

Chapter 6

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A meta-analysis of elephant impact

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Over most of Africa, elephant numbers have declined in the previous two centuries. Yet, those managing the 260,000 elephants in southern Africa often consider culling them as high elephant numbers are deemed harmful to biological diversity. Our review of scientific studies does not support this notion. A handful of studies dominate the literature. These show that elephants have a negative effect on tree densities. Short-term studies show that elephants have an immediate effect on plants. Long-term studies do not support this notion. Elephants also do not decrease the diversity of other species present in the system. The underlying premise for culling elephant is not justified.

Keywords: elephant impact; perceptions; plants; diversity; scale

1. INTRODUCTION

Across Africa, hunting and poaching have drastically reduced the number of elephants (*Loxodonta africana* Blumenbach and *L. cyclotis* Matchie) (Spinage 1973; Stiles 2004). The establishment of protected areas, their fencing and the provision of water has allowed elephant populations to rebound (Douglas-Hamilton 1987; Caughley *et al.* 1990). Fencing conceivably interfered with the role dispersal has in controlling population growth (see Chafota & Owen-Smith 1996) and water provision may enhance survival of juvenile elephants (Shrader *et al.* in review). Confining high densities of elephants may transform woodlands into shrublands or grasslands that may induce local disappearances of other species. This is what Caughley (1976) and others referred to as the “elephant problem”. Examples include Dublin *et al.* (1990), Cumming *et al.* (1997), Trollope *et al.* (1998), van de Vijver *et al.* (1999) and Western & Maitumo (2004).

At issue is whether managers should reduce elephant numbers to maintain biological diversity (e.g. Whyte *et al.* 2003). Several sub-Saharan conservation authorities have opted to cull elephants (Feely 1965; Pienaar 1966; Astle 1971; Hanks *et al.* 1981; Whyte *et al.* 1999). Gillson & Lindsay (2003), Goheen *et al.* (2004), Skarpe *et al.* (2004) and Wiseman *et al.* (2004) provide an alternative opinion. The impacts of elephants on vegetation depend on a large number of confounding variables. Global climate change, frequent fires, drought, disease and trampling may also reduce tree densities and transform woodlands into grasslands (e.g. Walker *et al.* 1981; Noy-Meir 1982; Gillson 2004).

We used meta-analytic techniques (Cooper & Hedges 1994) to synthesize the impact of elephants on components of biological diversity. We

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- (1) Establish which studies were most influential in shaping opinion on the impact of elephants,
- (2) Investigate what effects elephants have on vegetation,
- (3) Establish if elephant also affects other components of savannas, such as vertebrates and insects,
- (4) Investigate how the duration of the study and selection of response variables influenced the published findings.

Our results suggest that a biased citation of selected studies generated current perceptions. Certainly, elephants have adverse effects on individual plants. Despite that, we found that most evidence is inconclusive for the general negative impact on vegetation, other vertebrate and insect taxa.

2. METHODS

Computerised databases, references lists and the African Elephant Bibliography (<http://www.elephant.chebucto.net/index.cgi>) provided the information for our analyses. We considered only primary studies published up to 2004 in English peer-reviewed journals. To reduce dependence and bias we excluded symposium presentations and abstracts, newsletters, books and chapters in books, post-graduate theses and internal reports. We excluded studies conducted under artificial conditions such as zoological gardens and the response of exotic species to elephants. We documented the year of publication, study site, duration of the study, the design (e.g. replication and controls), and the number of times each study was subsequently cited. Author opinions were grouped into negative or non-negative (positive, neutral) classes.

Finally, we grouped together the response variables used by the studies into (1) individual plant structure (e.g. cover, height, crown/ basal diameter), (2) damage indices (percentage debarking, canopy removals) (3) population (densities, mortality, survival) and (4) community variables (diversity indices) separately for plants, vertebrates (mammals and birds) and insect taxa. For convenience in discussing our results, we will call all reductions in abundance, density, biomass cover, species richness etc, plus all increases in damage, as “reductions in abundances”. That is, henceforth, “abundance” becomes a catchphrase for all the various ways in which elephants affect other species.

3. ANALYSIS

We developed a standardised ranking score for each study to ascertain the most influential studies. The mean difference between the age of a given study and those that cited it, were divided by the age (in years) of that study. We then divide this value by the number of times that it was cited. Consequently, the highest ranked studies were those cited most frequently and for the longest available period since its publication.

We used Cohen’s d (Gurevitch & Hedges 1993) to calculate the effect sizes separately for experimental (with elephant exclusion control plots) and observational studies (those without). We interpret the overall effect size as the “reductions in abundances” elephants have for the taxa. For experimental studies, Cohen’s d is the difference in the response variable between treatment (elephant presence) and control (elephant absence), divided by the pooled average standard deviation (Gurevitch & Hedges 1993). For those studies that assigned elephant presence as controls in their study designs, we reassigned the published information as treatment values. In the

studies without controls, we divided the pooled average standard deviation by the difference in values of response variables between the beginning and end of each study. Only studies that reported sample sizes and indices of variability around the mean could be included in these analyses. Large differences and low variability will result in larger effect sizes (Gurevitch & Hedges 1993).

We used the Q -statistic in a mixed model analysis of variance to investigate heterogeneity amongst response variables. The Q -statistic is a measure of the degree to which the study outcomes (in this case Cohen's d) of the response variables share a common effect size (see Gurevitch & Hedges 1993 for further details). Here we defined the analysis units (k) as all the extractable response variables published in each study. Using the rank-correlation method of Begg & Mazumdar (1994) and calculating the 'fail-safe number' of Rosenthal (1991), we assess publication bias for the effect size values. The number of published response variables with non-significant outcomes in order to nullify the overall effect size constitutes the 'fail-safe number'. This serves as a measure of the robustness of the meta-analysis.

4. RESULTS

Our search yielded 230 articles in 57 journals published from 1961 to 2004 (Appendix B). The number of papers published per year increased with time ($F_{1,43} = 98.63$, $p < 0.0001$) and covered 72 sites across sub-Saharan Africa. Most studies (80.1%) lasted fewer than five years. Only 15.1% of the published studies included controls, that is, areas without elephants.

The 20 most influential publications account for 50.9% of all citations in our database (table 6.1), the rest of the 230 articles share the remainder. These highly ranked publications had a mean age of 27 ± 9.8 (SD) years, but age had no significant

Table 6.1. The twenty most influential publications, the number of times studies in our database cited them and the calculated importance ratio for each study.

Study	Number of citings	Importance ratios
1. Laws 1970	60	37.1
2. Caughley 1976	57	34.9
3. Buechner & Dawkins 1961	44	25.7
4. Anderson & Walker 1974	33	24.7
5. Van Wyk & Fairall 1969	31	21.9
6. Dublin <i>et al.</i> 1990	34	21.1
7. Pellew 1983	30	18.0
8. Croze 1974	29	17.7
9. Barnes 1983	28	17.1
10. Wing & Buss 1970	30	16.4
11. Jachmann & Bell 1985	24	15.7
12. Jachmann & Croes 1991	15	10.0
13. Cumming <i>et al.</i> 1997	16	9.4
14. Ben-Shahar 1993	17	9.0
15. Glover 1963	18	8.7
16. Field 1971	19	8.4
17. Thompson 1975	13	8.2
18. Leuthold 1977	14	7.3
19. Penzhorn <i>et al.</i> 1974	11	7.0
20. Guy 1981	11	6.8

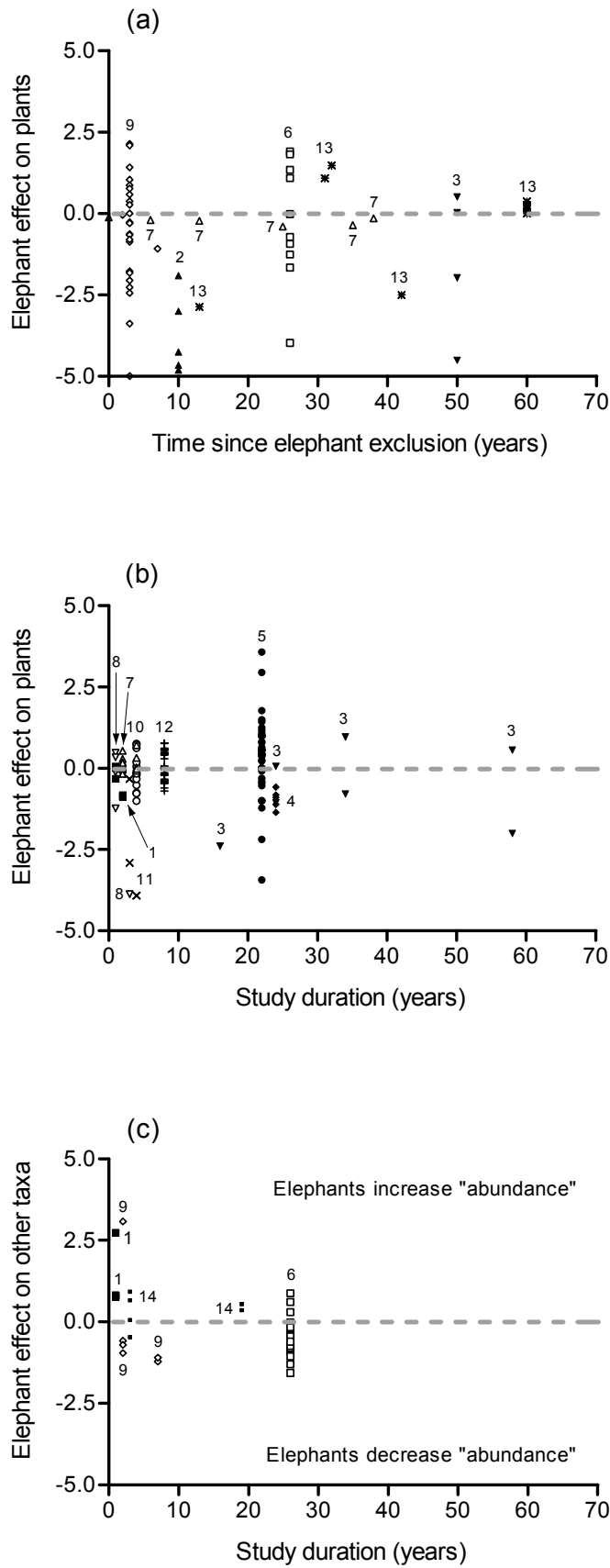


Fig. 6.1 Elephants either increase and/ or decrease plant “abundance” in

Fig. 6.1 (continue) experimental (a) and observational (b) studies. Other vertebrate and insect taxa (c) show a similar pattern for all the studies combined. Data points above the horizontal dashed line in each figure represent where elephants increase “abundance” – see methods for details. Numbers on the graphs represents the different study sites; 1 = Northern Botswana, 2 = Sweetwaters Game Reserve, 3 = Kruger National Park, 4 = Murchison Falls National Park, 5 = Kibale National Park, 6 = Mana Pools National Park, 7 = Sengwa Wildlife Research Area, 8 = Nazinga Game Reserve, 9 = Mpala Research Centre, 10 = Tsavo National Park, 11 = Amboseli National Park, 12 = Ithala Game Reserve, 13 = Addo Elephant National Park, 14 = Tembe Elephant Park. Data from Augustine & McNaughton 2004; Barnes 2001; Birkett 2002; Botha *et al.* 2002; Buechner & Dawkins 1961; Chapman *et al.* 1997; Cumming *et al.* 1997; Eckhardt *et al.* 2000; Fenton *et al.* 1998; Goheen *et al.* 2004; Guy 1981; Herremans 1995; Jachmann & Croes 1991; Keesing 1998; Leuthold 1977; Lombard *et al.* 2001; Mapaure & Campbell 2002; McGeoch *et al.* 2002; Musgrave & Compton 1997; Novellie 1988; Parker & Witkowski 1999; Western & Maitumo 2004; Wiseman *et al.* 2004.

influence on its ranking ($F_{1,18} = 3.22, p = 0.089$). Sixteen of these influential studies concluded that elephants had decreased abundance of taxa. (We use abundance in the special sense defined above). A significantly lower number (56%) of all 230 studies came to the same conclusion ($\chi^2 = 5.50, 1 \text{ d.f.}, p < 0.01$).

Only 15 experimental ($k = 86$) and 13 observational ($k = 141$) studies published adequate information for our meta-analyses. For all the taxa combined, our results show that elephants do not affect their abundances ($d = -0.07 \pm 0.01, p < 0.05$, 95% CI: -0.20 to 0.46, $k = 227$). However, when consider separately, experimental studies indicate that elephants significantly decrease plant abundance ($d = -0.50 \pm 0.03, p < 0.05$, 95% CI: -0.19 to -0.81, $k = 59$). With the observational studies (no elephant exclusion), elephants increase plant abundance non-significantly ($d = 0.04 \pm 0.01, p < 0.05$, 95% CI: -0.11 to 0.19, $k = 132$). Elephants further, had no apparent effect on taxa other than plants (e.g. mammals, birds and insects; $d = -0.08 \pm 0.03, p < 0.01$, 95% CI: -0.40 to 0.23, $k = 34$).

Study site characteristics may also influence these outcomes. While most of the data for plants show that elephants decrease abundance, for sites 6, 7, 9 and 13, there is no consistent pattern (figure 6.1a). At these sites, there are equal increases and decreases in plant abundance. Interestingly though, duration of experimental studies also influence outcomes – those conducted over a short duration showed decreases in abundance. Longer studies showed either no overall effect or even increase in abundance. The study at site 3 (figure 6.1a), where elephants reduce plant abundance over a 50-year period, suffered from poor replication ($n = 2$).

Similarly, for the studies without controls (figure 6.1b), plant variables tended towards an equal distribution of increasing and decreasing plant abundance (sites 5, 7, 8, 10 and 12), irrespective of time-period. In addition to this, the initial overall

increase in abundance elephants have for other taxa, such as for insects, also seems to decline with study duration, with study site 6 having equal responses above and below the neutral effect line (figure 6.1c). In general, though, study site confounds the result — studies with short duration are at different sites than studies conducted over longer periods.

It is clear from figure 6.1a-c that plants and other taxa vary greatly in their responses to elephants (amongst plants: $Q = 1956.6$, 225 d.f., $p < 0.0001$; between taxa: $Q = 492.3$, 2 d.f., $p < 0.0001$). Studies that focussed on how elephants decrease plants abundance mostly (90%) concentrated their efforts at individual (structural) and population (mortality and survival) indices. This is in contrast to those investigating the decrease in abundance for other taxa, with 70% of the responses reported at the community level.

Publication bias is prevalent in experimental studies ($r_s = -0.31$, $p < 0.001$), but not for observational studies ($r_s = 0.04$, $p = 0.54$). However, the ‘fail-safe’ number for experimental (2696) and observational studies (6883) both exceeded the number of published variables necessary to nullify the overall effect size (570 and 1065 respectively). We therefore consider our assessment robust.

5. DISCUSSION

The elephant-diversity debate is contentious. Elephants’ inducing structural changes in woody plants largely fuels the debate (e.g. Dublin *et al.* 1990; Cumming *et al.* 1997; Ben-Shahar 1998). Although savannas are in a continuing state of flux (Gillson 2004; Stephenson 2004), some consider such changes as unacceptable (Pienaar *et al.* 1966; Astle 1971; Cumming *et al.* 1997; Whyte 2004). However, support for the standpoint is not universal (e.g. Gilson & Lindsay 2003). Our meta-analyses challenge

some of the existing perceptions of the consequences elephants may have for savannas.

Interest and studies on the “elephant problem” have increased since 1961. A fraction of publications (20 of 230) dominates the debate on impact, as more than half the pertinent literature refers to them. This bias towards citing papers concluding that elephants have a negative effect on vegetation, may partly explain some of our current perceptions and interpretations of the “elephant problem”. Citation bias is common in science (Gates 2002). Factors include the directionality and magnitude of results, journal quality, article length, number of authors per article and institutional prestige (Møller & Jennions 2001; Murtaugh 2002; Leimu & Koricheva 2005). We argue that the interpretation in the directionality of results has contributed to the bias in the elephant-diversity debate.

This is of concern as it provides a rationale for conservation bodies to justify reducing elephant numbers as a management activity (e.g. Feely 1965; Pienaar *et al.* 1966; Astle 1971; Hanks *et al.* 1981; van Aarde *et al.* 1999; Whyte 2004) with political and economic implications (e.g. Bulte *et al.* 2004; Hambler *et al.* 2005). Our assessment shows that only half of all studies concluded that elephants had negative consequences for components in their environment. Management driven by an unbiased assessment should also consider the positive effects of elephants (e.g. Cochrane 2003; Goheen *et al.* 2004).

Our assessment supports the notion that elephants have a significant effect on plants. This makes sense as through feeding, they damage individual trees, shrubs and seedlings (e.g. Barnes 1980, 1983; Lewis 1986; Jachmann & Croes 1991). The impacts of elephants on plants are largely immediate, and this may contribute to short-term studies illustrating a negative effect. Such short-term studies that continued for

less than five years dominate (80%) our database and may ignore the recovery of vegetation. This is not unique, as short time periods dominate ecological studies in general (see Weatherhead 1986; Tillman 1989). Our analyses agree with Caughley (1976), Dublin (1991), Lock (1993) and Leutholds' (1996) assertions that increased study duration eliminates the apparent negative impact of elephants. Based on short-term studies, the ecological conclusions we reach, as well as our subsequent management actions, are biased and may be inappropriate.

The effect of elephants differs between the taxa included in our analyses (see Q-statistics). It is therefore inappropriate to consider the impact on one taxon as representative across other taxa, or on biological diversity. In addition, one cannot separate the responses measured in elephant studies from the contribution made by other herbivores or events such as fire and rainfall (e.g. Ben-Shahar 1998; Dublin *et al.* 1990; Cumming *et al.* 1997; Trollope *et al.* 1998; van de Vijver *et al.* 1999). Responses may also vary from site to site, further confining the interpretation of findings and the role of elephant in African savannas. One should consider the 'full suite' of community level responses. This may alter the perspectives of studies focussing on single species or even taxa. Only seven of the studies included in our assessment, however, reported response to elephants at this level. We need more information before we can comment on the consequences elephants may have at the community level. We found no overall support for the notion that elephants reduce species diversity (Cumming *et al.* 1997; Whyte 2004), despite their apparent adverse effects for individual plants. It is naive to link their apparent impact on individual plants to biological diversity in general. We therefore conclude that the interpretation of selected studies generate current perceptions.

Future quantitative assessments must rely on rigorous experimental protocols (for example Underwood 1997; Quinn & Keogh 2002) that include a range of spatiotemporal scales (Levin 1992; May 1994), the investigation of all relevant response variables (this study) and appropriate statistical information (Gurevitch & Hedges 1993). We disregarded half of all the studies in this meta-analysis that had proper experimental designs, but lacked sufficient statistical reporting.

Equilibrium based agro-economic arguments dictate the debate surrounding elephant management (confine movements, alleviate environmental constraints and impose constant values on animal populations; e.g. Macnab 1985). This no longer makes sense and we need to allow scale-dependent processes (Lewin 1986; Western *et al.* 1989) to drive conservation management (Gillson & Lindsay 2003). These may include plans to allow acting out dispersal and meta-population dynamics by establishing sink populations through range expansion into marginal areas. This could also allow for seasonal alleviation of ‘high’ elephant densities on a temporal scale, and initiates recovery periods for other components part of the larger system.

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