

Wildlife health perceptions and monitoring practices in globally distributed protected areas

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ABSTRACT

Diseases are a threat to biodiversity conservation and global health, however, wildlife health (WH) surveillance systems remain uncommon. This deficit is especially relevant in protected areas (PAs) facing anthropogenic pressures. Integration of field conservation actors patrolling PAs can drastically strengthen WH surveillance. Nevertheless, baseline information regarding current WH monitoring mandates and practices at these sites is missing. To address this gap, we surveyed globally distributed protected area data managers (PADMs) through an web-based questionnaire.

Eighty-six valid PADM responses (from a total of 129 answered surveys) were considered for descriptive analysis. These PADM considered WH as relevant to the conservation goals of PAs and >90% of them confirmed that non-healthy and dead wildlife are encountered; however, >50% and >20% of PADM claimed that these animals were not recorded, respectively. When these animals were documented, the recording methods and attributes collected differed. Domestic animal presence was reported by 70% PADM. Among them, 81% considered these animals a conservation concern but only 67.3% reported their documentation. Only 25.7% of PADM reporting domestic animal presence answered that their health status was recorded. Health data were often stored in a database, but paper forms and spreadsheets were also used.

Responses suggest that valuable syndromic WH surveillance data from PAs are being lost due to non-collection or inadequate management and their value could be limited by unstandardized documentation. Rangers could become a globally distributed “One Health workforce” but these flaws must be addressed first.

INTRODUCTION

Despite the growing recognition that the health of animals, people, and their shared environment are inseparably linked, effective surveillance systems collecting, analyzing, and responding to wildlife health (WH) data remain uncommon or deficient (Machalaba et al. 2021; One Health High-Level Expert Panel et al. 2022; World Organization for Animal Health [WOAH] 2023; Delgado et al. 2023). Human encroachment and land-use change (Laurance et al. 2012; Vicente et al. 2021; Meng et al. 2023) are associated with extraction, pollution, the creation of human-wildlife-livestock interfaces, and ecosystem degradation (Plowright et al. 2021; Vicente et al. 2021; Reaser et al. 2023). These processes expose wildlife and people to physical (e.g., snaring), chemical (e.g., poisoning events), and biological hazards (e.g., pathogens) with the capacity to impact biodiversity conservation and global health (De Vos et al. 2016; Vila et al. 2019; Wolf et al. 2019; Hacon et al. 2020; Machalaba et al. 2020; Becker et al. 2023; Groenenberg et al. 2023; Porco et al. 2023).

Wildlife health monitoring deficit is especially relevant in protected areas (PAs), Nature’s last strongholds and key interfaces for disease prevention and emergence (Mittermeier et al. 2011; Machalaba et al. 2021; IUCN & EcoHealth Alliance 2022; WOAH 2023; Hayman et al. 2023; Hopkins et al. 2024). The integration of actors present at PAs offers a sound and cost-effective strategy to establish baseline WH monitoring. Rangers can detect injured, sick, and dead animals in PAs and the few documented initiatives that explicitly report ranger participation in WH monitoring have demonstrated their potential to provide data to assess health risks and trends or trigger responses to disease outbreaks of global and conservation concern (Kuisma et al. 2019; Vila et al. 2019; Wolf et al. 2019; Montecino-Latorre et al. 2020; Orozco et al. 2020; Porco et al. 2023).

Technology can enhance ranger integration into WH surveillance systems. The “Spatial Monitoring and Reporting Tool” (SMART) is a technology platform designed to administer PAs (Cronin et al. 2021). Its field-ready technology, SMART Mobile, is in the hands of thousands of rangers supporting the digital documentation of user-determined “incidents” of conservation interest (e.g., fire, illegal hunting). The engagement of a large community of SMART-using rangers to document “health incidents” in PAs represents a promising opportunity to create a technology-supported worldwide network of WH sentinels (Worsley-Tonks et al. 2022).

However, there is a lack of baseline information regarding the perceived relevance of wildlife, human, and livestock health for biodiversity conservation in PAs. Mandates of rangers to document findings of health interest, current WH monitoring practices in PAs worldwide, and technical status of SMART to support WH data collection and management at these sites are

also unknown. To address these gaps, we conducted a survey targeting protected area data managers (PADMs) to assess: i) their perceptions regarding WH and pathogen transmission between wildlife, humans, and livestock, ii) the detection of dead, sick, or injured wildlife, and domestic animals in PAs and their documentation, iii) health data management, and iv) the status of SMART deployment in PAs.

METHODS

We developed a web-based questionnaire aimed at PADM defined as a person directly responsible for managing SMART data in one or more PAs or a general manager or administrator of one or more PAs that uses SMART data. Respondents were asked if their job roles and responsibilities matched this definition.

The survey had five sections. Section 1 assessed the perception of PADM on the importance of WH in achieving conservation goals, the role of human and livestock pathogens in affecting WH, and the role of wildlife pathogens in affecting public and livestock health. Section 2 requested PADM to rank the overall frequency of encounters with dead, sick, or injured wildlife in PAs and their documentation when found during patrols. Section 3, asked about the presence of domestic animals in the PA(s), the documentation of their health status, and the perceived threats of domestic animals to conservation goals. Likert scales were used to answer questions in Sections 1-3. Section 4 addressed health data storage practices and Section 5 assessed the current state of SMART deployment in PAs.

An introductory web page explained that the survey was voluntary, anonymous, aimed at PADM, and that clicking the “Start the survey” button constituted consent. A tutorial was provided for the language-translation tool of this survey built on Google Forms (<https://sites.google.com/wcs.org/smarttorecordwildlifehealth/home>). The survey was distributed globally to the SMART Community Forum users (<https://forum.smartconservationtools.org/>) by the SMART Partnership (<https://smartconservationtools.org>) via email in October 2022 and remained open for three months. A reminder was sent to the SMART Community three weeks before the closing date. The survey did not request any personal information or demographic characteristics and, consequently, it was exempt from full ethics review (ref #22-53 Wildlife Conservation Society Institutional Review Board).

Responses by PADM could represent single or multiple PAs. For our analysis, we focused on what we considered to be “local” responses which represented one or two PAs, and assumed they provided insights into specific local realities. “Non-local” responses represented more than two PAs, which were assumed to help understand perceptions at the decision-making level and were analyzed separately (see Supporting Information). Respondents who did not identify as a PADM (as defined above) were considered outside our target population and excluded.

We also discarded responses that only included marine PAs based on the World Database on Protected Areas (<https://www.protectedplanet.net/en/thematic-areas/wdpa?tab=WDPA>) as marine PA management, species, and patrol logistics are markedly different.

The descriptive analysis of survey responses was conducted in R v4.3.1. The questionnaire, survey data, and descriptive analysis can be found at https://github.com/dmontecino/SMART_survey.

RESULTS

We received 128 responses. Forty-two were removed because either the PA name(s) were not provided, only marine PAs were listed, or the respondents did not match the target audience (8, 7, and 27, respectively). The final dataset contained 86 respondents from 23 countries. Seventy-three were local responses from 19 countries and 13 were non-local responses from 10 countries (the descriptive analysis of non-local responses is provided in the Supporting Information). The specific countries are not provided to protect the identity of the respondents.

Perceptions regarding wildlife health importance in conservation and potential consequences of pathogen transmission among wildlife, domestic animals, and people

Sixty-seven local respondents (91.78%) either strongly agreed or agreed with the affirmation “Wildlife health, including infectious and non-infectious diseases, is important to achieve the conservation goals of the protected areas where I work”. Most respondents (80.82% strongly agreed or agreed with the affirmation “human or livestock pathogens can affect wildlife populations inhabiting the protected area(s) I work in”. In comparison, 63.01% strongly agreed or agreed that “pathogens carried by wildlife inhabiting the protected area(s) where I work in can affect human health” with 19.18% remaining neutral. Regarding the affirmation “pathogens carried by wildlife inhabiting the protected area(s) where I work in can affect livestock health”, most respondents strongly agreed or agreed (47.95%) although the proportion of neutral respondents was more prominent (28.77%). Detailed response distributions are shown in Fig 1. Non-local responses followed similar trends (Supporting Information, section 1.1).

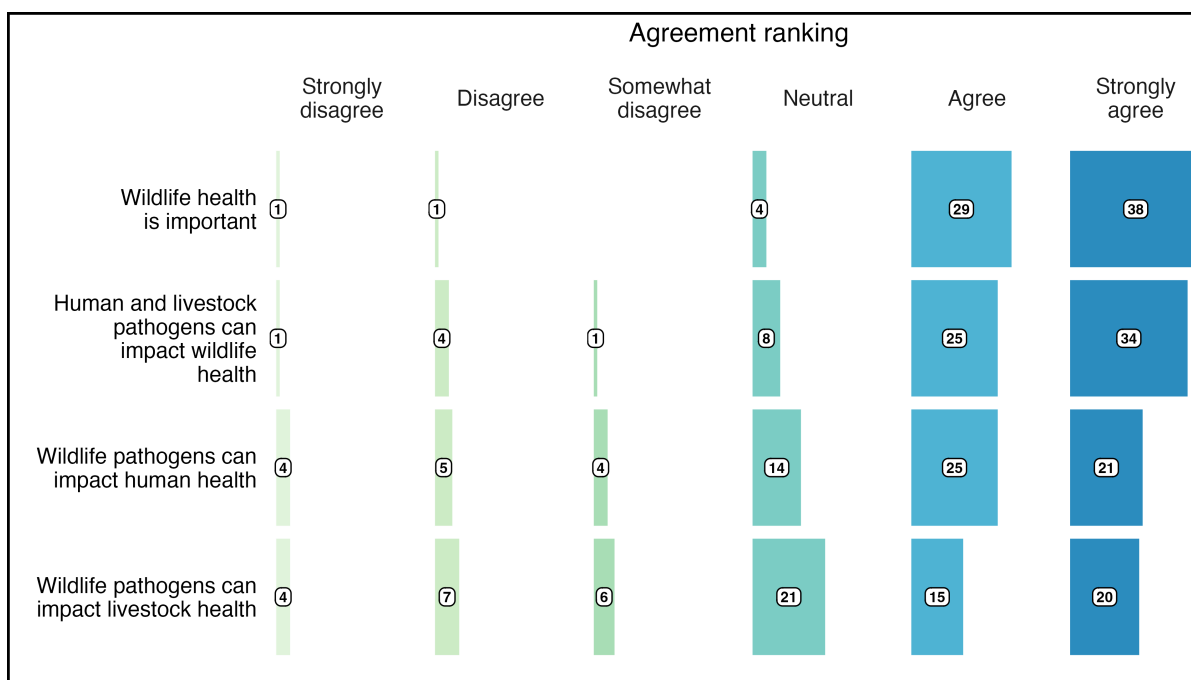


Figure 1: Distribution of the level of agreement among protected area data managers with statements ‘Wildlife health is important to achieve the conservation goals of the protected area(s) where I work’ (row 1), ‘human or livestock pathogens can affect wildlife populations inhabiting the protected area(s) where I work in’ (row 2), ‘pathogens carried by wildlife inhabiting the protected area(s) where I work in can affect human health’ (row 3), and ‘pathogens carried by wildlife inhabiting the protected area(s) where I work in can affect livestock health’ (row 4).

Overall frequency of encounters with dead, sick, or injured wildlife in protected areas and their documentation when found during patrols

Seventy-one (97.26%) ranked encountering dead animals in the PA at least “Very rarely” whilst 76.06% of these respondents answered that these animals are documented if found during patrols. Sixty-eight local respondents (93.15%) ranked encountering sick or injured animals in the PA at least “Very rarely”, whilst 35.29% and 48.53% of these respondents answered that sick and injured animals are documented if found during patrols (Fig 2).

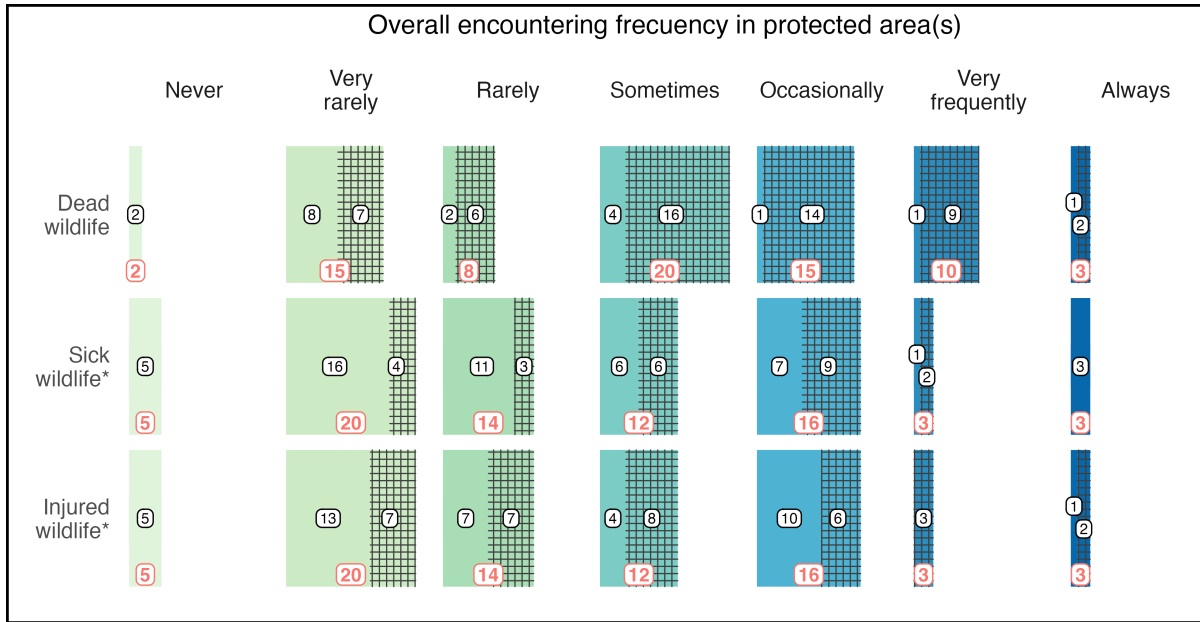


Figure 2: Distribution of protected area data manager responses regarding the encounter of dead and sick or injured wildlife in the protected area(s) where they work and their recording or not when encountered. Blue contour polygons and numbers indicate the total number of responses reporting recording of dead, sick, and injured wildlife found during patrols within each encountering frequency category. Red contour polygons and numbers indicate the total number of responses reporting the non-recording of dead, sick, and injured wildlife found during patrols within each encountering frequency category.

All 17 local PADM's who ranked encountering dead wildlife at least "Very rarely" but answered that these animals were not documented, either agreed or strongly agreed with the importance of WH to achieve conservation goals. Similarly, 90.91% and 94.29% of respondents who ranked encountering sick or injured wildlife at least "Very rarely" but answered that these animals were not documented either agreed or strongly agreed with this statement.

Most non-local respondents ranked the overall encounter with non-healthy wildlife between "Very rarely" and "Occasionally". A larger proportion of non-local PADM's reported the documentation of these animals when found during patrols compared to local responses (92.3%, 61.5%, and 84.6%, for dead, sick, and injured wildlife respectively, Supporting Information, section 1.2).

For the 58 local PADM's reporting the documentation of either dead, sick, or injured wildlife, the recording method reported varied. Most often, each individual animal was documented according to health status (healthy, sick, injured, dead). The second most common method involved a complete inventory of healthy, sick, injured, or dead animals for each species. The

distribution of the recording methods across healthy, sick, injured, or dead wildlife is shown in Fig 3. For non-local responses, the predominant method was “each animal is an individual observation” across health categories (Supporting Information, section 1.2).

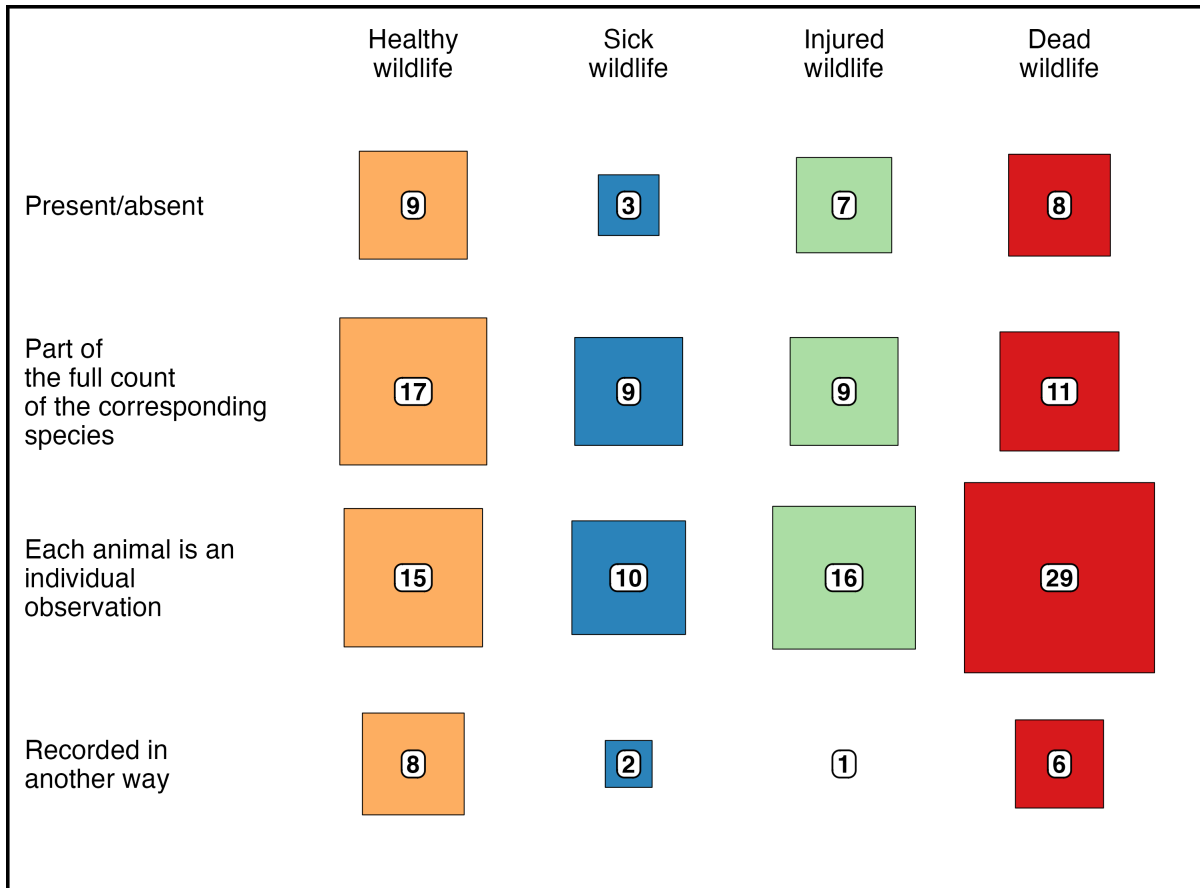


Figure 3: Distribution of protected area data manager responses regarding the encounter of dead and sick or injured wildlife in the protected area(s) where they work. Red numbers indicate the total number of responses per encountering frequency. The dashed area of the polygons represent the responses indicating that dead, sick, and injured wildlife found during ranger patrols are recorded (rows 1 – 3, respectively). Black numbers indicate the total number of responses reporting recording and non-recording of dead, sick, and injured wildlife found during patrols within each frequency category.

The data types and attributes used by local respondents to document sick, injured, or dead wildlife are shown in Fig 4. None of them were collected consistently. Across health categories, photographs and species were the main data types and attributes collected. In non-local responses the trend was relatively similar, however, items were reported to be recorded more

consistently (e.g., age, anomalies, and condition in the three health categories; Supporting Information, section 1.2).

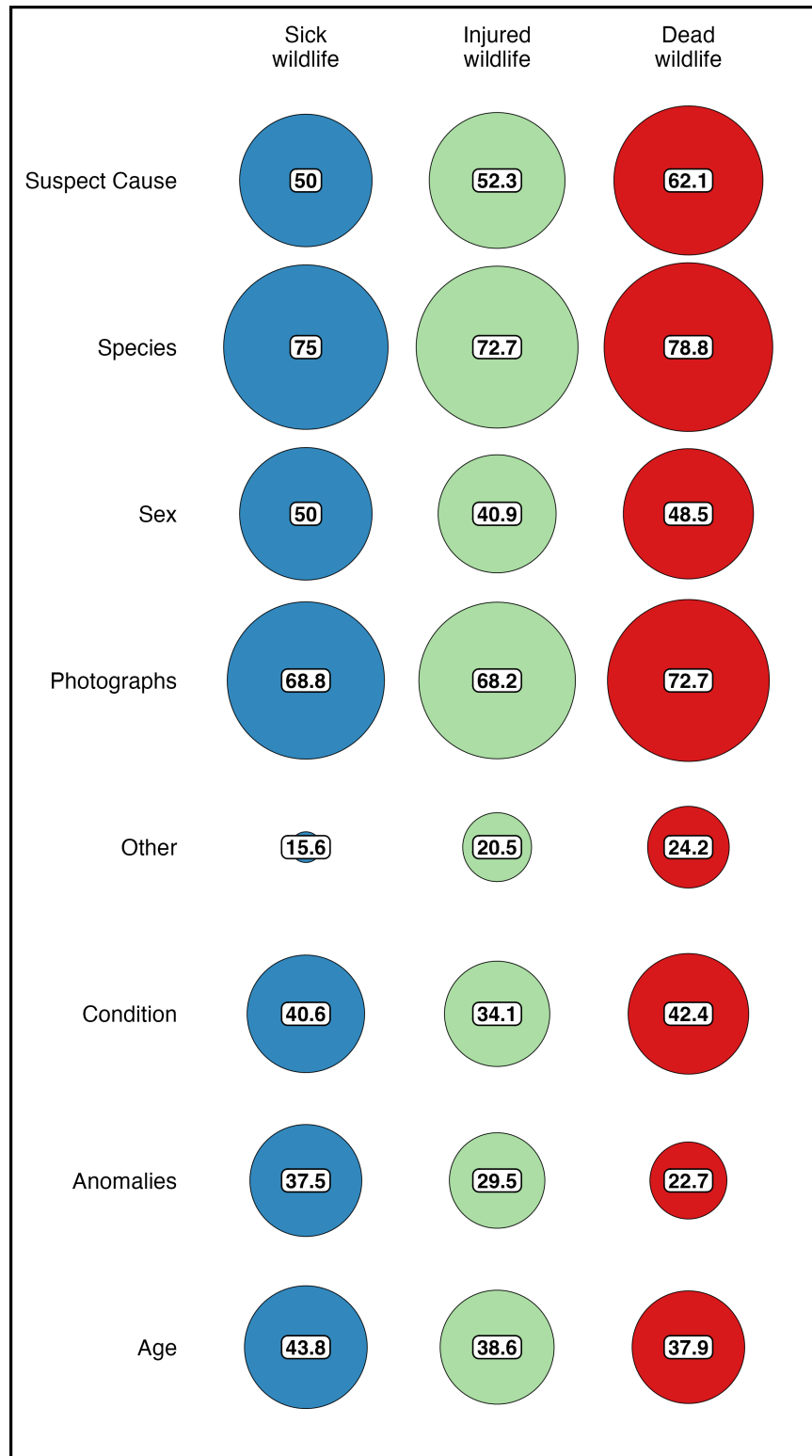


Figure 4: The percentage of protected area data manager responses indicating the documentation of sick, injured, and dead wildlife found during patrols that record specific data items for each wildlife health status⁹ The size of the circles is proportional to the percentages observed.

Presence of domestic animals in protected area(s), the documentation of their health status, and the perceived threats of domestic animals to conservation goals according to local surveys

Fifty-two PADM's responded that domestic animals were found in the corresponding PAs (71.23%). Among them, 67.31% reported that domestic animals were documented if observed during patrols, of which only 25.71% reported recording their health status (Fig 5). Forty-two (80.77%) local respondents reporting domestic animals in the PAs either agreed or strongly agreed that domestic animals are a conservation concern (Fig 5). Twenty-seven of them (64.29%) answered that these animals were documented. Most respondents claiming that domestic animals are not found in the corresponding PAs also either agreed or strongly agreed that they are a conservation concern.

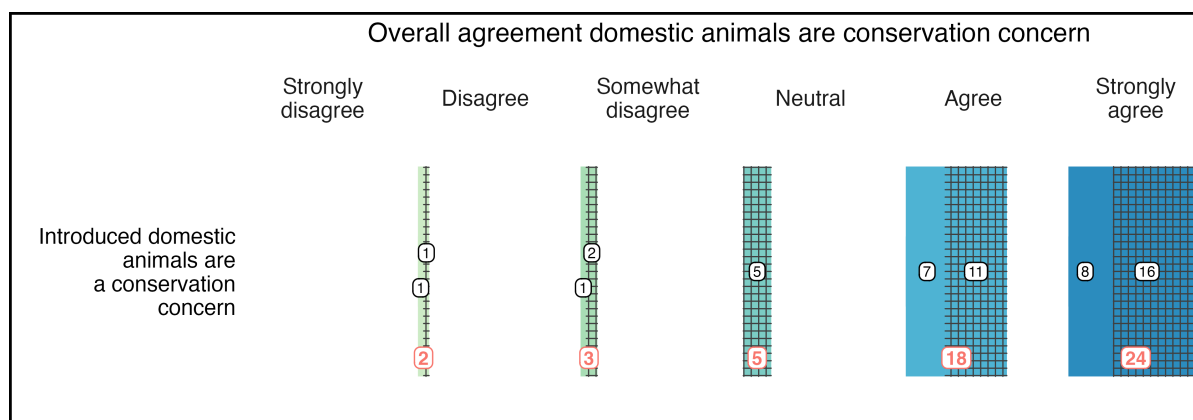


Figure 5: Distribution of the level of agreement among protected area data managers with the statement ‘Introduced domestic animals (e.g., dogs, cats, cattle, pigs, cats) are a concern for the conservation goals of the protected areas where I work’ for the groups that reported the absence and presence of domestic animals in the protected area(s) and their recording in the latter. Black numbers indicate the total number of responses per agreement category for the group reporting the absence of domestic animals in protected areas. Blue numbers indicate the total number of responses per agreement category for the subgroup reporting the presence and recording of domestic animals. Lighter polygons in this subgroup represent the number of responses that reported the presence and recording of domestic animal health status but not their documentation. Red numbers indicate the total number of responses per agreement category for the subgroup reporting the presence of domestic animals but not their recording

Eight non-local PADM's (61.5%) responded that domestic animals were found in the PAs. Among them, seven (87.5%) reported that domestic animals were documented if observed

during patrols, of which only two (28.6%) reported recording their health status (Supporting Information, section 1.3).

Health data storage practices in protected areas

For the subset of local protected area data managers reporting the documentation of either sick, injured, or dead wildlife (24, 33, and 54 responses, respectively), their data was often stored in a SMART database (Fig 6).

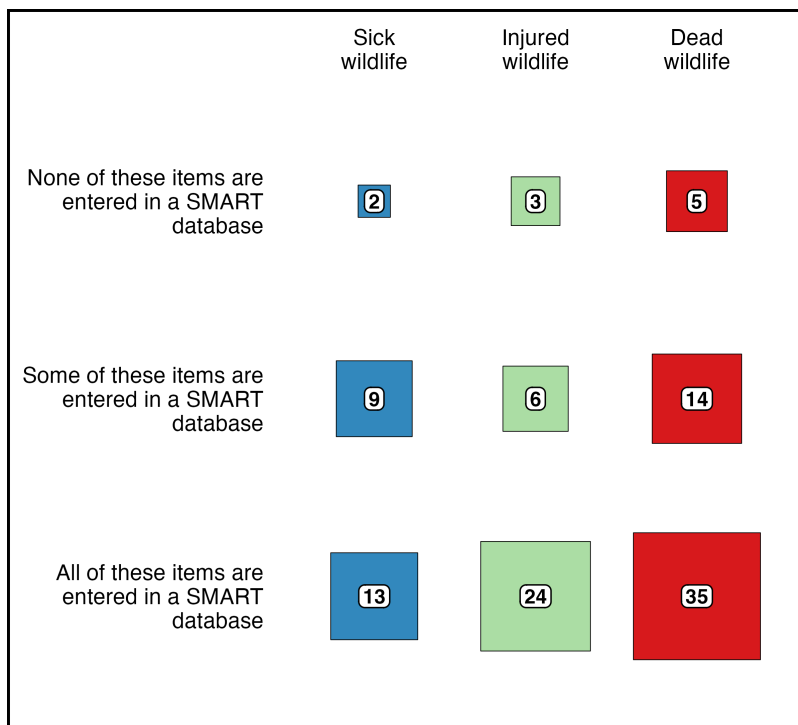


Figure 6: Distribution of protected area data managers reporting the documentation of either sick, injured, or dead wildlife found during ranger patrols across data storage practices with respect to the use of SMART.

Paper forms, reports, and spreadsheets were employed when either sick, injured, or dead wildlife were documented but their data was not stored in a SMART database ($n=8$). This situation was most common when SMART partially implemented ($n=5$) but also SMART was fully rolled-out ($n=3$). Most non-local PADMs responded that health data were stored in a SMART database (Supporting Information, section 1.4).

Thirty-one of the 35 local respondents (88.57%) recording domestic animals during patrols indicated that this information was stored in a SMART database. All PADMs reporting the

recording of health status in domestic animals responded that this information was stored in a SMART database.

Current state of SMART deployment in protected areas

Forty-two local PADMIs reported that SMART was fully rolled out, 23 partially rolled-out, and 8 under pilot. The most common version was SMART 6, reported by 41 PADMIs. SMART 7 was already available for 19 PADMIs at the time of the survey. Older SMART versions were less used. Non-local responses were similar (Supporting Information; section 1.5).

DISCUSSION

We developed a web-based questionnaire aimed at globally distributed PADMIs to learn about their perceptions regarding WH; the monitoring of dead, sick, and injured wildlife and domestic animals at these sites; health data storage practices; and local status of the SMART information technology system. Responses suggest that valuable syndromic WH and, consequently, One Health surveillance data are being lost due to non-collection or inadequate management. The usefulness of wildlife health data actually collected could be limited by unstandardized documentation.

PADMIs largely considered WH as relevant to the conservation goals of PAs and most of them confirmed that dead, sick, or injured wildlife were encountered at least “Very rarely”. However, the documentation of these animals was not necessarily conducted and it was less common in responses from local data managers. This contradiction could be explained by recent global pathogen-driven crises such as SARS-CoV-2 and H5N1 Highly Pathogenic Avian Influenza virus (Nicola et al. 2020; Leguia et al, 2023) that might have sensitized our audience by the time the survey was distributed but before health-associated monitoring objectives could be planned and rolled out. These findings could also suggest a lack of knowledge or resources to act on their understanding of the importance of WH for conservation goals. Although only 13 non-local responses were included in the final dataset, the observed larger proportion of non-local responses reporting the documentation of non-healthy and dead wildlife could suggest differences between the expectations of managers in an administrative role and field realities at PAs. Agencies and other PA funders can take a more active local role to identify and correct weaknesses in WH data collection.

We noted a general agreement among PADMIs regarding the conservation threat that domestic animals (e.g., dogs, cats, cattle) present. Although we did not explicitly ask why domestic animals are a conservation concern, most PADMIs also agreed with the statement “human and wildlife pathogens can impact wildlife health” either when these animals were found in the PAs or not (Supporting Information; section 2). This finding might imply that pathogens are part of the reason why domestic animals are considered a conservation concern. Pathogen transmission from domestic animals to wildlife can seriously harm biodiversity conservation efforts including

in PAs (e.g., del Valle Ferreyra et al. [2022]) and they add to the direct and indirect pressures on wildlife from domestic animals, such as predation, competition, disturbance, and land-use change in- and out-side of PAs (du Toit 2011; Gompper 2013). While most PADM reported the presence of domestic animals in PAs, their documentation was not consistent and only a minority responded that their health status was recorded. The contradiction between perceived conservation risk of domestic animals and documentation of their presence and health status could be explained by similar drivers mentioned above.

Adequate management of data and harmonization are foundational pillars for WH monitoring (WOAH 2010, 2015, 2018; Sleeman et al. 2012; Ryser-Degiorgis 2013; Stephen 2018; Lawson et al. 2021; Machalaba et al. 2021; Giacinti et al. 2022; Stephen & Berezowski 2022; Hayman et al. 2023; Heiderich et al. 2023). However, the use of paper forms and Excel sheets to store data from sick, injured, or dead wildlife despite the fact that SMART was fully or partially implemented. When non-healthy and dead wildlife were indeed recorded, a variety of methodologies were used and different information was collected. The lack of harmonization across PAs within and beyond country boundaries can limit the value of collected health data as regional, national, or across border health assessments could be unfeasible. Similarly, the longitudinal assessment of wildlife health trends in a single PA is not possible when data is recorded differently over time. These findings are aligned with historical pitfalls in WH surveillance's data governance (e.g., Avery-Gomm et al. 2016; Lawson et al. 2021; Heiderich et al. 2023; WOA 2023).

RECOMMENDATIONS

Leveraging existing PA human resources that can detect morbidity and mortality in animals is a cost-effective strategy to establish a minimal baseline of WH monitoring. Currently, there are approximately 280,000 rangers worldwide and it is estimated that 1.5 million will be needed by 2030 to adequately protect 30% of the planet (Appleton et al. 2022). The present and projected number of rangers and their local contributions to a healthier planet (Kuisma et al. 2019; Vila et al. 2019; Wolf et al. 2019; Montecino-Latorre et al. 2020; Orozco et al. 2020; Singh et al. 2021; Porco et al. 2023; Stolton et al. 2023) reveal their unique potential as a worldwide distributed “One Health workforce”. This workforce could drastically improve the general global absence of WH and One Health surveillance (Machalaba et al. 2021; Worsley-Tonks et al. 2022; Delgado et al. 2023; Hopkins et al. 2024).

Our recommendations to include WH activities within the remit of PAs has relevance to recent initiatives. The global integration of this workforce into WH monitoring could be supported by the World Commission of Protected Areas (WCPA) of the International Union for Conservation of Nature, which supports best practice management of PAs, SMART, or EarthRanger. Indeed, the WCPA has established a two-year Task Force to integrate One Health in PAs and vice versa which includes WH surveillance activities in PAs (Hopkins et al., 2024). This Task Force makes explicit the contemporaneous relevance to develop WH surveillance policy at protected areas to support the conservation of biodiversity and global

health. Also, an Integrated Wildlife Monitoring (IWM) initiative combining wildlife health and population monitoring was piloted in Spain (Barroso et al. 2023; Barroso et al. 2024). The goal of this initiative was to “detect emergent pathogens and changes in pathogen dynamics, to critically assess wildlife disease hazards and the impact of interventions, and to better understand complex multi-host and multi-pathogen networks” (Barroso et al. 2023). Rangers could be included in similar activities conducted at PAs.

However, there are key issues that must be addressed before. First, a definition of a health event optimized for rangers must be established. The minimal set of variables to be recorded from each health event and their documentation method must be harmonized across jurisdictions. Specific variables and options can then be tailored to individual PA realities. Second, rangers need to be trained to recognize and document health events encountered during their patrols. Third, a database to guarantee the governance of ranger-documented health events must be available. Contemporaneous SMART technology is ready to support the management of harmonized syndromic health data, provided that adequate resources for planning, training, and expert support are available. PADMs working with fully implemented SMART should have the capacity to properly manage and query health data and coordinate their distribution with other relevant parties, such as environmental agencies and organizations, veterinary services, and public health managers.

Efforts to address the issues mentioned above and build this workforce have already started. WildHealthNet, a Wildlife Conservation Society (WCS) initiative, focuses on creating national surveillance networks and codifying their Standard Operating Procedures (Denstedt et al. 2021; Porco et al. 2023; Pruvot et al. 2023). Currently, WCS is supporting the integration of rangers into WH monitoring using the same standards in Lao, Peru, Cambodia, Guatemala, and Madagascar. Additional efforts are underway through the Wildlife Health Intelligence Network (<https://snappartnership.net/teams/whin/>) whose objectives include building a larger community of practice that supports the scaling of local WH surveillance globally, and the establishment of WH data collection and management standards. We strongly recommend taking steps towards the global adoption of ranger-based WH monitoring in PAs, utilizing a unified methodology and standards to improve the health of all.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS AND DATA

Thanks to all responders to our survey and the SMART Partnership (<https://smartconservationtools.org>) for distributing the survey across the community of SMART users, especially to Mónica Barcellos. Special thanks to Jonathan Palmer, Executive Director of the Wildlife Conservation Society’s Conservation Technology Department.

The questionnaire, survey data, and descriptive analysis can be found at <https://github.com/dmontecino/SMART>.

The authors have no conflicts of interest to declare.

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