

1 **The unfulfilled potential of dogs in studying behavioural ecology and**
2 **evolution during the Anthropocene**

3

4 ABSTRACT

5 Dogs are an exceptional resource for studying ecological, behavioural and evolutionary
6 processes. However, several widespread misconceptions limit our understanding of dog
7 behaviour and inhibit the use of dogs as model study systems in diverse areas of biological
8 science. These include extensive anthropomorphisation of dog behaviour, a profound bias
9 towards almost exclusively studying pet dogs, a widespread belief that dog domestication was
10 human-driven and that the majority of dogs are not subjects of natural selection. Here we argue
11 that dogs should be studied using species-general fundamental principles of ecology and
12 evolution, and that the focus in dog research should shift towards free-ranging dogs, which
13 comprise ~80% of the global dog population. By reviewing the available literature on free-
14 ranging dog behavioural ecology we place the dog within an objective biological framework.
15 We find that free-ranging dog populations express substantial variation in their behavioural
16 ecology across their global range and propose that this variation is key to understanding dogs'
17 great success in the rapidly developing anthropogenic niche. Since free-ranging dogs have a
18 global distribution across various environmental gradients, including urbanization, climate and
19 social structures, they provide an ideal opportunity to collect comparable, large-scale data
20 across populations. Combined with in-depth knowledge of dog evolutionary history and the
21 advanced genetic tools specifically developed using this species, dogs can be an outstanding
22 model for the study of urban ecology and evolution.

23

24 1 INTRODUCTION

25 Dogs have interested scientists since Darwin (1859) discussed their behavioural and
26 morphological variation in *On the Origin of Species*, but the earliest explorations viewed dog
27 behaviour through a strongly anthropomorphic lens. Darwin himself (1871) considered the
28 possibility that dogs possessed a religious sense, and his neighbour, Sir John Lubbock,
29 published a pair of papers explaining how he trained his dog to pick up cards with words written
30 on them to convey its desires (Lubbock, 1884a, 1884b). Pavlov initiated a less
31 anthropomorphic research program using dogs in the 1890s (Pavlov, 1927), but this research
32 focused on the universal process of behavioural conditioning, and was not concerned with
33 exploring dog behaviour *per se*. After a brief focus on dog behavioural ontogeny, culminating
34 in Scott and Fuller's *Genetics and Social Behavior of the Dog* (J. P. Scott & Fuller, 1965),
35 interest in dog behavioural research declined until an abrupt revival at the end of the last century
36 (Aria et al., 2021). While these new studies have a range of purposes, including understanding
37 dog domestication (e.g., Marshall-Pescini et al., 2017; Hansen Wheat et al., 2019) and
38 behavioural genomics (e.g., Chen et al., 2021; Dutrow et al., 2022; Morrill et al., 2022), studies
39 focusing on cognitive skills that dogs might share only with humans have re-established an
40 anthropomorphic approach to dog behaviour that now dominates the field (e.g., Buttner, 2016;
41 Duranton & Gaunet, 2018; Hare et al., 2002; Hare & Tomasello, 2005; Topál et al., 2009).

42

43 Our goal with this review is to highlight the potential of the dog as a species for studying
44 behavioural ecology and evolution in the Anthropocene. As the majority of present-day wild
45 species live in environments influenced by anthropogenic change (Sih et al., 2011), research
46 addressing behavioural responses to urbanisation is urgent. Urbanisation has a substantial
47 effect on behavioural phenotypes. For example, it can influence the timing and duration of
48 breeding seasons and foraging behaviour (Lowry et al., 2013) and the expression of behavioural
49 syndromes can change, or even break down, between rural and urban environments (Bókony

50 et al., 2012; Scales et al., 2011). Because the present-day dog population is represented on
51 every continent with permanent human habitation across a wide range of ecological niches with
52 varying degrees of anthropogenic interference, dogs may be the best current model for in-depth
53 investigations of how urbanisation selects upon behaviour. Although many species express
54 high levels of adaptation to anthropogenically-altered environments, no other species offers the
55 unique set of qualities ideal for global, integrated, large-scale studies as the dog.

56

57 We will argue, however, that dogs' potential contribution to understanding adaptation to the
58 Anthropocene has been stymied by multiple factors including excessive anthropomorphism, an
59 over-reliance on pet dogs, and a failure to recognize that dogs are subject to natural selection,
60 among others. These systematic biases inhibit the full potential of insights to be gained from
61 studying dogs.

62

63 In order to place dogs within an objective biological research framework, as animals whose
64 behaviour is likely adapted to human-dominated niches, but is not meaningfully "human like"
65 (cf. Buttner, 2016; Duranton & Gaunet, 2018; Hare et al., 2002; Hare & Tomasello, 2005;
66 Topál et al., 2009), we will review their behavioural ecology with focus on 1) identifying the
67 behavioural variation across dog populations, and 2) understanding how this variation could
68 have arisen. In doing so, this review will emphasize the value that studies of under-represented
69 dog populations can have for other species. While dogs are a widely-used model species within
70 human medical research, (e.g., cancer (Gardner et al., 2016), gene therapy (Switonski, 2014)
71 and hereditary diseases (Correard et al., 2019; Hytönen et al., 2019)), their potential as equally
72 powerful models in evolutionary and ecological research remains mostly overlooked.

73

74 Below we outline this rich potential of dogs by emphasizing the vast variation in behavioural
75 ecology of the species seen across different anthropogenic environments, drawing on examples
76 from the free-ranging dog population. This illustrates the wide range of conditions to which
77 the dog has likely adapted, which together with its widespread global distribution and unique
78 and well-studied evolutionary history, makes the dog an ideal model species for studies in
79 urban ecology and evolution (*sensu* Verrelli et al., 2022).

80

81 2 RECALIBRATING OUR UNDERSTANDING OF THE DOG AS A SPECIES

82 Dogs are one of the most popular pets in the Western world, where they are often referred to
83 as family members, and the cliché “dog is man’s best friend” (ascribed to Frederick the Great
84 and Voltaire, (Laveaux & King of Prussia, 1789; Voltaire, 1824)) captures much of how this
85 animal is perceived in popular culture. Unfortunately, these images of dogs as human creations
86 and human-like companions have also dominated the recent scientific literature on dogs. We
87 outline here important ways that our perception of dogs needs to be recalibrated.

88

89 In this section we address the following misconceptions: 1) identifying that dogs have a unique
90 history of domestication that does not primarily depend on artificial selection; 2) clarifying that
91 only a minority of dogs can be classified as pets; 3) demonstrating that the vast majority of
92 dogs, even today, are subject to natural selection; and 4) concluding that the sum of these
93 misunderstandings is a distorted view of dog behaviour.

94

95 2.1 *Wolf Exaptation and Adaptation to Early Human-Modified Niches*

96 The evolutionary history of the dog is unique. Domesticated from now extinct wolf (*Canis*
97 *lupus*) lineages (Bergström et al., 2020; Freedman et al., 2014) during the last ice age, 40,000-
98 15,000 years ago (Perri et al., 2021), the dog is the first domesticated species of any kind and
99 remains the only domesticated large carnivore. Unlike the domestication of the majority of
100 animals, such as sheep and reindeer for resource management (Russell, 2011), or horses and
101 donkeys for transportation (Larson & Fuller, 2014), domestication of the dog was not instigated
102 by deliberate human action (Larson & Fuller, 2014; Zeder, 2012). Though the location and
103 timing of first dog domestication remains a matter of debate (Savolainen et al., 2002; vonHoldt
104 et al., 2010), there is broad consensus (Coppinger & Coppinger, 2001; Larson & Fuller, 2014;
105 Zeder, 2012) that the process was initiated when some ancestral wolves with reduced fear
106 associated themselves as commensals within the new niche created by humans (Boitani &
107 Ciucci, 1995; Larson & Fuller, 2014). These less fearful wolves exapted (Gould & Vrba, 1982;
108 Winchell et al., 2023) to human proximity were able to exploit a new food resource by
109 scavenging on human refuse, and thereby represent the first known example of exaptation to
110 an anthropogenic niche. As these wolves adapted further to the human niche, some of their
111 behaviours were initially serendipitously advantageous to their human hosts. These likely
112 included alarm and guard functions as well as aiding hunters as the climate warmed and
113 landscapes became more dense and difficult for human hunters to navigate (Perri, 2016).

114

115 Some authors refer to the process by which certain wolves adapted to human-modified
116 environments as “self-domestication” (e.g., Hare et al., 2012). However, we see no need for a
117 neologism to label this process. The initial process that gave rise to dogs aligns with the criteria
118 for natural selection – individuals exapted to a new niche then further adapted to this niche.
119 Only later in the process was artificial selection applied by humans recognizing useful
120 characteristics of these animals (Ritvo, 2010).

121

122 **2.2 *The Majority of Dogs do not Belong to the Pet Niche***

123 In the Western world, dogs are mostly viewed as pets: an animal defined by being owned by a
124 person for whom it serves no function beyond companionship (Tague, 2017). Estimates vary,
125 but of the global dog population of around a billion individuals (Gompper, 2014), only 17-24%
126 can be categorized as pets, restricted to households (Hughes & Macdonald, 2013; Lord et al.,
127 2013). Categorizing the approximately 80% of non-pet dogs is complex. In different parts of
128 the world, people may see themselves as having an emotional bond with dogs they do not
129 consider their property (Coppinger & Coppinger, 2001), or may consider dogs to be their
130 property without acknowledging any emotional connection to them (Coppinger & Coppinger,
131 2016). Human notions of ownership may also interact partially, if at all, with ecologically
132 relevant behaviours such as foraging and reproduction. Even when considered someone's
133 property or receiving food from people these dogs are free-ranging and thus forage and
134 reproduce with little human interference. Free-ranging dogs exist along multiple continua, of
135 which the most important for their impact on other species is foraging strategy. Independent of
136 whether people view them as owned or not, free-ranging dogs scavenge and hunt. The majority
137 of free-ranging dogs are scavengers (Coppinger & Feinstein, 2015). Dogs may scavenge even
138 if they are provisioned food by their owners (Muinde et al., 2021), or are occasionally
139 intentionally provisioned by humans, and unowned dogs who live in proximity to humans
140 generally obtain most of their nutrition by scavenging on human refuse while avoiding direct
141 contact with people (Boitani & Ciucci, 1995; Coppinger & Feinstein, 2015; Sarkar et al., 2019).
142 Some dogs hunt, but with highly variable success (Butler et al., 2004; Duarte et al., 2016), and
143 only a few populations likely subsists as true hunters, not reliant on human-originating food
144 sources (Coppinger & Coppinger, 2001; Duarte et al., 2016; Macdonald & Carr, 2016). Dogs

145 may transition between pet and free-ranging, as pets may be abandoned. These dogs are most
146 likely to become scavengers (Makenov & Bekova, 2016). Similarly, free-ranging dogs may be
147 adopted into human homes as pets (Coppinger & Coppinger, 2001).

148

149 McKinney (2006) identified three classes of animals found in urban environments: *urban*
150 *adapters*, *avoiders*, and *exploiters* (where “adapter” is being used in the absence of evidence
151 of trait heritability). Based on these groupings it is clear that free-ranging dog are encountered
152 in all three contexts: As *urban adapters* in environments where they rely on both anthropogenic
153 and non-anthropogenic resources (*sensu* Winchell et al., 2023, e.g. Bhattacharjee et al., 2017;
154 Butler et al., 2004; Mangalam & Singh, 2013); As *urban exploiters* where they rely heavily on
155 non-anthropogenic resources (*sensu* Winchell et al., 2023, e.g. Duarte et al., 2016); as well as
156 populations that live as *urban avoiders* in rural habitats (Boitani et al., 1995).

157

158 **2.3 The Majority of Dogs are Subject to Natural Selection**

159 The widespread assumption that humans significantly influence dog breeding creates a
160 misleading impression of the role of humans in dog reproduction at the population level (Hare
161 & Woods, 2013; Miklósi, 2015). A study in the United States, where most dogs are kept as
162 pets, estimated that only 50% of matings were under human control (New et al., 2004).
163 Comparable data do not appear to be available for other territories, but since the United States
164 has a relatively high rate of sterilization of dogs (70%, Clancy & Rowan, 2003), it is a
165 reasonable assumption that this represents a relatively high level of human control over pet dog
166 reproduction. Humans also exert artificial selection over free-ranging dogs via neutering
167 campaigns, and human action is major cause of mortality in free-ranging dogs (e.g. culling,
168 traffic collisions: Boitani et al., 1995; Coppinger & Feinstein, 2015; D. Macdonald & Carr,

169 2016; Pal, 2005). However, as human intervention on free-ranging dog reproduction is
170 unsystematic and population turnover rates are generally high, these effects are minimal on a
171 global scale (Evans et al., 2022; Gompper, 2014; Taylor et al., 2017). In sum, only
172 approximately 50% pet dog matings are under human control, and the proportion of free-
173 roaming dog matings affected by humans is likely to be close to zero. This then implies that
174 world-wide only around 10% (i.e., 50% of the approximately 20% of dogs that live as pets) of
175 dog matings are the outcome of artificial selection. Subsequently, contrary to the widely
176 expressed opinion that dogs today are primarily the outcome of artificial, human-controlled
177 reproduction (Hare & Woods, 2013; Miklósi, 2015), natural selection remains a major force in
178 dog evolution in the modern world.

179

180 ***2.4 Overrepresentation of Pet Dogs in Research***

181 Because pet dogs live in a very particular niche and form only a minority of the dog population,
182 their overrepresentation in dog behavioural research (see e.g., for reviews, Bensky et al., 2013;
183 Lea & Osthaus, 2018) is a source of bias and hinders our understanding of dog behavioural
184 ecology and evolution. Aria et al., 2020, using a co-occurrence analysis of keywords identified
185 four thematic clusters in papers referring to dogs published from 2006 to 2018. While this
186 analysis revealed that the interest in dog research has increased sharply during the study period,
187 none of these themes related to free-ranging dogs.

188

189 The widely used terms “feral” and “stray” to describe dogs that are not pets imply that these
190 are animals that have absconded from their proper place. However, since most dogs do not live
191 in the pet niche this perspective should be reversed: it is the pet dogs who are anomalous for
192 their intense, normatively captive, relationship with people. In order to avoid unsubstantiated

193 assumptions, we refer to dogs that are not restricted to human domiciles simply as “free-
194 ranging.” In some cases, these dogs may be perceived as the property of certain people, and
195 where this is reported we note it appropriately. Many studies, however, do not include data on
196 whether the dogs they observed were owned or not.

197

198 Ultimately, the shortcomings outlined above undermine the dog as a versatile and resourceful
199 model system for range of fields within ecology and evolution.

200

201 3 DOG BEHAVIOURAL ECOLOGY IN THE ANTHROPOGENIC NICHE

202 Free-ranging dog populations express substantial variation in their behavioural ecology,
203 occupying roles as urban adapters, exploiters or avoiders (*sensu* McKinney, 2006; Winchell et
204 al., 2023). This variation is key to understanding dogs’ great success in the human-dominated
205 niche across various environmental gradients, including urbanization, climate and social
206 structures. Below we review the available literature within this context for social, reproductive,
207 spatial, and foraging ecology, and behaviour expressed towards humans.

208

209 ***3.1 Social ecology***

210 *3.1.1 Pack structure*

211 Free-ranging dogs live in semi-stable social groups of varying sizes (Table 1) consisting of
212 multiple breeding individuals and juveniles (Bonanni et al., 2010a; Daniels & Bekoff, 1989;
213 Font, 1987; Pal, 2011). Contrary to earlier claims (Boitani et al., 2007a; Boitani & Ciucci,
214 1995), some free-ranging packs express high levels of kinship. Specifically, genotyping of free-
215 ranging dogs in Italy has demonstrated that packs are partially formed by the retention of adult

216 offspring from previous generations (Natoli et al., 2021). These results are supported by
217 observations of packs from India and the United States with known pedigrees (Daniels &
218 Bekoff, 1989; Paul & Bhadra, 2018). Retention of offspring in other species is commonly
219 associated with habitat saturation, cost of dispersal, or habitat quality (Emlen, 1982), and it
220 seems likely that similar factors play a role in the social ecology of free-ranging dogs. As we
221 mention below under Spatial Ecology, dispersal distances in free-ranging dogs are generally
222 low, which can further contribute to kin structure within packs. However, the extent to which
223 packs are made up of kin individuals as well as whether this social structure is affected by
224 ecological factors such as habitat and climate across dogs' global distribution is currently
225 unknown due to the lack of relevant studies.

226

227 It was previously thought that free-ranging dog packs lacked any higher social organization
228 (Boitani & Ciucci, 1995) similar to the age-graded linear dominance hierarchies seen in wolf
229 family groups (Packard, 2003). However, across five free-ranging dog packs recently studied
230 in central and southern Italy, it was found that dominance rank was positively associated with
231 age, and that age was a better predictor of rank than body size (Bonanni et al., 2017). Linear
232 dominance hierarchies based on age have also been observed in dog packs in West Bengal,
233 India (Pal et al., 1998a). Both these studies found that physical aggression was rare within
234 packs, and instead dominance was established by ritualized aggression (Bonanni et al., 2017;
235 Pal et al., 1998a) or submissive reversal (Bonanni et al., 2017), suggesting a tolerant dominance
236 style similar to wolves (Baan et al., 2014). Affiliative intra-pack relationships may also play an
237 important role in group-level decisions for free-ranging dogs. While older, high-ranking
238 individuals were found to take a leadership role more often in relation to group departures in
239 Italy (Bonanni et al., 2010b), this successful initiation of cohesive pack movement was
240 dependent on affiliative relationships rather than dominance status within the pack.

241

242 Studies of social behaviour in owned free-ranging dogs are sparse and mainly focus on social
243 networks with the purpose of modelling zoonotic disease risk (e.g. rabies). A handful of studies
244 has provided some insights on contact networks in owned free-ranging dogs in Chad,
245 Guatemala, Indonesia, Uganda, and Australia, where it has been demonstrated that
246 interconnectedness between individual dogs is high (Brookes et al., 2020; Laager et al., 2018;
247 Warembourg, Fournié, et al., 2021; Wilson-Aggarwal et al., 2019). These studies have also
248 revealed that dogs from households in closer proximity are more likely to be in contact
249 (Warembourg, Fournié, et al., 2021; Wilson-Aggarwal et al., 2019), and dogs in rural areas are
250 more connected than dogs in urban areas (Warembourg, Fournié, et al., 2021). However,
251 notwithstanding these studies, we currently know very little about the general social ecology
252 of this dog group. This includes questions regarding temporary pack formation, dominance
253 dynamics, and affiliative relationships, and how these social constructs in turn might vary
254 across populations or affect other behavioural ecologies.

255

256 *3.1.2 Reproductive ecology*

257 Various mating systems have been reported in dogs, including polygyny, polyandry,
258 polygynandry and promiscuity (Pal, 2005, 2011, Natoli et al., 2021). Genome-wide single-
259 nucleotide polymorphism genotyping has confirmed that polygynandry is the most common
260 mating system in an Italian population of free-ranging dogs (Natoli et al., 2021). However, as
261 commonly seen in the Canidae family (Macdonald et al., 2019), social monogamy, where the
262 same pair breeds over several years, has been observed in both Italy (Natoli et al., 2021) and
263 India (Pal, 2011). Furthermore, evidence from a study on dogs in Italy suggests that matings,
264 even in a promiscuous system, might be based on affiliative relationships (Cafazzo et al., 2014).
265 This great behavioural plasticity in mating systems across dog populations presents an

266 excellent opportunity to study how environmental factors affect reproductive strategies on a
267 large scale within the same species. While it has been proposed that readily available
268 anthropogenic food resources have led to selection for the loss of biparental care and
269 reproductive seasonality in dogs (Lord et al., 2013), far from all dogs have reliable access to
270 food, even in urban habitats. Additionally, monogamy does occur in dogs (Natoli et al., 2021;
271 Pal, 2011), and as detailed below, biparental care may be more common than previously
272 thought (Pal, 2005, 2017; Paul & Bhadra, 2018). Therefore, though environmental factors
273 undoubtedly have a substantial effect on present-day dog mating strategies, these factors are
274 likely highly complex and need to be adequately disentangled.

275

276 Female free-ranging dogs are commonly described to rear their pups without assistance from
277 the father or other pack members (Boitani et al., 2007a; Boitani & Ciucci, 1995). However, in
278 India free-ranging dogs have been frequently observed to engage in cooperative pup-rearing
279 such as allomaternal care (i.e., females providing nursing and food regurgitation to pups that
280 are not their own, Pal, 2017; Pal et al., 2021), nursing by multi generations of females (Paul et
281 al., 2014), and biparental care (e.g., food regurgitation and pup guarding by both parents, Pal,
282 2005, 2017; Paul & Bhadra, 2018). Although abundantly observed in free-ranging dog
283 populations in India, this type of cooperative breeding behaviour has to date not been reported
284 in populations in other countries. This may be because dogs in India are readily observed,
285 whereas dogs in more rural areas, as in Italy, den away from human settlements (Boitani &
286 Ciucci, 1995; Bonanni & Cafazzo, 2014), and avoid people (Boitani et al., 1995). Additionally,
287 as outlined above, free-ranging dogs adopt varying mating strategies. A minority form socially
288 monogamous pairs, like many other canid species (Macdonald et al., 2019), where biparental
289 care naturally follows. However, the generally polygynadrous mating-system of free-ranging
290 dogs (Natoli et al., 2021; Pal, 2011), combined with the documented offspring retention and

291 low dispersal distances (Natoli et al., 2021; Pal et al., 1998b, see below), will ultimately
292 produce packs with high levels of relatedness. This could, in theory, increase the likelihood of
293 cooperative breeding by kin selection (Hamilton, 1964). We therefore do not expect that
294 cooperative breeding and/or paternal care are unique to the free-ranging dog populations of
295 India. Furthermore, because cooperative breeding should also be more pronounced in habitats
296 with unpredictable food resources, the extent of cooperative breeding may be subject to
297 significant variation across dog populations as a result of interactions between kin relationships
298 within packs and availability of food resources. For instance, anthropogenic food resources
299 likely vary even within urban habitats, and some rural populations might experience large
300 fluctuations in prey availability. In some canid species, including wolves and African wild dogs
301 (*Lycaon pictus*), helpers only contribute to feeding pups if food is abundant (Harrington et al.,
302 1983; Malcolm & Marten, 1982). More studies are needed to disentangle the potential genetic
303 and ecological factors driving this social behaviour in dogs.

304

305 3.1.1 Territorial defence

306 Free-ranging dog groups have been widely reported to engage in cooperative territorial defence
307 at multiple sites (Italy: Boitani et al., 2007; Bonanni et al., 2010a, 2010c; Spain: Font, 1987;
308 India: Pal, 2015, 1998a; USA: Daniels & Bekoff, 1989), for instance by marking (Bonanni et
309 al., 2010c; Pal et al., 1998a) and barking (Bonanni et al., 2010c; Daniels & Bekoff, 1989; Pal,
310 2015). Additionally, detailed studies in Italy have demonstrated that dogs use complex
311 agonistic group-level behavioural displays to cooperatively defend their territory during
312 intergroup conflicts (Bonanni et al., 2010c). In these conflicts, dogs assess the relative size of
313 opposing groups before engaging in aggressive encounters. However, intragroup cooperation
314 is not equally distributed. The proportion of total cooperation within a group during intergroup

315 conflicts (measured as active engagement in agonistic behavioural displays towards the
316 opposing group) decreases with group size so that dogs in smaller groups are more cooperative
317 than dogs in larger ones (Bonanni et al., 2010a). Furthermore, the number of affiliative partners
318 a dog has within a group is positively associated with its likelihood to cooperate during
319 intergroup conflicts.

320

321 3.2 *Spatial ecology*

322 3.2.1 *Home range size*

323 Home range size varies dramatically across free-ranging dog populations worldwide (Table 1).
324 Studies report home range sizes from 8.4 ha in urban India to 1170 ha in rural Italy (Boitani et
325 al., 1995; Pal et al., 1998b). Individual free-ranging dogs in Brazil have home range sizes as
326 small as 0.0048 ha (Melo et al., 2020), whereas individuals in rural Puerto Rico have been
327 found to have home ranges up to 108 ha (Sauvé et al., 2023). Home range size for individual
328 owned free-ranging dogs have been reported to vary from 5.6 ha in rural to semi-urban
329 Indonesia (Warembourg, Wera, et al., 2021) to 350 ha in rural Chile (Schüttler et al., 2022).
330 Common for these studies (Table 1) is that home ranges sizes are subject to substantial
331 individual variation within dog populations, with some dogs having very small or very large
332 home ranges. While this variation in some instances can be related to age, sex, and/or
333 reproductive status (Dürr et al., 2017; Warembourg, Wera, et al., 2021), several abiotic factors
334 can significantly influence home range size. Free-ranging dog populations in less populated
335 areas (e.g., Italy, United States) rely on more unpredictable food resources than populations in
336 densely populated environments (e.g., India, Brazil), where scavenging opportunities are
337 abundant, which can lead to larger home range sizes. Similarly, while some owned free-ranging
338 dogs spend time at dump sites (Muinde et al., 2021), this group must be assumed to receive at

339 least some food resources from their owners (Schüttler et al., 2022; Warembourg, Wera, et al.,
340 2021), thereby reducing their need for roaming to forage. This could explain why owned free-
341 ranging dogs are often found in or near their household or village (Muinde et al., 2021; Pérez
342 et al., 2018; Vanak & Gompper, 2010; Wilson-Aggarwal et al., 2021). Home range size in this
343 dog group is therefore likely affected by factors that are likely highly individual and dependent
344 on the demography and habits of their owners (Warembourg, Wera, et al., 2021; Wilson-
345 Aggarwal et al., 2021). Lastly, for both owned and un-owned free-ranging dogs, home range
346 size is likely to change due to human disturbance, predator presence, season, or newly
347 discovered food resources (Boitani et al., 2007b; Carvalho et al., 2019; Pal et al., 1998b;
348 Wilson-Aggarwal et al., 2021).

349

350 **Table 1. Summary of spatial ecology metrics for free-ranging dogs across the world.** The following parameters
351 are listed: Country with specified study site, free-ranging dog type sampled, habitat in which the study was
352 performed, number of individual dogs (N) sampled with pack sizes given when whole free-ranging packs were
353 studied (note that for countries where multiple references are given N is referring to the study used to obtain home
354 range size), mean home range size in ha with median home range size for a few studies where mean was not given,
355 activity patterns of the dogs, habitat selection by the dogs, method used in the study, and reference.

Country	Dog type	Habitat	N	Mean home range, ha	Activity pattern	Habitat selection	Method	Reference
Australia								
<i>Northern Peninsula, Northern Territory</i>								
	Owned	Rural	135	6.79	NA	NA	GPS collars	(Dürr et al., 2017)
Brazil								
Minas Gerais	Un-owned	Urban	270	0.0448	NA	Food outlets	Capture-recapture	(Melo et al., 2020)
Augusto Ruschi Biol Res	Un-owned, Owned	Rural	17	NA	Cathemeral	NA	Camera trapping	(Zanin et al., 2019)

Serra do Japi Biol Res	Un-owned (presumed)	Rural	NA	NA	Crepuscular	NA	Camera trapping	(Carvalho et al., 2019)
Cambodia								
<i>Sung Treng</i>	Owned	Rural	13	117.28	Nocturnal	NA	GPS collars, camera trapping	(Ladd et al., 2023)
Chad								
<i>Guelendeng, Sarh</i>	Owned	Rural	174	42.5 (median)	Diurnal, Nocturnal	Household, village	GPS collars	(Wilson- Aggarwal et al., 2021)
<i>Moyen-Chari, Batha</i>	Owned	Rural	106	7.7	NA	NA	GPS contact sensors	(Warembourg, Wera, et al., 2021)
Chile								
<i>Navarino Island</i>	Owned	Rural	41	350	Diurnal, Nocturnal	Forest, infrastructure, coast	GPS collars	(Schüttler et al., 2022)
<i>Puerto Natales</i>	Owned	Urban	86	65	Diurnal	Infrastructure, households	GPS collars	(Pérez et al., 2018)
Ethiopia								
<i>Bale Mountains Natl Park</i>	Owned	Rural	119	NA	Diurnal	Grassland	Observations	(Perry et al., 2018)
Guatemala								
<i>Petén dept</i>	Owned	Rural, Urban	303 (HR)	5.7	Crepuscular	Roads, buildings	GPS contact sensors, FitBark tracker	(Cunha Silva et al., 2022; Griss et al., 2021; Warembourg, Wera, et al., 2021)
India								
<i>West Bengal</i>	Un-owned	Urban	5.5 (pack size)	8.4	NA	NA	Observations	(Pal, 2017; Pal et al., 1998b)
<i>Great Indian Bustard Sanctuary</i>	Un-owned, Owned	Semi-urban	25	45	NA	Human settlements, agricultural land, bare-ground	GPS collars	(Vanak & Gompper, 2010)
Indonesia								

<i>Flores Island</i>	Owned	Rural, Semi-urban	217 (HR)	5.6	Crepuscular	Roads, buildings	GPS contact sensors, FitBark tracker	(Cunha Silva et al., 2022; Griss et al., 2021; Warembourg, Wera, et al., 2021)
Italy								
<i>Abruzzo</i>	Un-owned	Rural	11 (pack size)	1170	Crepuscular	Woodland, prairie, ruins, dump sites	Radio-collars. Observations	(Boitani et al., 1995)
Kenya								
<i>Busia county</i>	Owned	Rural	29	12.34 (median)	NA	Household, fields, dump sites	GPS collars	(Muinde et al., 2021)
<i>Busia county</i>	Owned	Urban	44	8.14 (median)	NA	Household, fields, dump sites	GPS collars	(Muinde et al., 2021)
Puerto Rico								
<i>Jobos Bay Natl Estuarine Research Res</i>	Un-owned	Rural	5	108	NA	NA	GPS collars	(Sauvé et al., 2023)
Russia								
<i>Karelia</i>	Un-owned	Urban	NA	36.2	NA	NA	Observations	(Ivanter & Sedova, 2008)
Uganda								
<i>Soroti</i>	Owned	Rural, Semi-urban	149	5.7	NA	NA	GPS contact sensors	(Warembourg, Wera, et al., 2021)
United States								
<i>Alabama</i>	Un-owned	Rural	2 - 5 (pack size)	686.33	Nocturnal	Flood plains, dry upland	Radio-collars. Observations	(M. D. Scott & Causey, 1973)
<i>Arizona</i>	Un-owned	Rural	9 (pack size)	88	Crepuscular	Dump site	Radio-collars. Observations	(Daniels & Bekoff, 1989)
<i>Arizona</i>	Un-owned	Rural	3 (pack size)	19	Crepuscular	Dump site	Radio-collars. Observations	(Daniels & Bekoff, 1989)

356

357

358 3.2.2 Activity patterns and habitat selection

359 As for home range size, free-ranging dogs display great variation in activity patterns and habitat
360 selection. Across their distribution dogs have been reported to adopt diurnal, nocturnal,
361 crepuscular and cathemeral activity patterns (Table 1). This large variation in activity patterns
362 is likely an expression of local adaptation to a range of factors, such as climate (Wilson-
363 Aggarwal et al., 2021), foraging routines (Boitani et al., 1995; Daniels & Bekoff, 1989), prey
364 activity (Carvalho et al., 2019), predator avoidance (Carvalho et al., 2019), synchronization
365 with human activity (Banerjee & Bhadra, 2022; Boitani et al., 1995), and, for owned dogs,
366 owner routines and activities (Wilson-Aggarwal et al., 2021). For example, un-owned dogs in
367 rural Italy actively avoid human food resources such as dump sites during human activity hours
368 (Boitani et al., 1995), whereas the activity of urban-living dogs in India coincides with human
369 activity (Banerjee & Bhadra, 2022). While such activity patterns are likely driven by fear of
370 people in dogs in rural settings (urban avoiders) and a reliance on begging for food in dogs in
371 urban settings (Bhattacharjee et al., 2017), even urban-adapted dogs are sensitive to sudden
372 changes in their environment. This has been demonstrated in India, where an abrupt surge in
373 human activity in association with a festival caused a temporal displacement of a local, urban
374 free-ranging dog population, with a significant decrease in their daily activity patterns
375 (Bhattacharjee & Bhadra, 2021).

376

377 Studies on habitat selection in free-ranging dogs are sparse (Table 1). While drawing general
378 conclusions based on these studies is challenging, as they are inevitably confounded by the
379 study sites in which they were conducted (e.g. urban dogs cannot select woodland habitat like
380 rural dogs), some potentially valuable observations can be made. Owned dogs often select
381 habitat containing infrastructure, including buildings and roads (Table 1), yet such human-
382 made features can also influence their movement. In Chad (Laager et al., 2018), network
383 analyses demonstrated that contact between communities of urban owned dogs was restricted

384 by roads with high-intensity traffic. Similarly, in rural Italy, the core home range areas of un-
385 owned dogs have a lower density of roads than more peripheral areas, indicating a general
386 avoidance of roads (Boitani et al., 1995). It is therefore possible that infrastructure plays a
387 significant role in habitat selection for dogs in general, regardless of the habitat they live in or
388 their ownership status.

389

390 Lastly, pregnant dogs in urban India prefer to den in areas with high human activity (Majumder
391 et al., 2016). In rural Italy, female dogs den in close proximity to the group's core home range
392 areas, which are often not close to human settlements (Boitani et al., 1995). This variation in
393 denning sites likely reflects general differences in home range sizes between urban and rural
394 dog populations, but also the costs and benefits associated with proximity to human
395 settlements. Hence, while pups in densely human-populated areas suffer high human-caused
396 mortality (e.g., vehicle collisions, human interference, Pal, 2001), proximity to humans can
397 also provide easy access to food resources for the female and increase pup survival (Majumder
398 et al., 2016, Boitani & Ciucci, 1995).

399

400 *3.2.3 Dispersal*

401 The few available studies on dispersal in free-ranging dogs have found generally modest
402 dispersal distances. In a study of 64 litters in West Bengal, India, the average dispersal distance
403 for juvenile free-ranging dogs was only 1.7 km with no difference between males and females
404 (Pal et al., 1998b). While low dispersal distance could be expected in densely populated areas,
405 free-ranging dogs in a nature reserve near Rome, Italy, also disperse over relatively small
406 distances, and usually to neighbouring packs (Natoli et al., 2021). Using genetic sampling, the
407 Italian study further demonstrated how short-distance dispersal can create a kinship network

408 between neighbouring packs. This suggests that free-ranging dogs within the same area could
409 be more related than previously thought, which should be taken into account for future
410 population level studies. However, due to the lack of additional studies on dispersal in free-
411 ranging dogs it is currently unknown if dogs in general express short dispersal distances. Thus,
412 while studies have found that individual owned free-ranging dogs roam as far as 20.4 km from
413 their household in Chile (Schüttler et al., 2022), and travel average distances of 10.9 and 13.5
414 km daily in Cambodia and Kenya, respectively (Ladd et al., 2023; Muinde et al., 2021), it
415 remains unclear why actual dispersal distances are so much lower than widely reported roaming
416 distances. One potential explanation for short dispersal distances is that long-distance dispersal
417 in dogs could be costly and associated with negative fitness consequences. Since most dog
418 populations have promiscuous mating systems (Natoli et al., 2021; Pal, 2011), individual dogs
419 are not reproductively constrained by staying in, or close to, their natal habitat. The costs of
420 long-distance dispersal could therefore outweigh the cost of staying in the area as it might be
421 difficult to find other suitable habitat due to high population density. Dispersal might be also
422 be associated with increased mortality risk due to roads with high traffic (Laager et al., 2018),
423 or increased predation risk.

424

425 **3.3 Foraging ecology**

426 Free-ranging dogs are opportunistic foragers, and even owned dogs, though commonly fed by
427 at least one household (Schüttler et al., 2022), engage in both scavenging and hunting activities.
428 As outlined in section 2.2, the majority of dogs are scavengers, mainly on human refuse
429 (Coppinger & Coppinger, 2001; Sarkar et al., 2019) but also on carcasses (Boitani et al., 1995).
430 Hunting is scarce, but does occur (Butler et al., 2004; Duarte et al., 2016; Silva-Rodríguez &
431 Sieving, 2012). While remains of various wildlife species are commonly found in dog scat

432 (e.g., deer in Wisconsin: Bergeron & Pierre, 1981; coati in Brazil: Campos et al., 2007) it is
433 unclear whether these food resources are obtained via scavenging or hunting, and thus how
434 common hunting is in dogs. Hunting behaviour in free-ranging dogs has been reported in
435 various locations (Zimbabwe: Butler et al., 2004; Spain: Duarte et al., 2016; Chile: Silva-
436 Rodríguez & Sieving, 2012). However, the success of hunting as a foraging strategy among
437 dog populations varies dramatically. In Zimbabwe 236 owned free-ranging dogs were recorded
438 to only kill 20 prey within a year (Butler et al., 2004), whereas a single pack of 3-5 adult free-
439 ranging dogs depredated 57 small to medium-sized ungulates in six months in Spain (Duarte
440 et al., 2016). While motivational factors undoubtedly play a significant role in differences in
441 hunting success between owned and un-owned free-ranging dog populations since owned free-
442 ranging dogs are fed by their owners, a range of other factors likely also affects hunting success
443 in dogs. For instance, some un-owned dog populations may not have access to scavenging
444 resources, making hunting their only means of survival (Duarte et al., 2016). Yet, developing
445 successful hunting techniques is highly dependent on pack cooperation and cohesion, efficient
446 recruitment of juvenile pack members, and adjustment to the prey species in the habitat (Butler
447 et al., 2004, Duarte et al., 2016). Though sparsely observed and studied, hunting behaviour is
448 therefore likely to vary widely across free-ranging dog populations. Notably, some dog
449 populations have been reported to engage in advanced hunting strategies, selecting fawns and
450 females among medium-sized ungulates but not discriminating in their choice of prey among
451 smaller sized ungulates (Duarte et al., 2016). This preference for smaller prey, which is also
452 seen in wolves (Smith et al., 2004), is likely a strategy to save energy and reduce risk of injury
453 (Schoener, 1971).

454

455 The only *in situ* experiments on foraging strategies have been carried out on scavenging free-
456 ranging dogs in India. In Pune, in urban habitat, male dogs as well as pregnant and lactating

457 females have been found to be more efficient and sophisticated foragers than non-reproductive
458 females when presented with novel, experimental food packets (Mangalam & Singh, 2013).
459 Non-reproductive females on the other hand, compensate for their less efficient foraging by
460 actively food guarding. These results likely reflect a combination of variations in motivational
461 state, and males' and reproductive females' higher energy requirements (Mangalam & Singh,
462 2013). In urban and semi-urban habitats in Western Bengal, dogs have been observed foraging
463 both individually and in groups (Majumder et al., 2013). When foraging individually, dogs
464 seek to maximise both the quality and quantity of food sources (Sarkar et al., 2019), but at the
465 cost of increased vigilance behaviour (Bhattacharjee et al., 2020). In groups, dogs show less
466 selectivity of food resources and reduced vigilance, leading to more efficient exploitation of
467 food patches (Sarkar et al., 2019, Bhattacharjee et al., 2020). These observations align with
468 optimal foraging strategies (Pyke et al., 1977; Schoener, 1971), with dogs expressing flexibility
469 in foraging behaviour depending on context in order to maximize food intake (Sarkar et al.,
470 2019). However, foraging strategies are likely to vary across dog populations due to a range of
471 factors including habitat, dog density, pack dynamics, predator presence, and food resources.
472 Therefore, more studies on a wider, comparable scale are needed to understand how foraging
473 affects fitness in dogs.

474

475 ***3.4 Human-directed Behaviour***

476 Success in anthropogenic environments must to a large extent be driven by tolerance of human
477 proximity. Yet, besides the studies on habitat selection in anthropogenic environments, few
478 studies have directly explored the behavioural expression of free-ranging dogs towards
479 humans. However, valuable insights can be gained from the available studies.

480

481 Free-ranging dogs living in urban areas must be expected to encounter humans at significant
482 higher rate than dogs in rural areas. Unfortunately, comparisons between dogs living in these
483 different habitats are not possible as the majority of available studies on dog-human
484 interactions come from heavily urbanized areas in India. Still, dogs in these urban areas vary
485 in their sociability towards humans. Specifically, when dividing urban habitat into zones with
486 varying levels of human movement, dogs in the zone with the least human movement expressed
487 the lowest levels of sociability towards humans (Bhattacharjee et al., 2021). In Kolkata,
488 interspecific interactions with humans made up a larger proportion of social interactions than
489 intraspecific interactions with other dogs (Bhattacharjee & Bhadra, 2020). Under these
490 conditions of intense exposure to human presence free-ranging dogs experience both high
491 levels of persecution from humans, but at the same time rely on them for survival, sometimes
492 by begging for food (Bhattacharjee et al., 2017). This creates a landscape where dogs must
493 constantly assess the intentions of unfamiliar people. As an example, while dogs in Kolkata
494 were initially wary of unfamiliar experimenter, when given a choice in a long-term exposure
495 test between a person with a friendly disposition and a piece of chicken they choose social
496 contact over food (Bhattacharjee et al., 2017). In semi-urban settings in Ethiopia, owned free-
497 ranging dogs overall fled when approached by an unfamiliar experimenter, while 11%
498 expressed aggressive behaviour and 6% expressed friendly behaviour (Ortolani et al., 2009).
499 Additionally, the social context the dog was in had a significant effect on the behavioural
500 response, with dogs in groups being less likely to flee or displaying aggressive behaviour.
501 While most free-ranging dogs in this study are presumed to be owned and therefore at least to
502 some degree socialized, it may seem counterintuitive that only a minority of dogs expressed
503 human-directed sociability. However, sociability towards strangers could be less important in
504 owned free-ranging dogs because they are already fed at home. In contrast, for un-owned dogs
505 in urban environments, as in India, affiliative relationships with people might have greater

506 potential fitness consequences because food resources obtained directly from humans are more
507 important for survival (Bhattacharjee et al., 2017). In line with this, *in situ* experiments in urban
508 Morocco suggest that free-ranging dogs can engage in interspecific social learning (Cimarelli
509 et al., 2023). Specifically, dogs were able to adopt novel foraging strategies based on the
510 observed behaviour of an unfamiliar human demonstrator using a novel foraging box
511 containing a food reward. The ability to exploit new resources through innovative learning
512 could give dogs living as scavengers in close proximity to people a substantial fitness
513 advantage.

514

515 In sum, even in urban environments, levels of urbanization and human presence create
516 gradients affecting expression of human-directed social behaviour in dogs. While no good
517 comparable data is available for rural populations, we note that free-ranging dogs in Italy are
518 reported to avoid hours of human activity (Boitani et al., 1995), suggesting a fear of people.
519 Although studies on human-directed sociability in free-ranging dogs are scarce, the available
520 research indicates that this is a highly complex behaviour with many fine-scale interactions
521 between habitat, food resources and exposure to humans in contexts where individual animals
522 also learn from their life experiences.

523

524 5. CONCLUDING REMARKS AND FUTURE DIRECTIONS

525 In this review we have sought to recontextualize the dog as a study species. Much current
526 research on dog behaviour views dogs as products of human intention with human-like
527 cognitive capacities, possibly unique in the animal kingdom (see Buttner, 2016; Duranton &
528 Gaunet, 2018; Hare et al., 2002; Hare & Tomasello, 2005; Topál et al., 2009). Contrary to this
529 highly anthropomorphic view, that focusses on the approximately 20% of the global dog

530 population living as pets, we argue that, while thoroughly integrated into human-dominated
531 environments, the dog has a well-defined species ecology.

532

533 Studies on the 80% of dogs that are free ranging remain sparse. The lack of standardization
534 across studies and limited knowledge of the history of populations studied, makes comparisons
535 challenging and leaves important questions relating to fitness and adaptation unanswered. For
536 instance, it is currently difficult to disentangle the many environmental and demographic
537 factors within and across studies potentially affecting spatial ecology in dogs to adequately
538 compare rural and urban populations. Additionally, while it is highly likely that the different
539 behaviours observed in different populations of free-ranging dogs constitute a component of
540 their adaptations to human-dominated environments, in the absence of any research on the
541 heritability of these behaviours, this can only constitute plausible speculation. We therefore
542 encourage studies on the heritability of dog behaviours with documented variation across
543 populations to clarify which behavioural differences are indeed adaptations. Furthermore, in-
544 depth behavioural experiments have so far been limited to sites in India and Italy, though with
545 a promising new field site in Morocco. Lastly, a substantial proportion of free-ranging dogs are
546 likely affiliated with particular people on a more permanent basis, with some being owned, but
547 without being restricted. Owner demographics likely have a significant impact on the behaviour
548 of these dogs in complex interaction with ecological factors. However, the added value to our
549 understanding of dog behaviour in a more natural setting from studying owned free-ranging
550 individuals should not be diminished.

551

552 To move the field forward we suggest studies on free-ranging dogs at more locations, with a
553 coordinated effort to standardize protocols and designs across global study sites for large-scale
554 comparisons. The limited research on free-ranging dogs is particularly disappointing because

555 the highly heterogenic environments in which dogs live on a global scale, combined with our
556 in-depth knowledge of their evolutionary history and the advanced genetic tools specifically
557 developed using dogs (Dutrow et al., 2022; Morrill et al., 2022; Parker et al., 2017; vonHoldt
558 et al., 2010) offer a unique set of advantages for comparisons across populations.

559

560 The many advantages of the dog also highlight the strength and value of this species' potential
561 as a model for a range of fields. Specifically, dogs provide an opportunity to collect comparable
562 data across different climatic zones, social groupings, and levels of urbanization, where diverse
563 behavioural ecologies can be found within one species. Studies like this could be of great value
564 especially to urban ecology and evolution.

565

566 Finally, studies on free-ranging dogs will also help advance our understanding of the behaviour
567 of pet dogs. These dogs have enormous economic and emotional significance to hundreds of
568 millions of people. Ongoing attempts to understand the underlying mechanisms of dog
569 behaviour, which are central to dog training and other aspects of human-pet dog interaction,
570 are grossly limited when the animals are not free to express species-typical behaviours but are
571 rather continuously buffered by human intervention in their lives.

572

573 In conclusion, this review has sought to highlight how a range of misconceptions and biases
574 surrounding the dog as a species hinders the study of its behaviour, and how free-ranging dogs
575 can provide an outstanding model for the study of urban ecology and evolution.

576

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