

1 **Title:** Spatial bias in dietary studies can limit our understanding of the feeding ecology of large  
2 carnivores

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4 **Authors:** Cerri, J.<sup>1</sup>, Brogi, R.<sup>1</sup>, Musto, C.<sup>2</sup>, Bassi, E.<sup>1</sup>, Ventura, G.<sup>3</sup>, Bianchi, A.<sup>3</sup>, Delogu, M.<sup>2</sup>,  
5 Scandura, M.<sup>1</sup>, Apollonio, M.<sup>1</sup>

6

7 **Affiliations:**

8 1. Department of Veterinary Medicine, University of Sassari, 07100, Sassari, Italy. email

9 2. Department of Veterinary Medical Sciences, University of Bologna, 40064, Bologna, Italy

10 3. Istituto Zooprofilattico della Lombardia e dell'Emilia-Romagna "B. Ubertini", 25124,  
11 Brescia, Italy

12

13 **Corresponding author:**

14 ● Jacopo Cerri, Department of Veterinary Medicine, University of Sassari, 07100, Sassari,  
15 Italy. email: jcerri@uniss.it

16

17 **Abstract**

18 Many large carnivores have broad geographical ranges, encompassing ecosystems with a different  
19 prey base. Our understanding of their diet could therefore be biased by the spatial concentration of  
20 dietary studies into few areas. We propose a protocol to divide the geographical range of large  
21 carnivores, into areas that are homogeneous with respect to available food sources, by using the  
22 grey wolf (*Canis lupus*) in Italy, as a case study.

23 We mapped the potential maximum distribution of wolves, on a 10 km grid (n = 2,497), and then  
24 performed cluster analysis to classify cells according to their: *i*) abundance of domestic and wild  
25 ungulates, *ii*) suitability for the coypu (*Myocastor coypus*) and *iii*) landscape anthropization.

26 Finally, we checked the percentage of cells in each cluster that were covered by dietary studies in  
27 2007-2013, 2014-2018 and 2019-2023.

28 The distribution range of wolves in Italy can be divided into 5 areas, characterized by different  
29 food sources but also by a different spatial coverage from dietary studies. The Alps and some  
30 sectors of the Apennines, with low anthropization and abundant wild ungulates, were oversampled.  
31 More anthropized areas in Central and Southern Italy, rich in sheep and wild ungulates, as well as  
32 anthropized lowlands, with abundant food waste and coypu, were undersampled. Finally, no study  
33 was carried out in intensive farming districts of Northern Italy.

34 Our protocol indicates that future studies about the diet of wolves in Italy should focus on  
35 anthropized landscapes. There, the consumption of pets could trigger wolf persecution and pathogen  
36 transmission, and predation on coypu and the consumption of food waste could increase the  
37 exposure to toxic compounds.

38 More broadly, our protocol can improve our understanding about the feeding ecology of large  
39 carnivores, as it can be used to: *i)* assess and put into perspective meta-analytic findings, *ii)* identify  
40 knowledge gaps arising from spatial bias and prioritize new studies in undersampled areas and *iii)*  
41 design sampling schemes for large-scale research.

42

43 **Keywords:** mammals; diet; predation; carnivores; synthesis research

44

## 45 **Introduction**

46 Meta-analyses summarize and advance existing knowledge about the biology, ecology, evolution,  
47 and conservation of animals and plants (Gurevitch et al., 2018), and reveal the occurrence,  
48 magnitude, and spatiotemporal variation of ecological dynamics (Peters, 2010).

49 However, the increase in meta-analyses in ecology and evolution, since the early 2000s (Cadotte et  
50 al., 2012; Vetter et al., 2013), came hand-in-hand with the growing awareness that aggregating  
51 different studies is challenging, particularly in fast-evolving fields like ecology, ethology or  
52 evolutionary biology. On the one hand, the reliability of a meta-analysis depends upon the  
53 transparency and standardization of data collection protocols across studies, with differences in  
54 measurements and/or analytical methods resulting into spurious findings (Gurevitch et al., 2018;  
55 Nakagawa et al., 2017; Whittaker, 2010). On the other hand, the generalizability of its conclusions  
56 depends upon the quality of the sampling strategy and, for ecological dynamics that vary in space,  
57 the geographical balance of the various studies that are summarized. A well-known example is  
58 spatial-bias, with most peer-reviewed studies being conducted in the Global North, in more  
59 accessible areas, or in parks and natural reserves (Christie et al., 2020; Di Marco et al., 2017;  
60 Hughes et al., 2021).

61 Large carnivores have been the focus of many reviews and meta-analyses that covered, among the  
62 others, their long-term population dynamics and range shifts (Ingeman et al., 2022; Jacobson et al.,  
63 2016; Murphy et al., 2022; Strampelli et al., 2022; Wolf and Ripple, 2017), movement ecology  
64 (Gonzalez-Borrajo et al., 2016; Morales-González et al., 2022), genetic diversity (Hindrikson et al.,  
65 2017; O'Brien et al., 2017), and interspecific relationships (Franchini and de las Mercedes  
66 Guerisoli, 2023; Périquet et al., 2014). Perhaps, one of the most covered topics is carnivores diet  
67 (Table 1), due to its major implications for ecosystem dynamics. Many large carnivores rely on wild  
68 ungulates as a prey base: once these are depleted, they can either perish (Carbone et al., 2011; Wolf  
69 and Ripple, 2017) or shift to alternative food sources (Creel et al., 2017), including livestock or  
70 human food waste, two food sources that may create conflicts with humans (van Eeden et al., 2017;

71 Newsome et al., 2014). Reviews about the diet of large carnivores are therefore fundamental to  
72 understand how they can respond to human impacts on wildlife and ecosystem, and therefore result  
73 crucial to plan their management. It may be the case of top predators with a wide dietary breadth,  
74 which, differently from strictly specialist carnivores, can shift to livestock or other anthropogenic  
75 resources according to the local availability of the different items (Ferretti et al., 2020), which in  
76 turn depends on human impacts and landscape transformations (Kuijper et al., 2024; Newsome et  
77 al., 2014).

78 Understanding dietary breadth was the scope of many reviews about large carnivores, particularly  
79 for adaptable species with a large geographical range and living alongside humans. Nevertheless,  
80 spatial bias is likely to limit the generalizability of their findings. As resource selection is an  
81 adaptive process (Manly et al., 2007), with predators adapting to available prey in a certain area, a  
82 review based on studies covering only part of the geographical range and only specific  
83 environmental types among those inhabited by a large carnivore is unlikely to capture its whole  
84 dietary breadth. This problem is exacerbated for those species whose geographical distribution  
85 expands or shifts through time, often to environmental types which were not included in their  
86 former range. Some large carnivores in Europe and North America are in fact recovering part of  
87 their historical range (Chapron et al., 2014; Miller et al., 2013), with human-dominated landscapes  
88 being increasingly represented within their distribution ranges (Kuijper et al., 2024, Zanni et al.,  
89 2023). As dietary studies require time for data collection and processing, the rhythm to which they  
90 are published might not match these fast spatiotemporal dynamics, resulting in increased spatial  
91 bias through time.

92 While spatial-bias has already been mentioned as a potential limitation for research about large  
93 carnivore diet (Newsome et al. 2016), to the best of our knowledge no study quantified it, nor  
94 proposed a workflow to detect it. Evaluating if published literature is biased, with respect to the  
95 ecological conditions characterizing the whole range of a certain species, can be used both  
96 beforehand and retrospectively. By checking for spatial bias in advance, researchers can decide

97 whether existing literature is suitable to carry out a meta-analysis or even to study the diet of a  
98 certain species in a geographical region where no study has been conducted before. Conversely, the  
99 post-hoc exploration of spatial-bias could be used to put existing scientific evidence into  
100 perspective.

101 In this study we aim to show how spatial and ecological bias in dietary studies involving large  
102 carnivores could be assessed and evaluated, by using the expansion of the gray wolf (*Canis lupus*)  
103 in Italy as a case study. Gray wolf can indeed be considered the most successful large carnivore at  
104 recolonizing the human-dominated portion of its former range in Europe (Kuijper et al. 2024) and  
105 Italy is among the European countries that, since the 1970s, had the most marked increase in wolves  
106 (Boitani et al., 2022, Zanni et al. 2023). Starting from a small population of a few hundred  
107 individuals in remote areas of Central Italy (Zimen and Boitani, 1975; Cagnolaro et al., 1974), at  
108 least 2,945 – 3,608 individuals are nowadays thought to be present (La Morgia et al., 2022),  
109 upsetting the scenarios for wolf conservation and coexistence in the country.

110 Even though wolves are known to have a wide trophic niche, and can include in their diet also  
111 unexpected resources (Adams et al., 2010; Barocas et al., 2018; Mohammadi et al., 2019; Roffler et  
112 al., 2022) most reviews regard wild ungulates, or alternatively livestock, as the cornerstone of their  
113 diet, with other food sources playing a minor role (Capitani et al. 2004; Janeiro-Otero et al., 2020;  
114 Meriggi et al., 2011; Mattioli et al. 2011, Meriggi and Lovari, 1996; Mori et al., 2017; Newsome et  
115 al., 2016; Zlatanova et al., 2014). However, if wolves had truly relied on wild ungulates, it is  
116 unclear how they could be colonizing peri-urban areas and croplands (Torretta et al., 2022; Zanni et  
117 al., 2023), where ungulates are less abundant and where recent evidence suggests they rely on  
118 alternative food sources (Ciucci et al., 2020; Ferretti et al., 2019; Musto et al., 2024).

119 The surprising speed of wolf expansion in Italy, leading to the recovery of most of its historical  
120 range (differently from other European countries, e.g., Spain, Clavero et al., 2023), made Italy a  
121 perfect workbench to highlight potential spatial biases in wolf diet literature. We did so by  
122 considering three temporal windows for which wolf occupancy data are available (2007-2012,

123 2013-2018 and 2019-2023) and then by comparing the ecological conditions characterizing i) the  
124 spatial distribution of wolves in Italy and ii) that of study areas of wolf diet research.

125

## 126 **Methods**

### 127 **Collection of studies and inclusion criteria**

128 Data collection adopted a threefold approach. First, we extracted all those studies that were  
129 mentioned in reviews about wolf diet (Janeiro-Otero et al., 2020; Meriggi et al., 2011; Mori et al.,  
130 2017; Newsome et al., 2016; Zlatanova et al., 2014), and that were conducted in Italy between 2007  
131 and 2023.

132 Moreover, we also searched for the keywords “*Canis lupus*”, “*wolf*” and “*diet*” (similarly to  
133 Newsome et al., 2016) on three large datasets of scientific publications: Scopus, Web of Science,  
134 and Google Scholar. Then, from this second pool of studies, we selected those which had been  
135 carried out in Italy, and were published between 2007 and 2023. As the period when data had been  
136 collected was not always reported, and results were often not splitted between different years, we  
137 used the year of publication to assign each study to one of our three periods. By doing so we  
138 obtained insights about studies that were carried out after the most recent review about wolf diet  
139 (Janeiro-Otero et al., 2020), or that had been discarded by previous reviews, but whose spatial  
140 location was informative about potential spatial biases.

141 Finally, we also collected available gray literature about wolf diet in Italy. This included non-peer  
142 reviewed documents, such as dissertations of MSc and PhD students that had not been subsequently  
143 published in a peer-reviewed journal, or reports published by local authorities and protected areas.  
144 As dissertations are not always adequately indexed on the archives of Italian universities, we used  
145 snowballing. First, we queried “*Dieta lupo*”, the Italian translation of “*Wolf diet*” on university  
146 archives and Google. Then, starting from an initial sample of Msc thesis that we previously knew  
147 about, we asked mentors if they had supervised other students on the same topic, between 2007 and  
148 2023. Finally, we also asked colleagues from other research groups if they could indicate some gray

149 literature on the topic, until no new studies were detected. From the pool of studies that we had  
150 obtained, we retained those for which it was possible to understand where data had been collected,  
151 with respect to the grid used by the Ministry for the Environment to quantify wolf occupancy in  
152 2019-2021 (La Morgia et al., 2022).

153 Although different methods for investigating wolf diet may provide different results (Klare et al.,  
154 2011), we did not discard studies according to the method they used as our meta-analysis focused  
155 on assessing spatial bias. So, we pooled together studies relying on scat analysis, barcoding,  
156 stomach contents and isotopes.

157

### 158 **Quantification of spatial location, measurements and statistical analysis**

159 We used a 10-km resolution grid produced by the Ministry of the Environment (La Morgia et al.  
160 2022), to identify: *i*) the distribution of wolves, *ii*) environmental conditions and *iii*) the spatial  
161 coverage of studies about wolf diet in peninsular Italy.

162 For the 2019 – 2023 period, for peninsular Italy we used the whole grid produced by La Morgia et  
163 al. (2022), whose cells had an occupancy probability different from zero. Moreover, we also added  
164 those cells in the Alps, where the presence of wolves was confirmed (La Morgia et al., 2022). For  
165 the 2007-2013 and 2014-2018 periods, we used official distribution maps from official reports of  
166 the Habitat directive (<http://reportingdirettivahabitat.isprambiente.it/>). To ensure consistency  
167 between the three different periods these maps were aligned to the grid developed by La Morgia et  
168 al. (2022). A complete overview of wolf distribution in these three periods is available in Fig. 1.

169 Then, for each cell of the grid we extracted variables related to the main food sources available to  
170 wolves. These included: anthropization and the presence of domestic livestock, wild ungulates, and  
171 the coypu (*Myocastor coypus*).

172 Anthropization is an important factor affecting wolf diet, mostly through food waste, which is a  
173 nearly unlimited food source. Although wolves do not fully exploit carbohydrates (Axelsson et al.,  
174 2013), evidence from non-European countries indicate that they exploit food waste whenever

175 available (Barocas et al., 2018; Mohammadi et al., 2019), probably by selecting for meat scraps and  
176 bones. Moreover, wolves living around human settlements could also prey on pets (Bassi et al.,  
177 2017; Kojola et al., 2022; Nowak et al., 2011). We quantified anthropization by calculating  
178 evenness of human density, quantified at a 1km resolution through the Global Human Settlement  
179 Layer (<https://human-settlement.emergency.copernicus.eu/index.php>), for each cell of our grid.  
180 Evenness was quantified through the Gini index, which varies from 0, when all the units of a  
181 sample have the same value of a certain measure, to 1 when one unit has the entire amount of that  
182 value. Therefore, the Gini index in our case was negatively associated with human presence, with  
183 cells having the lowest values being characterized by widespread human settlements and having a  
184 higher amount of food waste.

185 We also considered the abundance of domestic livestock, particularly sheep, cattle, and domestic  
186 pigs, that can be regularly preyed on by wolves (Gervasi et al., 2021). Moreover, the abundance of  
187 livestock could also account for the availability of carrion and slaughterhouses in the environment,  
188 important supplementary food sources for wolves (Ciucci et al., 2020; Ćirović and Penezić, 2019).  
189 For domestic livestock, we used 10km abundance projections generated by the Food and  
190 Agriculture Organization and structured in the Gridded Livestock of the World database (GLW4,  
191 <https://data.apps.fao.org/catalog/dataset/15f8c56c-5499-45d5-bd89-59ef6c026704>), related to the  
192 abundance of sheep, cattle, and domestic pigs.

193 For wild ungulates, we considered the five most preyed on by wolves in Italy: roe deer (*Capreolus*  
194 *capreolus*), deer (*Cervus elaphus*), wild boar (*Sus scrofa*), fallow deer (*Dama dama*) and Northern  
195 chamois (*Rupicapra rupicapra*) (Gazzola et al. 2007, Mattioli et al. 2011). We did not consider the  
196 mouflon (*Ovis gmelini musimon*), which is distributed with scattered populations in the Italian  
197 peninsula, although occasionally it could represent an important prey (Capitani et al. 2004).  
198 Moreover, we did not consider the Sika deer (*Cervus nippon*), because its distribution in Central  
199 and Northern Italy is still uncertain (Mori et al., 2024). Neither we considered the Alpine ibex  
200 (*Capra ibex*), as it seems to play a minor role in the diet of alpine wolves (Palmegiani et al. 2013).



201 For wild ungulates, we relied on 10-km hunting yield density maps elaborated within the  
202 ENETWILD project (ENETWILD consortium, 2022), using them as relative indexes for the local  
203 abundance of each wild ungulate species. Although the ENETWILD maps predict low values for  
204 the abundance of a certain species, even in areas lying outside of its actual distribution range, we  
205 used them as they were the only available information about the occurrence and abundance of  
206 multiple ungulate species at the national scale, in Italy. Moreover, in cluster analysis (see the  
207 following lines), areas with a different prey base were identified mostly by high densities of the  
208 various species, and therefore this bias was not deemed to affect our results.

209 Finally, we also included the potential environmental suitability of the Italian peninsula for the  
210 coypu. Recent studies found out that the coypu can be an important prey, in some agricultural  
211 ecosystems of Central and Northern Italy (Musto et al., 2024; Ferretti et al., 2019), probably  
212 because it is easy to prey and can attain very high densities, providing wolves with a relevant  
213 biomass (Balestrieri et al., 2016). As no abundance map was available for this species, we rather use  
214 the potential suitability of the Italian landscape, at a 1 km resolution, obtained from Schertler et al.  
215 (2020). For each cell of our grid, we calculated the median for the abundance of wild ungulates and  
216 livestock and the geometric mean for the suitability for the coypus. Although wolves in many areas  
217 of Central and Northern Europe regularly prey on other aquatic rodents, such as the Eurasian beaver  
218 (*Castor fiber*, Gable et al., 2018), we did not include this species, because its population in Central  
219 and Northern Italy is still extremely small and confined to few areas (Bertolino et al., 2024).

220 Finally, we assigned our studies to the various cells of the grid. As each study provided us with  
221 different information about its study area, and the location where data had been collected, we  
222 identified the location of each study area as the geographical center of the area where biological  
223 samples had been collected. Then, we assumed that wolves for which biological samples had been  
224 collected on the centroid, could have moved in a home range of approximately 113 km<sup>2</sup> (Mancinelli  
225 et al., 2018; Mattioli et al., 2018) and so we generated a buffer with a radius of 6 km around each  
226 point and classified all those cells of the grid that overlapped with it. As our scope was to assess the

227 spatial coverage of existing studies about wolf diet, and because many studies refer to the same  
228 research project, we only classified the cells of our grid as being covered by studies or not, with a  
229 dichotomous variable.

230 Finally, we identified environmentally homogeneous areas within the entire Italian peninsula, based  
231 on: *i*) the Gini index of human density, *ii*) the median abundance of roe deer, red deer, wild boar,  
232 fallow deer and Northern chamois, *iii*) the median abundance of domestic pigs, sheep and cattle, *iv*)  
233 the geometric mean of the potential suitability for the coypu. To this end, we used the CLARA  
234 algorithm, an extension of Partitioning Around Medoids cluster analysis (Kaufman and Rousseeuw,  
235 2009). We chose the CLARA algorithm due to the high number of cells ( $n = 2,497$ ) and its  
236 robustness against non-normal data and outliers. The number of clusters was chosen by graphically  
237 exploring the silhouette width method, the elbow method, and the gap statistics method  
238 (Kassambara, 2017). Before clustering our cells, we standardized and centered our variables.

239 Once we identified environmental clusters, we graphically inspected how studies about wolf diet  
240 were distributed between different clusters, across the three different periods. Although we  
241 clusterized environmental variables in the entire Italian peninsula, we then only explored coverage  
242 in those cells that corresponded to the maximum distribution range of the wolf. This range ( $n$ . cells  
243 = 1,974) was obtained by considering all cells where the species was reported at least in one of the  
244 three time periods. We calculated both *i*) the portion of dietary studies being conducted in each  
245 different cluster and *ii*) the portion of cells of each cluster being involved in at least a dietary study,  
246 both overall and across the three different time periods.

247 Statistical analyses were carried out in R (R Core Team 2023). A completely reproducible dataset  
248 and software code are available at <https://osf.io/76cx4/>

249

## 250 **Results**

251 Our final dataset included 36 studies: 27 of them were published in peer-reviewed journals, 8 of  
252 them were MSc dissertations and 1 was a study published in the proceedings of a scientific

253 conference (see the file “StudiesDiet\_20240624.xlsx” in the “Data” folder of Supplementary  
254 Information). Most studies were published during the 2019-2023 (n = 15) and the 2014-2018  
255 periods (n = 13). As for MSc dissertations, 6 studies out of 8 were from the 2019-2023 period,  
256 probably because older dissertations had not been archived in a digital format.

257 Cluster analysis identified 5 groups of areas that were homogeneous in terms of food resources (Fig.  
258 2-4). The first group (Cluster 1) coincided with the Alps and with high-elevation areas of Central  
259 Apennines. Cells in this cluster had a high abundance of wild ungulates, particularly of Northern  
260 chamois and red deer, extremely low anthropization and little animal husbandry. These areas were  
261 unsuitable for the coypu.

262 The second group (Cluster 2) included areas with sheep herding, medium-low values of  
263 anthropization, high abundance of roe deer, wild boar, and fallow deer, and that were moderately  
264 suitable for the coypu. These areas have low abundance of the red deer. The third group (Cluster 3)  
265 included cells with high abundance of wild ungulates, including the red deer, but characterized by  
266 lower values of anthropization, sheep herding and suitability for the coypu than cells from Cluster  
267 2. Overall, Cluster 2 and Cluster 3 were common in Central and Southern Italy, where they account  
268 for most Apennines areas, and in the Prealps in Northern Italy.

269 The fourth (Cluster 4) and the fifth group (Cluster 5) included anthropized areas. Namely, Cluster 4  
270 included cells with high urban sprawl and the highest suitability for the coypu, characterized by  
271 little animal husbandry and intermediate abundances of the roe deer and the wild boar. Cluster 5  
272 instead corresponded to areas of intensive animal husbandry, with high densities of sheep, cattle and  
273 domestic pigs. Cluster 5 was also suitable for the coypu and had intermediate values of  
274 anthropization. Overall, all cells from Cluster 5 and most cells from Cluster 4 occurred in the Po  
275 Plain in Northern Italy, but some cells from Cluster 4 also occurred in lowlands of Central and  
276 Southern Italy.

277 When considering the entire 2007-2023 period, most cells covered by studies about wolf diet were  
278 in Cluster 3 (43%). The proportion was lower in Cluster 1 (28%), Cluster 2 (22%) and Cluster 4

279 (8%). Conversely, when checking the percentage of cells that covered by studies in each cluster,  
280 both Cluster 1 and Cluster 3 attained the highest coverage, with 19% and 18% of cells. Coverage  
281 was much lower for Cluster 4 and Cluster 2 (5%). Moreover, although Cluster 5 accounted only for  
282 an area of 400km<sup>2</sup> in the distribution range of wolves, its cells were never interested by dietary  
283 studies.

284 When considering the spatial distribution of dietary studies through time, we noticed that the  
285 distribution of cells interested by studies has become more even between 2007-2013 and 2019-  
286 2023, with the progressive inclusion of Cluster 4 (Table 2).

287

## 288 **Discussion**

289 Systematic reviews are crucial to summarize existing knowledge about the feeding ecology of  
290 species of conservation concern, and prone to conflict with humans, such as large carnivores.  
291 However, spatial bias can limit the generalizability of their findings. In this study we showed how  
292 researchers can quantify the magnitude of spatial bias, by identifying areas that result homogeneous  
293 in terms of prey they can offer to a large carnivore and then checking the allocation of existing  
294 studies between them. Namely, we used data about the distribution of important food sources for  
295 the gray wolf in Italy, to identify 5 ecologically homogeneous areas at the national level, and then  
296 understand the extent to which these were interested by dietary studies that had been carried out  
297 since 2007.

298 From a research viewpoint, our protocol can be used either before conducting a systematic review  
299 or after having produced one. In the first case, whenever existing literature is limited to specific  
300 environments, researchers might decide not to synthesize knowledge at all, as knowledge gaps  
301 could interest a significant portion of a species range. Alternatively, and perhaps more  
302 pragmatically, researchers could review existing literature, and then put their findings into  
303 perspective, by specifying that areas with certain types of prey species or other source of food were  
304 not covered. Identifying spatial bias in existing dietary studies could also be useful to plan future

305 research, by assisting the design of large-scale surveys for scat collection. To ensure unbiased  
306 findings, or at least minimize bias associated with scat collection, Steenweg et al., (2015) suggested  
307 the adoption of spatially balanced random sampling, like generalized random tessellation  
308 stratification. Although spatially balanced sampling is robust against unobserved bias (Kermorvant  
309 et al., 2019), we believe that our approach, by identifying strata that are homogeneous in terms of  
310 environmental resources, could be useful to develop advanced sampling designs with a higher  
311 accuracy (Robertson and Price, 2024).

312 There is much to be gained from a similar process both in terms of ecological research and  
313 management, and we will make a few examples from our case study about wolves.

314 Concerning the 5 homogeneous areas we identified by clustering food sources; our findings clearly  
315 highlight that existing literature about the diet of wolves is severely unbalanced. Most research  
316 referred to Cluster 3 and Cluster 1, areas with little landscape anthropization and abundant wild  
317 ungulates. In these areas wolves have been found to rely mostly on deer and wild boar, which are  
318 nevertheless much less abundant in Cluster 4 and 5. However, with the progressive recolonization  
319 of the Italian peninsula by wolf packs (Bassi et al., 2015), wolves indeed expanded in human-  
320 modified areas as those included in Clusters 4 and 5 (Torretta et al., 2022; Zanni et al., 2023). Since  
321 these areas are also those more likely to host conflicts with humans, due to their high human  
322 presence and activities, the knowledge gaps concerning wolf ecology in these areas may prevent the  
323 application of evidence-based conservation and conflict management policies (Kuijper et al., 2024).

324 It indeed remains unclear the extent to which wolves in these human-dominated areas could shift to  
325 coypus, food waste, livestock, pets and animal byproducts, with major possible alterations of their  
326 fitness and behavior. Indeed, beside the direct effects on behavior, diet shifts towards anthropogenic  
327 items may also induce modifications of wolf's genetics through an increased proximity with  
328 commensal domestic or feral dogs, likely more abundant in human-dominated areas, ultimately  
329 leading to an enhanced likelihood of hybridization (Hughes & Macdonald, 2013). Moreover, the  
330 analysis of scats collected in these environments, coupled with a genetic assessment of the

331 hybridization level, can also be useful to see if wolves and wolf-dog hybrids segregate their trophic  
332 niche, something that does not seem to happen in less anthropized environments (Bassi et al., 2017).  
333 In the case of peri-urban wolves, the presence of remains attributable to pets was observed in the  
334 stomach contents (see Appendix 1). The consumption of domestic cats can also be inferred from the  
335 detection in the intestinal matrix of wolves of viruses typical of felines (e.g., Feline Panleukopenia  
336 Virus, Balboni et al., 2021). Beside directly threatening wolves through an increased share of  
337 parasites and other pathogens, and being their loss both an emotional and economic harm for  
338 owners, the predation of pets may drive negative attitudes towards wolf conservation (Lescureux &  
339 Linnell, 2014). Fulfilling our knowledge gaps on the wolf dietary patterns in anthropized  
340 environments, hosting more domestic dogs and cats, may thus enhance our understanding of wolf  
341 predation on pets and its possible implications for wolf conservation.

342 Also, researchers frequently attempt to monitor temporal changes in the diet of large carnivores. In  
343 our case study, if we want to monitor changes in the diet of wolves through time, apart from being  
344 sure about potential issues of sampling bias (Gable et al., 2015), it is important that comparisons are  
345 based on areas with similar prey composition. For example, our findings indicate that dietary  
346 studies in livestock districts (Cluster 5, currently not sampled) are urgently needed to quantify  
347 dietary habits of wolves inhabiting these environments. Moreover, assessing dietary shifts between  
348 2007-2013 and 2019-2023 by pooling together multiple studies with a cross-sectional approach is  
349 questionable, as studies were initially concentrated in less anthropized environments. Combining  
350 longitudinal studies carried out on single wolf packs (Bassi et al. 2020) or at least populations (e.g.  
351 Mattioli et al., 1995; 2011), seems certainly more appropriate for this purpose.

352 Our protocol could also be used to study the role played by underrated prey in the diet of a large  
353 carnivore. For example, areas from Cluster 4 and Cluster 5 are also rich in coypu. So far, few  
354 studies explored the extent to which wolves could rely on this species (Ferretti et al., 2019) and  
355 none was carried out in areas, like Cluster 4 and 5, where domestic or wild ungulates are scarce. As  
356 coypu are easy to catch in agricultural channels and could attain significant densities (Balestrieri et

357 al., 2016), it is plausible that they are indeed a major prey for wolves. Empirical evidence seems to  
358 confirm this point: by analyzing the stomach content of 64 wolves that were found dead in the Po  
359 Plain (Cremona, Mantua, and Bologna provinces), we found remains of coypu in 10 individuals  
360 (15.6%) (see Appendix 2). Beyond the necropsy findings, we believe that rodents (rats and coypu)  
361 are increasingly contributing to the diet of peri-urban wolves in Italy, as 61.8% of the wolf  
362 carcasses analyzed by Musto et al. (2024) were positive to the presence of Second-Generation  
363 Anticoagulant Rodenticides (SGARs), particularly in highly anthropized areas, due to probable  
364 ingestion of poisoned rodents. Therefore, it is plausible that rodents, particularly coypu (similarly to  
365 beavers, Gable et al., 2018), might be an important species which is fueling the expansion of wolves  
366 in lowlands, particularly that of dispersing individuals or couples. This could explain the significant  
367 expansion of wolves along the Po Plain, where two packs are nowadays present in the Po delta.  
368 In conclusion we provided a rigorous and standardized approach to assess spatial and ecological  
369 bias in dietary studies, which may be profitably replicated with other large carnivores and even  
370 other animal group such as scavengers, herbivores, marine predators and mesocarnivores to identify  
371 and address gaps in our knowledge of their feeding ecology, with the ultimate goals to increase our  
372 understanding of the context-dependent variations of their ecological impacts and to improve their  
373 conservation.

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784 **Supplementary material**

785 The supplementary information, as well as the reproducible data and software code, are available at:

786 <https://osf.io/76cx4/>

787

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794

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796 Not applicable

797

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806

807 **CRedit authorship contribution statement**

808 **Conceptualization:** JC, RB, CM, EB **Methodology:** JC, RB, CM, EB **Software:** JC **Validation:**

809 JC, RB, CM, EB, GV, AB, MD, MS, MA **Formal analysis:** JC **Investigation:** JC, RB, CM, EB,



810 GV, AB **Resources:** GV, AB, MD, MS, MA **Data curation:** CM, EB, GV, AB **Writing - original**  
811 **draft:** JC, RB, CM, EB **Writing- review and editing:** JC, RB, CM, EB, GV, AB, MD, MS, MA  
812 **Visualization:** JC, RB, CM, EB **Supervision:** MD, MS, MA **Project administration:** MD, MA  
813 **Funding Acquisition:** GV, AB, MD, MS, MA

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PREPRINT

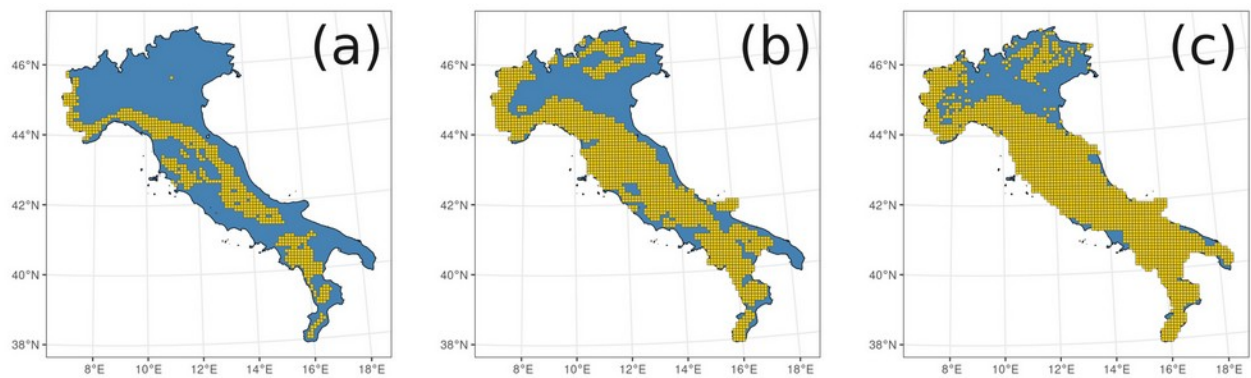
816 **Figures**

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822 Fig. 1. Areas of the Italian peninsula where wolves were present in 2007-2013 (a), 2014-2019 (b)  
823 and 2019-2023 (c). For data sources please see the Methods section.

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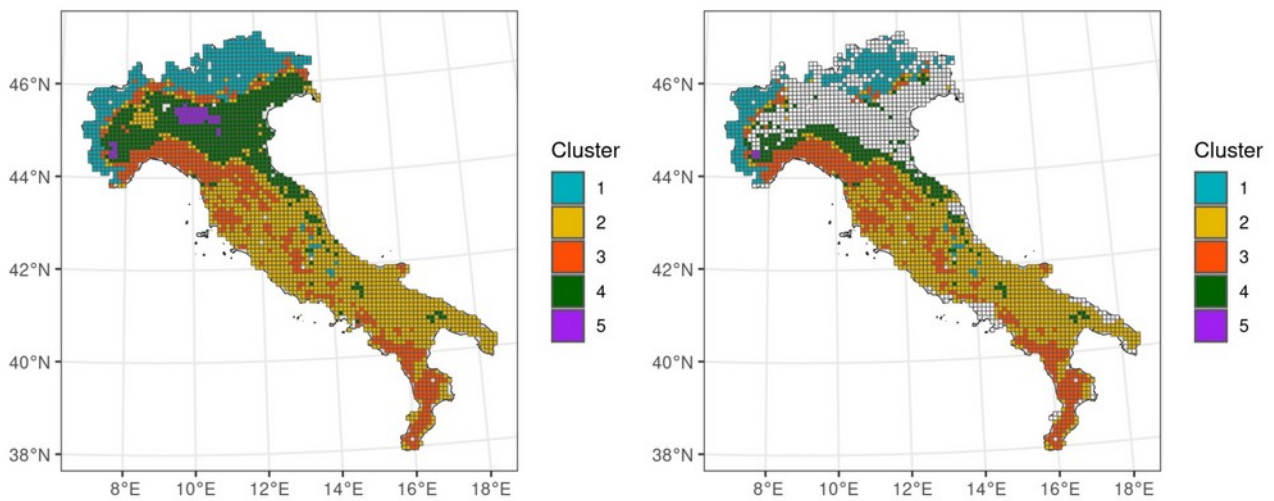
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833 Fig. 2. Spatial distribution of the five clusters obtained through CLARA. Left: distribution of  
834 clusters in the Italian peninsula. Right: distribution of clusters in the maximum distribution range of  
835 wolves in the Italian peninsula. White cells represent areas outside of the range or with missing  
836 data, for which cluster analysis was not possible.

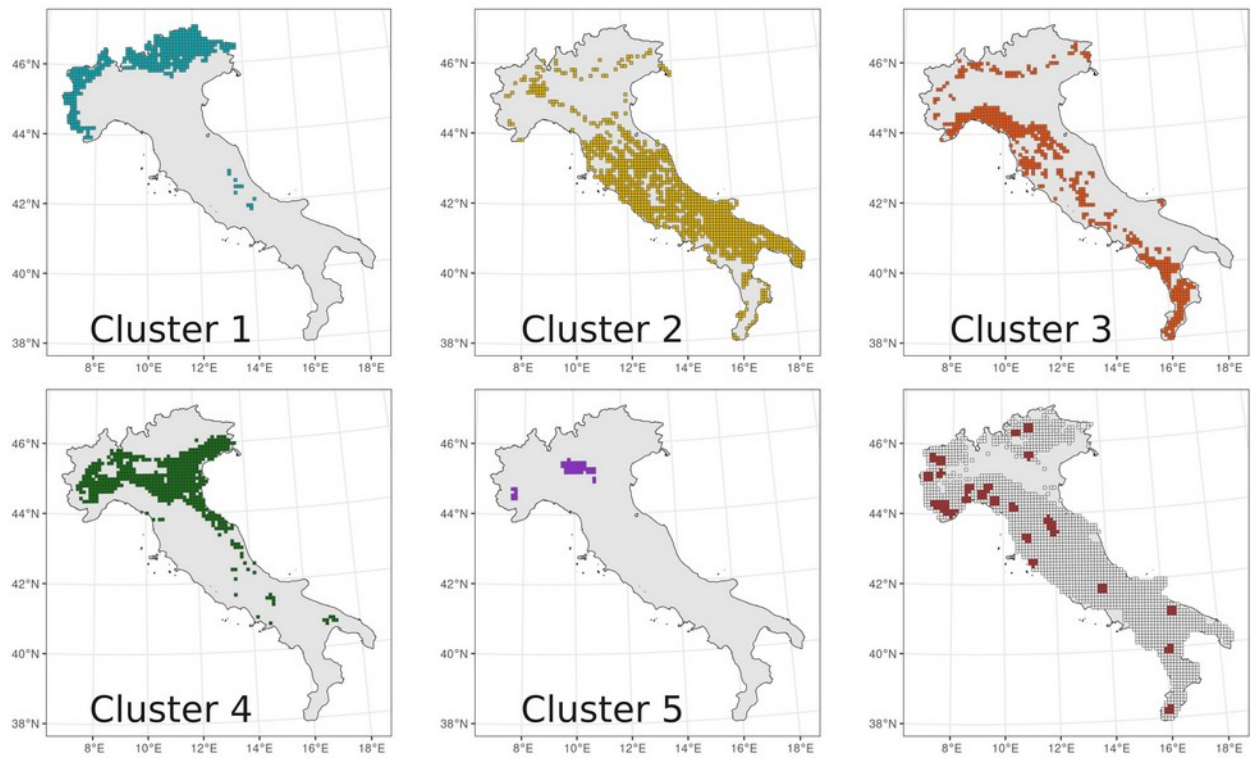
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843 Fig. 3. Spatial distribution in Italy of the five clusters. In the lower-right corner of the figure we also

844 represented the spatial distribution of cells interested by dietary studies (in dark) overlaid on the

845 maximum distribution range of the wolf.

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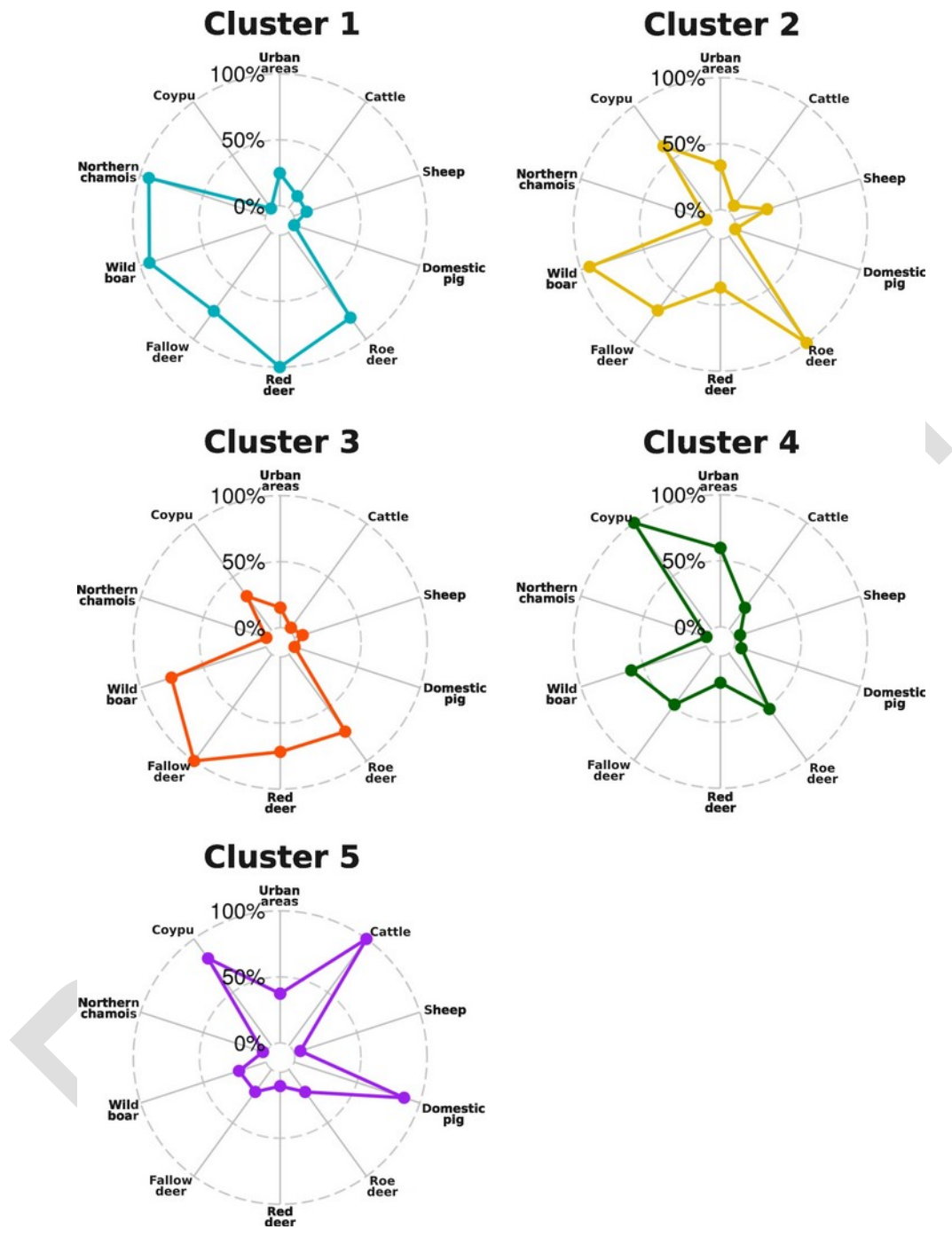
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872 Fig. 4. Median values of environmental covariates in each cluster. Values have been rescaled from 0

873 to 100, to better interpret them.



874 **Tables**

875

876 Table 1. Overview of main systematic reviews and meta-analyses about the diet of large carnivores.

| <b>Species</b>                                   | <b>Systematic reviews and meta-analyses about its diet</b>  |
|--|---|
| African wild dog ( <i>Lycaon pictus</i> )        | Hayward et al., (2006)  |
| American black bear ( <i>Ursus americanus</i> )  | Falconi et al. (2022)   |
| Andean black bear ( <i>Tremarctos ornatus</i> )  | Falconi et al. (2022)   |
| Asiatic black bear ( <i>Ursus thibetanus</i> )   | Falconi et al. (2022)   |
| Brown bear ( <i>Ursus arctos</i> )               | Bojarska and Selva (2012); Falconi et al. (2022); Niedziałkowska et al. (2018)  |
| Polar bear ( <i>Ursus maritimus</i> )            | Falconi et al. (2022)   |
| Brown hyaena ( <i>Parahyaena brunnea</i> )       | -   |
| Cheetah ( <i>Acinonyx jubatus</i> )              | Hayward et al. (2006)   |
| Clouded leopard ( <i>Neofelis nebulosa</i> )     | Chiang and Allen (2017)   |
| Dhole ( <i>Cuon alpinus</i> )                    | Srivathsa et al. (2020); Srivathsa et al., (2023)   |
| Dingo ( <i>Canis lupus dingo</i> )               | Fleming et al., (2022); Tatler et al., (2019)   |
| Ethiopian wolf ( <i>Canis simensis</i> )         | -   |
| Eurasian lynx ( <i>Lynx lynx</i> )               | Khorozyan and Heurich (2023a,b)   |
| Gray wolf ( <i>Canis lupus</i> )                 | Janeiro-Otero et al., 2020; Meriggi et al., 2011; Meriggi and Lovari, 1996; Mori et al., 2017; Newsome et al., 2016; Zlatanova et al., 2014 |
| Jaguar ( <i>Panthera onca</i> )                  | Cruz et al. (2022); Hayward et al. (2016); López-González and Miller (2002); Rubio-Rocha et al. (2023)                                      |
| Leopard ( <i>Panthera pardus</i> );              | Hayward et al. (2006); Franchini and Guerisoli (2023); Srivathsa et al., (2023); Stein and Hayssen (2013)                                   |
| Lion ( <i>Panthera leo</i> )                     | Hayward and Kerley (2006); Périquet et al. (2014)   |
| Puma ( <i>Puma concolor</i> )                    | Cruz et al. (2022); Karandikar et al. (2022); La Barge et al. (2022)  |
| Red wolf ( <i>Canis rufus</i> )                  | -   |
| Sloth bear ( <i>Melursus ursinus</i> )           | Falconi et al. (2022)   |
| Snow leopard ( <i>Panthera uncia</i> )           | Lyngdoh et al. (2014); Mallon et al. (2016)   |
| Spotted hyena ( <i>Crocuta crocuta</i> )         | Hayward (2006); Périquet et al. (2014)  |
| Striped hyena ( <i>Hyaena hyaena</i> )           | -   |
| Sun bear ( <i>Helarctos malayanus</i> )          | Falconi et al. (2022)   |
| Sunda clouded leopard ( <i>Neofelis diardi</i> ) | -   |

|                                  |   |
|----------------------------------|---|
| Tiger ( <i>Panthera tigris</i> ) | Hayward et al. (2012); Li and Wang (2022); Srivathsa et al., (2023) |
| Wolverine ( <i>Gulo gulo</i> )   | Fisher et al. (2022)  |

877 Table 2. Percentage of cells that were interested by dietary studies, in each one of the three periods  
878 (2007-2013, 2014-2018 and 2019-2023), between the five different clusters.

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| Cluster | Extent, compared to the maximum potential range of the species | Cells covered by studies (overall period) | Cells covered by studies (2007-2013) | Cells covered by studies (2014-2018) | Cells covered by studies (2019-2023) |
|---------|--|---|--------------------------------------|--------------------------------------|--------------------------------------|
| 1       | 16.1%  | 28%                                       | 34%                                  | 21%                                  | 32%                                  |
| 2       | 40.5%  | 22%                                       | 16%                                  | 20%                                  | 32%                                  |
| 3       | 20.0%  | 43%                                       | 50%                                  | 58%                                  | 15%                                  |
| 4       | 21.6%  | 8%  | 0%                                   | 2%                                   | 22%                                  |
| 5       | 1.8%   | 0%  | 0%                                   | 0%                                   | 0%                                   |

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