December 12, 2023

Via Email

Washington Fish and Wildlife Commission 600 Capitol Way N. Olympia, WA 98501 <u>Commission@dfw.wa.gov</u>

Dear Commissioners:

As experts in carnivore ecology, we write to describe scientific conclusions and consensus about issues related to cougar and bear management. We hope that sharing our understanding of this science will help the Commission weigh its decision on the rulemaking petition filed on October 25, 2023, asking for setting guidelines and limits on cougar and bear hunting based on the scientific consensus of scientists in the field.

COUGARS

Healthy cougar populations help create healthy ecosystems. Cougars are a keystone species that play a central role in U.S. ecosystems, with more documented ecological interactions between cougars and other species than for any other carnivore in the world.^{4,28,32,43,44} Your management decisions about cougars thus have extensive cascading effects.³²

Overhunting destabilizes cougar populations

Cougars do not require hunting to regulate their populations.^{22,46,49} Where they are hunted, hunting needs to be managed carefully to avoid excessive mortality, which will decrease genetic diversity in the broader population,^{37,76} disrupt and destabilize social structures,^{7,17,20,29,51,52,59,60,64,74} and increase the risk of human-cougar conflicts.^{7,12,16,25,30,41,46,48,66,67} Overexploitation of cougars in local areas may impact the larger population, because male cougars disperse over long distances to colonize vacant territories.^{7,61,65}

Killing too many cougars in a local area creates a "sink" population that attracts immigrants from other areas and can have an impact on the broader population.^{7,52,61} When older male cougars are killed, young male cougars rapidly move into those vacated territories. This influx of increase in male cougars may mask declines in the female cougar population and a decrease in kitten survival, both of which may have significant population-wide consequences.^{61,74} More female cougars are also killed in areas of high mortality, but because female cougars are less likely to disperse, the female population will not be quickly replaced by new female immigrants.^{50,74} In addition, hunters also kill more kittens in overexploited sink areas, because it is difficult for hunters to accurately age cougars in the field.²² In addition, higher mortality due to hunting and management actions will orphan more kittens, since cougar kittens often do not travel with their mothers and thus cannot be seen by hunters.²² At the same time, high turnover within the male cougar population increases infanticide, as males are known to kill unrelated kittens to induce estrous in females, so that they can breed with them.^{20,64,74}

Research throughout the western U.S. has shown that cougar predation generally does not cause declines in ungulate populations.^{33,47} Other factors such as loss of habitat, disease, wildfire, rainfall levels

(especially during the growing season), maternal health, and winter severity are greater predictors of recruitment and survival in ungulate herds.^{33,46} Predator removal actions do not address these environmental factors and thus research has shown that predator-removal actions generally have no long-term impact on ungulate populations.^{33,47} *

WDFW has done groundbreaking research on cougar population densities and growth rates

Because of their low population densities and secretive nature, it is expensive and time-consuming to conduct accurate cougar population surveys. However, biologists at the Washington Department of Fish and Wildlife have performed some of the most comprehensive cougar surveys of any state, informing management for mountain lions nationwide.^{19,38,55,57,68}

This work revealed an average state density of 2.2 independent-age cougars[†] per 100 km^{2.9} Although local cougar population estimates extrapolated from the statewide average density are not exact, the research indicates that significant density disparities in local areas are unlikely. WDFW's research also found that the intrinsic growth rate for the state's cougar population is 14% (with a margin of error of +/- 2%).⁷⁴ This estimate was verified by work across multiple fieldwork areas and is widely cited and accepted by other scholars.[‡] This estimate also is in line with the findings of comparable studies in other western states.^{26,50,60} When human-caused mortality in local management zones is kept below the intrinsic growth rate, it is most likely to mimic the effects of natural mortality and be the least disruptive to the cougar population.^{26,51,69,74}

Old methods of assessing a cougar population depended on information about hunter effort, harvest data, conflict information, and anecdotal observations about cougar populations. However, these metrics are notoriously unreliable for estimating the size or density of a cougar population, or for detecting trends within that population.^{22,51} Instead of continuing to rely on these outdated methods, we urge the Commission to look to the best-available science.^{6,9,56}

Killing too many cougars will not solve conflicts, and may worsen them

A large body of science conducted by multiple research groups has produced a consensus that killing cougars is not the solution to cougar-related livestock losses or conflicts.^{25,30,46,59,66} In fact, a growing number of studies suggest that excessive killing of cougars may actually increase levels of livestock and pet predation and other conflicts.^{25,30,46,59,66} One Washington study found that while each additional cougar on the landscape increased the odds of a complaint or predation by 5%, each additional cougar that was killed the prior year increased the odds of complaints and predations by 50%.⁵⁹

Although this result might seem counterintuitive, science provides biological explanations for why this would be the case. As explained above, high mortality creates population "sinks" that attract younger dispersing male cougars. Because younger male cougars have weaker territorial instincts, several

^{*} Bighorn sheep are a possible exception, where removal of cougars by wildlife agencies has, in some cases, been shown to benefit small, isolated populations.⁶³

[†] This study classifies cougars over two years old as adults, while independent-age cougars include all those over 18 months old, including 18–24-month-old subadults.

[‡] A recent review of Google Scholar results shows 89 citations in high impact journals by diverse authors.

younger male cougars may replace the territory once occupied by a single older male.^{46,51} As the number of younger male cougars in an area increase, so does the likelihood of conflict.^{46,66}

As the immigration of new males into a territory increases the risks of infanticide of unrelated kittens, female cougars often move closer to human-occupied areas to protect their kittens.¹³ Killing a female with dependent offspring leaves behind orphaned kittens and inexperienced sub-adults with unrefined hunting skills, which often venture closer to humans and are more likely to prey on domestic animals.⁵³ Thus, killing a single female in response to a predation can, and often does, result in continued predations, often leading managers to kill the entire family. For these reasons, areas of high mortality may also become areas of high cougar-human conflict.^{25,30,46,59,66}

Cougar management should focus on eliminating "source-sink" dynamic

If managers want to minimize cougar-human conflicts and maintain a stable and sustainable cougar population, they should focus on keeping overall mortality to within the population's intrinsic growth rate— not only statewide, but in local areas, so as to eliminate the destabilizing source-sink dynamic.^{5,7,9,61} Such a strategy should be implemented in accordance with the best-available science to: (1) use systematic field research to establish population densities; (2) apply those densities to available cougar habitat to estimate local cougar populations; (3) cap the mortality of adult and sub-adult cougars in these local areas below the intrinsic growth rate, considering mortality from *all* human sources (including harvest and non-harvest mortality), and (4) ensure that hunting closes quickly once the cap is reached.^{7,9,22,27}

Rather than killing cougars due to conflicts, which can be counterproductive, we urge managers to place their emphasis on increasing education and outreach on topics such how to safely house livestock and pets and reduce attractants^{70,71} Until these issues are solved, you are likely to see continued conflicts at the same locations.^{25,30,46,59,66} In addition, as long as high levels of mortality persist, you may also see high levels of conflict, which in turn may lead to more mortality^{25,59,66} Such conflict may only abate once mortality levels have been brought below the growth rate long enough to allow time for cougars to redevelop a stable social and territorial structure.

For the reasons discussed above, it is difficult for managers to detect trends in the cougar population that will alert them to when excess mortality statewide or in local areas is depressing the statewide population.² Once a cougar population decreases below a certain threshold, it may begin to drop precipitously, and the population may have already passed this threshold before managers can detect a drop by looking at harvest data.^{58,66}

BLACK BEARS

Like cougars, black bears also play an essential role in their larger ecosystem, as seeddispersers,^{3,31,36,62} scavengers,¹ and predators,^{11,77,78} and by enriching the soil.^{34,39,77} Because the bear population is sensitive to overexploitation,¹⁴ we urge the Commission to be thoughtful and careful in its approach to black bear management.

Black bears reproduce slowly. Female bears in the western U.S. usually do not begin to reproduce until they are at least four years old, after which they will give birth every other year, at most, to litters

of between one and three cubs.^{10,21} Humans are responsible for almost all black bear mortality. Although legal harvest is the top cause of mortality in Washington, conflict removal, poaching, and wounding loss are also significant contributors.^{8,42} Research suggests that bear populations can withstand harvest levels of somewhere between 4 and 11%, although black bear population growth is highly variable and heavily influenced by factors such as available forage.^{14,73}

Many states monitor for overexploitation of black bear populations by looking at the sex and ages of bears harvested by hunters. However, well-established science has shown that these methods are not reliable means of detecting population trends, as the sex and age structure of a declining bear population can be the same as the structure for an increasing population, and there is a significant lag time before trends can be detected through harvest data.^{15,18,54,75}

Over the past few years, WDFW researchers have done extensive work to produce more reliable data about the state bear population.^{8,72,73} We urge the Commission to implement a hunting structure based on this data as soon as practicable, so that it can set sustainable bear hunting limits and establish a more reliable means of monitoring trends in the population.

Policymakers should be alert to sudden and sustained increases in black bear mortality, especially if it is at or above the intrinsic growth rate either statewide, or in local areas. High harvest levels could cause rapid population decline, especially if they are coupled with a slowing of population growth— which can happen due to a poor berry season or other disturbances exacerbated by climate change.^{23,40,45} Managers are unlikely to have the means to accurately assess the impact of such a rise in mortality, and they may not detect a downward trend in the overall population until after there has been a significant population drop, from which it could take decades to recover.³⁵

CONCLUSION

Science is always evolving, and research on these issues will continue in years to come. However, the evidence behind our conclusions is robust and consistent across researchers and research methodologies, presenting a solid foundation for policymaking. Summarizing our conclusions, we believe is important for policymakers to consider several principles when deciding on the appropriate path forward for bear and cougar management. We urge policymakers to:

- Ensure that they are informed by the best-available science before making management decisions;
- Use high-quality, science-based estimates of population densities and growth rates, rather than relying upon anecdotal evidence that may be misleading;
- Be transparent about the dividing line between policy decisions and science, so the public has a clear understanding of the reasoning behind certain decisions and their possible implications;
- Count all sources of mortality when determining whether bear and cougar hunting levels are sustainable;

- Manage conservatively in the face of uncertainty, especially in the age of climate change, and with populations such as cougars and bears that can be sensitive to overexploitation, and may suffer significant declines before managers detect those trends; and
- Respond quickly to signs of overexploitation at either the statewide or local level and make prompt course corrections to maintain stable and sustainable populations.

Issues related to large carnivores often inspire an emotional and passionate response from the public, creating a difficult political situation for policymakers.²⁴ That can be exacerbated because some of the science points to counterintuitive conclusions. We urge policymakers to navigate this situation with the best-available science as their north star, and to take the lead in educating their communities about the science and the impact of cougar and bear management decisions.

We hope our insight is helpful to you in making your upcoming decision.

Sincerely,

Gary M. Koehler, Ph.D. Retired Carnivore Research Scientist Washington Department of Fish and Wildlife

Nadya Ali, Ph.D. University of Chicago

Marc Bekoff, Ph.D. University of Colorado (Boulder)

Robert L. Beschta, Ph.D. Forest Ecosystems and Society Oregon State University

Barbara Brower, Ph.D. Portland State University Portland Urban Coyote Project

Robert L Crabtree, Ph.D. Yellowstone Ecological Research Center Brooke Crowley, Ph.D. University of Cincinnati

Chris Darimont, Ph.D. University of Victoria Raincoast Conservation Foundation

Thomas Dietz, Ph.D. Michigan State University

Cristina Eisenberg, Ph.D. Associate Dean for Inclusive Excellence Director of Tribal Initiatives Oregon State University College of Forestry

William J. Etges, Ph.D. Department of Biological Sciences University of Arkansas

Tracy S. Feldman, Ph.D.

Daniel C. Fisher, Ph.D. University of Michigan

Jed Fuhrman, Ph.D. Wrigley Institute University of Southern California

John W. Grandy IV, Ph.D. Board Director, Pegasus Foundation

Greg Grether, Ph.D. University of California-Los Angeles

Philip Hedrick, Ph.D. Arizona State University

Rick Hopkins, Ph.D. Live Oak Associates, Inc. Cougar Fund

Linda Kaloff, Ph.D. Michigan State University

Ken Keefover-Ring Ph.D. University of Wisconsin-Madison

Fred W. Koontz, Ph.D. Retired Wildlife Conservation Biologist Former Washington Fish and Wildlife Commissioner Michael Kowalski, Ph.D. University of California-Santa Cruz

Alex Krevitz, M.A.

Laura LaBarge, Ph.D. The Max Planck Institute of Animal Behavior

Theresa Lake, Ph.D. Harper College

Jennifer A. Leonard, Ph.D. Estación Biológica de Doñana (CSIC) Michelle L. Lute, Ph.D Wildlife for All

Quinton Martins, Ph.D. True Wild Audubon Canyon Ranch

John C. Miles, Ph.D. Professor Emeritus, Environmental Studies Western Washington University

Donald A. Molde, M.D. Nevada Wildlife Alliance

Susan Morgan, Ph.D. Retired President The Rewilding Institute

Ronald M. Nowak, Ph.D.

Chris Papouchis, M.S. Department of Environmental Studies California State University, Sacramento

Rebecca A Parmenter, M.S. Zoology Colorado State University

Kathleen Perillo, M.S. Clark College Center for Ecodynamic Restoration

William J. Ripple Ph.D. Oregon State University

Yvette Rogers, M.A.

Francisco J. Santiago--Ávila, Ph.D. Project Coyote PAN Works

Steve Sheffield, Ph.D. Bowie State University Brent H. Smith, Ph.D. Earlham College

Sydney R. Stephens, M.S. IORAA University of Trento

Kristine Teichman University of British Columbia (Okanagan)

Adrian Treves, Ph.D. Carnivore Coexistence Lab University of Wisconsin-Madison

Chris Tromborg, Ph.D. Feline Conservation Foundation Sacramento City College

T. Winston Vickers, DVM, MPVM U.C. Davis Wildlife Health Center Co-Director, Mountain Lion Project Sacha Vignieri, Ph.D. Science/AAAS

Bridgett vonHoldt, Ph.D. Princeton University

Jonathan Way, Ph.D. Eastern Coyote/Coywolf Research

Matthew Weirauch, Ph.D. Cincinnati Children's Hospital University of Cincinnati College of Medicine

Robert Wielgus, Ph.D. Retired Director, Large Carnivore Conservation Lab, Washington State University Former WDFW research partner for 25+ years

SOURCES CITED

1. Allen ML, Elbroch LM, Wilmers CC, Wittmer HU. Trophic Facilitation or Limitation? Comparative Effects of Pumas and Black Bears on the Scavenger Community. PLoS ONE. 2014;9(7):e102257. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0102257

2. Anderson Jr. CR, Lindzey FG. Experimental evaluation of population trend and harvest composition in a Wyoming cougar population. Wildlife Society Bulletin. 2005;33(1):179–188. doi:https://doi.org/10.2193/0091-7648(2005)33[179:EEOPTA]2.0.CO;2

3. Auger J, Meyer SE, Black HL. Are American black bears (Ursus americanus) legitimate seed dispersers for fleshy-fruited shrubs? American Midland Naturalist. 2002;147(2):352–367. doi:10.1674/0003-0031(2002)147[0352:AABBUA]2.0.CO;2

4. Barry JM, Elbroch LM, Aiello-Lammens ME, Sarno RJ, Seelye L, Kusler A, Quigley HB, Grigione MM. Pumas as ecosystem engineers: ungulate carcasses support beetle assemblages in the Greater Yellowstone Ecosystem. Oecologia. 2019;189(3):577–586. doi:10.1007/s00442-018-4315-z

5. Beausoleil R, Koehler G. Beyond cougar source-sink management: distributing hunt effort to preserve social stability. In: 10th Mountain Lion Workshop, Cougars: Conservation, Connectivity and Population Management, Bozeman, Montana, hosted by the Western Association of Fish and Wildlife Agencies. 2011.

6. Beausoleil RA, Clark JD, Maletzke BT. A long-term evaluation of biopsy darts and DNA to estimate cougar density: An agency-citizen science collaboration. Wildlife Society Bulletin. 2016;40(3):583–592. doi:10.1002/wsb.675

7. Beausoleil RA, Koehler GM, Maletzke BT, Kertson BN, Wielgus RB. Research to regulation: Cougar social behavior as a guide for management. Wildlife Society Bulletin. 2013;37(3):680–688. doi:10.1002/wsb.299

8. Beausoleil RA, Michaelis WA, Maletzke BT. Black bear research in Capitol State Forest, Washington - Final Report. Olympia, Washington, USA.; 2012.

9. Beausoleil RA, Welfelt LS, Keren IN, Kertson BN, Maletzke BT, Koehler GM. Long-Term Evaluation of Cougar Density and Application of Risk Analysis for Harvest Management. Journal of Wildlife Management. 2021;85(3):462–473. doi:10.1002/jwmg.22007

10. Beckmann JP, Berger J. Using black bears to test ideal-free distribution models experimentally. Journal of Mammalogy. 2003;84(2):594–606. doi:10.1644/1545-1542(2003)084<0594:UBBTTI>2.0.CO;2

11. Beecham J, Rohlman J. A shadow in the forest: Idaho's black bear. Boise, ID: Idaho Department of Fish and Game, University of Idaho Press; 1994.

12. Beier P. Cougar attacks on humans: An update and some further reflections. Proceedings of the Vertebrate Pest Conference. 1992 [accessed 2023 Dec 6];15:365–367. https://escholarship.org/uc/item/81g3v604

13. Benson JF, Sikich JA, Riley SPD. Individual and Population Level Resource Selection Patterns of Mountain Lions Preying on Mule Deer along an Urban-Wildland Gradient. PLOS ONE. 2016;11(7):e0158006. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0158006

14. Beston JA. Variation in life history and demography of the American black bear. The Journal of Wildlife Management. 2011;75(7):1588–1596. doi:10.1002/jwmg.195

15. Beston JA, Mace RD. What can harvest data tell us about Montana's black bears? Ursus. 2012;23(1):30–41. doi:10.2192/URSUS-D-11-00012.1

16. Blecha KA, Boone RB, Alldredge MW, Kevin Blecha CA. Hunger mediates apex predator's risk avoidance response in wildland-urban interface. J Anim Ecol. 2018;87. doi:10.1111/1365-2656.12801

17. Choate DM, Wolfe ML, Stoner DC. Evaluation of Cougar Population Estimators in Utah. Wildlife Society Bulletin. 2006;34:782–799. doi:10.2193/0091-7648(2006)34[782:EOCPEI]2.0.CO;2

18. Clark J. Black Bear Population Dynamics in the Southeast: Some New Perspectives on Some Old Problems. In: Proceedings of the 15th Eastern Black Bear Workshop. 1999. p. 97–115.

19. Colorado Parks and Wildlife. Colorado West Slope Mountain Lion (Puma concolor) Management Plan: Northwest and Southwest Regions. 2020 [accessed 2023 Dec 6]. https://cpw.state.co.us/Documents/Hunting/MountainLion/DAU/WestSlopeMtLionPlan.pdf

20. Cooley HS, Wielgus RB, Koehler GM, Robinson HS, Maletzke BT. Does hunting regulate cougar populations? A test of the compensatory mortality hypothesis. Ecology. 2009;90(10):2913–2921.

21. Costello CM, Jones DE, Inman RM, Inman KH, Thompson BC, Quigley HB. Relationship of variable mast production to American black bear reproductive parameters in New Mexico. Ursus. 2003;14(1):1–16.

22. Cougar Management Guidelines Working Group. Cougar management guidelines. WildFutures; 2005.

23. Creel S, Rotella JJ. Meta-Analysis of Relationships between Human Offtake, Total Mortality and Population Dynamics of Gray Wolves (Canis lupus). PLoS ONE. 2010;5(9):e12918. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0012918

24. Darimont CT, Paquet PC, Treves A, Artelle KA, Chapron G. Political populations of large carnivores. Conservation Biology. 2018;32(3):747–749. doi:10.1111/cobi.13065

25. Dellinger JA, Macon DK, Rudd JL, Clifford DL, Torres SG. Temporal trends and drivers of mountain lion depredation in California, USA. Human Wildlife Interactions. 2021;15(1). doi:10.26077/c5bb-de20

26. Dellinger JA, Torres SG. A retrospective look at mountain lion populations in California (1906-2018). California Fish and Wildlife. 2020;106(1):66–85.

27. Elbroch LM, Harveson PM. It's time to manage mountain lions in Texas. Wildlife Society Bulletin. 2022;e1361. doi:10.1002/wsb.1361

28. Elbroch LM, O'Malley C, Peziol M, Quigley HB. Vertebrate diversity benefiting from carrion provided by pumas and other subordinate, apex felids. Biological Conservation. 2017;215:123–131. doi:10.1016/j.biocon.2017.08.026

29. Elbroch LM, Quigley H. Social interactions in a solitary carnivore. Current Zoology. 2002;63(4):357–362. doi:10.1093/cz/zow080

30. Elbroch LM, Treves A. Why might removing carnivores maintain or increase risks for domestic animals? Biological Conservation. 2023;283:110106. doi:10.1016/j.biocon.2023.110106

31. Enders MS, Vander Wall SB. Black bears Ursus americanus are effective seed dispersers, with a little help from their friends. Oikos. 2012;121(4):589–596. doi:10.1111/j.1600-0706.2011.19710.x

32. Estes JA, Terborgh J, Brashares JS, Power ME, Berger J, Bond WJ, Carpenter SR, Essington TE, Holt RD, Jackson JBC, et al. Trophic Downgrading of Planet Earth. Science. 2011;333(6040):301–306. doi:10.1126/science.1205106

33. Forrester TD, Wittmer HU. A review of the population dynamics of mule deer and black-tailed deer *O docoileus hemionus* in North America. Mammal Review. 2013;43(4):292–308. doi:10.1111/mam.12002

34. Garhelis D. Monitoring effects of harvest on black bear populations in North America: A review and

evaluation of techniques. Eastern Workshop on Black Bear Research and Management. 1990;10:120–144.

35. Gosselin J, Zedrosser A, Swenson JE, Pelletier F. The relative importance of direct and indirect effects of hunting mortality on the population dynamics of brown bears. Proceedings of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences. 2015;282(1798):20141840. doi:10.1098/rspb.2014.1840

36. Harrer LEF, Levi T. The primacy of bears as seed dispersers in salmon-bearing ecosystems. Ecosphere. 2018;9(1). doi:10.1002/ecs2.2076

37. Huffmeyer AA, Sikich JA, Vickers TW, Riley SPD, Wayne RK. First reproductive signs of inbreeding depression in Southern California male mountain lions (Puma concolor). Theriogenology. 2022;177:157–164. doi:10.1016/j.theriogenology.2021.10.016

38. Idaho Department of Fish and Game. Draft Mountain Lion Management Plan. 2023 [accessed 2023 Dec 6]. https://idfg.idaho.gov/sites/default/files/draft-mountain-lion-plan-2024-2029.pdf

39. Jacoby ME, Hilderbrand G V., Servheen C, Schwartz CC, Arthur SM, Hanley TA, Robbins CT, Michener R. Trophic Relations of Brown and Black Bears in Several Western North American Ecosystems. The Journal of Wildlife Management. 1999;63(3):921. doi:10.2307/3802806

40. Johnson HE, Lewis DL, Verzuh TL, Wallace CF, Much RM, Willmarth LK, Breck SW. Human development and climate affect hibernation in a large carnivore with implications for human–carnivore conflicts. Journal of Applied Ecology. 2018;55(2):663–672. doi:10.1111/1365-2664.13021

41. Kertson BN, Spencer RD, Marzluff JM, Hepinstall-Cymerman J, Grue CE. Cougar space use and movements in the wildland–urban landscape of western Washington. Ecological Applications. 2011;21(8):2866–2881. doi:10.1890/11-0947.1

42. Koehler GM. Survival, cause-specific mortality, sex, and ages of American black bears in Washington state, USA. Ursus. 2005;16:157–166.

43. Krumm CE, Conner MM, Hobbs NT, Hunter DO, Miller MW. Mountain lions prey selectively on prion-infected mule deer. Biology Letters. 2010;6(2):209–211. doi:10.1098/rsbl.2009.0742

44. LaBarge LR, Evans MJ, Miller JRB, Cannataro G, Hunt C, Elbroch LM. Pumas *Puma concolor* as ecological brokers: a review of their biotic relationships. Mammal Review. 2022;52(3):360–376. doi:10.1111/mam.12281

45. Laufenberg JS, Johnson HE, Doherty PF, Breck SW. Compounding effects of human development and a natural food shortage on a black bear population along a human development-wildland interface. Biological Conservation. 2018;224:188–198. doi:10.1016/j.biocon.2018.05.004

46. Laundré JW, Papouchis C. The Elephant in the room: What can we learn from California regarding the use of sport hunting of pumas (Puma concolor) as a management tool? PLoS ONE. 2020;15(2). doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0224638

47. Lennox RJ, Gallagher AJ, Ritchie EG, Cooke SJ. Evaluating the efficacy of predator removal in a conflict-prone world. Biological Conservation. 2018 [accessed 2023 Dec 6];224:277–289. doi:10.1016/J.BIOCON.2018.05.003

48. Linnell JDC, Odden J, Swenson JE. Large carnivores that kill livestock: Do "problem individuals" really exist? Wildlife Society Bulletin. 1999;27(3):698–705.

49. Logan KA. Puma population limitation and regulation: What matters in puma management? Journal of Wildlife Management. 2019;83(8):1652–1666. doi:10.1002/jwmg.21753

50. Logan KA, Runge JP. Effects of Hunting on a Puma Population in Colorado. Wildlife Monographs. 2021;209(1):1–35. doi:10.1002/wmon.1061

51. Logan KA, Sweanor LL. Desert Puma: Evolutionary Ecology And Conservation Of An Enduring

Carnivore. Covelo, California: Island Press; 2001.

52. Maletzke BT, Wielgus R, Koehler GM, Swanson M, Cooley H, Alldredge JR. Effects of hunting on cougar spatial organization. Ecology and Evolution. 2014;4(11):2178–2185. doi:10.1002/ece3.1089

53. Mattson D. Mountain Lions of the Flagstaff Uplands Mountain Lions of the Flagstaff Uplands Progress Report. Washington, D.C.; 2007.

54. Mclellan BN, Mowat G, Hamilton T, Hatter I. Sustainability of the grizzly bear hunt in British Columbia, Canada. The Journal of Wildlife Management. 2017;81(2):218–229. doi:10.1002/jwmg.21189

55. Montana Fish Wildlife and Parks. Montana Mountain Lion Monitoring & Management Strategy. 2019.

56. Murphy SM, Beausoleil RA, Stewart H, Cox JJ. Review of puma density estimates reveals sources of bias and variation, and the need for standardization. Global Ecology and Conservation. 2022;35. doi:10.1016/j.gecco.2022.e02109

57. Oregon Department of Fish and Wildlife. 2017 Oregon Cougar Management Plan. 2017 [accessed 2023 Dec 6].

https://www.dfw.state.or.us/wildlife/cougar/docs/2017_Oregon_Cougar_Management_Plan.pdf

58. Packer C, Kosmala M, Cooley HS, Brink H, Pintea L, Garshelis D, Purchase G, Strauss M, Swanson A, Balme G, et al. Sport Hunting, Predator Control and Conservation of Large Carnivores. PLoS ONE. 2009;4(6):e5941. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0005941

59. Peebles KA, Wielgus RB, Maletzke BT, Swanson ME. Effects of remedial sport hunting on cougar complaints and livestock depredations. PLoS ONE. 2013;8(11). doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0079713

60. Robinson H and DR. The Garnet Range Mountain Lion Study: Characteristics of a hunted population in west-central Montana. 2011.

61. Robinson HS, Wielgus RB, Cooley HS, Cooley SW. Sink populations in carnivore management: Cougar demography and immigration in a hunted population. Ecological Applications. 2008;18(4):1028–1037. doi:10.1890/07-0352.1

62. Rogers LL, Applegate RD. Dispersal of Fruit Seeds by Black Bears. Journal of Mammalogy. 1983;64(2):310–311. doi:10.2307/1380564

63. Rominger EM. The Gordian Knot of Mountain Lion Predation and Bighorn Sheep. Journal of Wildlife Management . 2018;82(1):19–31. doi:10.1002/jwmg.21396

64. Ruth TK, Haroldson MA, Murphy KM, Buotte PC, Hornocker MG, Quigley HB. Cougar survival and source-sink structure on Greater Yellowstone's Northern Range. The Journal of Wildlife Management. 2011;75(6):1381–1398. doi:10.1002/jwmg.190

65. Sweanor LL, Logan KA, Hornocker MG. Cougar Dispersal Patterns, Metapopulation Dynamics, and Conservation. Conservation Biology. 2000;14(3):798–808. doi:10.1046/j.1523-1739.2000.99079.x

66. Teichman KJ, Cristescu B, Darimont CT. Hunting as a management tool? Cougar-human conflict is positively related to trophy hunting. BMC Ecology. 2016;16(1). doi:10.1186/s12898-016-0098-4

67. Torres SG, Mansfield TM, Foley JE, Lupo T, Brinkhaus A, Photo N, Torres S, Foley J. Mountain lion and human activity in California: testing speculations. Wildlife Society Bulletin. 1996;24(3):451–460.

68. Utah Division of Wildlife Resources and the Cougar Advisory Group. Utah Cougar Management Plan V.3. 2015 [accessed 2023 Dec 6]. https://wildlife.utah.gov/pdf/cougars/cmgtplan.pdf

69. Washington Department of Fish and Wildlife. 2018 Game Status and Trend Report. Olympia, WA; 2018.

70. Washington Department of Fish and Wildlife. Coexisting with cougars in Washington: A guide for small livestock owners. 2022 [accessed 2023 Dec 6]. https://wdfw.wa.gov/sites/default/files/2022-03/Coexisting%20with%20Cougars_FINAL.pdf

71. Washington Department of Fish and Wildlife. Cougar Outreach and Education in Washington State. 2010.

72. Washington Department of Fish and Wildlife. Statewide black bear density monitoring in Washington: A cross-region and interagency team approach. 2022.

73. Welfelt LS, Beausoleil RA, Wielgus RB. Factors Associated with black bear density and implications for management. Journal of Wildlife Management. 2019;83(7):1527–1539. doi:10.1002/jwmg.21744

74. Wielgus RB, Morrison DE, Cooley HS, Maletzke B. Effects of male trophy hunting on female carnivore population growth and persistence. Biological Conservation. 2013;167:69–75. doi:10.1016/j.biocon.2013.07.008

75. Williams BK, Nichols JD, Conroy MJ. Analysis and management of animal populations. San Diego, California: Academic Press; 2002.

76. Wultsch C, Zeller KA, Welfelt LS, Beausoleil RA. Genetic diversity, gene flow, and source-sink dynamics of cougars in the Pacific Northwest. Conservation Genetics. 2023;24(6):793–806. doi:10.1007/s10592-023-01532-3

77. Yarkovich J, Braunstein JL, Mullinax JM, Clark JD. No long-term effect of black bear removal on elk calf recruitment in the southern Appalachians. 2023. doi:10.1002/jwmg.22522

78. Zager P, Beecham J. The role of American black bears and brown bears as predators on ungulates in North America. Ursus. 2006;17(2):95–108.