehabitat package. Results 228 are provided for both methods and are qualitatively similar (see Table 2). All presented plots are 229 230 based on kud estimates.

231 Following identification of encounter center points, packs were classified as 'resident' or 'intruder' based the distance of the encounter point to the boundary of the pre-encounter core 232 233 area estimate (50% kud and mcp respectively; hereby referred to as the pack's "core area"). In 234 all instances, the pack with the the shortest distance to their core area was deemed the 235 'resident', and the other pack was the 'intruder'. When one pack had a core area defined by 236 multiple discrete polygons, the distance to the closest core polygon was used. Thirteen 237 encounters were clearly in the exclusive pre-encounter area of one pack, while the other 2 were 238 in an area of inter-pack overlap (i.e. the area of range overlap in the 120 days preceding the 239 encounter). To avoid the risk of misclassification that might occur if ranging changed in response to the encounter of interest, only data preceding the encounter were used to 240 determine residence status. Residence classification was consistent across the two range 241 242 estimate methods, except for encounter 5 where the encounter occurred approximately 243 equidistant from the core areas.

244

245 Encounter outcome

246 The winner of an inter-group encounter is usually defined as the group which stayed behind at 247 the encounter site following the encounter (e.g. capuchins; Crofoot et al. 2008). In keeping with this, we defined the winner as the pack that remained closest to the encounter site 1 h following 248 the encounter (Table 1). Additionally we explored determining encounter outcome by defining 249 250 the winner as the pack that moved the least towards its own range core over the same 1 h 251 period. However this latter approach may be less reliable as residents began closer to home by definition, and this may have skewed the results. Nevertheless we feel it is important to evaluate 252 whether moving toward home might be a relevant measure of winning a contest in this highly 253 254 vagile species, where remaining at the encounter site may not provide an accurate indication of 255 encounter outcome.

256 We used a series of generalised linear mixed models (GLMMs), carried out in the Ime4 257 package (Bates et al. 2015) in R, with a binomial error distribution to explore the potential 258 factors affecting encounter outcome (win = 1 or lose = 0). To ensure independence, we followed 259 the approach of Cassidy et al. (2015) and Crofoot et al. (2008) in selecting a single focal pack 260 from each encounter, and did so using simple random selection script in R. Terms included in 261 the models were pack-size ratio (the number of dogs, >1y, in the focal pack divided by the 262 number of dogs in the encountered pack), residence status (resident or intruder) at the point of 263 encounter, and their two-way interaction. A full model set was generated using the function 'dredge' in the MuMIn package (Barton 2016) on the global model. We then conducted model 264 averaging (MuMIn package; Barton 2016) to identify those models whose cumulative AICc 265 (Akaike's information criterion correction) weights were >0.95, and construct model-averaged 266 267 estimates of the parameters (Grueber et al. 2011), and display all models where the AICc delta 268 is less than the null model.

In keeping with the literature, we predicted that pack residence status and pack-size 269 270 ratio would affect encounter outcome; specifically we expected intruders and smaller packs to 271 move further away from the encounter site following the encounter, and to avoid its general 272 vicinity, and therefore the risk of further encounters, in the longer term. Additionally, individuals may be expected to behave differently in encounters according to the costs and benefits of 273 participating (see Kitchen and Beehner 2007). As we evaluated only one collar from each pack 274 275 in an encounter, it is possible that their movements are not representative of the pack as a 276 whole, and so we estimated the 'risk' and 'opportunity' for each collared dog involved in an interpack encounter. As aggression during African wild dog encounters is generally directed at 277 same-sex opponents (Creel and Creel 2002), we defined 'risk' as the ratio of same-sex adults in 278 279 the two packs (same-sex adults in opposition pack / same-sex adults in focal pack). Similarly, 280 'opportunity' for mating or dispersal was defined as the ratio of opposite-sex individuals to

same-sex individuals in the opposing pack (opposite-sex adults in opposition pack / same-sex
adults in opposition pack). Increasing values represented increasing risk and opportunity
respectively, and we evaluated the effect of these on the outcome of encounters used paired ttests, as models did not run with these terms included due to our small sample.

We explored the immediate and longer-term behavioural responses to an encounter using high-resolution GPS data from collars. All data were tested for normality using the Shapiro test and all analyses were carried out in R (R Development Core Team 2016) using paired ttests where data were normally distributed and Wilcoxon paired test when not. Data were recorded 'blind' using GPS collars, and parameters were extracted automatically, thereby removing observer bias. The following measures were compared before and after the encounter for residents and intruders.

292

i) Short-term responses

Distance moved. To determine whether the actual distance travelled by packs changed after an 294 encounter, we summed the distances of 30s steps for an hour either side of encounters. To 295 296 control for any intrinsic pack-specific differences in movement that may influence our results, we 297 subtracted the pre-encounter distances from post-encounter distances. Inter-pack distances 298 (the straight-line distance between encountering packs) and each pack's distance to the encounter site and the closest edge of their estimated core area (50% kud and mcp, separately) 299 were also extracted and compared. Additionally, we investigated whether packs increased their 300 301 movement post-encounter by comparing their distance moved in the hour post-encounter, to the distance moved during the same time period the previous day. 302

303 *Speed of movement.* To determine whether the speed at which packs moved changed following 304 an encounter, we extracted and compared the maximum recorded speed and the average 305 (median) speed in the hour before and after each encounter respectively. The speeds of each

pack post-encounter were subtracted from those pre-encounter so that positive values indicatedincreased speed following the encounter.

308

309 *ii) Medium-term responses*

To explore changes in movement behavior we compared the straight-line distance between each pack and the encounter site 12 h before and after the encounter. Post-encounter distances were subtracted from pre-encounter distances for each pack and compared between packs and within the pack.

314

315 *iii) Long-term responses*

To test whether ranging or range overlaps were affected by encounters, we also estimated 316 317 ranges over the same period beginning two days post encounter. As some collars were put out 318 <120 days before the encounter or expired <120 days following the encounter, we standardised the compared pre- and post-encounter period length by reducing both to the shortest period. 319 320 Overlapping areas were calculated using 95% kuds and mcps and then compared pre- and 321 post-encounter using paired t-tests to test the hypothesis that range overlap would be 322 significantly reduced after an encounter. 323 Return to proximity of encounter sites. We compared changes in rates of visitation to the vicinity

(<800m) of encounter sites before and after encounters. These close passes were extracted using the estimated encounter locations as points of interest and extracting locations from the collars that fell within 800m. A rate of close passes was then calculated for each period (with each day scored as having or not having at least one location <800m) and pre-encounter rates were subtracted from post-encounter rates so that negative values indicated reduced visitation post-encounter.

330

332 **Results**

333 Encounter summary

334 We identified 15 inter-pack encounters involving 11 packs in 11 unique pack dyads. Table 1 is a 335 summary of each inter-pack encounter and the demographics of participating packs. Eleven 336 encounters occurred inside the estimated core (50% kud) of one pack, 2 occurred in the 337 exclusive periphery of the resident pack (95% kud), and 2 encounters occurred in a peripheral area of inter-pack overlap (outside the 50% kud and inside 95% kud of both packs). In all cases 338 339 it was possible to classify residents and intruders based on their proximity to their own core at the point of encounter (Table 1). Encounters occurred between 0 and 2.43 km from the 340 resident's core $(0.50 \pm 0.79 \text{ km} [\dot{x} \pm \text{SD}])$, and $0.71-23.95 \text{ km} (6.11 \pm 6.69)$ from the core areas 341 342 of intruding packs. Within encounters, the difference between packs in the distance home (50% 343 kud) ranged from 0.50 to 23.95 km (5.61 \pm 6.75 [x \pm SD]) at the point of encounter.

Detailed dynamics of each encounter are displayed as supplementary material (Online Resource 1). This includes plots over time on either side of the encounter showing: (a) a map of the movement of each pack relative to i) the other pack, ii) their core home range and iii) the encounter site; (b) the distance between each pack and the encounter site, and between packs; (c) distances to each pack's own home range core, and (d) inter-pack closing speed and the speed of each pack individually. Ranges were estimated using the kud method unless stated.

350

351 Encounter frequency

Each dyad had an encounter once every 188.90 ± 47.22 [$\dot{x} \pm$ SD] (range 0-532) days of dyadic overlap. In this population, packs usually have four neighbors, so each pack would be expected to interact directly with one of its neighbors approximately every 47 days. The continual collection of data allowed us to describe the timing of encounters throughout the 24hr cycle.

Surprisingly, only 20% (3/15) of encounters occurred in full daylight. Of the remaining 12, 7 occurred within the period 2.5 hours before sunset or prior to sunrise. Of the 5 truly nocturnal encounters which occurred outside these times, all occurred on brightly moonlit nights (when illumination levels were >80% of full moon levels at lunar noon;

360 https://www.timeanddate.com/moon/botswana/maun).

361

362 Encounter outcome

363 Surprisingly 11 of 15 (73.3%) encounters were 'won' by intruders, with residents travelling further from the encounter point 1 h following the encounter than did intruders. Using this post-364 365 encounter proximity to the estimated encounter location as a measure of success, GLMMs 366 suggest that pack status (resident or intruder) is the best predictor of the outcome of an encounter (Table 3, 4), with intruders more likely to emerge as winners. Pack-size ratio was 367 weighted as having less effect on encounter outcomes, with larger packs more likely to emerge 368 as winners (Table 3, 4). Interestingly, residents tended to be further away from the encounter 369 370 site 1 h after the encounter than they were 1 h before the encounter (difference between preand post- encounter distances, -1.27 ± 3.08 km), while intruders were closer post-encounter 371 372 than pre-encounter $(1.52 \pm 3.16 \text{ km})$. This difference in relative proximity (post-minus pre-373 encounter) was significant between residents and intruders (paired t-test: t_{14} =-2.45, P=0.028). Initial post-encounter observations of packs were made 6.9 ± 7.8 [x \pm SD] (range 0-32) 374 days following an encounter (N=30 interacting packs). Pack compositions were unchanged 375 following all encounters, with no individuals dispersing or killed (despite fatalities from 376 377 encounters having been observed previously [BPCT unpublished data]). Indeed, on only two 378 occasions did we record injuries in the post-encounter observation session, whereas none were recorded in the observation session prior to encounters. A subdominant adult male from the 379 resident pack suffered what were recorded in the field notes as "bad wounds" on the head and 380

381 neck, and both ears were collapsed when first seen five hours following Encounter 8 (Fig. 1). 382 After Encounter 6, a yearling male from the intruding pack was seen limping slightly at the next 383 direct observation session 5 days later. While it is unknown whether these injuries were a direct 384 result of the encounters, both are consistent with possible inter-pack fighting injuries. Both 385 encounters that appear to have resulted in injuries involved unrelated packs, but the proportion of encounters that resulted in injury were not significantly different between encounters involving 386 related (0) and unrelated (0.22) packs (binomial test of proportions with continuity correction: 387 $\chi^{2}_{(1)}$ = 0.22, P = 0.642). As only 43% of initial post-encounter visits occurred within 3 days of the 388 encounter, and one pack was not found until 32 days post encounter, it is possible that minor or 389 390 fast-healing injuries may have been slightly underestimated in this study.

Relevant aspects of pack composition did not seem to affect encounter outcomes, as collared dogs within winning and losing packs did not differ in the 'risks' they took (paired t-test: $t_{14} = 0.28$, p=0.784) or 'opportunities' ($t_{14} = 1.69$, p=0.113) they were exposed to by engaging in encounters.

395

396 i) Short-term responses

397 Distance moved. Packs travelled similar distances in the hour following an encounter $(4.22 \pm$ 2.86 km) as the hour preceding it (4.01 ± 2.14 km; paired t-test, $t_{29} = -0.31$, P = 0.756), but as 398 described above, residents were further from the encounter site 1 h after the encounter than 399 400 were intruders (Fig. 2). However, the total distance packs moved in the hour following an 401 encounter was unrelated to their residence status ($t_{14} = -0.31$, P = 0.758) or whether or not they won the encounter ($t_{14} = -0.61$, P = 0.550). These results held when the distance they moved 402 before the encounter was controlled for by comparing distances moved 1 h after the encounter 403 404 with distances moved 1 h before (winner vs. loser, $t_{14} = -0.34$, P = 0.737; resident vs. intruder, t_{14} = -0.65, P = 0.524). Inter-pack distances, a potential sign of avoidance, were not significantly 405

different 1 h either side of the encounter (pre-encounter, 3.97 + 2.69 km; post-encounter, 4.64+/- 3.12 km; t₁₄=-0.59, P=0.562), suggesting inter-pack avoidance may only occur in the very immediate aftermath of an encounter.

Packs moved further in the hour following an encounter (4.50 ± 2.46 km) than during the same hour the previous day (2.62 ± 2.69 km; paired t-test: t_{29} = 2.82, P = 0.007). Importantly, although winners generally moved less (1.22 ± 2.01 km) than losers (2.53 ± 4.71 km) on encounter days compared to preceding days, this difference was not statistically significant (paired t-test: t_{14} = 0.99, P = 0.333).

To assess whether intruders or residents were more or less likely to return towards their core area following an encounter, we compared the change in each pack's distance to their own core area before and after encounters (Fig. 3). Each pack's distance to its own core area 1 h post-encounter was subtracted from that 1 h pre-encounter so that a positive value indicated a 'retreat' homeward. Although in the 1 h post-encounter intruders tended to move further ($\dot{x} \pm$ SD: -1.07 ± 2.71 km) toward their own core area than did residents (0.086 ± 1.66 km), this difference was not significant (paired t-test: t₁₄=1.53, P=0.149).

421

422 *Speed of movement.* There was no significant difference in change in median speed either side 423 of the encounter according to pack residence status (Wilcoxon paired test: N=15, V=45,

424 P=0.421). There was also no difference between packs in the change in the maximum speed

they attained before and after the encounter (paired t-test; t_{14} =-0.77, P=0.455).

426

427 *ii) Medium-term responses*

428 Following short-term (1 h) differences described above, we found that changes in the distance

to encounter sites no longer differed between residents and intruders 12 h either side of

430 encounters ($t_{14} = -0.42$, P=0.678). In common with the short-term results described above, inter-

431 pack distances were also not significantly different 12 h either side of encounters (pre-

432 encounter, 10.57 ± 5.63 km; post-encounter, 10.15 ± 5.57 km; t₁₄=0.20, P=0.841). Median

distances between packs and between intruders, residents and encounter sites are shown in

434 Fig. 1.

435

436 *iii) Long-term responses*

437 The areas of inter-pack overlap were significantly lower following an encounter than before it 438 (Table 2). This suggests broad-scale spatial avoidance post-encounter, but interestingly this reduced overlap was not the result of the intruder shifting their range away from residents; 439 comparing each pack's pre-encounter range to its own post-encounter range showed similar 440 degrees of overlap regardless of their residence status. Similarly, the percentage that a pack's 441 442 pre-encounter range overlapped its own post-encounter range did not differ according to 443 whether it was classified as the winner or loser. This indicates that reduced inter-pack overlap following an encounter is the result of either mutual avoidance or range shifts over time that are 444 unrelated to encounters. 445

446

447 *Return to proximity of encounter sites.* There was no difference between residents ($\dot{x} \pm SD$, -448 0.0005 ± 0.115) and intruders (0.0028 ± 0.061) in the change in visitation rate to the vicinity of

the site following an encounter (visits to < 800 m / day; Wilcoxon paired test: N=13, W=122,

450 P=0.706). All packs (pooled) made close passes of the encounter site at similar rates before

451 and after encounters (Wilcoxon paired test: N=13, W =114, P=0.967).

452

453

454 Discussion

455 We described the detailed spatial dynamics of 15 African wild dog inter-pack encounters. On 456 average, neighbouring packs had an encounter once every six-months of dyadic overlap and 457 most encounters were 'won' by intruders, as measured by their tendency to stay closer to an 458 encounter site than did residents shortly (1 h) after the encounter. Although some injuries were 459 recorded and may have resulted from encounters, no dogs were killed during these encounters. 460 In the short-term, the distances travelled by packs after encounters and the speed at which they 461 travelled were not significantly different to those from the same period before an encounter, nor 462 between residents and intruders and winners and losers respectively. Longer term, although the 463 area of inter-pack range overlap was significantly reduced following an encounter, these shifts 464 did not appear to result from one pack shifting its range relative to the other, but rather from both packs shifting slightly, which may be due to mutual avoidance or natural home-range drifts 465 466 over time (see Pomilia et al. 2015) that are independent of encounters. There was no evidence 467 of post-encounter avoidance of encounter sites by either residents or intruders, nor winner or losers. 468

469 As each African wild dog pack had approximately four neighbours, our measured 470 dyadic inter-pack encounter rate (an encounter every 6 months), suggests that each pack would 471 be expected to meet one of their neighbours every 47 days on average. This is similar to inter-472 pack encounter rates estimated from two other sites including the Selous Game Reserve in 473 Tanzania, where wild dog packs were estimated to meet approximately every 40 days (Creel 474 and Creel 2002), and to three districts in Kenya where inter-pack contact was estimated to 475 occur approximately every 40.4 days (Woodroffe and Donnelly 2011). On the surface, the agreement between these values is striking and broadly suggests that our method of using 476 remote-data to identify encounters yielded accurate results. However, the parity of our 477 478 encounter frequency results with those of other studies (e.g. Mills and Gorman 1997; Creel and 479 Creel 2002; Woodroffe and Donnelly 2011) is actually surprising, as these previous studies

480 were likely constrained to some degree by the need to conduct observations predominantly 481 during daylight hours. Unlike Woodroffe and Donnelly's (2011) remote data collection, which 482 was paused between 20:00 and 06:00, our remote data imposed no such constraints and we 483 found that the majority of encounters (10/15) in our study occurred during this nocturnal period. 484 Indeed, even allowing that some direct observations in previous studies may have been 485 conducted in the few hours before sunrise and following sunset, 1/3 of our encounters still 486 occurred outside of these observation times, hinting that actual inter-pack encounter rates in our 487 study population are considerably lower overall than in other populations. The explanation for this potential disparity is currently unknown, particularly since one potential explanation, a 488 possible difference in pack densities, does not seem to increase inter-pack encounter rates in 489 this species (Woodroffe 2011). 490

491

492 <u>Encounter outcome</u>

In many species, the winner of an encounter can be clearly identified, as contests tend to occur 493 494 in the vicinity of valuable resources such as fruiting trees, where winners tend to remain feeding 495 post-encounter (e.g. capuchins; Crofoot et al. 2008). Identifying the victor is more challenging 496 for highly mobile species such as African wild dogs, particularly as they are not usually competing over a specific resource such as a kill at the point of encounter. In the current study, 497 there was no evidence from the GPS data that any of the encounters described here occurred 498 499 at a kill site, which would have provided motivation for either pack to remain in the vicinity of an 500 encounter. Kill sites can be identified by visual inspection of GPS and activity data (e.g. Hubel et al. 2016a), and inspection of data around encounter points suggested that none of our 501 502 encounters occurred at kill sites, though we cannot completely rule out this possibility from our 503 remote data. When we defined the winner as the pack that remained closest to the site 1 h post-504 encounter, most encounters were 'won' by intruders which contrasted with our expectation.

505 Alternatively, when we classified winners as the pack that moved least towards its own core 506 area, the result was reversed with residents emerging as winners more frequently. Although 507 intruders moved less far from the encounter than residents, the direction of their movements 508 were more likely to be towards home. We also found no evidence of one pack actively pursuing 509 another, except for an exceptional case (encounter 7) where the intruders appeared to actively 510 seek out the residents over more than 15 km and then pursue them briefly post-encounter. It is important to reiterate here that our data is limited to tracking the movement of collared 511 512 individuals, and the responses of all individuals in encountering packs was not known, although 513 pack members tend to stick together.

Using displacement from the encounter site to classify winners, surprisingly adult 514 pack-size ratio had little effect on encounter outcome. Most previous studies on other species 515 516 have shown that relative pack size is important (e.g. banded mongoose, Cant et al. 2002; 517 African lion, Panthera leo, Mosser and Packer 2009; McComb et al. 1994), however other work has suggested that pack-size ratio was less important in gray wolf encounters than was the 518 519 specific composition of packs (Cassidy et al. 2015). This was possibly because packs with 520 additional adult males or older wolves were more likely to win encounters (Cassidy et al. 2015), 521 but in this study, we found no evidence that potentially pertinent details of African wild dog pack 522 composition affected the outcome of encounters. Encounter outcome appeared to be unaffected by either the risk (inter-pack ratio of same-sex individuals) or opportunity (the sex ratio in the 523 524 opposing pack) that encounters presented to the collared individuals. It is possible that 525 remaining together as a pack during and in the aftermath of encounters may be more important to African wild dogs than opportunistic inter-pack matings, particularly as successful breeding is 526 527 almost monopolised by the alpha pair (Creel et al. 1997).

528 Surprisingly, in contrast to previous studies which describe the risk and danger of 529 inter-pack encounters in African wild dogs (e.g. Creel and Creel 2002) and other species (e.g.

530 chimpanzees, Townsend et al. 2007), no wild dogs were killed in the encounters we recorded in this study. We also found that only around 15% of encounters resulted in injury (less than half of 531 532 that described in observed encounters in the Selous, Tanzania; Creel and Creel 2002), but 533 Figure 1 clearly suggests that encounters are not all amicable affairs, and there is clearly 534 potential for serious injury and disease-transmission. Though it may be interesting to note that 535 both encounters that likely resulted in injuries involved unrelated packs, the proportion of 536 encounters that resulted in injury were not significantly different between encounters involving 537 related and unrelated packs, leading us to conclude that relatedness was unimportant in this context. The apparently low incidence of injuries resulting from inter-pack encounters is also 538 important because, as previous authors have pointed out (e.g. Woodroffe and Donnelly 2011), 539 packs infected with potentially fatal viral pathogens (e.g. canine distemper, Alexander et al. 540 541 1996; rabies, Kat et al. 1995) can transmit it to other packs. These infections can have serious 542 consequences for endangered populations as they are major causes of mortality (Kat et al. 1995; Alexander et al. 1996). Inter-pack encounters may be particularly suited to pathogen 543 transmission, due to the direct and physically-damaging contact that may ensue. For example, 544 545 the incidence of inter-pack prospecting by male meerkats was correlated with those individuals 546 subsequently testing tuberculosis-positive, suggesting a possible route for transmission of infection between social groups (Drewe 2010). While our study population currently appears 547 disease free, inter-pack encounters remain a possible route of transmission in general, but in 548 549 common with previous authors, our results suggest that infrequent inter-pack encounters may 550 result in infrequent transmission of virulent pathogens (Woodroffe and Donnelly 2011). 551 Interestingly, no immediate dispersal resulted from opposite-sex individuals meeting during these interactions, though it is expected that information on future dispersal opportunities may 552 553 be gleaned during such encounters.

554 In terms of long-term effects of encounters, packs might be expected to avoid areas 555 where encounters have previously taken place, as has been shown in yellow baboons 556 (Markham et al. 2012). We found little measurable impact however on long-term movement and 557 space-use following encounters. Indeed, although we found that the area of inter-pack range 558 overlap was significantly lower in the period following an encounter than preceding it, this 559 overlap was not the result of only one of the interacting packs shifting its range relative to the 560 other. Rather both packs shifted their ranges after an encounter, but we are currently unable to distinguish whether this was a form of mutual avoidance, or whether it may be explained by 561 562 shifts in ranging that are unrelated to the encounter itself. Although wild dog packs inhabit reasonably consistent ranges over a number of years, home ranges estimated over shorter 563 weekly or monthly scales show a degree of variability (Pomilia et al. 2015). We also found no 564 565 evidence that losers avoid winners, but cannot rule out that natural shifts in short-term ranges, 566 rather than mutual avoidance post-encounter, may explain the reduced inter-pack range overlap following encounters. 567

568

569 <u>Conclusion</u>

570 Overall our results show low but not infrequent rates of inter-pack encounters between 571 neighbouring wild dog packs that are broadly consistent with previous findings from direct observation in other locations. The outcome of encounters was an immediate and movement 572 away from the encounter site by both packs, but this was slightly more pronounced in residents 573 574 than intruders. Although our findings suggest that encounters evoke some immediate behavioral change post-encounter, we observed only infrequent injury and no long-term shifts in ranging 575 behavior after losing an encounter or any avoidance of the encounter site by either participating 576 577 pack. This suggests that the effects of inter-pack encounters in wild dogs may be much more 578 short-lived than previously assumed. Perhaps the potential costs of meeting the neighbors are

- 579 outweighed by either the benefits of the information acquired during such an encounter, or the
- avoided potential costs of preventing an encounter in such a highly vagile species.
- 581

582 Ethical statement

583

- **Funding** This research was supported by grants from the Engineering and Physical Sciences
- 585 Research Council (EP/H013016/1), the European Research Council (323041), the Paul G. Allen
- 586 Family Foundation, Wild Entrust International and additional private donors.
- 587 **Conflict of interest** The authors declare that they have no competing interests.
- 588 Ethical approval This work was approved by the Royal Veterinary College Ethics & Welfare
- 589 Committee, and adhered to the ASAB/ABS Guidelines for the Use of Animals in Research
- 590 (ASAB/ABS 2012). This work was undertaken under research permits from the Botswana
- 591 Ministry of Environment Wildlife and Tourism, Department of Wildlife and National Parks held by
- 592 JWM and AMW.
- Informed consent This article does not contain any studies with human participants performed
 by any of the authors.
- 595 Data availability statement The datasets generated during and/or analyzed during the current
- study are not publicly available as they contain potentially sensitive information on the den site
- 597 locations of an endangered species. Data are available from the corresponding author on
- 598 reasonable request.
- 599

600

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- 753 2017.

755 Tables

756

757 **Table 1** Summary of 15 inter-pack encounters in African wild dogs

					Pacl iden	k itity	Distar own 5 kud (k	nce to 0% km) ^b		Pacl size	k c
Encounter	Winner ^a	Related?	Date	Time	Resident pack	Intruder pack	Resident	Intruder	Inter-pack distance at encounter (m)	Resident	Intruder
1	Intruder	Y	23/02/2012	16:41	MT	NM	0.61	23.95	614	14	3
2	Intruder	Y	30/04/2012	19:39	HW	SA	0	12.04	288.8	5	3
3	Resident	Y	03/05/2012	23:25	MT	HW	2.43	2.93	56.2	7	5
4	Resident	Ν	07/05/2012	05:23	MT	KB	1.96	9.05	23.8	7	6
5	Intruder	Ν	07/05/2012	21:11	MK	SA	1.29	1.79	442.3	4	3
6	Intruder	Ν	14/05/2012	04:22	KB	MT	0	2.19	36	6	7
7	Intruder	Υ	25/05/2012	16:22	SA	MT	0.10	3.31	401.7	3	7
8	Intruder	Ν	10/10/2012	05:22	KB	MT	0.35	3.26	288.3	4	6
9	Intruder	Ν	21/08/2013	03:44	MB	KB	0.74	1.73	146.8	6	9
10	Resident	Ν	15/08/2014	18:57	MB	DB	0	17.17	66.8	11	12
11	Resident	Ν	21/08/2014	04:32	MB	ΗT	0	4.42	295.4	10	10
12	Intruder	Υ	11/08/2014	23:45	ZU	AP	0	2.28	270.7	9	12
13	Intruder	Ν	08/05/2012	05:28	KB	MT	0	2.43	309.1	6	7
14	Intruder	Ν	17/08/2013	21:40	MB	KB	0	4.43	65.5	6	9
15	Intruder	Υ	30/01/2014	16:18	ΗT	AP	0	0.71	141.9	4	10

758 ^aLosers were pack displaced furthest from encounter location 1-hr post-encounter; ^bclosest edge of 50% kud if outside, otherwise

set to 0; ^cadults and yearlings over 1 year old; ^d the winner of this encounter was the resident when using the mcp method of home

760 range estimation, all others were unchanged

761 **Table 2** Comparison of a) the proportion of inter-pack range overlap in pre- versus post-encounter periods and b) changes in

distances of packs to their own range core 1h after versus 1h before encounters, for 15 African wild dog inter-pack encounters. The

overlap between each packs pre- and post-encounter range were also estimated to investigate the source of any shifts in inter-pack

overlap. Ranges were estimated using minimum convex polygon (mcp) and kernel utility distribution estimates (kud) to buffer against

biases in home range estimation

766 a)

		KDE m	ethod		MCP m	nethod	
Overlap	Period	Mean	SD	paired t-test result	Mean	SD	paired t-test result
Inter-pack	Pre-encounter	0.35	± 0.20		0.31	± 0.26	
	Post-encounter	0.22	± 0.15	t ₁₄ = 2.61, P = 0.021	0.15	± 0.19	t ₁₄ = 2.13, P = 0.051
Intra-pack	Pre-post (intruder)	0.68	± 0.20		0.65	± 0.25	
	Pre-post (resident)	0.67	± 0.23	t ₁₄ = 0.27, P = 0.790	0.65	± 0.27	t ₁₄ = 0.07, P = 0.945
Intra-pack	Pre-post (winner)	0.68	± 0.26		0.68	± 0.33	
	Pre-post (loser)	0.66	± 0.15	t ₁₄ = 0.37, P = 0.719	0.62	± 0.17	t ₁₄ = 0.72, P = 0.482

767

768 b)

		KDE m	etho	bd		MCP met	hod	
Status	Calculation	Mean		SD	paired t-test result	Mean	SD	paired t-test result
Resident	Pre-post	0.086	±	1.66 km		-0.21 ±	2.32 km	
Intruder	Pre-post	-1.07	±	2.71 km	t ₁₄ = 1.53, P = 0.149	-0.32 ±	: 3.16 km	t ₁₄ = 0.11, P = 0.911

Table 3 Generalized Linear Mixed Effects models (GLMM) investigating the factors affecting the outcome (win or lose) of an inter-pack encounter (N=15 encounters). Focal pack was included as a random term in all models. $\Delta i = AICci - AICcmin$, wi=Akaike weights

	Include	d paramet	ers					
Model	Intercept	Residence status	Pack size ratio	df	logLik	AICc	Δi	wi
(Null)	+			2	-6.30	17.61	2.57	0.15
1	+	+		3	-3.43	15.04	0.00	0.54
2	+		+	3	-4.00	16.17	1.13	0.31

- Table 4 Average effects of parameters in models from Table 1 (cumulative AIC weights were
- >0.95) the factors affecting the outcome (win or lose) of an inter-pack encounter (N=15
- encounters)

	Confidence Interval								
Parameter	Est.	SE	2.50%	97.50%	Ρ	Relative importance			
(Intercept)	18.33	14.24	-11.14	47.79	0.22				
Residence status (Res) ^a	-15.84	9.03	-35.51	3.82	0.11	0.54			
Pack size ratio	24.67	8.78	5.53	43.81	0.01	0.31			

- 778 Figure captions
- 779
- **Fig. 1** Injured subdominant resident adult male African wild dog following an inter-pack
- 781 encounter. GPS radiocollar and drop-off unit also shown
- 782
- **Fig. 2** Median distances (m), between packs (____), and between the encounter site and intruder
- 784 (____) and resident (____) packs over (a) 12 h and (b) 1.5 h periods either side of the encounter.
- 785 N=15 encounters
- 786
- **Fig. 3** Median distances (m) to own home range core for intruder (____) and resident (____) packs
- over (a) 12 h and (b) 1.5 h periods either side of the encounter. (Ranges estimated using the
- 789 kernel density estimate method). N=15 encounters





























