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Thinley, P., Rajaratnam, R., & Shrestha, R. (2018). Establishing baseline estimates of blue sheep (*Pseudois nayaur*) abundance and density to sustain populations of the endangered snow leopard (*Panthera uncia*) in Western Bhutan. *Wildlife Research*, 45(1), 38-46. doi: 10.1071/WR16218

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1 **Establishing baseline estimates of blue sheep (*Pseudois nayaur*) abundance and density to sustain**
2 **populations of the endangered snow leopard (*Panthera uncia*) in Western Bhutan**

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29

30 **Abstract**

31

32 **Context.** Advances have been made on developing reliable methods for estimating the abundance and
33 density of large endangered mammalian predators, but there is little progress on developing population
34 estimates for their principal prey. No standardized protocol for estimating prey populations exists, and
35 hence, different researchers use different methods. As such, there is a little information on key prey
36 species of the endangered snow leopard (*Panthera uncia*) such as the blue sheep (*Pseudois nayaur*),
37 and this has hindered the preparation of effective snow leopard conservation plans.

38 **Aims.** We established an estimated seasonal baseline population abundance and density of blue sheep
39 in the Lingzhi Park Range (LPR) of Bhutan's Jigme Dorji National Park over winter and summer. We
40 also assessed the number of snow leopard individuals that the current blue sheep population can sustain
41 in the study area.

42 **Methods.** We used a refined double-observer survey method and walked transect lengths of 414 km in
43 winter and 450 km in summer to estimate blue sheep abundance with the aid of 8 x 30 binoculars and
44 15 x 45 spotting scopes.

45 **Key results.** We estimated 1,762 ($SE \pm 199$) blue sheep individuals in winter at a density of 8.51
46 individuals per km² and 2,097 ($SE \pm 172$) individuals in summer at a density of 9.32 individuals per
47 km². Mean group size of blue sheep was 38.12 individuals ($SE \pm 6$) in winter and 52.36 individuals (SE
48 ± 4) in summer. LPR was estimated to sustain 11 to 17 snow leopards in winter and 15 to 21 in
49 summer

50 **Key conclusions.** LPR can be a hotspot for snow leopard conservation in western Bhutan and
51 regionally in the eastern Himalayas, because the comparatively higher estimated blue sheep abundance
52 and density possibly supports the highest density of snow leopards in Bhutan. Our modified double-
53 observer method used to assess blue sheep population estimates is inexpensive, robust, and practical in
54 the mountainous terrain of the Himalayas.

55 **Implications.** We recommend the adoption of our modified double-observer method as a standard
56 technique for estimating blue sheep populations in the snow leopard range countries of the Himalayas.
57 Snow leopard conservation plans should, additionally, include efforts to minimize threats to blue sheep
58 populations. Our modified method is also highly applicable for future surveys of gregarious
59 mammalian taxa like ungulates and primates in difficult mountainous terrain elsewhere in the world.

60

61 **Additional keywords:** double-observer survey, Eastern Himalayas, Jigme Dorji National Park,
62 mountain ungulates, snow leopard conservation

63

64 **Introduction**

65

66 Studies on endangered mammalian apex predators have largely focused on estimating their population
67 abundance in an effort to save them from extinction. In the last fifteen years, there has been a marked
68 increase in the number of studies refining the methods for estimating predator populations. For
69 instance, the method for estimating the populations of naturally marked animals (Jackson *et al.* 2006;
70 Karanth and Nichols 1998) such as the tiger (*Panthera tigris*) and the snow leopard (*Panthera uncia*)
71 has been improved with advances in survey equipment and computer processing capabilities (Royle *et al.*
72 2013). Hence, there are empirically robust estimates of tiger (Karanth *et al.* 2004a; Khan 2012;
73 Simcharoen *et al.* 2007; Thinley *et al.* 2015a; Wang and Macdonald 2009) and snow leopard (Jackson
74 *et al.* 2006; Lham *et al.* 2016) populations within parts of their geographical range. However, there has
75 been a lack of progress in refining the methods for reliably estimating their prey populations, resulting
76 in little reliable information on the abundance of their key prey species.

77 Dearth of information on the abundance of key prey species has greatly hindered viability
78 assessments and conservation planning for the snow leopard (McCarthy and Chapron 2003;
79 Wikramanayake *et al.* 2006). This elusive cat species is classified as “endangered” by the IUCN
80 (Jackson *et al.* 2008) and is currently distributed in 12 Asian countries: Afghanistan, Bhutan, China,
81 India, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyz Republic, Mongolia, Nepal, Pakistan, Russia, Turkmenistan, and
82 Uzbekistan (Jackson *et al.* 2006). In all of these range states, it faces threats from prey base depletion,
83 poaching, illegal trade, and habitat destruction (Jackson *et al.* 2008). It is not known how much of the
84 prey population exists to sustain a viable snow leopard population in most of these countries. Without
85 a baseline population estimate, the impacts of anthropogenic factors such as poaching, habitat
86 reduction, habitat degradation, human intrusion, and fodder competition from domestic ungulates on
87 prey populations remain unknown.

88 Since predator density is directly correlated to prey density (Karanth *et al.* 2004b; Karanth and
89 Stith 1999), adequate knowledge about prey populations is highly relevant to the conservation of their
90 main predators. The principal natural prey of the snow leopard differs regionally ranging from the
91 Siberian ibex (*Capra sibirica*) and argali sheep (*Ovis ammon*) in Mongolia (Shehzad *et al.* 2012), to
92 the Siberian ibex and markhor (*Capra falconeri*) in northern Pakistan (Anwar *et al.* 2011). The blue

93 sheep (*Pseudois nayaur*), also commonly known as bharal or naur, constitutes the principal prey of the
94 snow leopard in China (Schaller *et al.* 1988; Xu *et al.* 2008), India (Bagchi and Mishra 2006; Fox *et al.*
95 1991), Nepal (Devkota *et al.* 2013; Oli 1994; Oli *et al.* 1993b; Wegge *et al.* 2012), and Bhutan
96 (Shrestha and Tenzin 2015; Thinley *et al.* 2014). This aberrant goat with sheep-like traits (Schaller
97 1977) is distributed from the Central Asian Mountains to northern Myanmar (Harris 2014). It faces
98 varying threats in different countries, ranging from localised hunting to habitat loss. In Bhutan, it is
99 threatened by the increasing number of domestic yaks (*Bos grunniens*) with which it competes for
100 fodder (Shrestha and Wegge 2008), and an increasing number of international trekkers and medicinal
101 plant collectors within its foraging areas (Thinley *et al.* 2014) who escalate its alertness (Jiang *et al.*
102 2013), and possibly disrupt its foraging behavior thereby impacting fodder uptake. Currently, there is
103 very little information on blue sheep abundance within its geographical range.

104 A reason for the lack of baseline population data on key prey species for the snow leopard could be
105 attributed to the lack of a standardized method for estimating their populations. This is true for blue
106 sheep although several methods exist for surveying and monitoring of large herbivores based on direct
107 methods such as distance sampling (Burnham *et al.* 1980), strip counts (Eberhardt 1978), and fixed-
108 point counts (Jackson and Hunter 1996); and indirect methods such as track counts (Dzieciolowski
109 1976; Mandujano and Jones 2005) and dung counts (Laing *et al.* 2003; Marques *et al.* 2001). Seeing
110 the limited applicability and reliability of these methods for gregarious mountain ungulates in
111 relatively large areas, Suryawanshi *et al.* (2012) recently improved on the double-observer survey
112 technique developed by Forsyth and Hickling (1997) by separating each observation in space or time.
113 This technique also allowed an estimation of sampling error that enabled assigning a level of
114 confidence to the population estimates. Hence, this inexpensive but rigorous method tested in the
115 geophysical conditions of the Indian State of Himachal Pradesh in Western Himalaya, provided robust
116 estimates of blue sheep and ibex abundance (Suryawanshi *et al.* 2012) with appropriate measures of
117 error and detection probability. Yet, the applicability of this method has not been assessed and
118 employed in the neighboring snow leopard range countries such as Nepal and Bhutan where similar
119 topographic conditions exist. Therefore, the objectives of this study were to assess the applicability of
120 the double-observer survey technique for estimating seasonal blue sheep abundance in Bhutan, and to
121 estimate the number of snow leopards that could be supported by the current blue sheep population.
122 We also observed how population estimates and group compositions seasonally differed between
123 winter and summer. Based on our experience, we discuss some of the limitations of the technique and
124 suggest further improvements.

125 **Materials and methods**

126

127 *Study area*

128

129 We conducted this study in the Lingzhi Park Range (27° 59' N, 89° 40' E; hereinafter referred to as

130 LPR) in the biodiversity-rich Jigme Dorji National Park (Fig. 1; hereinafter referred to as JDNP).

131 Situated in western Bhutan and measuring about 4,316 km², JDNP is a unique global protected area
132 where the tiger and the snow leopard overlap in their respective ranges (Thinley *et al.* 2015c).

133 Encompassing an area of 745 km² and adjoining the Tibetan Autonomous Region of China in the
134 north, LPR is the fourth largest of the six park ranges in JDNP. LPR mostly falls within the upper

135 catchment of Wangchhu River basin in Western Bhutan. The vegetation is dominated by alpine

136 meadows above the tree line (i.e., > 3,800 m a.s.l.) and by sub- alpine and mixed conifer forests below

137 the tree line. The terrain is highly rugged with deep valleys and steep hills. The precipitation

138 comprises rain in summer and snow in winter. The altitude in LPR ranges from 3,250 to 6,794 m a.s.l.

139 LPR is an ideal place to study the population dynamics between blue sheep and snow leopards.

140 During the recent nationwide camera-trap survey of snow leopards in Bhutan (Lham *et al.* 2016), 31

141 individuals were identified in JDNP of which 16 (52%) were located in LPR. In addition, LPR has the
142 largest populations of blue sheep judging from the number of sighted herds and frequency of sightings.

143 LPR also harbors other predators such as the tiger, dhole (*Cuon alpinus*), clouded leopard (*Neofelis*

144 *nebulosa*), leopard cat (*Prionailurus bengalensis*), Asiatic golden cat (*Catopuma temminckii*), marbled

145 cat (*Pardofelis marmorata*), red fox (*Vulpes vulpes*), Asiatic black bear (*Ursus thibetanus*), and

146 Pallas's cat (*Otocolobus manul*; Thinley 2013; Thinley *et al.* 2015b). The ungulate community is

147 represented by the Bhutan takin (*Budorcas taxicolor whitei*), blue sheep, Himalayan musk deer

148 (*Moschus leucogaster*), alpine musk deer (*Moschus chrysogaster*), sambar (*Rusa unicolor*), Himalayan

149 goral (*Naemorhedus goral*), muntjac (*Muntiacus muntjac*) and Himalayan serow (*Capricornis thar*).

150 Approximately 700 pastoralists reside in LPR (NSB 2005), subsisting primarily on raising

151 domestic yaks (*Bos grunniens*) and the sale of medicinal plants, including cordyceps, the highly-priced

152 caterpillar fungus (*Ophiocordyceps sinensis*; Cannon *et al.* 2009). On average, each household owns

153 30 yaks (DoL 2013). Yak herders have also been permitted to collect cordyceps for one month (mid-

154 June to mid-July) every year for sale to local exporters to supplement their household income. The

155 LPR is also a prominent tourist destination with hundreds of international tourists trekking there every

156 year.

157 *Field methods*

158

159 Fieldwork was conducted in winter (December 2014 to February 2015) during the blue sheep's mating
160 season, and in summer (May 2015 to July 2015) during its parturition period (Wegge 1979; Wilson
161 1981). Prior to field visits, all potential areas of blue sheep occurrence in the LPR characterised by
162 frequent sightings, known alpine grassland habitats, and minimal human presence were identified
163 through staff interviews and consultation with local yak herders who provided information on where
164 blue sheep groups were regularly seen. By plotting the names of potential sites on contour maps and
165 Google Earth™, a total of 29 blocks were selected for surveys. Each block was separated from the rest
166 by mountain ridges or large rivers which geophysically isolated several blue sheep groups. Using the
167 double-observer survey technique (Forsyth and Hickling 1997; Suryawanshi *et al.* 2012), we
168 conducted our surveys in the study area from east to west to be consistent. In each block, we randomly
169 laid a transect along an altitudinal gradient, starting from the base of a hill with a drinking water
170 source, usually a river or a large stream, and ending on the rocky outcrops on the hill top. This was to
171 closely coincide with the movement pattern of blue sheep which are known to gradually descend to a
172 hill base in the early morning for drinking water and progressively ascend the hill as they forage,
173 reaching the hill top at dusk (Schaller 1973). On each survey day, the observers slowly (1.5 km/hour)
174 walked a chosen transect uphill, commencing at 0600 hrs (first observer) till 1030 hrs. The second
175 observer followed the same transect exactly one hour after the first observer, as suggested by
176 Suryawanshi *et al.* (2012), finishing at 1130 hrs. Breaks were taken from 1130 hrs to 1400 hrs when
177 blue sheep rested on the rocky cliffs, and surveys were resumed along a similar staggered timing from
178 1400 hrs to 1730 hrs. Each observer stopped to record observations whenever blue sheep herds were
179 sighted. Surrounding areas were also additionally scanned for the occurrence of sub-groups. Observer
180 1 and observer 2 were the same in both the seasons.

181 We met all three critical assumptions of the double-observation method (Forsyth and Hickling
182 1997; Magnusson *et al.* 1978) which rests on the principle of a mark-recapture estimate of population
183 (Nichols 1992). In order to fulfill the method's population closure assumption, we conducted the
184 survey during a relatively short period in each season, ranging from 30 to 35 days. In addition, survey
185 blocks were separated by ridges and big rivers, and it was unlikely that movements of individuals in
186 and out of the survey sites occurred during the survey duration. All surveys in a block ended at a
187 ridgeline that served as natural barrier for blue sheep to cross over to the adjacent block.

188 The first and second surveys were separated by one hour to fulfill the second assumption of
189 independence in that surveys by both observers were independent random samples of the entire
190 population. The spacing of one hour was deemed adequate to capture changes in detection that resulted
191 from changes in group activity and locations (Suryawanshi *et al.* 2012). The first observer made
192 minimal disturbance to avoid drastic changes in blue sheep behavior so that the sighting probability of
193 the second observer was not affected.

194 In order to meet the third assumption that all blue sheep groups and their members were
195 identifiable, unique features of group members such as broken horn tips, furless patches on the body,
196 and injured individuals, were noted by each observer. Observers noted the characteristics of
197 observation sites such as distinct geophysical features, herder's camps, lakes, and other landmarks to
198 help in unique characterization of a group and to check if observed groups were the same or distinctly
199 separate. Observations were made with the aid of 8 x 30 binoculars and 15 x 45 spotting scopes to
200 record the number of individuals in a group and classify them into different sex and age categories.
201 Group members were sexed and aged according to the classification method employed by Wegge
202 (1979): *young* (<1 year), *yearling* (1-2 years), *adult female* (≥ 2 years), *young male* (2 – 3 years) with
203 horn length measuring between 15 – 35 cm, *medium male* (4 – 6 years) with horn length ranging
204 between 35 – 45 cm, and *big male* (≥ 7 years) with fully grown horns measuring 45 – 50 cm. With the
205 use of binoculars and spotting scopes from various distances, observers were trained to precisely
206 estimate horn lengths through prior first-hand knowledge of actual horn lengths from a collection of
207 blue sheep horns from various age groups at LPR office.

208 At the end of each day, both observers tallied the number of blue sheep groups seen in common
209 and exclusively seen by each observer based on the number of individuals counted, group composition,
210 and the unique features of group members. For groups of less than 10 individuals, a group was treated
211 as seen in common if the difference in the number of individuals recorded by both observers was less
212 than the lowest observed group size (i.e., 2 in our case). Otherwise, the groups were treated as
213 exclusive and seen separately by each observer. When groups were treated as seen in common, the
214 group sizes and number of individuals in each age/sex class were averaged (and rounded to whole
215 numbers) to avoid overestimation or underestimation. Both observers exercised extreme caution in
216 agreeing to the unique features of a group, because a slight variation in the number of groups and
217 group size would give rise to biases in estimating the total number of groups and mean group size,
218 consequently affecting the estimation of abundance and density.

219 Geographical coordinates of the blue sheep herd centers were recorded using GPS (Global
220 Positioning System) units (Fig. 1). In order to not disturb blue sheep, and also to estimate locations in
221 situations when there were steep gorges and lakes between the observers and blue sheep groups, the
222 coordinates of the group centers were projected using the way point projection tool in the GPS unit.

223

224 *Estimating blue sheep abundance and density*

225

226 We used the population abundance estimation method for the double-observer survey developed by
227 Forsyth and Hickling (1997) to estimate the abundance of blue sheep in the study area. The estimate of
228 blue sheep abundance was computed as the product of the estimated number of observed blue sheep
229 groups (\hat{G}) and the mean group size ($\hat{\mu}$) computed by averaging all group sizes. The estimated number
230 of groups was computed as:

231

$$232 \hat{G} = \left(\frac{(B + S_1 + 1)(B + S_2 + 1)}{(B + 1)} \right) - 1$$

233

234 where: B = the number of blue sheep groups seen in common by both observers,

235 S_1 = the number of blue sheep groups exclusively seen by the first observer, and

236 S_2 = the number of blue sheep groups exclusively seen by the second observer

237

238 We computed the sampled area by multiplying the total transect length with a 250 m maximum
239 observation distance on either side. We used a total sampled area of 207 km² in winter (with a total
240 transect length of 414 km) and 225 km² in summer (with a 450 km transect length) for estimating the
241 density of blue sheep in the respective season.

242

243 *Computing blue sheep detection rate*

244

245 In accordance with Suryawanshi *et al.* (2012), we computed the detection rate (p) of each observer as
246 the ratio of the sum of the number of groups commonly seen (B) and number of groups only seen by
247 the particular observer to the estimated number of groups in the population. For example, the detection
248 probability (p_1) of the first observer was computed as:

249

250

$$p_1 = \left(\frac{B + S_1}{\hat{G}} \right)$$

251 *Comparing estimated abundances and mean group sizes between seasons*

252

253 For assessing statistical significance of change in estimated abundance between winter (\hat{N}_1) and
254 summer (\hat{N}_2), we used the z-test (Forsyth and Hickling 1997):

255

$$z = \frac{(\hat{N}_2 - \hat{N}_1)}{se(\hat{N}_2 - \hat{N}_1)}$$

256 where:

257

$$se(\hat{N}_2 - \hat{N}_1) = \sqrt{Var(\hat{N}_1) + Var(\hat{N}_2)}$$

258 Please refer to Forsyth and Hickling (1997) for computing $Var(\hat{N})$.

259 We used a Student's t-test to compare the mean group size of blue sheep between two seasons.

260 Significance of both the tests was determined at $\alpha = 0.05$. The tests were performed in Microsoft
261 Excel™ using the inbuilt statistical tool.

262

263 **Results**

264

265 *Survey effort*

266

267 In a 30-day survey period during winter, a total of 1,635 blue sheep belonging to 43 groups were
268 sighted by the first observer, while the second observer counted 1,643 individuals belonging to the
269 same number of groups (Table 1). In summer with 35-day survey period, the first observer observed
270 2,042 blue sheep belonging to 39 groups whereas the second observer recorded 2,064 individuals
271 belonging to 38 groups.

272

273 *Population abundance, density, and detection rate*

274

275 The total number of blue sheep in LPR was estimated at 1,762 ($SE \pm 199$) individuals in winter (Table
276 1) and 2,097 ($SE \pm 172$) individuals in summer. The estimated abundance did not significantly vary
277 from winter to summer ($z = 1.27$, two-tailed test, $p = 0.202$). Density of blue sheep based on the total
278 sampled area and population abundance was estimated at 8.51 individuals per km² in winter and 9.32

279 individuals per km² in summer. The overall detection rate of both the observers was 0.93 in winter, but
280 the rates were 0.97 and 0.95 for the first and second observer respectively in summer (Table 1).

281

282 *Estimated number of groups*

283

284 The number of blue sheep groups (\hat{G}) was estimated at 46.22 in winter and 40.05 in summer, with a
285 mean group size of 38.12 ($SE \pm 6$) individuals in winter and 52.36 ($SE \pm 4$) individuals in summer
286 (Table 1). There was a weak evidence for a difference in mean group size between winter and summer
287 ($t = 1.796$, $df = 80$, $p = 0.076$). Small herds of two to 10 individuals were most frequently seen in
288 winter (Fig. 2) accounting for 34.8% of total groups, whereas larger groups of 51 to 70 individuals
289 representing 37.5% of total groups were most frequently seen in summer.

290

291 *Population structure and sex ratio*

292

293 In winter, 1,524 blue sheep were classified as 478 adult females, 266 as lambs, 305 as yearlings, 117 as
294 young males, 109 as medium males, and 249 as big males. In summer, 1,996 blue sheep were
295 classified as 627 adult females, 289 lambs, 314 yearlings, 219 young males, 230 medium males, and
296 317 big males. With 475 males and 478 females observed in winter, we computed a sex ratio of 99
297 males to 100 females. In summer, the sex ratio was 122 males to 100 females based on 766 males and
298 627 females.

299

300 *Number of snow leopards that can be sustained*

301

302 We estimate that blue sheep numbers in LPR could sustain between 11 – 17 snow leopards in winter
303 and 15 – 21 in summer based on an assumed snow leopard to blue sheep ratio of 1 : 98 – 143 estimated
304 by Jackson (1996) in Nepal. Our estimated number of snow leopards was comparable to the estimated
305 range of 13 to 17 individuals obtained by Thinley *et al.* (2014) in the west part of JDNP which also
306 included the adjacent Soe Park Range.

307

308

309

310

311 **Discussion**

312

313 *Study limitations and improvements in the method*

314

315 In our study area, there were adequate physical barriers to prevent the movement of blue sheep from
316 one survey block to another. In areas without such barriers, the method's assumption of population
317 closure may not be met especially if surveys are done for longer periods by few observers, as
318 individuals may move between areas and group sizes may thus differ due to formation of sub-groups.
319 There could also have been limitations to our survey method if the first observer disturbed blue sheep
320 herds through chance encounters when the random transect was close to their foraging or resting
321 places, thereby subsequently affecting the second observer's detection probability. We ensured that
322 such limitations were minimized through diligence on the part of the first observer to be quiet,
323 cautious, and not initiating eye contact when in close proximity to blue sheep groups. It was also
324 unlikely that the first observer would disturb blue sheep groups located distantly, thereby necessitating
325 the use of spotting scopes.

326 In our study, we observed movement of males from one group to another in some survey blocks
327 during the mating season. Hence, double-counting of individuals or groups may have occurred which
328 will cause positive biases in the estimation of average group size and even the total number of groups.
329 In such cases, an alternative is to train and deploy a large number of observers in multiple survey
330 blocks to conduct simultaneous surveys within a very short period. The double observer method may
331 also underestimate abundance when some target groups shelter in rocky outcrops or on precipitous
332 cliffs (Wilson 1981), especially when there is a predator in the area. We observed predators such as the
333 snow leopard and the dhole in our study area, and therefore surmise that our true N may be higher.
334 Nevertheless, our seasonal estimates of blue sheep population (\hat{N}) in LPR were reliable with
335 reasonable error margins.

336 Forsyth and Hickling (1997) and Suryawanshi *et al.* (2012) did not explain how observers arrived
337 at a consensus on both common and exclusively observed groups. Such ambiguity may result in over
338 or underestimating the number of groups and group sizes which will affect the abundance estimates.
339 We developed a new rule using the minimum group size to distinguish between these two categories
340 especially when groups were identified based on group sizes, particularly for small groups of less than
341 10 individuals. Forsyth and Hickling (1997) and Suryawanshi *et al.* (2012) also did not explain how
342 group sizes were determined when there were differences in the number of individuals of a supposedly

343 group observed in common. In such cases, we offer an alternative by averaging (rounded to whole
344 number) the two counts to avoid over or under estimates. We additionally improved the precision of
345 the observation technique by closely following the movement patterns of blue sheep in our study area.
346 We consistently used the same technique in all transects and seasons. This prevented the likelihood of
347 selecting observation routes that had an unlikelihood of encountering blue sheep.

348

349 *Variability of estimates across seasons*

350

351 The lower estimated number of blue sheep groups in summer relative to winter could be possibly
352 attributed to observers missing groups that could have been resting in shadows or rocky crevasses in
353 hotter temperatures during summer. In contrast, winter is the breeding season for blue sheep during
354 which they congregate in large groups for mating, thereby improving their chances of being detected
355 by observers. Smaller herds (2 – 10 individuals) were also more prevalent in winter than in summer
356 (51-70 individuals) although largest groups (> 90 individuals) were detected in winter (Fig. 2). Cao *et al.*
357 *al.* (2004) similarly observed smaller blue sheep herds of 2 to 8 individuals which constituted 94.8% of
358 winter herds in the Helen Mountains of China. A possible explanation is that winter is the mating
359 season during which small heterogeneous groups of two to three individuals are commonly seen.
360 Alternately, smaller herds could possibly be more common in winter when forage is poor (Liu *et al.*
361 2007).

362 Our mean group sizes of 38 ($SE \pm 6$) individuals in winter and 52 ($SE \pm 4$) individuals in summer
363 were comparatively higher than those observed in other parts of the Himalayas: 15.6 ($SE \pm 1.3$)
364 individuals in Nepal's Annapurna Conservation Area (Oli *et al.* 1993a); 7 ($SE \pm 5.5$) individuals in
365 Nepal's Dhorpatan Hunting Reserve (Aryal *et al.* 2010); 9.87 ($SE \pm 1.24$) individuals in India's
366 Gangotri National Park (Bhardwaj *et al.* 2010); and 11.6 individuals in Bhutan's Wangchuck
367 Centennial National Park (Shrestha *et al.* 2012). We attribute this to the existence of large intact and
368 undisturbed tracts of alpine meadows (approximately 596 km²) in our study area that provide adequate
369 foraging areas for blue sheep and hunting prohibitions imposed by the Forest and Nature Conservation
370 Act of Bhutan 1995, which is strictly enforced. The field staff of LPR are to be credited for rigorous
371 anti-poaching patrols and effective law enforcement

372 Our observed sex ratio of 99 males to 100 females in winter was similar to the 102 males to 100
373 females in Bhutan's WCNP (Shrestha *et al.* 2012), 90 males to 100 females in Nepal's Kanchenjunga
374 Conservation Area (Khatiwada *et al.* 2007), and 93 males to 100 females in Nepal's Annapurna

375 Conservation Area, Nepal (Oli *et al.* 1993a). Sex ratio in our study was almost equal in winter albeit a
376 negligibly higher number of females than males. This could be attributed to 14% unidentified blue
377 sheep, particularly the young. However, in summer, there was a slightly higher number of males than
378 females. Sex ratios from both seasons indicate the absence of trophy hunting in the area, as we did not
379 observe any signs of blue sheep hunting. Local residents also did not report any incidence of blue
380 sheep hunting in the study area within the last five years. In Nepal's Dhorpatan Hunting Reserve, low
381 male to female ratio was attributed to poaching and selective hunting (Aryal *et al.* 2010). We also
382 observed many large groups (> 30 individuals) in both seasons especially in winter, when there were
383 seven groups with more than 90 individuals. Occurrence of such large groups is indicative of predation
384 pressure in the study area (Zhang *et al.* 2012). During our blue sheep survey in the lower part of LPR,
385 we sighted a group of three snow leopards in the survey area which was possibly a mother
386 accompanied by two cubs. We also sighted a pack of five dhole in the eastern part of LPR which could
387 be hunting blue sheep and yaks in the area. An existence of dietary overlap between dholes and snow
388 leopards needs to be investigated to determine the existence of inter-specific competition between
389 these two predators.

390

391 *Comparisons with density estimates from other regions*

392

393 Our estimated densities of blue sheep in both winter (8.51 per km²) and summer (9.32 per km²) were
394 much higher than those reported in the neighboring regions, although the estimates may be not
395 comparable because of different estimation methods. Blue sheep density was recorded at only 1.8
396 individuals per km² (n = 638) in Bhutan's Wangchuck Centennial National Park by Shrestha *et al.*
397 (2012) due to intensive predation by multiple predators such as grey wolf (*Canis lupus chanco*), dhole,
398 and snow leopard. Wilson (1981) reported a density of 2.6 blue sheep per km² (n = 1,000) in Nepal's
399 Dhorpatan Shikar Reserve where the population was heavily poached by humans. A higher density of
400 3.63 individuals per km² (n = 367) was observed in the Helan Mountain Region of China by Liu *et al.*
401 (2007), while a very high density of 9.4 blue sheep per km² (n = 213) was reported by Shrestha and
402 Wegge (2008) in the Phu Valley in Nepal. A possible reason for a higher density in our study area was
403 the lack of human-induced mortality such as hunting. In Nepal's Dhorpatan Hunting Reserve, a low
404 male to female ratio was attributed to poaching and selective hunting (Aryal *et al.* 2010).

405

406 **Implications for snow leopard conservation**

407

408 Our study firmly established a baseline estimate of blue sheep abundance and density in LPR for future
409 monitoring of population trends and for conservation planning. Additionally, our estimates of
410 abundance, density, and average group size were much higher than in other parts of the Himalayas.
411 Despite a small area of 745 km² comprising merely 490 km² of suitable habitat for the snow leopard,
412 the current blue sheep population in LPR can sustain a maximum of 21 snow leopards which is a
413 viable population size for a relatively small area. This is plausible, because LPR recorded the nation's
414 highest density of snow leopard (6.1 individuals per 100 km²) with 16 distinct individuals observed
415 during the recent nation-wide camera trap survey of snow leopards (Lham *et al.* 2016). All of these
416 indicate that LPR within JDNP is a hotspot for snow leopard conservation in the Bhutanese Trans-
417 Himalaya, and further highlight its localized regional importance in sustaining a high snow leopard
418 population supported by a healthy prey population.

419 In most of the snow leopard range countries, there are no reliable estimates of blue sheep
420 populations. Various researchers used different survey methods influenced by range of varying factors.
421 We consider the double-observer survey method as a relatively simple, fast, and highly robust
422 technique in estimating blue sheep populations as proposed by Suryawanshi *et al.* (2012). As
423 discussed, we made an improvement in the observation methods of this survey technique to increase its
424 precision. We strongly recommend the use of this improved method as a standardized technique to
425 survey blue sheep in all the range states. This is especially important in light of the global call for
426 securing all snow leopard populations in the priority landscapes by 2020 (Snow Leopard Working
427 Secretariat 2013), including the Himalayan countries. We additionally recommend extending the
428 application of our modified double-observer survey method for gregarious mammalian species in
429 mountainous terrain elsewhere. It is particularly relevant to the survey of mountain ungulates and also
430 primate taxa that are territorial which allows for proper blocking of survey sites and identification of
431 specific animal groups.

432 A snow leopard conservation plan in Bhutan should include efforts to minimize threats to blue
433 sheep populations. We recommend a comprehensive study on the impact of cordyceps collection and
434 tourism on blue sheep populations, as these activities occur during blue sheep's birthing period. We
435 also noted plastic bottles, plastic bags, snack covers, and empty metal cans recklessly dumped by
436 illegal medicinal plant collectors from across the border with China as well as by the local collectors.
437 Bhardwaj *et al.* (2010) made similar observations in India's Gangotri National Park where tourists and
438 pilgrims degraded blue sheep habitat with a multitude of garbage. In addition, we observed many large

439 herds of domestic yaks collectively grazing with blue sheep in almost all our surveyed areas with the
440 potential for zoonotic disease transmission across species. In fact, the domestic livestock population in
441 the LPR gradually increased from 9,645 in 2006 (DoL 2006) to 10,984 in 2013 (DoL 2013). Mishra *et*
442 *al.* (2004) and Shrestha (2007) while studying grazing competition between blue sheep and domestic
443 livestock in the Indian and Nepal Trans-Himalaya, observed dietary and habitat overlap between these
444 two taxa, more intensely in winter when fodder availability was low. We further recommend studies to
445 investigate the occurrence of such overlaps in Bhutan and elsewhere in the region. This has direct
446 implications for snow leopard conservation through future potential prey depletion.

447

448 **Acknowledgements**

449

450 We express our deepest appreciation to the Royal Government of Bhutan, particularly the Wildlife
451 Conservation Division of the Department of Forests and Park Services, for kindly permitting us to
452 carry out the study and also for providing financial support. We also thank the Rufford Foundation and
453 the Royal Society for Protection of Nature, Bhutan, for their supplemental funding.

454 Likewise, we sincerely acknowledge our field staff, particularly Dagay, Kinley Sithup, and
455 Gyeltshen, and local guides for their hard work and sacrifice in the harsh climatic conditions of the
456 study area. We also thank Om Katel and Ugyen Thinley of the College of Natural Resources, Lhendup
457 Tharchen of Jigme Dorji National Park, Sonam Wangchuck and Dechen Lham of Wildlife
458 Conservation Division, and Namgay Wangchuk of Jigme Khesar Strict Nature Reserve for their
459 support and guidance.

460 We appreciate the critical comments provided by Paul D. Curtis of Cornell University in the US
461 and all anonymous reviewers.

462

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List of figures:

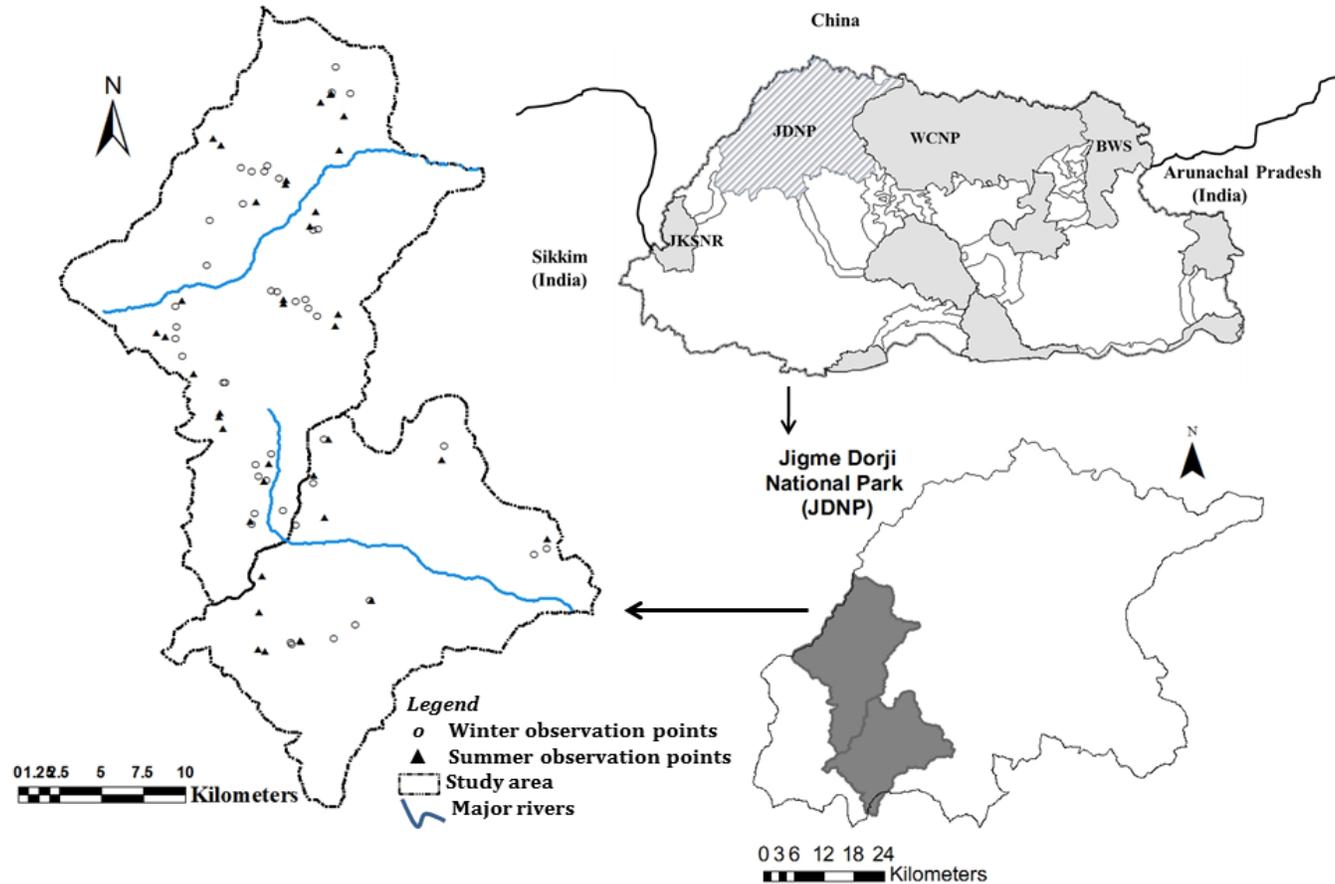


Figure 1. The map of Lingzhi Park Range in Bhutan's Jigme Dorji National Park, showing the survey areas and groups of blue sheep encountered during winter 2014 (hollow circles) and summer 2015 (filled triangles).

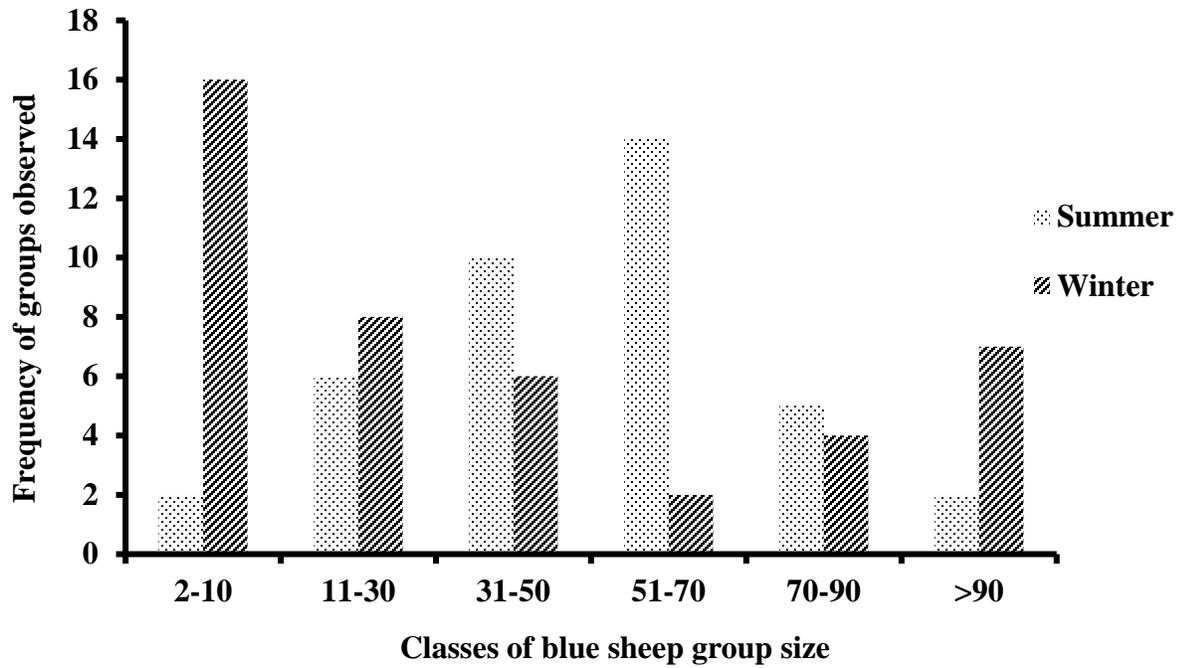


Figure 2: Blue sheep group sizes observed in winter of 2014 and summer of 2015 in Lingzhi Park Range of Jigme Dorji National Park, northwestern Bhutan.

List of tables:

Table 1. Summer and winter estimates of blue sheep population abundance (\hat{N}) and detection rate (p) in Lingzhi Park Range of Jigme Dorji National Park using the double-observer survey and estimation method developed by (Forsyth and Hickling 1997). B represents the number of groups observed in common by both observers, while S_1 and S_2 represent the number of groups only observed by the first observer and second observer, respectively. \hat{G} and $\hat{\mu}$ represent the estimated number of groups and average group size, respectively.

Variable	Winter 2014 – 15	Summer 2015
B	40	37
S_1	3	2
S_2	3	1
\hat{G}	46.22	40.05
$\text{Var}(\hat{G})$	0.25	0.06
$\hat{\mu}$	38.12	52.36
$\text{Var}(\hat{\mu})$	18	18
\hat{N}	1,762	2,097
$\text{Var}(\hat{N})$	39,511	29,566
$\text{SE}(\hat{N})$	199	172
$\text{SE}(\hat{\mu})$	5.99	4.28
p_1	0.93	0.97
p_2	0.93	0.95