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16 **Abstract.** The global population of domestic dogs is estimated at 900 million, making them the world's most abundant
17 carnivore. Southeast Asia is considered extremely vulnerable to wildlife declines linked to free-ranging dogs yet few
18 studies report specific cases of dog-wildlife interactions in this region. To overcome this lack of data, the perceived risk
19 to bird and mammal species from free-ranging domestic dogs was modelled using Bayesian networks considering the
20 life history traits of each individual species. The spatial distribution of perceived risk across Southeast Asia was then
21 modelled using a Bayesian network incorporating landscape and demographic characteristics. The number of species
22 considered as high perceived risk in the region was over five times that previously reported. Overall, 11% of bird
23 species and 10% of mammal species were classified as at high perceived risk from free-ranging domestic dogs and eight
24 of these species were listed as Critically Endangered or Endangered by the IUCN Redlist. Furthermore, 50% of
25 mainland Southeast Asia was predicted to be of high perceived risk from free-ranging domestic dogs with only 9% of
26 the region considered as low perceived risk. When empirical data is lacking on IUCN Redlist assessments,
27 incorporation of single threat models can provide missing information critical for accurate evaluation. It is
28 recommended that species are re-evaluated considering domestic dogs as a threat and that this study be used as a
29 template to assist in the development of species action plans and to define key areas where dog management needs to be
30 considered. Management practices should be culturally appropriate and overall promote responsible pet ownership.

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- 1
- 2 **Key words.** *Canis familiaris*; Dog-Wildlife Conflict; Predation; Bayesian network; Threat map

1 INTRODUCTION

2

3 Less than 12% of Southeast Asia's forests are protected (Estoque et al., 2019) despite the region being one of the most
4 biologically diverse in the world (Sodhi et al., 2010). Yet, even with a protected area status, often anthropogenic
5 pressure is not eliminated (Jones et al., 2018). A growing number of human settlements surround and often encroach on
6 forests, increasing pressure on wildlife species (Wittemyer et al., 2008). One threat associated with human settlements
7 is the increasing number of domestic species that can encounter native wildlife (Plaza et al., 2019). The disruption of
8 ecosystems by domestic species is well documented in livestock (Gordon, 2018; Zhang et al., 2017) and domestic cats
9 (*Felis catus*) (Loss et al., 2013; Gillies and Clout, 2003; Woods et al., 2003) but less so in domestic dogs (*Canis*
10 *familiaris*) despite being the world's most abundant predator (Villatoro et al., 2019).

11

12 The global population of domestic dogs is estimated at 900 million (Gompper, 2014). In many parts of the world, dogs
13 live a free-ranging lifestyle where they are unrestricted in their movements, these semi-independent dogs make up the
14 majority of dogs in developing countries (Ortega-Pacheco and Jiménez-Coello, 2011). Their lack of confinement
15 enables them to freely enter natural habitats surrounding their settlement putting them into close proximity with wildlife
16 (Torres and Prado, 2010). Their presence within natural habitats negatively affects wildlife as natural food chains are
17 altered with their introduction through direct predation (Newsome et al., 2014). The provision of anthropogenic foods
18 allows dogs to exist in higher densities than natural predators as their populations are unaffected by prey density
19 fluctuations (Young et al., 2011). Additionally, a consistently high density of dogs can prevent the recovery of declining
20 or fragmented prey populations (Banks and Bryant, 2007). Predation events are the most commonly reported impact
21 from domestic dogs; however, other impacts include disturbance, competition, hybridisation and the transmission of
22 diseases (Doherty et al., 2017).

23

24 There is a large regional bias on published studies of domestic dog impacts to wildlife. Doherty et al (2017) reported
25 that Southeast Asia had the highest number of species negatively impacted by dogs in the world using the IUCN Red
26 List. On the contrary, literature reviews of domestic dog-wildlife interactions conducted by Young et al (2011) and
27 Hughes and Macdonald (2013) included no studies based in Southeast Asia. Of the studies available on domestic dog-
28 wildlife conflict within Southeast Asia (search carried out 20/05/21 in Web of Science databases and Google Scholar)
29 most refer to the predation of primate species (Najmuddin et al., 2019; Riley et al., 2015) or this conflict was not the
30 primary focus of the study (Azhar et al., 2012; Gumert et al., 2013; Ramli and Norazlimi, 2017; Yasué et al., 2008). Not

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1 only is there a regional bias on published studies, Doherty et al (2017) found a large taxonomic bias towards mammals;
2 Hughes and Macdonald (2013) also found that most studies reviewed focused only on domestic dog interactions with a
3 singular wildlife species. Furthermore, the majority of studies published tend to be opportunistic predation events or
4 collected incidentally from studies targeting different aims (Young et al., 2011). Consequently, the number of species
5 known to be impacted by dogs could be underestimated.

6
7 When considering conservation management, it is vital to understand how free-ranging domestic dogs may also be
8 impacting wildlife. This is crucial within Southeast Asia considering the wide-ranging impacts free-ranging domestic
9 dogs can have and as many species in this region are understudied. An absence of comprehensive empirical data
10 prohibits quantification of the magnitude of free-ranging domestic dog impacts. However, the use of expert opinions
11 can facilitate focus for decision-makers and primary research in these fields. Therefore, the aims of this study are: 1) to
12 investigate the impact of free-ranging domestic dogs on wildlife species within mainland Southeast Asia using species
13 life history traits and expert knowledge on how these characteristics can influence the vulnerability of each species, and
14 2) to uncover the spatial distribution of perceived risk to wildlife from free-ranging domestic dogs, landscape
15 characteristics and expert knowledge on their existence in different parts of Southeast Asia.

16

17

18

MATERIALS & METHODS

19

20 **Study Site.** The study was conducted across the six countries that make up mainland Southeast Asia: Cambodia, Lao
21 People's Democratic Republic, Myanmar, Peninsular Malaysia, Thailand and Vietnam. The region is characterised by
22 its tropical and monsoonal climate (Resurreccion and Sajor, 2008) and contains the majority of the Indo-Burma
23 biodiversity hotspot and part of the Sundaland biodiversity hotspot.

24

25 **Model Development.** Bayesian networks (BN) were used to define the perceived risk levels from free-ranging
26 domestic dogs to wildlife and to uncover the spatial distribution of perceived risk from free-ranging domestic dogs. To
27 better enable management decisions, BNs are a useful approach as they allow for the integration of both empirical data
28 and professional opinions when data is incomplete (Jellinek et al., 2014; McBride and Burgman, 2012). BNs are
29 directed acyclic graphical models in which variables are represented as nodes and “parent nodes” impact the state of
30 “child” nodes. The linkages between “parent” and child” nodes are known as arcs or edges and they represent the

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1 relationship between the two nodes (Tantipisanuh et al., 2014). The influence of the arcs to each node's state in the
2 models are quantified using conditional probability tables (CPTs) and the outcome state of a "child" node depends
3 solely on its "parent" nodes and no other nodes within the model (Bennett et al., 2021). The initial input nodes' (or
4 parentless nodes) states were defined using empirical data (for definition of input nodes and state in Mammalia and
5 Avian BN see Supplementary Material 1). BNs explicitly incorporate uncertainty into models and can be updated with
6 new data to keep models relevant in a changing system (Glendinging and Pollino, 2012). They can identify areas where
7 more research needs to be conducted as well as distinguish issues that should be prioritised.

8
9 Using Netica software (Norys Software, 1995-2015) four BNs were created: perceived risk to Carnivora Mammalia
10 species from free-ranging dogs (Fig. 1a), perceived risk to non-Carnivora Mammalia species from free-ranging dogs
11 (Fig. 1b), perceived risk to Avian species from free-ranging dogs (Fig. 1c) and the spatial distribution of areas of
12 perceived risk from free-ranging dogs in mainland Southeast Asia (Fig. 1d). The structure and linkages of the models
13 were determined through multiple meetings between the authors, the models were then reviewed by a researcher with
14 Bayesian network experience. This was to ensure that no errors existed within the structural designs and that each
15 model could produce viable results. CPT values were then derived from expert opinions (Supplementary Material 2);
16 experts (n = 28) had experience of 5 – 20+ years in the field of conservation and were affiliated with a wildlife
17 conservation NGO, specialist wildlife group or university lab focused on ecological sciences. Additionally, free-ranging
18 domestic dog experts were selected who had recently published (< 5years) a paper or had published a paper on free-
19 ranging domestic dogs that had been cited more than 100 times. Depending on their qualifications, discussions with
20 experts were either concerning the vulnerability of mammal or bird species from domestic dogs, factors influencing dog
21 presence within an area or dog control within Southeast Asia. Each expert was informed of the aim of the study and the
22 scope of the BN model in question prior to discussions. Each BN was broken down into child nodes and the
23 corresponding parent nodes and experts were asked via a questionnaire (Supplementary Material 3) to weigh the
24 importance of parent nodes on their child nodes using a scale of 1 – 5. This was repeated for every child node in the
25 BN. Additionally, experts working within protected areas in Southeast Asia were asked how likely it was that dog
26 control took place within and outside protected areas of the corresponding country they had experience in and if the
27 presence of a charismatic species influenced the likelihood of dog control taking place. Experts only provided responses
28 for topics they were well-informed in, and responses were weighted equally and pooled together to obtain the mean
29 response/score (Martin et al., 2012). This score was then assigned to the corresponding parent nodes of each child node.
30 To create the conditional probability table of a child node, the score of each relevant parent node was multiplied with its

1 state (e.g., low = 0.33, high = 1). This value was then summed with the values generated for all parent nodes linked to
2 the child node and divided with the maximum possible score available for that child node (i.e., where all parent node
3 states are equal to 1). This score was then transformed into a percentage and this percentage was used to determine the
4 values in the conditional probability tables (Supplementary Material 2). This process was then repeated for every
5 combination of the corresponding parent nodes' states.

6
7 Finally, each BN model was evaluated by calculating the sensitivity of each outcome node against all other nodes
8 within the model. This was calculated within the Netica software and the outcome allows influential nodes to be
9 identified. The entropy reduction value (mutual information) is the degree of influence a node has for altering the state
10 of another node and its use is appropriate for categorical nodes (Dlamini, 2010). The variance reduction of real
11 describes the expected reduction in variance of a node and is a more appropriate measure for continuous nodes (Pascoe
12 et al., 2020).

13 14 **Species Risk Models**

15 Species sensitivity to the threats associated with free-ranging domestic dogs is likely to depend on their life history
16 traits and habitat use (e.g., Bromham et al., 2012). Therefore, to overcome the lack of data available, life history traits
17 were used to predict the perceived risk from free-ranging domestic dogs on individual native species. Mammalia and
18 Avian species from mainland Southeast Asia were extracted from the IUCN's Red List of Threatened Species (IUCN,
19 2020) in July 2020. All Red List categories excluding Extinct and Extinct in the Wild were included. Land regions were
20 filtered to include only peninsular Malaysia, Cambodia, Vietnam, Lao People's Democratic Republic, Thailand and
21 Myanmar. Marine species, locally extinct species or species with rare occurrences in the region were manually removed
22 from the list. Empirical traits were selected for each of the classes that were likely to influence vulnerability to domestic
23 dogs and could be assigned reliably from the literature and through discussions with taxa experts. This included
24 morphological, behavioural and ecological traits. Information for each trait for each species was then compiled using
25 the IUCN Red List, field guides and expert opinion when information was scarce, and all species traits were cross-
26 checked by a taxa expert.

27
28 Threats that were recognised as strongly affecting animal populations were selected as outcomes of the model, and
29 included competition, disturbance, predations, hybridisation and disease as specified and defined by Doherty et al.
30 (2017). These threats were collated to give the overall perceived risk outcome with a probability assigned to each of the

1 three outcome states: low, medium and high. Each species' perceived risk score was equal to 100; however
2 transformation was required as the probability was split between the three outcomes and not given as one overall score.
3 To transform the result into one continuous scale from 0 – 100, the following equation and weights were adapted from
4 Petersen et al. (2020), which determined the final estimated perceived risk score:

$$r = (x*0) + (y*50) + (z*100)$$

5
6
7
8 $r = \text{perceived risk}$, $x = \text{low risk value}$, $y = \text{medium risk value}$, $z = \text{high risk value}$

9 Species that received a perceived risk score of 33.33 or less, including 0, were categorised as low risk, those that
10 received a score of 66.66 or less were categorised as medium risk and those with a score above 66.66 were categorised
11 as high risk. A “no risk” category was not provided as it would be impossible to determine if a species was at no risk
12 from domestic dogs; therefore, even if a species received a 100% probability of low risk and subsequently an overall
13 perceived risk value of 0, it would not equate to no risk. If a species received a 70% probability of low risk and a 30%
14 probability of medium risk, it would receive a perceived risk value of 15; consequently, both species would be assigned
15 into the low risk category.

16
17 **Perceived Risk Spatial Distribution.** A BN approach was used once more to estimate the perceived risk by free-
18 ranging dogs within mainland Southeast Asia. By investigating the accessibility of habitats to free-ranging domestic
19 dogs in reference to their roaming behaviours, the perceived risk to those areas can be estimated whilst accounting for
20 any deterrents that may be present such as control methods deployed by protected areas. From previous studies (Doykin
21 et al., 2016; Farris et al., 2017; Sepúlveda et al., 2015; Silva-Rodríguez and Sieving, 2012; Zanin et al., 2019) and
22 discussions with experts, 10 potentially important drivers of domestic dog distribution and their perceived risk were
23 identified: forest type, protected area status, country, large predator presence, charismatic species presence, landuse
24 type, human density, distance from farmland, distance from settlements and elevation (Table 1). The model was split
25 into forested habitats and non-forested habitats as dog prevention level was only considered in forested habitats. The
26 model calculated dog presence within both habitats, with overall potential risk from dogs as the final outcome. Urban
27 areas and water bodies were excluded from the analysis however, due to the number of species that utilise agricultural
28 land and degraded habitats these areas were included (Fig. 1d).

29

1 Euclidian distance was used to calculate the “Distance to Farmland” and the “Distance from Settlements” nodes from
2 their respective data sources (Table 1). Multiple data sources were combined for the “Distance from Settlements” node
3 to account for smaller settlements that could be missed. To create the “Charismatic Species” node, species identified
4 from Smith et al. (2012) which reside in Southeast Asia and used as a flagship species by two or more NGOs were
5 selected and their range extracted from the IUCN Red List. The habitat range of three large predators found within the
6 region, tiger (*Panthera tigris*), leopard (*Panthera pardus*) and clouded leopard (*Neofelis nebulosa*), comprised the
7 “Large Predator Presence” node. Lastly, the “Country” node was weighted through expert opinion. Experts with work
8 based in each country were asked to rate how likely dog control was within and outside of protected areas and if the
9 presence of a charismatic species influenced the chances of control occurring due to the additional conservation funding
10 charismatic species often provide (Smith et al., 2012). They were also asked to rate how likely local people were to be
11 accompanied by dogs when entering the forest. Responses were averaged across each country and weighted
12 appropriately.

13
14 All geospatial datasets (Table 1) were converted to 300 m resolution raster files using ArcGIS Pro 2.6 (Environmental
15 Systems Research Institute, 2020). Following the methods of Petersen et al. (2020), raster files were stacked and
16 converted into a matrix using the ‘raster’ package (Hijmans et al., 2020) in the program R (R Core Team, 2020). The
17 XY coordinates for the matrix were removed and saved in R to later be merged with the output data from the BN. Due
18 to the large size of the remaining matrix, it was split into three case files and the resulting matrixes were then processed
19 through Netica individually using the BN created (Fig. 1d). The model consisted of 18 nodes and the output produced a
20 perceived risk level with 4 states: high, medium, low and NA. NA contained the excluded habitat types of urban areas
21 and water bodies. Urban areas were excluded as these are not considered areas where conservation could be a priority.
22 As domestic dogs are terrestrial mammals, water bodies were also excluded from the analysis. However, the habitats
23 surrounding water bodies, such as beaches, were included. This final node was influenced by three nodes: dog presence,
24 land use concern (to eliminate urban areas and water bodies from the analysis) and distance from human modified
25 landscape. The output case files from Netica were then inputted into the program R, merged back into one table and the
26 perceived risk value for each cell was calculated using the same equation as that for the species perceived risk models
27 (Petersen et al., 2020). The output was then merged with its corresponding XY coordinates and converted into raster
28 files using the function rasterFromXYZ from the ‘raster’ package (Hijmans et al., 2020).

29

30

RESULTS

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1 **Species Perceived Risk.** In total 11% (125) of bird species and 10% (47) of mammal species from 35 families and 14
2 orders in Southeast Asia are classified as at high perceived risk from free-ranging dogs (Supplementary Material 4 and
3 5). Of all these species, four are classified as Critically Endangered, four as Endangered, 15 as Vulnerable and five as
4 Data Deficient (Fig. 2). Within the 125 species of bird, 36 species were in the order Galliformes, 20 in Charadriiformes,
5 11 in Gruiformes, 55 in Passeriformes and one in Strigiformes, Otidiformes and Anseriformes (Fig. 3). Mammal orders
6 consisted of 10 Carnivora, six Cetartiodactyla, three Lagomorpha, five Primates, 18 Rodentia, four Scandentia and one
7 Eulipotyphla (Fig. 3). The sensitivity analysis conducted on output nodes of the two mammalian models revealed that
8 “Predation Risk” was the most influential child node for “Overall Risk Carnivora” and “Overall Risk Non-Carnivora”
9 (Table 2). For the Avian model, “Disturbance Risk” was the most influential child node on “Overall Risk” (Table 3).
10

11 **Perceived Risk Spatial Distribution.** It was predicted that across mainland Southeast Asia only 185,331 km² of low
12 perceived risk habitat remains (Fig. 4). This makes up only 9% (Table 4) of the region. The remaining area is
13 categorised as high perceived risk (1,023,840 km²) and moderate perceived risk (727,668 km²) at 50% and 36%,
14 respectively. Thailand contained the largest area of high perceived risk habitats consisting of 69.9% in comparison to
15 Lao People's Democratic Republic which had the smallest percentage of high perceived risk areas at 30.6%. NA
16 corresponds to the percentage of areas excluded from the analysis, this includes water bodies and urban areas. The
17 sensitivity analysis performed on the output node “Potential Dog Risk” highlighted that “Landuse Type” was the most
18 influential child node within the model (Table 5).
19

20 DISCUSSION

21
22 The results of this study were alarming; both the mammalian and avian assessment revealed that the number of species
23 predicted to be at high perceived risk from domestic dog is over five times higher than the previously reported 30
24 species at risk in the region (Doherty et al., 2017). This emphasises the need for domestic dogs to be considered when
25 looking at individual wildlife species threats. In the region, 10% of mammals and 11% of bird species are considered as
26 at high perceived risk from domestic dogs. Additionally, free-ranging domestic dogs pose a high perceived risk to 50%
27 of the region. This is of particular concern within Thailand, Peninsular Malaysia and Vietnam which all had more than
28 50% of their land area considered as high perceived risk. Furthermore, all countries possessed a significant perceived
29 risk from dogs with no country retaining low perceived risk area as their majority.
30

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1 **Species Perceived Risk.** Forty-seven mammal species were considered as at high perceived risk from free-ranging
2 domestic dogs. This includes both predators and prey species indicating that domestic dogs could disrupt entire
3 ecosystems. Amongst the Carnivora order, 10 species were flagged as high perceived risk including all three Canidae
4 species (golden jackal (*Canis aureus*), racoon dog (*Nyctereutes procyonoides*) and dhole (*Cuon alpinus*)), although only
5 golden jackal is at risk from hybridisation. Hybridisation can cause loss of genetic diversity and reduce fitness, and
6 increase the risk of disease transmission across species (Galov et al., 2015). Carnivore species as a whole are
7 particularly vulnerable to diseases such as rabies, canine distemper and canine parvovirus along with various parasites
8 from domestic dogs (Berentsen et al., 2013). Out with the Carnivora order, all mammal species are at risk of rabies
9 (Rocha et al., 2017). Large populations of unvaccinated free-ranging dogs can provide opportunities for transmission of
10 multi-host pathogens to wildlife species (Belsare and Gompper, 2015); additionally, Southeast Asia is still a hotspot for
11 rabies affecting approximately 23,995 people per year in the region (Gongal and Wright, 2011).

12
13 Domestic dogs were previously thought of as insignificant predators of primates; however, they are important predators
14 of macaque species (Riley et al., 2015). Five primate species were identified as being at high perceived risk from the
15 analysis and all belonged to the *Macaca* genus. Macaques are commonly found around human settlements and are
16 known to spend more time on the ground within these modified habitats which can put them into contact with domestic
17 dogs (Riley, 2008). Macaque species with overlapping ranges with domestic dogs have disruptions to their group
18 composition, habitat use and group activity patterns (Riley et al., 2015). Yet, it is not just macaques that can be
19 impacted by dogs; predation events on largely arboreal species including Schlegel's banded langur (*Presbytis neglectus*)
20 in Malaysia (Najmuddin et al., 2019) and black capuchin monkey (*Cebus nigritus*) in Brazil have been recorded
21 (Oliveira et al., 2008).

22
23 Twenty-five small mammal species were classified as high perceived risk in the orders Rodentia, Scandentia and
24 Eulipotyphla. There have been limited studies on the influence of domestic dogs on small mammals but it has been
25 indicated that their presence can reduce abundance (Murphy et al., 2017; Tobajas et al., 2020). Zamora-Nasca et al.
26 (2021) also found that Lagomorpha and Rodentia were the most commonly reported mammals to be chased or preyed
27 by domestic dogs in Argentina. Small mammals are an important food source for mesocarnivores and a reduced
28 abundance could disrupt the natural food chain (Newsome et al., 2014). In contrast, domestic dogs are unaffected by
29 decreasing prey numbers as they are usually subsidised with food from humans so can maintain a high population
30 (Young et al., 2011). If high densities of free-ranging domestic dogs are maintained they could outcompete native

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1 mesocarnivores, particularly as they have a greater tolerance to human disturbance (Butler et al., 2004). In addition to
2 the dangers free-ranging dogs pose to wildlife, trained dogs are commonly used to improve efficiency when tracking
3 and hunting wildlife (Constantino, 2019). They are frequently used for hunting mammalian species however, they can
4 be indiscriminate in their foraging behaviour, killing non-target species (Koster, 2008).

5
6 Within the Aves class, 125 species were identified as high perceived risk. This is unsurprising as although most bird
7 species are able to escape a ground predator through flight, dogs are a known disturbance agent. Banks and Bryant
8 (2007) found that dog presence reduced bird diversity by 35% and abundance by 41%. All species classified as high
9 perceived risk were ground nesters excluding Jerdon's babbler (*Chrysomma alirostre*) and yellow-eyed babbler
10 (*Chrysomma sinense*). Dogs can severely impact ground-dwelling bird populations (Hunt et al., 1996; Taborsky, 1988)
11 and are known nest predators (Henry, 1969). Ground-foraging birds also have greater flight initiation distances than
12 those in the canopy so disturbance involves a greater energy deficit for them (Blumstein et al., 2005). Species that
13 breed in coastal areas, such as the 10 species from the Laridae family categorised as high perceived risk, are
14 exceptionally vulnerable to nest predation from domestic dogs due to the increased urbanisation of beaches (Baudains
15 and Lloyd, 2007).

16
17 There were 58 species that were classified as data deficient by the IUCN Red List. Nearly one-third of these species
18 were Chiroptera, a vastly understudied order (Francis et al., 2010). However, due to their volant nature, dogs are not
19 considered a high risk to them. All species in the Data Deficient category were small mammals with the exception of six
20 muntjac species and the only avian species, the white-faced plover (*Charadrius dealbatus*). Those that were perceived
21 as high risk included the white-faced plover, Gongshan muntjac (*Muntiacus gongshanensis*), silver-backed chevrotain
22 (*Tragulus versicolor*), Williamson's chevrotain (*Tragulus williamsoni*) and the leaf muntjac (*Muntiacus putaoensis*).

23 These Cetartiodactyla species are herbivorous ground foragers and are all recent discoveries to science being described
24 from only a small number of specimens (Amato et al., 1999; Kloss, 1916; Ma et al., 1990) and a recent rediscovery in
25 2018 of the silver-backed chevrotain (Nguyen et al., 2019). Although the primary threats to these Cetartiodactyla species
26 is habitat degradation and poaching (Meijaard et al., 2017; Nguyen et al., 2019; Rabinowitz et al., 1999) any additional
27 pressures from domestic dogs could halt their recovery.

28
29 Doherty et al. (2017) found that only 30 species across Southeast Asia had domestic dogs listed as a threat by the IUCN
30 Redlist. Additionally, only three species highlighted by Doherty et al. (2017) were considered as high perceived risk in
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1 this study. Despite this, species such as red panda (*Ailurus fulgens*) which were considered low perceived risk by this
2 study, were deemed as threatened by domestic dogs according to the IUCN Red List. In fact, in recent years there has
3 been mounting evidence of predation and disease transfer from domestic dogs to red panda (Bagardi et al., 2021; Home
4 et al., 2017). However, these studies have not been cited during the IUCN Red List assessment, which should be
5 revised. Therefore, despite species having a low-perceived risk from free-ranging domestic dogs, it does not rule out the
6 threat entirely. This is concerning due to the small number of species that have been assessed against threats from
7 domestic dogs. It suggests that many species could be missing important threat information which has the potential to
8 influence their Red List status and should be updated. Where empirical data is lacking, using a model as demonstrated
9 to assess a single threat will allow more accurate assessments of species. Although the models used in this study focus
10 solely on domestic dogs, BNs can be used to give more information on threats such as those from invasive species
11 (Wyman-Grothem et al., 2018), hunting (Grainger et al., 2018) and illegal wildlife trade (Bennett et al., 2021) to update
12 species assessments where this data is absent.

13

14 **Perceived Risk Spatial Distribution.** Only 9% of the region was predicted to be at low perceived risk from domestic
15 dogs, with the majority of this habitat in the northern regions. This is most likely due to the higher elevation and lower
16 human populations in the area. Another notable low patch was Thailand's Western Forest Complex which extends
17 across the Myanmar border. This forest complex consists of 11 national parks and six wildlife sanctuaries covering
18 approximately 18,000 km². However, this area is not free of human settlements as there are some small towns located
19 between reserves providing a supply of dogs to the forests around them. The presence of domestic dogs within a forest
20 can be considered as an edge effect reducing available habitat for wildlife species (Lacerda et al., 2009). This is
21 particularly important in mainland Southeast Asia where large forest patches no longer exist and high deforestation
22 rates result in the majority of countries losing more forest than they are gaining (Estoque et al., 2019). Although
23 protected areas can reduce human settlements encroaching into on forested areas, there was little faith in dog
24 management across the whole region when consulting with experts. All countries were rated as having little to no dog
25 control implemented within and outside protected areas.

26

27 Thailand was found to have the highest area of perceived risk from free-ranging domestic dogs in mainland Southeast
28 Asia, which could be due to the limited forest within the country. Thailand has the lowest percentage of forest cover in
29 the region per country size followed by Vietnam and Cambodia. Additionally, Vietnam and Thailand both have the
30 highest populations in the region, suggesting that human settlements may encroach onto forested areas and free-ranging

1 domestic dogs create an edge effect on these habitats. Furthermore, both counties also have large coastlines at
2 approximately 3,260 km and 2,815 km, respectively, that are largely developed. This is also seen in peninsular
3 Malaysia, which despite its smaller area, has a competitive coastline of approximately 2,068 km. Urbanised beaches are
4 key sites for domestic dogs as beach management is rarely for conservation purposes and tends to be improvements for
5 recreational and economic purposes. Consequently, dogs can freely exist in these areas (Schlacher et al., 2015).
6 Identifying areas and habitats of potential risk from free-ranging domestic dogs is an excellent starting point, allowing
7 stakeholders to concentrate efforts where they are needed the most. Combining this threat map with additional threat
8 maps such as hunting and habitat loss for vulnerable wildlife species allows for more insight into the threats these
9 species are facing (Grainger et al., 2018). This will enable us to highlight threatened populations at a local level and
10 recommend realistic management strategies.

11
12 **Limitations.** Whilst expert opinions have filled a knowledge gap on free-ranging domestic dogs within Southeast Asia
13 it is acknowledged that this is not a replacement for empirical data. This study should be considered as a first step to
14 focus future research and the addition of empirical data would improve the accuracy of these models. Furthermore, the
15 addition of empirical data on documented impacts from free-ranging domestic dogs on individual species would allow
16 this model to be validated and adjusted with this new information. By incorporating new predictions, the model can be
17 continuously improved. It should also be considered that this species assessment did not take into account species
18 population sizes, ranges or habitat preferences, all factors that could increase or decrease a species vulnerability to
19 threats. Additionally, reptiles and amphibians were not included in this study due to the lack of data available on them
20 within Southeast Asia. Lastly, free-ranging domestic dogs can exist both solitary, in pairs or packs. Whilst this study
21 only considered the impacts from solitary free-ranging dogs the risks from pack dogs can be much greater. In a study by
22 Homes et al. (2017) approximately 57% of all chases and attacks on wildlife by domestic dogs were from pack dogs and
23 14% of all chases and attacks on wildlife by domestic dogs were from pairs of dogs. It is also worth noting that when
24 hunting in packs domestic dogs can predate much larger prey than when hunting alone, thus the impacts on medium-
25 large mammals could be underestimated (Paschoal et al., 2012).

26
27 **Management Implications.** Given the close relationship between dogs and humans, when considering population
28 management strategies social, cultural and economic aspects must also be considered (Hughes and Macdonald, 2013).
29 Strategies that involve culling dogs may not be effective in this region as many dogs are owned by families yet able to
30 roam freely. Additionally, slaughtering of animals is condemned within Buddhist teachings (Finnigan, 2017), a

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1 prominent religion in the region. Trap-neuter-vaccine-release (TNVR) programs have been proven to be more effective
2 than culling strategies in the long run although culling can quickly decrease a population size it is possible for
3 populations to recover with the sudden vacant niche (Yoak et al., 2016). However, TNVR programs can be expensive
4 and in low-income areas may not be feasible. Furthermore, TNVR does not reduce the population in the short-term and
5 may need to be combined with additional efforts, such as adoption, in order for it to reduce the population in a shorter
6 timeframe (Coe et al., 2021). Although TNVR is seen as more ethical than culling, there can still be welfare issues
7 associated with it during the capture and post-operative stage (Bacon et al., 2019). Focusing on responsible dog
8 ownership may be an option in these areas, encouraging individuals to restrict dog movement and transporting feral
9 dogs to shelters (Doherty et al., 2017). Most likely a combination of these management options should be implemented,
10 considering the size of the population, the vulnerability of native wildlife, the willingness of local people to assist and
11 the economic situation in the area. Management of dog populations will not only benefit wildlife species, it can also
12 reduce risks to human health, due to diseases and unconfined dogs that provide a collision risk to vehicles and thus
13 endangering drivers (Canal et al., 2018). Carcasses are often seen at the side of highways; Silva et al. (2020) found that
14 in Thailand dogs were the most common mammal to be involved in a road collision. Therefore, dog management is in
15 the best interest of both conservationists and the public.

16
17 This study qualifies the regional perceived risk from domestic dogs and evaluates the vulnerability of mammal and bird
18 species within the region to this threat for the first time. It is hoped that this study will provide a framework for future
19 studies on free-ranging dog impacts in the region and will assist in species threat assessments when compiling data for
20 the IUCN Red List. Overall, appropriate dog population control measures are encouraged when considering wildlife
21 species management.

22

23

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29

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- 6

1 **Figure legends**

2 **Figure 1** Bayesian networks modelling (a) perceived risk to carnivore mammalian species (b) perceived risk to non-carnivore
3 mammalian species (c) perceived risk to Avian species and (d) the spatial distribution of perceived risk from domestic dogs in
4 mainland Southeast Asia.

5

6 **Figure 2:** Percentage perceived risk in redlist categories. Height of peaks represent number of species scaled to 2, see Supplementary
7 Materials 4 and 5.

8

9 **Figure 3:** Percentage perceived risk in Avian and Mammalian orders. Height of peaks represent number of species scaled to 2, see
10 Supplementary Materials 4 and 5.

11 Orders with two or less species were removed for visualisation including Otidiformes, Dermoptera, Perissodactyla, Pholidota,
12 Proboscidea.

13

14 **Figure 4:** The spatial distribution of perceived risk from domestic dog (*Canis familiaris*) across mainland Southeast Asia. Excluded
15 human settlements and water bodies have been marked in white.

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1 **Table legends**

2 **Table 1:** Spatial data layers used as variables in the perceived risk spatial distribution.

3

4 **Table 2:** Results of a sensitivity analysis on the mammalian perceived risk BN (Fig. 1a,1b) with calculations of entropy reduction.

5

6 **Table 3:** Results of a sensitivity analysis of the “Overall Risk” node in the Avian perceived risk BN (Fig 1c) with calculations of
7 entropy reduction.

8

9 **Table 4:** Percentage of perceived risk area per country.

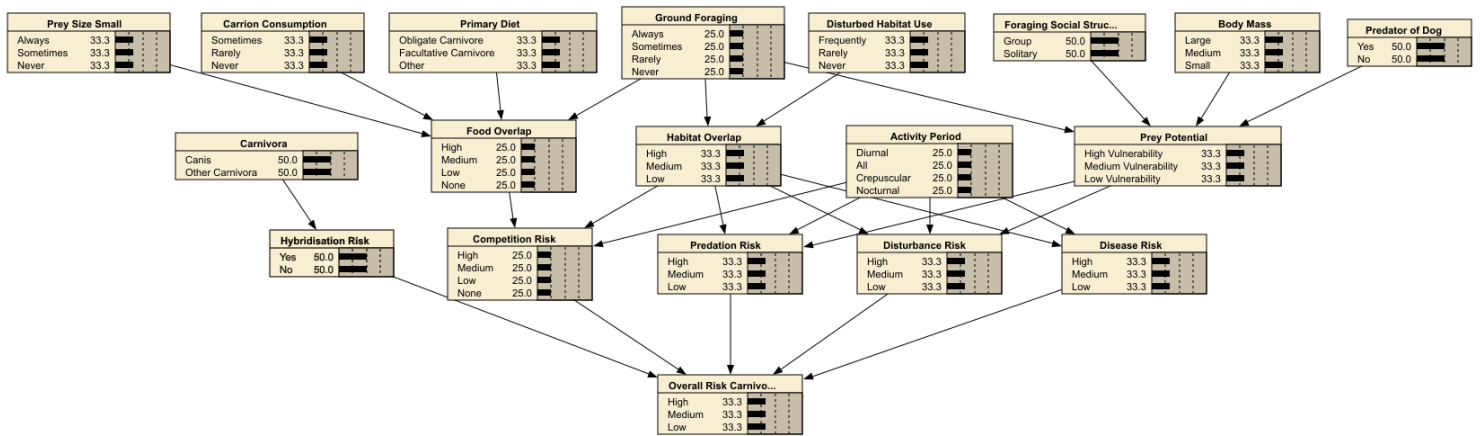
10

11 **Table 5:** Results of a sensitivity analysis of the “Potential Dog Risk” node in the spatial distribution of perceived risk BN (Fig. 1d)
12 with calculations of entropy reduction.

13

1 **Figure 1a**

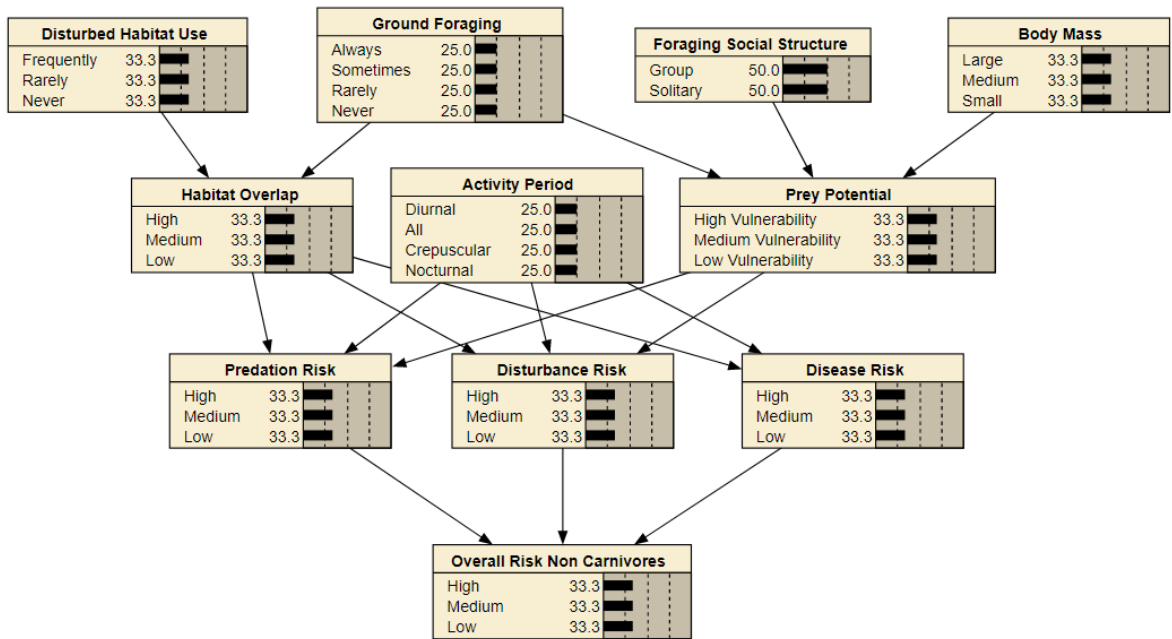
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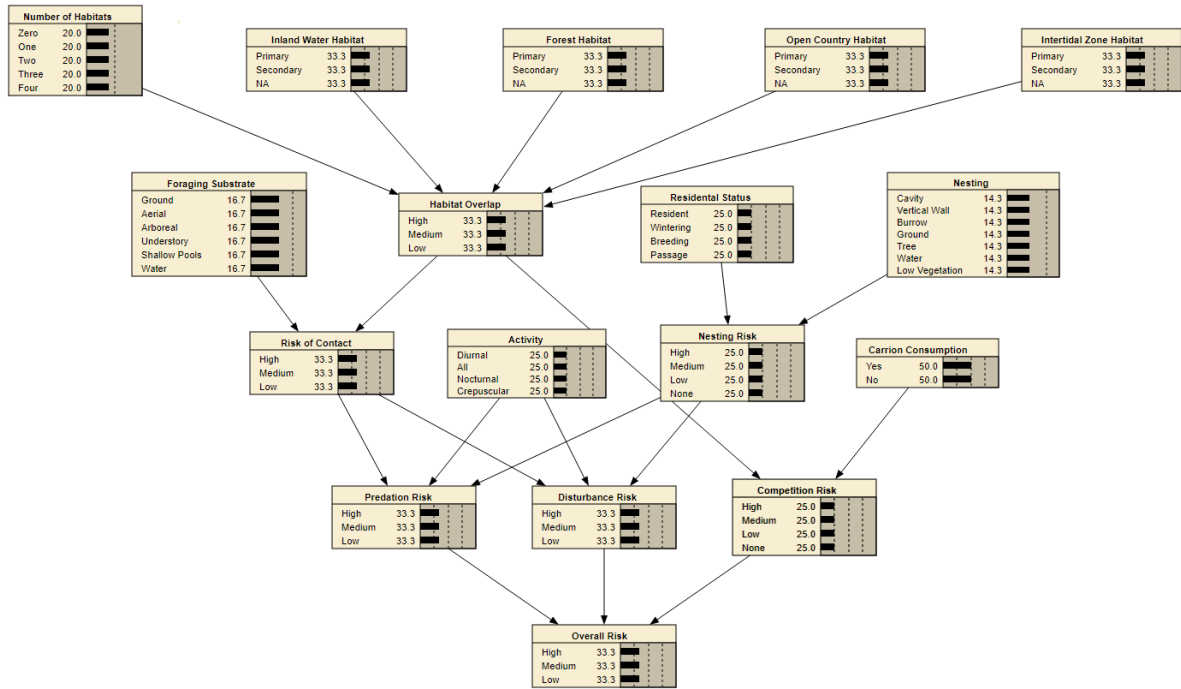
4

1 **Figure 1b**



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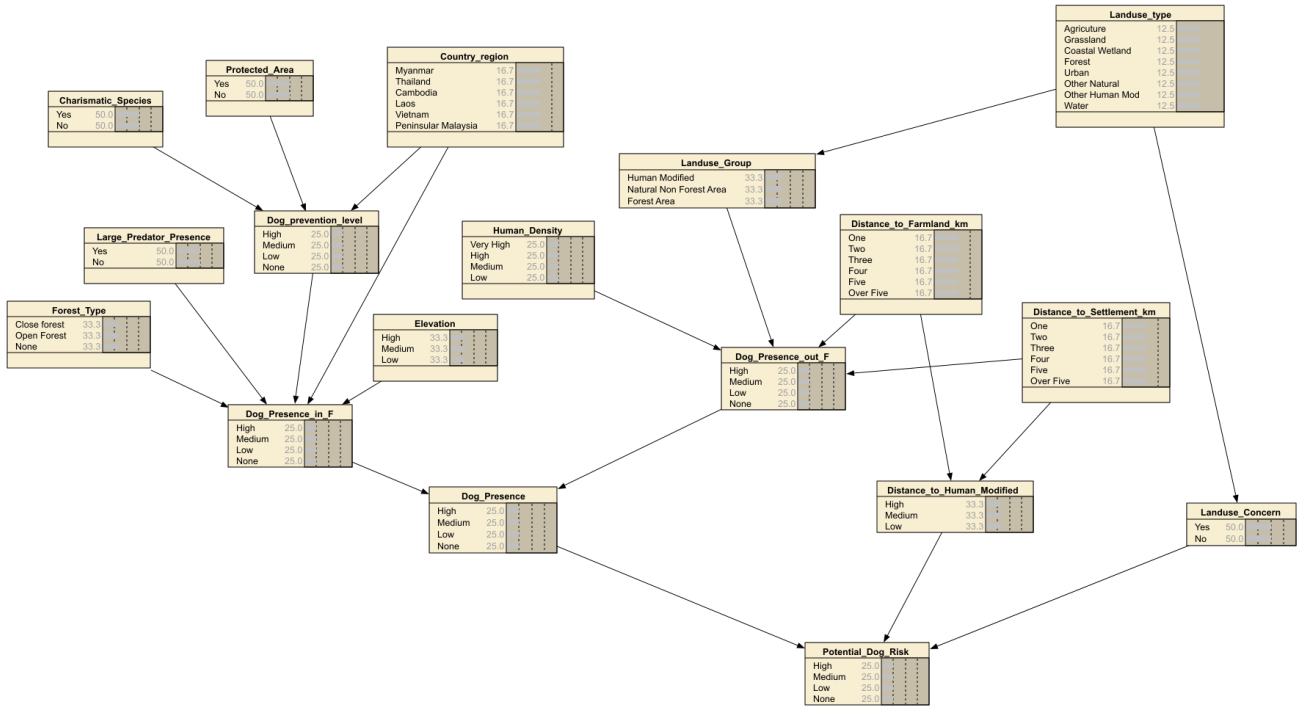
1 **Figure 1c**



2

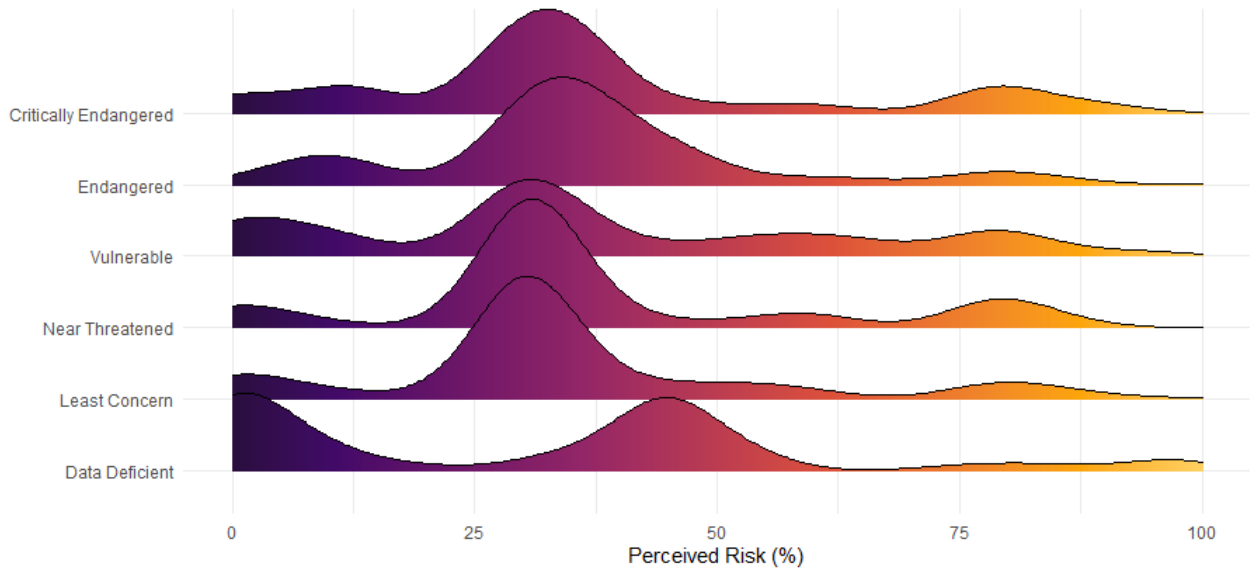
3

1 Figure 1d



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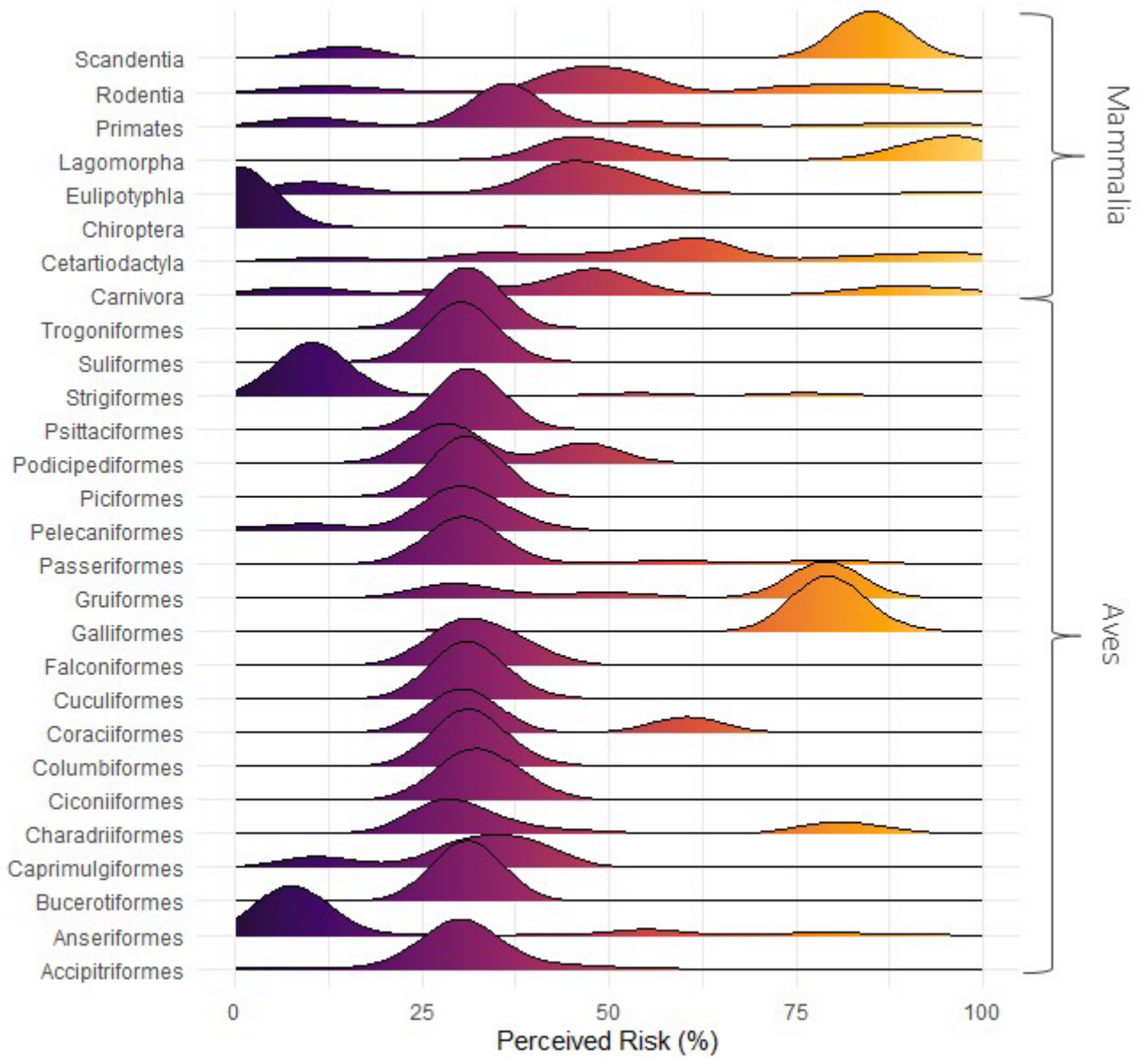
1 **Figure 2**



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1 **Figure 3**

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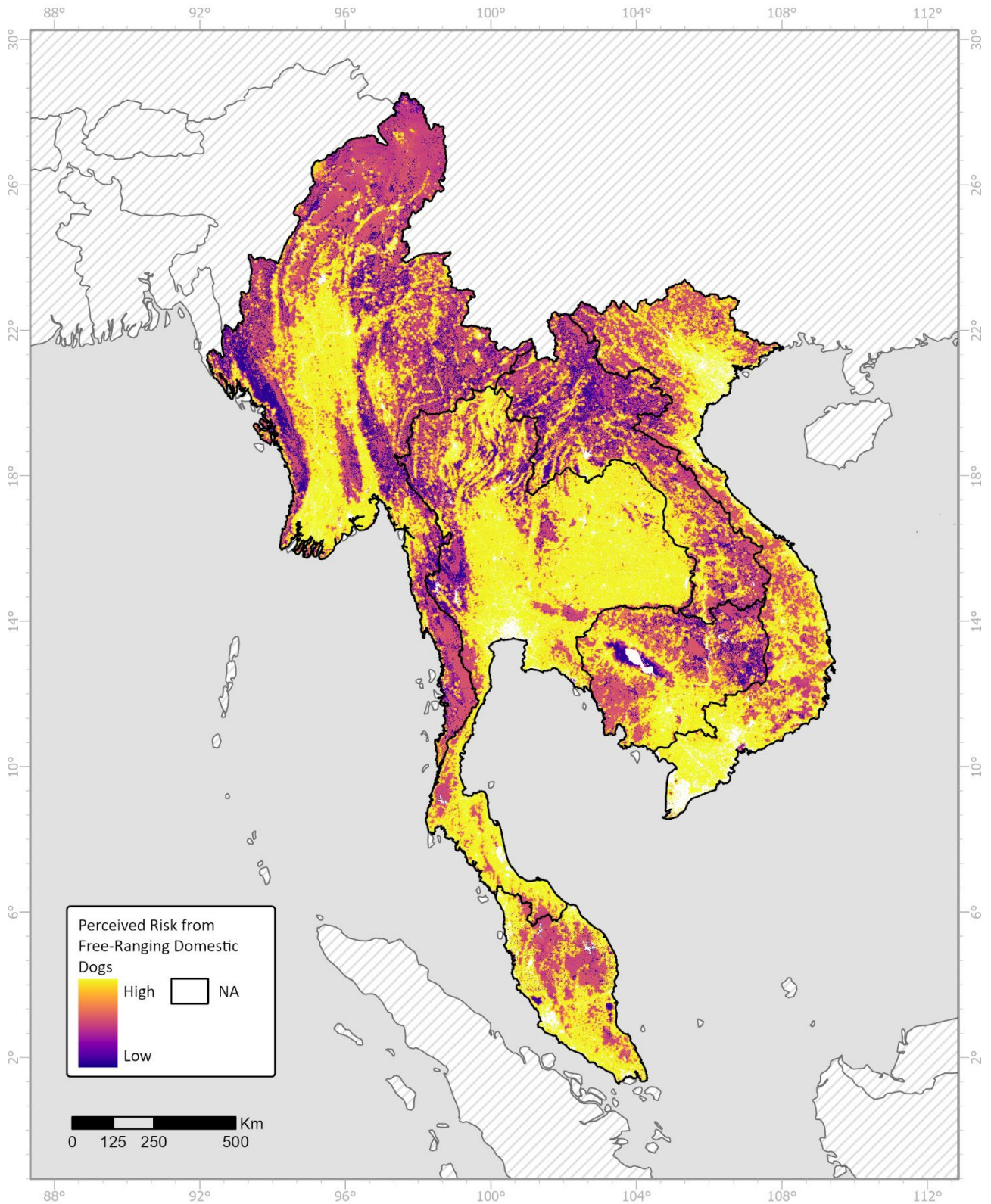


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1 **Figure 4**



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Marshall, H.E. et al 2022 The threat of free-ranging domestic dog to native wildlife: implication for conservation in Southeast Asia. *Raffles bulletin of zoology* 70:275-288
DOI: 10.26107/RBZ-2022-0012

Variable (node)	Source	States	2
Elevation	Shuttle Radar Topography Mission (SRTM) Digital Elevation Map. Earth Explorers	Low (<250m) Medium (<1000m) High (>1000m)	3 4
Land Use Type	Clark Labs – Clark University. 2018. Tropical Pond Aquaculture and Coastal Wetlands. ESA CCI Land Cover project (2019)	Agriculture, Grassland, Coastal Wetland, Forest, Urban, Other Natural, Other Human, Water	5 6
Human Density	Center for International Earth Science Information Network— CIESIN—Columbia University, 2016. Gridded Population of the World Version 4 (GPWv4): Population Density.	Low (<25/km ²) Medium (<100/km ²) High (<200/km ²) Very High(>200/km ²)	7 8
Forest Type	ESA CCI Land Cover project (2019)	Non-Forest (<15%) Open Forest (<40%) Closed forest (>40%)	9
Charismatic Species Presence	IUCN Redlist	Present: Yes/No	10
Protected Area	World Database on Protected Areas (2019)	Present: Yes/No	
Large Predator Presence	IUCN Redlist	Present: Yes/No	
Distance from Settlement	ESA CCI Land Cover project (2019) Myanmar Information Management Unit Visible Infrared Imaging Radiometer Suite Day-Night Band (VIIRS DNB) WorldPop (2020) Facebook Connectivity Lab and Center for International Earth Science Information Network - CIESIN - Columbia University. 2016.	<1km, <2km, <3km, <4km, <5km, >5km	
Distance from Farmland	ESA CCI Land Cover project (2019)	<1km, <2km, <3km, <4km, <5km, >5km	

1 **Table 2**

Node	Entropy Reduction Value	%
Carnivora Model		
Predation Risk	0.53	38.57
Disturbance Risk	0.53	38.23
Disease Risk	0.48	34.58
Habitat Overlap	0.31	22.29
Competition Risk	0.31	22.28
Ground Foraging	0.16	11.68
Activity Period	0.14	10.05
Prey Potential	0.11	8.25
Disturbed Habitat Use	0.08	6.03
Food Overlap	0.08	5.69
Primary Diet	0.04	3.06
Body Mass	0.01	0.81
Predator of Dog	0.01	0.65
Hybridisation Risk	0.00	0.19
Carnivora	0.00	0.19
Foraging Social Structure	0.00	0.12
Prey Size Small	0.00	0.02
Carrion Consumption	0.00	0.02
Non-Carnivora Model		
Predation Risk	0.72	51.59
Disturbance Risk	0.72	51.51
Disease Risk	0.58	41.33
Habitat Overlap	0.39	28.27
Ground Foraging	0.31	22.46
Prey Potential	0.21	15.04
Activity Period	0.13	9.24
Body Mass	0.02	1.52
Foraging Social Structure	0.02	1.32
Disturbed Habitat Use	0.00	0.18

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1 **Table 3**

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Node	Entropy Reduction Value	%
Disturbance Risk	0.58	56.44
Predation Risk	0.53	52.31
Nesting Risk	0.23	22.84
Residential Status	0.10	9.58
Risk of Contact	0.09	8.93
Activity	0.09	8.41
Nesting	0.07	7.15
Habitat Overlap	0.04	3.51
Foraging Substrate	0.03	3.12
Competition Risk	0.03	2.64
Number of Habitats	0.01	0.88
Open Country Habitat	0.00	0.06
Intertidal Zone Habitat	0.00	0.03
Inland Water Habitat	0.00	0.03
Forest Habitat	0.00	0.02
Carrion Consumption	0.00	0.01

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1 **Table 4**

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Country	NA (%)	Low (%)	Medium (%)	High (%)	4
Cambodia	3.7	10.7	39.6	46	5
Lao People's Democratic Republic	1.3	19.7	48.4	30.6	
Malaysia (Peninsular)	8.4	2.6	30.1	58.9	
Myanmar	2.4	13.5	46.6	37.5	
Thailand	6.3	4.4	19.4	69.9	
Viet Nam	10.5	1.8	30.2	57.5	
Overall Region	5	9	36	50	

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1 **Table 5**

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Node	Entropy Reduction Value	%
Landuse Type	0.84	45.40
Landuse Concern	0.81	43.95
Dog Presence	0.44	23.86
Dog Presence out Forest	0.41	22.03
Distance to Human Modified	0.31	16.88
Distance to Settlement	0.18	9.49
Landuse Group	0.09	4.77
Distance to Farmland	0.07	3.90
Dog Presence in Forest	0.02	0.96
Forest Type	0.02	0.85
Human Density	0.01	0.55
Large Predator Presence	0.00	0.01
Country Region	0.00	0.01
Elevation	0.00	0.01
Dog Prevention Level	0.00	0.00
Protected Area	0.00	0.00
Charismatic Species	0.00	0.00