

The proposal to translocate elephants to Gorongosa is made against a background of a current population of c.250 animals that run or hide from tourists, but which conflict with people living near the Pungwe River on the park boundary. Translocating more elephants is mainly in order to provide tourists with good, easy sightings of well-behaved elephants. The target is a population of 1,000 elephants, but the strategy does not consider how the population will be maintained at this number, nor what effect the elephants will have on the vegetation. The strategy considers elephants in the Gonarezhou - Kruger system to be the nearest, genetically - similar source population for Gorongosa. There may be a lesson to be learnt from the translocation of elephants from Gonarezhou NP, Zimbabwe, to the nearby Save Valley Conservancy during the 1990s. Approximately 600 elephants were moved <15 years ago, but already managers are concerned about the effects of elephants on the woodlands and plan to reduce the number of elephants in the Conservancy.

Wild Dog Translocation to Hwange National Park

During October 2006, 16 wild dogs were released after spending five months in a rehabilitation facility near Hwange NP, Zimbabwe. The dogs had been moved from South Africa earlier during the year. There are already wild dogs in Hwange and its surrounds and the release site was within the territory of one local pack. Within a few weeks of release, two freed dogs were killed by lions. This translocation appears to have been executed without reference to the IUCN Guidelines for Re-introductions. Regardless of what is currently limiting the number of wild dogs in the Hwange region, it is unlikely that this release will lead to any long-term increase in the number of dogs. Perhaps factors other than ecological ones, maybe publicity or fundraising, were the main drivers behind this supplementation?

Acknowledgements

Many people provided information, directly or via the websites and reports. Where it is not clear that the IUCN Guidelines for Re-introductions were, are and will be followed, I refrain from naming correspondents in order - as the saying goes - to protect the innocent. Ms Jessica Groenendijk (jessica@fzs.org) and Ms Heloise de Villiers provided valuable information about the translocations to Luangwa and Limpopo respectively.

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Behavioral modification in meta-population management of black rhino, Southern Africa

Black rhino are in the midst of a conservation crisis (Linklater, 2003) (*see photo 1*). Of the world's approximately 65,000 black rhino in 1970 habitat loss and hunting for horn reduced the species to approximately 2,450 individuals by the early 1990s (Amin *et al.*, 2006). To avert the crisis and facilitate a recovery, black rhino are being translocated across the African continent into safer reserves, re-introduced to new reserves for the expansion of the meta-population, and transferred between reserves for demographic and genetic management, particularly of small populations. Moreover, the removal or 'harvest' of rhino from reserves with large endemic populations not only supplies rhino for translocation but also serves to improve breeding and survival rates by keeping densities in those donor reserves below carrying capacity. In this way translocation, along with habitat and population protection, has facilitated an initial, although slow, recovery such that there are now around 3,610 black rhinoceros (Emslie, 2004).

Unfortunately, injury and death are common after the release of black rhino, particularly if there are already conspecifics resident at the release site, thus limiting the success of black rhino translocations and ultimately species recovery. The most common causes of injury and death are behaviorally mediated: stress-related debilitation, collisions with both artificial and natural



Photo 1: Black rhinoceros (*Diceros bicornis*) & field Ranger: Neto Pule @ Wayne Linklater

hazards like fences, and conspecific fighting. Our objective, therefore, was to improve understanding about the behavioral ecology of the species and trial ways of improving survivorship and breeding after translocation by modifying rhino post-release behavior in ways that might reduce injury and death. In particular, we considered that black rhinoceros behavior might be modified by manipulating the scent environment into which individuals are released or currently live (Linklater, 2004).

Approach

Using an adaptive-management (science-by-management) framework we have followed the fates of 88 black rhinos captured from donor reserves and translocated since 2002 to 15 reserves ranging in size from 670 to 45,000 ha including small private reserves and larger National Parks. Major donor populations included Hluhluwe-iMfolozi Park in South Africa and Etosha National Park in Namibia. While the black rhino were held temporarily in boma (reinforced enclosures) prior to release we conducted scent presentation tests to measure their olfactory capabilities. To monitor post-release behavior and outcomes the rhinos were fitted with horn-implant transmitters that emit a radio signal for up to 22 months after installation. To date data have been collected for released rhino on more than 4,000 occasions. Data collected include a combination of direct behavioral observations, remotely tracking the track and sign of known individuals, and location data obtained via direct observation or triangulation. Several scent broadcasting experiments have been conducted; some about the reserves or release sites before re-introductions and others within donor populations from which some of the rhino were captured for translocation. We broadcast rhino scent in the form of urine and dung about the release site or reserve prior to a release, or about 1 km² areas within the Hluhluwe-iMfolozi donor population and measured for changes in black rhinoceros movement and activity.

Discussion

Black rhinos are a relatively asocial species and therefore probably depend on the scent from dung and urine to communicate with conspecifics. In the scent presentation experiments black rhinoceros responded differently to dung and urine from conspecifics that differed in their sex, reproductive status, individual identity, and dominance. We also showed that dung serves as an olfactory signal for at least 30 days after it is deposited. Thus, black rhinos do indeed possess a sophisticated olfactory communication system. Rhino released into reserves where conspecific dung had been spread moved further from the release site initially and traveled more about the reserve than rhinoceros released into reserves where conspecific dung had not been spread. The effect was greatest for rhino whose own dung was spread compared to those that encountered the dung of other rhino. We interpreted these results as indicating that the presence of dung facilitated initial exploration or 'confidence' (see also Linklater *et al.*, 2006). There was also a tendency for rhinos to settle next to areas spread with the dung of other rhino than in areas spread with their own dung or no-dung controls. Although solitary and aggressive, black rhino still prefer to settle in areas apparently occupied by other rhino, perhaps because dispersing rhino use the presence

of conspecifics as a cue to find suitable habitat when they are unfamiliar with the area. We speculate that the effect might also reduce the probability of conflict and accident. Thus, preliminary results support our hypothesis that scent functions as a conspecific attractant and might be used to facilitate home range establishment and formation of social and breeding relationships (Linklater *et al.*, 2006).

Scent broadcasting in the Hluhluwe-iMfolozi donor population demonstrated that black rhino reduced their feeding activity in areas spread with the scents of other, previously unfamiliar, rhino. While browsing intensity in control sites where sand had been spread increased, browsing rates in areas broadcast with scent decreased. The effect last for up to 9-months after the dung is spread and also appears to be greatest and more persistent when female, compared with male, scent is broadcast. It may be that black rhino avoid areas with unfamiliar scent. This avoidance response means that scent might be used to reduce black rhino activity in some areas or spread in other areas to encourage rhino to leave the area to feed. In this way scent broadcasting might be used to limit or encourage emigration or dispersal.

Managing post-release behavior for improved survival involves more than just olfactory management. Our findings indicate that several aspects of the release strategy also influence translocation success. For example, we describe the advantages of releasing rhino from individual sites that are spaced across the landscape (i.e., free-release) in tandem with a scent-broadcasting regime (Linklater *et al.*, 2006) rather than the technique of releasing all rhino from the same site from boma most used in the past. So long as the reserve is large enough to accommodate multiple well-spaced release sites, free-releasing appears to reduce encounter rates and conflict during the immediate post-release period when the rhino are in an unfamiliar habitat and social context, and removes the costs in time, money and disruption of on-site boma construction and the need for an additional acclimation challenge to rhino. Reserve size and the density of rhinos also affect post-release success. Our measures of movement and association with conspecifics after releases indicated that black rhino endeavor to avoid each other, in a way that probably minimizes confrontation and conflict. However, the results show there to be a threshold somewhere between reserve sizes of 11,500 and 18,000 ha and population densities greater than 0.05 rhino per km² (or less than 20 km² per rhino) when association and movement rates after release become elevated. In reserves smaller than 11,500 ha released rhino regularly encountered the fenced boundary and other rhino. Three rhino sustained injuries requiring intervention and four died. All of the injuries and two of the deaths were fight-related. All but one of the interventions and deaths occurred on reserves 11,500 ha or smaller. These results indicate that reserves smaller than 18,000 ha pose an increasing risk to rhino survivorship as reserve size declines due to increasing rates of encounter by the rhino with the key hazards associated with post-release mortality: fences and other rhino. The tendency for rhino released at lower densities and in larger reserves to almost entirely avoid associating with other rhino suggests that the high rates of association in smaller reserves are forced upon the rhino by smaller reserve size and higher population density.

Our work demonstrates the usefulness of understanding black rhinoceros behavioral ecology to help refine criteria for selecting between release strategies and the reserves to receive rhino. A better understanding of black rhino behavior is likely to also provide new ways of improving population management. The ecology of communication by scent, in particular, is a promising avenue of investigation for the development of innovative wildlife management tools.

Acknowledgements

We gratefully acknowledge the financial support of the U.S. Fish & Wildlife Service Rhinoceros and Tiger Conservation Fund (grant agreement numbers 98210-2-G363, 98210-4-G920, 98210-6-G102), International Rhino Foundation, and Zoological Society of San Diego. Too many individuals and organizations have contributed to this program for individual acknowledgement, but we would like to especially thank Ezemvelo KwaZulu-Natal Wildlife - Nature Conservation Service, Hluhluwe-iMfolozi Park, Namibia's Ministry of Environment and Tourism, Centre for African Conservation Ecology at Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University, Rhino Management Group of southern Africa, and WWF's Black Rhinoceros Range Expansion Project.

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Twelve years of mammal re-introductions and introductions by the Australian Wildlife Conservancy

The Australian Wildlife Conservancy (AWC) is an independent, non-profit organization dedicated to the conservation of Australia's threatened wildlife. AWC's strategy for conserving all Australian animal species and the habitats in which they live includes: establishing wildlife sanctuaries, implementing practical, on-ground conservation programs, conducting scientific research, and public education. This national organization manages 15 wildlife sanctuaries across Australia,

covering a total area of over 1.1 million hectares. AWC has successfully conducted numerous threatened mammal translocations. Combined with existing fauna, AWC sanctuaries now protect more than 55% of all Australian mammal species.

Methodology and Results

Between 1994 and 2006 AWC translocated 16 species of mammals to four wildlife sanctuaries in Western Australia and New South Wales, ten of which are listed as 'Vulnerable' or 'Endangered' in the IUCN's Red List of Threatened Species (IUCN, 2006). The four wildlife sanctuaries each have different strategies to combat threatening processes, particularly predation by introduced foxes and feral cats. These strategies have enabled the creation of faunal communities that were previously extinct regionally or from mainland Australia.

Karakamia Wildlife Sanctuary - covers 280 ha of Jarrah forest ecosystems and is located about 50 km north east of Perth in the Darling Scarp of Western Australia. The sanctuary is strategically positioned adjacent to local Shire Reserves that are managed as part of the Darling Range Regional Park, connecting a mosaic of State Forest and National Parks and providing ecological 'corridors' through which wildlife can disperse. Foxes (*Vulpes vulpes*), feral cats (*Felis catus*) and rabbits (*Oryctolagus cuniculus*) are excluded from the sanctuary, which is surrounded by a six-foot high electrified predator-proof fence.

Four quokkas (*Setonix brachyurus*; vulnerable), six numbats (*Myrmecobius fasciatus*; vulnerable), 42 western ringtail possums (*Pseudocheirus occidentalis*; vulnerable), two western brush wallabies (*Macropus irma*), eight common brushtail possums (*Trichosurus vulpecula*), 13 tamar wallabies (*Macropus eugenii*), 38 quenda (southern brown bandicoots *Isodon obesulus fusciventer*), and 40 woylies (brush-tailed bettongs *Bettongia penicillata*) were re-introduced to Karakamia Wildlife Sanctuary between 1994 and 2004. Source animals were from Dryandra Woodland (woylie, numbat), the Perth metropolitan region (quenda), Tutanning Nature Reserve (tamar wallaby), Busseton (ringtail possum) and Collie (quokka) in Western Australia, with some sick or injured animals via wildlife carers. Populations are monitored by regular trapping and spotlighting.

All species have persisted, and by the end of 2006 over 540 woylies, 68 brushtail possums and 50 quenda had been transferred from Karakamia to stock other AWC sanctuaries and Western Australian Department of Environment and Conservation (DEC, formerly Department of Conservation and Land Management) reintroduction sites (predominantly National Parks and Nature Reserves) in Western Australia.

Paruna Wildlife Sanctuary - is located in the Avon Valley on the northern outskirts of the Perth metropolitan region to the north of Karakamia, and was established by AWC in 1998. Paruna was the result of the purchase of a number of agricultural properties along a 14 km stretch of the Avon River, creating a 2,000 ha wildlife corridor between two regionally significant National Parks: Walyunga National Park to the southwest and the Avon Valley National Park to the northeast. Broadscale control of introduced predators is conducted by AWC and DEC within the