Spatio-temporal ecology of the yellow mongoose *Cynictis penicillata* in the Great Fish River Reserve (Eastern Cape, South Africa)

By

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DECLARATION

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SUPERVISOR'S FOREWORD

This Master's dissertation is part of larger project aimed at investigating niche differentiation in an assemblage of small African carnivores: small grey mongooses, yellow mongooses, large- and small-spotted genets, and to a lesser extent water mongooses and meerkats. The project started in September 2005 and the field work was completed in August 2011. Overall, it incorporated data collection and analysis by the project leader and 5 Honours and 2 MSc students.

Although the MSc candidate, Mr Owen Akhona Mbatyoti, did collect about 50% of the data analysed in the current dissertation, his contribution to the overall project was twice larger. Mr Mbatyoti indeed spent over 150 full days or nights in the field, between May 2010 and August 2011. Field work included trapping and continuous radio-tracking sessions of most of the abovementioned species. Mr Mbatyoti is therefore to appear as co-author on some of the related scientific outputs (conference presentations and papers).

The format of this dissertation (general introduction, abstract, two independent papers, general conclusion) has been chosen with two purposes in mind: first, to train the MSc candidate to the writing of scientific papers, and second, to secure and allow for a quicker dissemination of the scientific knowledge. Consequently, the present work does not include extensive reviews on the study species or on the main field techniques used (trapping and radio-tracking), as is sometimes the case in MSc dissertations. In order to avoid repetitions, information on the study area has been placed in a separate chapter.

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Kuwe Makhulu, Bazali, booMakazi nooMalume, bantakwethu, bodade wethu, kwizihlobo nakubahlali ndiyanibulela ngenkxaso nengqeqesho yenu. Ndicela nindixolele torho nibaninzi ndingathatha imini yonke ndinibala ngamagama niyazi ningobani. Andibalibelanga nabo badlala inkxaxheba ebomini bam kodwa sele basandulela enkosi kakhulu. Andazi ngendiyintoni ngaphandle kwenu nonke. Kunamaxesha nam endithi xa ndijonga ngasemva ndingawukholelwa umgama esele ndiwuhambile.

ABSTRACT

Very little is known about the spatio-temporal ecology of the yellow mongoose *Cynictis penicillata*, despite this small carnivore being widely distributed in the southern African subregion. Until the present study, activity patterns and daily movement distances had only been investigated over a single season, and information on home range sizes was only available from a few populations. Here, I aimed at determining the activity patterns and the space use of yellow mongooses over the different seasons of the year in the Great Fish River Reserve (Eastern Cape, South Africa). In addition, I tested some predictions related to environmental factors (variations in photoperiod, climatic conditions and food availability over the year), as well as life cycle (reproduction) and morphological and physiological characteristics (sexual dimorphism and thermoregulatory aspects associated to the possession of an elongated body).

From September 2005 to August 2011, spatio-temporal data were collected through 102 continuous tracking sessions (84 during the day and 18 during the night) of 12 adult individuals (seven males and five females) fitted with motion-sensor radio-collars. Additional data were obtained through semi-continuous tracking sessions and random locations. Yellow mongooses were essentially diurnal and crepuscular. Activity levels averaged 57% during the day (n = 11,807 fixes) and only 11% at night (n = 3,623 fixes). Yellow mongooses emerged from their burrows on average (\pm SD) 85 \pm 62 min after sunrise (range: -11 to +369 min) and returned 21 ± 84 min before sunset (range: -518 to +225 min). The duration of the daily activity period varied between 12 min and 15 h 36 min, with a mean of 9 h 28 min. Both sexes exhibited some overground activity after sunset, but this was most pronounced in males than in females. Nocturnal activity outside the activity period was generally restricted to short underground bouts of activity occurring at anytime of the night. Diurnal resting, with up to 11 bouts per activity period, occurred in 98.8% of activity periods. Overall, yellow mongooses were active during 68 \pm 17% of the time spent outside the burrow. Photoperiod acted as a *zeitgeber* and activity was negatively affected by adverse climatic conditions (very hot or conversely low temperatures, rain, wet soil) and probably low terrestrial arthropod activity/availability. No intersexual difference in activity levels was found, although the higher body mass of males (on average 16%) implies higher metabolic demands.

The total home range size (MCP 100%) averaged $0.55 \pm 0.65 \text{ km}^2$ (range: $0.10-2.36 \text{ km}^2$) and the related total perimeter measured on average $2.80 \pm 1.71 \text{ km}$ (range: 1.17-7.36 km). Male home ranges were on average more than twice large than those of females, but this difference did not reach statistical significance. However, males had larger daily home ranges ($0.13 \pm 0.15 \text{ km}^2$) than females ($0.05 \pm 0.05 \text{ km}^2$). In addition, daily movement distances of males were longer ($1.99 \pm 1.07 \text{ km}$) than those of females ($1.29 \pm 0.66 \text{ km}$). Males also travelled at a faster speed ($0.29 \pm 0.13 \text{ km/h}$) than females ($0.18 \pm 0.07 \text{ km/h}$). Overall, sex clearly appeared to play a role in the spatial ecology of yellow mongooses, but the underlying explanation does not seem to be linked to sexual dimorphism (body mass) or reproductive activity. Whilst the role of food availability on the space use of yellow mongooses is unclear, it is likely that low temperatures negatively affect yellow mongoose movements, as they do for their activity levels.

Key words: yellow mongoose, *Cynictis penicillata*, activity patterns, diurnal, home range size, daily range, daily movement distance, body mass, breeding season, photoperiod, food availability, climatic conditions.

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Chapter 1

The yellow mongoose Cynictis penicillata

1.1 Taxonomy and status

The yellow mongoose *Cynictis penicillata* is a small carnivore (order Carnivora) that belongs to the family Herpestidae and to the subfamily Herpestinae (Gilchrist *et al.*, 2009). *Cynictis p. penicillata* is the subspecies that possesses the largest distribution. Other subspecies are *C. p. bradfieldi*, *C. p. coombsii* and *C. p. natalensis* (Skinner & Chimimba, 2005). The IUCN assessment conducted in 2008 listed the yellow mongoose in the Least Concern category (IUCN, 2011). Even though the use of agricultural pesticides may impact negatively on the populations of *C. penicillata*, no detailed work has been undertaken on this aspect (Mills & Hes, 1997). The yellow mongoose is considered to be a chief contributor in the incidence and spread of rabies in South Africa (Mills & Hes, 1997).

1.2 Description

The yellow mongoose varies geographically from reddish-yellow to tawny-yellow in colour (Taylor & Meester, 1993). Males (body length: 563 ± 28 mm; tail length: 230 ± 15 mm) and females (body length: 554 ± 31 mm; tail length: 228 ± 21 mm) are similar in size (Lynch, 1983). However, there is a slight sexual dimorphism when it comes to body mass, with males (790 \pm 132 g) being about 7–8% heavier than females (734 \pm 120 g; Lynch, 1983). Both sexes have anal glands that function in scent marking of home ranges and in allomarking between colony members (Earlé, 1981). Objects may also be marked by means of the cheek glands (Balmforth, 2004).

1.3 Distribution and habitat preference

Cynyctis penicillata is endemic to the southern African region, including Zimbabwe, Namibia, Botswana, Angola and South Africa (Taylor & Meester, 1993; Fig. 1). In the latter country, the species is found in all the provinces extending to the eastern Lesotho (Skinner & Chimimba, 2005). It has a wide range of habitat tolerance (Mills & Hes, 1997), although it seems to prefer open and low vegetation habitats, semi-arid areas, deserts (*e.g.* Kalahari), short grasslands and cultivated croplands (Mills & Hes, 1997; Larivière & Calzada, 2001; Skinner & Chimimba, 2005). It is generally not found in woodlands, mountains and thick bushes (Gilchrist *et al.*, 2009).



Figure 1. The distribution of the yellow mongoose *Cynictis penicillata* in southern Africa (from Mills & Hes, 1997). The black dots on the map represent major cities in southern African countries.

1.4 Reproduction

The seasonal dioestrus mating begins from the first week of July (Earlé, 1981; Skinner & Chimimba, 2005). The female's gravid period varies from 60 to 62 days and litter size ranges from two to five pups (Rasa *et al.*, 1992; Mills & Hes, 1997). The offspring are born from August extending up to March (Balmforth, 2004; Skinner & Chimimba, 2005). The young are weaned on the eighth week after their birth, even though they may occasionally suckle when aged four to five months (Rasa *et al.*, 1992). The pups start accompanying foraging adults when two months old and are nutritionally independent at 16 to 18 weeks (Rasa *et al.*, 1992).

1.5 Social and feeding behaviour

Cynictis penicillata is a solitary foraging animal, although it generally lives in groups of 2-13 individuals (Balmforth 2004; Gilchrist *et al.*, 2009). The colony occupies a den that consists of tunnels with multiple entrances (Estes, 1991). The dens are positioned on rising soil that these mongooses dig themselves, although they may adjust holes made by other animals (Estes, 1991). Yellow mongooses have been observed sharing burrows with other species, mostly Cape ground squirrels (*Xerus inauris*) and meerkats (*Suricata suricatta*) (Do Linh San & Somers, 2006; Waterman & Roth, 2007). *Cynictis penicillata* essentially feeds on arthropods (65%) (particularly termites, beetles and grasshoppers), with rodents (27.5%), birds (5%) and reptiles (7%) contributing less to its diet (Avenant & Nel, 1992). Similarly, vegetation and fruit are consumed in small quantities (Taylor & Meester, 1993). According to Avenant & Nel (1992), sight plays a major role in prey detection.

Chapter 2

Study site

2.1 The Great Fish River Reserve

The present study was conducted in the Great Fish River reserve complex (GFRR; Fig. 2). This conservation area is situated in the Eastern Cape Province, South Africa, between 32° 55' S, 26° 37' E and 33° 08' S, 26° 58' E. The name GFRR is derived from the river that flows through the reserve. The complex incorporates the Andries Vosloo Kudu Nature Reserve (6 500 ha), the Sam Knott Nature Reserve (15 500 ha) and the Double Drift Game Reserve (23 500 ha) (Fabricius *et al.*, 2002). Its approximate total size is 445 km².



Figure 2. Map of the Great Fish River Reserve (GFRR), South Africa. The location of the reserve in South Africa is indicated by a red star. SA: Study Area (red area); AVKNR: Andries Vosloo Kudu Nature Reserve; SKNR: Sam Knott Nature Reserve; DDGR: Double Drift Game Reserve (after Do Linh San *et al.*, 2009).

2.2 Geology, climate and vegetation

The area is mostly red and grey sandstone and mudstone of the Middleton structure, with sandstone dominating the formation. Steep slopes are common due to the large range in elevation from 170 m at the banks of the Great Fish River to 800 m at the ridges. Precipitation ranges from 250 mm to over 650 mm from year to year (Birch *et al.*, 1999). There is usually a peak of rain in October and March and winters are moderately dry (Tshabalala, 2008). The slopes facing south and sites on higher elevation have a higher mean annual rainfall and a lower mean temperature (Evans *et al.*, 1997). The temperature ranges greatly with maxima exceeding 40 °C in summer and minima reaching less than 0 °C in winter (Tshabalala, 2008).

The GFRR falls within the Albany Thicket Biome and the Great Fish Thicket is the dominant vegetation type (Hoare *et al.*, 2006). Originally it was classified as Valley Bushveld vegetation (Acocks, 1988), but was later on reclassified as Xeric Succulent Thicket (La Cock *et al.*, 1990). The dominant plants are evergreen sclerophyllous shrubs, semi-succulents of karroid affinity and thorny shrubs averaging 2 m in tallness. Historical land use practices throughout the reserve resulted in the vegetation not being consistent (*i.e.* patches that resulted from land being used for planting crops for subsistence) (Tshabalala, 2008).

2.3 Other small carnivores present and predators of the yellow mongoose

Other small carnivores present in the GFRR are Cape grey mongooses (*Galerella pulverulenta*), water mongooses (*Atilax paludinosus*), meerkats (*Suricata suricatta*), large- (*Genetta tigrina*) and small-spotted genets (*G. genetta felina*), zorillas (*Ictonyx striatus*), striped weasels (*Poecilogale albinucha*) and possibly large grey mongooses (*Herpestes ichneumon*). The potential predators of yellow mongooses are black-backed jackals (*Canis mesomelas*), caracals (*Caracal caracal*), leopards (*Panthera pardas*) and several species of large birds of prey and snakes.

Chapter 3

Activity patterns of the yellow mongoose

3.1 Introduction

Activity patterns are part of basic natural history information (Van Schaik & Griffiths, 1996) and represent a fundamental aspect of animal behaviour (Nielsen, 1983). Influence of environmental conditions on activities of birds (Blem & Shelor, 1986), amphibians (Banks & Beebe, 1986) and other small mammals (Veiga, 1986) are well documented. However, the research focused mostly on prey species (*e.g.* Alkon & Saltz, 1988). In the case of carnivores (order Carnivora), the majority of research conducted so far concerned the relation between predator and prey activity patterns (Kowalczyk *et al.*, 2003). In small carnivores similar studies are often tricky to carry out (Emmons *et al.*, 1989). Indeed, it necessitates the use radio-tracking in order to deal with the low densities, proportionally large ranges and sometimes nocturnal (secretive) habits of these predators (Beltrán & Delibes, 1994).

Mammalian carnivores' activity can be influenced by a number of factors, including environmental conditions (*e.g.* light and temperature, which act as external synchronizers (*Zeitgeber*) for certain activity patterns; Manfredi *et al.*, 2010), social behaviour, interference from competitors (*i.e.* food and sexual competition; Feldhamer *et al.*, 2004), thermoregulation (Beltrán & Delibes, 1994), and in some cases human activities (Phelan & Sliwa, 2006). However, the circadian cycles of availability and vulnerability of prey could be considered as one of the main influences on predators' activity (Lodé, 1995).

In his extensive work on the ecology of yellow mongooses, Lynch (1980) stated that *Cynictis* is "diurnal, crepuscular and marginally nocturnal". The author did not mention how this type of information was gathered, although it is likely that this was done through a series of haphazard field observations and a compilation of information from the literature. So far, only Cavallini (1993a) investigated the activity patterns of yellow mongooses by means of radio-tracking. The research confirmed that yellow mongooses are essentially diurnal, with the times of onset and

cessation of activity correlating with sunrise and sunset times, respectively. During daytime, activities are ceased around midday, as this time coincides with maximum temperatures, and resumed in the afternoon once temperature had dropped (Cavallini, 1993a). No activity was recorded both on rainy and misty periods, as these conditions negatively affect the availability of terrestrial insects, the main food source of *Cynictis penicillata* (MacDonald & Nel, 1986; Avenant & Nel, 1992; Cavallini & Nel, 1995). This suggests that activity patterns of yellow mongooses are significantly influenced by weather conditions and food availability. However, the above study was only conducted during autumn, in a population from the Western Cape Province (South Africa) characterised by its Fynbos vegetation and Mediterranean climate. Considering that a species' activity patterns may vary inter-regionally due to variations in habitat types (and therefore climatic conditions, food availability, vegetation cover and/or predation pressure), it is unclear whether the above-mentioned results can be generalised to the whole year and to the species as a whole.

3.2 Aim, objectives and predictions

The aim of this project was to investigate the activity patterns of the yellow mongoose across a full seasonal cycle in the GFRR and its related biome, the Albany Thicket Biome, dominated by sclerophyllous, semi-succulent and thorny shrub vegetation (La Cock *et al.*, 1990).

More specifically, I wanted to determine the following: a) the duration of the activity period, b) the occurrence and duration of resting bouts during the activity period, c) the daily activity profile, d) possible intersexual and seasonal variations in both activity and time budgets, and e) the possible influence of photoperiod and weather conditions on yellow mongoose activity.

The predictions for this study were:

1. Due to the probable role of photoperiod as a *zeitgeber* (time giver), the onset and offset of the activity periods of yellow mongooses will be correlated to the sunrise and sunset times, respectively (*i.e.* yellow mongooses will be active overground for longer periods during longer days).

- 2. Assuming that yellow mongooses are predominantly insectivorous in the GFRR as well, activity levels will be higher in spring and winter due to the lower availability of insects and other terrestrial arthropods during that period (Fig. 3). This is because yellow mongooses are expected to compensate for the lower availability of their main prey by spending more time in search of food.
- Similarly, yellow mongooses will be less active during rainy weather, as such conditions are not favourable to the activity of terrestrial arthropods – even though some arthropods swarm (*e.g.* ants and termites) when the soil is wet (Pielou, 1948).
- 4. Yellow mongooses will be less active during cold and hot weather conditions, due to their elongated bodies that lead to higher than average surface to volume ratio and therefore higher heat loss and overheating risk (Zalewski, 2004).
- 5. Since males are slightly, but significantly heavier than females, their daily activity levels will be higher due to their related higher energy expenditure and requirements (McNab, 1989).



Figure 3. Seasonal availability of terrestrial arthropods in five habitat types of the Great Fish River Reserve as assessed through the log of the total dry weight (g) of individuals collected in four plots of six pitfall traps per habitat type (Do Linh San *et al.*, unpublished data).

3.3 Materials and methods

3.3.1 Trapping and radio-tracking

Yellow mongooses were trapped using 10 single-door wire mesh traps (90 x 30 x 30 cm). The traps were placed on a flat even surface and covered with vegetation to camouflage them (Fig. 4a). Warthog (*Phacochoerus africanus*) meat soaked in water was used as bait. The traps were then checked twice a day, in the morning and in the early evening. Each time when checking the traps, the water from the bait was sprinkled around the trap to lure the animals that were passing around that specific area. Rebaiting was done only if the meat had dried out or had been eaten by an animal and the trap did not close. Animals that were not targeted (mostly passerine birds and monitor lizards) were released on the spot and the trap rebaited and reactivated.

Caught *C. penicillata* were transferred to the research house ("Grasslands") with the trap being covered with a dark nylon cloth to avoid putting the animal under stress. At the research house, before removing them from the trap, yellow mongooses were immobilized with ketamine hydrochloride (Ketalar, Parke-Davis) at doses of about 20 mg/kg (0.2 ml). An interval of 7-10 minutes after dosage was allowed for the animals to be fully anaesthetized (Fig. 4b) before processing them. Animals were then weighed, sexed and their body measurements recorded. Tooth wear patterns were investigated in order to determine the age of the animals (juveniles, subadults, one-year old animals, older adults).

All the captured mongooses were equipped with motion-sensor radio-collars (Model M1820, Advanced Telemetry Systems, Isanti, MN, USA; Fig. 4b). Complete weight of the radio-collar on the animals was 27–34 g, which represents less than 3–5% of the mongoose's body weight. Radio-collared mongooses were monitored overnight to assess any discomfort that the animals might have experienced. They were then released at the site on which they were captured (Fig. 4c) early in the morning on the following day.

Continuous tracking sessions were carried out from before sunrise to after sunset, or from before sunset to after sunrise, so as to cover the whole 24-h daily period. As it was apparent that yellow mongooses were essentially diurnal, more diurnal than nocturnal radio-tracking sessions were conducted. Before starting a radio-tracking session, animals were first located in the burrow that they were occupying, using a hand-held, three-element antenna (Wildlife Materials Inc.,

Murphysboro, IL, USA). Variations in radio-signal pulse rate were used to determine whether yellow mongooses were moving (active) or not (inactive). Activity was monitored continuously from a car with a roof whip antenna and a TR-4 VHF-receiver (Telonics, Mesa, AZ, USA). Only one animal was tracked per day. To avoid influencing the behaviour of the studied animals, but to ensure a sufficient accuracy, tracking was generally done from a distance of 50–200 m from the collared animal (Fig. 4d).



Figure 4. a) Wire mesh trap used to catch yellow mongooses, b) Sedated animal fitted with a radio-transmitter, c) Mongoosee released next to the trapping location, d) Radio-collared animal on the lookout for predators (all photographs provided by E. Do Linh San).

3.3.2 Expression of results and data analysis

The activity period (AP) was defined as the span of time between the first emergence from, and the final return to, a nocturnal shelter. The studied parameters were: 1) the onset and 2) the offset time of the AP, 3) the duration of the AP, as well as 4) the number and 5) the duration of resting bouts during the AP. The following categories were compared: males vs females, and the four seasons of the year. Seasons were defined following a meteorological subdivision of the year (autumn: March–May; winter: June–August; spring: September–November; summer: December–February).

All statistical analyses were conducted with the software IBM SPSS Statistics 19.0 (SPSS Inc.). Normality of data was evaluated with a Kolmogorov-Smirnov test (p > 0.05). Student's *t*-tests, one-way ANOVAs and *post hoc* LSD *t*-tests were used to investigate potential significant differences between normally distributed samples. Non-parametric tests (Mann-Whitney and Kruskall-Wallis tests) were used otherwise. Sequential Bonferroni corrections were applied to counteract the problem of multiple comparisons (Rice, 1989). However, the use of Bonferroni procedures has been criticised (Nakagawa, 2004), because they increase Type II errors (*i.e.* the improper rejection of genuine effects) to unacceptable levels. For this reason, when relevant, significance levels are presented both with and without taking Bonferroni corrections into account. A possible correlation between the duration of the activity period and day-length, as well as between the onset/offset of activity and sunrise/sunset times, was investigated with a Spearman rank correlation test.

In order to investigate the possible influence of sex, season and weather conditions on the activity (dependent binary variable) of yellow mongooses, a generalized linear model (GzLM) was generated, using a binomial distribution and a logit link function (Norušis, 2008). Since yellow mongooses were essentially diurnal (see Chapter 3.4), only valid diurnal fixes (n = 11,783) were taken into account. Here, activity was evaluated by classifying 5-min blocks as either active (dependent variable = 1) or inactive (dependent variable = 0). Following Do Linh San *et al.* (2007a), four meteorological variables (soil conditions, wind strength, general weather and temperature at the shade) were collected at 30-min (temperature) or 5-min intervals (all other variables). The first three meteorological variables were divided into numerical categories for the purpose of the analysis and in order to facilitate the interpretation of the results. The numbering

was done according to a progressive deterioration of external conditions (see Table 6). The possible effects of these six independent variables were evaluated with a Type III test, which does not depend on the entry order of variables (Norušis, 2008). Only main effects were considered in this analysis. As suggested by Norušis, (2008), the scale parameter (see Table 6) was estimated by dividing the deviance by its degree of freedom.

3.4 Results

From September 2005 to August 2011, 15,430 activity fixes were collected from 12 radiocollared adult yellow mongooses (seven males and five females; Tables 1, 2 and A1). These data were obtained in the framework of 84 continuous tracking sessions during the day (11,016 fixes) and 18 sessions at night (3,417 fixes). In addition, 791 daytime and 206 nocturnal fixes were obtained through semi-continuous tracking sessions and random locations.

Table 1. Number of activity fixes collected for male, female and all yellow mongooses during the day and the night in the Great Fish River Reserve (2005–2011). Semi-continuous tracking and random locations fixes are shown by *.

Sex	Day	Night	Total
Males	6,204 + 292*	1,410 + 84*	7,990
Females	4,812 + 499*	2,007 + 122*	7,440
Total	11,807	3,623	15,430

Table 2. Average, standard deviation (SD), minimum and maximum number of activity fixes collected per hourly period (from 0:00 to 23:59) from seven male and five female yellow mongooses in the Great Fish River Reserve (2005–2011).

Sex	Average	SD	Minimum	Maximum
Male	362	256	74	652
Female	317	137	158	486
Total	683	393	233	1,130

Yellow mongooses were essentially diurnal and crepuscular (Figs 5a–e, Table 3). Activity levels averaged 57% during the day (n = 11,807 fixes) and only 11% at night (n = 3,623 fixes). Out of the 84 tracking days (Table A3), only in one case was no overground activity recorded. Yellow mongooses emerged from their burrows on average (\pm SD) 85 \pm 62 min after sunrise (range: -11 to +369 min) and returned 21 \pm 84 min before sunset (range: -518 to +225 min). The duration of the daily activity period varied between 12 min and 15 h 36 min, with a mean of 9 h 28 min (Table A2). Both sexes exhibited some overground activity after sunset, but this was more pronounced in males than in females (Table 3). Nocturnal activity outside the activity period was generally restricted to short underground activity bouts occurring at anytime of the night. Presumably these activities were related to social interactions or comfort activities, not to trophic activities. Diurnal resting, with up to 11 bouts per activity period, occurred in 98.8% of activity periods. The longest resting periods occurred early in the morning (sunbathing), late afternoon (sunbathing) and at midday, at the shade, during the hottest period of the day. Overall, yellow mongooses were active during 68 \pm 17% of the time spent outside the burrow.

Considering yearly data, a peak of overground activity (unimodal pattern) was noted between 13:00 and 16:00, and this in both males and females (Fig. 5a). However, clear seasonal variations in activity patterns were observed, as well as sexual differences during specific seasons (Figs 5b– e). Whilst the winter pattern (Fig. 5e) was similar to the yearly one, both sexes exhibited a clear reduction of activity between 11:00 and 13:00 during summer (bimodal pattern; Fig. 5c). In spring (Fig. 5b), males showed a peak of activity around midday, which fully contrasted with the activity reduction observed in females. A somewhat opposite scenario was recorded in autumn, with a clear midday peak observed in females, and two depressions being registered in the daily activity profile of males (trimodal pattern). During each season, an additional, albeit smaller, peak of activity could be observed in late afternoon–early evening.

There was a significant correlation between the onset of activity and sunrise ($r_s = 0.53$, p < 0.001, n = 83) and the offset of activity and sunset ($r_s = 0.44$, p < 0.001). Similar results were obtained when data where analysed by sex, but no correlation was found when data were analysed seasonally. Expectedly, the duration of the activity period of yellow mongooses was correlated to day length ($r_s = 0.62$, p < 0.001, n = 83). The same trend was found for the effective activity duration ($r_s = 0.38$, p < 0.001), but not for the percentage of time spent active during the activity period ($r_s = -0.081$, p = 0.468).



Figure 5. Diel activity profiles of yellow mongooses from the Great Fish River Reserve expressed as the percentage of activity per hour; a) yearly, b) spring, c) summer, d) autumn, e) winter activity profiles. n = number of activity fixes; * no night-tracking sessions were conducted during the autumn period.

Although the weight of radio-tracked mongooses of both sexes did not differ statistically (*t*-test, t = 1.22, df = 10, p = 0.25; Table 7 in Chapter 4), males were on average 16% heavier than females. There were no significant differences between the sexes as regards the different activity parameters recorded, except for the offset of activity (M later than F) and therefore the difference between the offset of activity and sunset time. However, significant differences were recorded in the number of resting bouts (more in M than in F), the resting duration (M longer than F), the minimum duration of resting bouts (F longer than M) and the duration of the activity period (longer in M than in F) when sequential Bonferroni corrections were not applied (Table 3).

Table 3. Average \pm SD and sexual differences for 12 activity parameters of yellow mongooses (seven males and five females) tracked in the Great Fish River Reserve (2005–2011). M = Males (n = 50 tracking days) and F = Females (n = 33 tracking days). * indicates parameters for which significant differences were obtained with a Mann-Whitney *U*-test, ** indicates parameters for which statistical significance was still obtained after sequential Bonferroni corrections.

Activity parameters	Sex	Average ± SD	Mann-Whitney U-test
Number of resting bouts	М	5.18 ± 2.38	U = 603.5 $n = 0.038*$
Number of resting bouts	F	4.15 ± 2.12	<i>U</i> = 005.5, <i>p</i> = 0.058
Resting duration (min)	Μ	192 ± 103	U = 605.5 $n = 0.041*$
Resting duration (min)	F	149 ± 79	e = 000.0; p = 0.011
Mean duration of resting bouts (min)	M	40 ± 31	U = 910.5, p = 0.426
	F	46 ± 34	e 910.0, p 0.120
Minimum duration of resting bouts (min)	M	11 ± 14	U = 1.047.5, $p = 0.037*$
	F	20 ± 30	e 1,017.5,p 0.007
Maximum duration of resting bouts (min)	M	94 ± 61	U = 722.5, p = 0.340
	<u> </u>	83 ± 53	
Activity period (min)	M	584 ± 150	U = 555.5, p = 0.012*
	F	544 ± 117	
Effective activity (min)	M	378 ± 149	U = 805.0, p = 0.852
	F	392 ± 102	
Percentage activity (%)	M	66 ± 19	U = 1.014.0, p = 0.079
	F	72 ± 15	,, _F ,
Onset of activity (decimal time)	M	7.96 ± 1.24	U = 923.0, p = 0.362
	F	8.03 ± 1.00	c /2010, p 01002
Offset of activity (decimal time)	М	17.72 ± 1.73	U = 463.0 $p = 0.001 **$
onset of detivity (deemail time)	F	17.06 ± 1.16	e = 163.6, p = 0.001
Difference onset-suprise (decimal time)	М	1.38 ± 1.05	U = 959.0 $n = 0.212$
Enterence onset sum ise (deennar time)	F	1.46 ± 1.02	e = 333.0, p = 0.212
Difference offset-sunset (decimal time)	Μ	-0.15 ± 1.62	U = 485.5 $n = 0.002 **$
Difference offset-sunset (deefinal time)	F	-0.67 ± 0.90	0 – +03.3, <i>p</i> – 0.002

Several significant seasonal variations were recorded in the different activity parameters (Table 4). Yellow mongoose activity periods were interspersed with significantly more resting bouts in spring and summer than during the rest of the year, but only in summer were longer resting durations and resting bout durations recorded (Table 4). Longer activity periods were observed in spring and summer, and shorter ones in autumn and winter. However, only in winter was the effective activity shorter than during the rest of the year. The percentage of activity during the activity period did not vary significantly over the year as a whole. Expectedly, due to the above-mentioned correlation with photoperiod, onset and offset times of activity varied significantly through the seasons, but not the difference with the sunrise and sunset times.

Table 4. Average \pm SD and seasonal variations in behavioural variables of *C. penicillata* (n = 12) in the Great Fish River Reserve. Values followed by the same letter do not differ significantly at the 0.05 level of significance according to *post hoc* LSD *t*-tests. n = number of seasonal tracking days. * indicates parameters for which significant differences were obtained with a one-way ANOVA, ** indicates parameters for which statistical significance was still obtained after sequential Bonferroni corrections.

Activity	Spring	Summer	Autumn	Winter	ANOVAs
parameters	(n = 8)	(n = 11)	(n = 15)	(n = 49)	
Number of resting bouts	6.25 ± 2.44 ^a	6.00 ± 2.32 ^a	$5.27 \pm 1.94^{\ ab}$	$4.11\pm2.21^{\text{ b}}$	F = 4.107, df = 3, p = 0.009*
Resting duration (min)	181 ± 94^{a}	$282\pm81^{\ b}$	$147\pm77~^a$	158 ± 92^{a}	F = 6.516, df = 3, $p = 0.001^{**}$
Mean resting bout duration	29 ± 14^{ab}	$56\pm35~^a$	28 ± 14^{b}	$46\pm35~^{ab}$	F = 2.386, df = 3, p = 0.075
Min. resting bout duration	8 ± 6^{a}	10 ± 10^{a}	8 ± 5^{a}	$19\pm27^{\ a}$	F = 1.502, df = 3, p = 0.22
Max. resting bout duration	$76\pm59^{\ a}$	$143\pm64^{\ b}$	59 ± 30^{a}	89 ± 56^{a}	F = 5.396, df = 3, $p = 0.002^{**}$
Activity period (min)	$663\pm131~^a$	761 ± 93^{a}	564 ± 63^{b}	510 ± 118^{b}	F = 18.215, df = 3, $p < 0.001^{**}$
Effective activity (min)	478 ± 108^{a}	481 ± 94^{a}	$415\pm105~^a$	$344\pm122^{\text{ b}}$	F = 6.675, df = 3, $p < 0.001^{**}$
Percentage activity	73 ± 12^{a}	$63\pm10^{\ a}$	73 ± 15^{a}	67 ± 20^{a}	F = 0.924, df = 3, p = 0.433
Onset decimal	7.07 ± 1.44 ^a	6.29 ± 0.48^{b}	$7.87\pm0.37^{\:c}$	8.55 ± 0.84^{d}	F = 26.80, df = 3, p < 0.001 **
Offset decimal	$18.12\pm1.24~^{abc}$	18.98 ± 1.19^{a}	17.27 ± 0.96^{b}	$17.06 \pm 1.60^{\ bc}$	F = 6.112, df = 3, $p = 0.001^{**}$
Diff. onset- sunrise decimal	1.91 ± 1.51 ^a	1.08 ± 0.66^{ab}	$1.02\pm0.35^{\text{ b}}$	$1.52\pm1.11^{\ ab}$	F = 2.017, df = 3, p = 0.125
Diff. offset- sunset decimal	-0.68 ± 1.15 ^a	-0.32 ± 1.15 ^a	-0.14 ± 0.99^{a}	-0.37 ± 1.60^{a}	F = 0.524, df = 3, p = 0.854

The results of the GzLM clearly indicate that sex, season and weather – with exception of wind – all affected the activity of yellow mongooses (Table 5). For sex, the parameter estimates suggest that overall males were significantly less active than females (Table 6). On a seasonal scale, activity levels differed significantly between all seasonal dyads (p < 0.001), with higher and lower activity levels observed in winter and summer, respectively. Yellow mongooses were less active when the soil was humid or wet than when it was dry. Similarly, animals were less active by misty or rainy weather than when clear and cloudy skies were recorded. Temperature was positively correlated with higher activity levels.

Table 5. Effects of sex, season and four meteorological variables on the diurnal activity of yellow mongooses (n = 11,783 diurnal activity fixes included) according to the results of a GzLM procedure (Type III test). Significant effects (p < 0.05) are indicated in bold.

Parameters	Wald Chi-Square	df	р
(Intercept)	886.175	1	< 0.001
Sex	4.231	1	0.040
Season	286.688	3	< 0.001
Soil	12.337	2	0.002
Wind	2.931	3	0.402
Weather	143.608	5	< 0.001
Temperature	707.639	1	< 0.001

Table 6. Parameter estimates of a GzLM procedure aiming at testing the effects of weather conditions on the diurnal activity of yellow mongooses (n = 11,783 diurnal activity fixes). Season₁ = spring, Season₂ = summer, Season₃ = autumn, Season₄ = winter; Soil₀ = dry soil, Soil₁ = humid soil, Soil₂ = wet up to sodden soil; Wind₀ = no wind, Wind₁ = slight wind, Wind₂ = medium wind, Wind₃ = strong up to very strong wind; Weather₀ = clear up to 30% cloud cover, Weather₁ = 40% up to 60% cloud cover, Weather₂ = 70% cloud cover up to overcast, Weather₃ = mist, Weather₄ = light rain, Weather₅ = medium up to heavy rain. Significant effects (p < 0.05) are indicated in bold.

Parameters	В	Std. Error	Chi-square	df	р
(Intercept)	-2.098	0.116	326.739	1	< 0.001
Sex _M	-0.085	0.041	4.231	1	0.040
Sex _F	0^{a}	_	_	_	_
Season ₄	0.613	0.064	92.536	1	< 0.001
Season ₃	0.400	0.074	29.438	1	< 0.001
Season ₂	-0.474	0.074	41.106	1	< 0.001
Season ₁	0^{a}	_	_	_	_
$Soil_2$	-0.341	0.097	11.061	1	0.001
\mathbf{Soil}_1	-0.104	0.053	3.870	1	0.049
\mathbf{Soil}_0	0^{a}	_	_	_	_
Wind ₃	-0.008	0.076	0.011	1	0.918
Wind ₂	0.056	0.067	0.719	1	0.397
Wind ₁	0.079	0.060	1.709	1	0.191
$Wind_0$	0^{a}	_	_	_	_
Weather ₅	-1.596	0.247	41.716	1	< 0.001
Weather ₄	-1.021	0.140	53.049	1	< 0.001
Weather ₃	-0.812	0.181	20.103	1	< 0.001
Weather ₂	0.173	0.047	13.459	1	< 0.001
Weather ₁	0.014	0.064	0.047	1	0.828
Weather ₀	0^{a}	_	_	_	_
Temperature	0.114	0.004	707.639	1	< 0.001
Scale	4.839 ^b				

^aSet to zero because this parameter is redundant.

^bEstimated by dividing the deviance by its degree of freedom and fixed at the displayed value.

3.5 Discussion

The results of this of this study expand on Cavallini's (1993a) radio-tracking data, as they cover the yearly cycle, and not only one season. However, due to the difficulty of trapping several yellow mongooses at the same time, and the lack of manpower (generally one, sometimes two researchers working at the same time on several small carnivore species), it was not possible to obtain all the required information over a single yearly period. Because data were collected over a 6-year span of time, some "heterogeneity" must have been added to the dataset (*e.g.* seasonal weather conditions might have slightly changed from one year to another). In addition, for reasons beyond the researchers' control (timing of trapping occurrences and duration of tracking periods), sample size was largely biased towards winter, as over half of the tracking days were conducted during the cold season alone. However, it is likely that the general trends obtained in this study would still stand, could the data have been collected more homogeneously and over a single year.

The results presented here confirm that yellow mongooses exhibit a pronounced diurnal pattern of activity. Over the year, both the onset and the offset of activity of radio-tracked individuals were correlated with sunrise and sunset times, respectively. Hence, the activity period was strongly correlated to day length. However, in my study, no significant correlations were observed when data were analysed on a seasonal scale. A combination of small sample size and clumping of observations during a specific period might likely explain these results. The yearly correlation was recorded in both sexes, confirming that photoperiod seems to act as a *zeitgeber* for the species as a whole (prediction 1). In the Western Cape, Cavallini (1993a) also noted that both sexes start their activities at the same time. Photoperiod has been shown to act, at least partly, as a synchronizer of the activity of both diurnal (*e.g.* Egyptian mongooses *Herpestes ichneumon*: Palomares & Delibes, 1992) and nocturnal carnivores (*e.g.* Eurasian badgers *Meles meles*: Kowalczyk *et al.*, 2003).

Yellow mongoose activity patterns exhibited clear seasonal variations. In summer, animals enjoyed longer activity periods than during other seasons. However, the fact that the effective activity duration was similar from spring to autumn seems to indicate that yellow mongooses do not profit from the longer daylight duration to forage for longer periods. The GzLM also clearly indicated that the summer season was associated with lower activity levels. It is likely that the

higher arthropod availability during summer (see Fig. 3) allows individuals to meet their daily energy requirements at least as rapidly as during spring and autumn. Expectedly, the activity period and effective activity duration were clearly shorter in the cold season than during the rest of the year. However, and surprisingly, the percentage of activity (63%) did not differ with other seasons, whereas yellow mongooses were expected to spend a higher proportion of their time active in search for food to compensate for the low arthropod availability that characterises this season (prediction 2). This said, a decrease in activity levels due to prey decline has been well documented in other predators (e.g. mink Mustela vison: Zielinski, 1988; culpeo foxes Lycalopex culpaeus: Savatori et al., 1999; raccoon dogs Nyctereutes procyonoides: Seki & Koganezawa, 2011). Indeed, when food is limited, individuals can adjust their behaviour or physiology to maintain their energy balance and body condition (Trites & Donnelly, 2003). Small mammals sensu lato have a high basal metabolic rate, and this involves great energy expenditure for a variety of tasks, such as body maintenance, movement, resource acquisition and growth (McNab, 1989). Having high energy requirements during cold periods, reducing activity in such conditions (prediction 4) can provide considerable energy savings (Zielinski, 2000). Since activity increases energy expenditure, the energetic costs for C. penicillata to forage for long periods may be too high during the winter season, when food availability is extremely restricted. In winter, yellow mongooses would also emerge from the burrow and spend some time outside sunbathing, in order to warm their body.

The cessation of activity in this species during hot periods of the day (*i.e.* midday time from spring to autumn, though mostly in summer) was also recorded by Cavallini (1993a). These behavioural adaptations to cope with thermoregulatory constraints, including changing of activity time has been observed in other species with elongated bodies, *e.g.* weasels *Mustela nivalis* and pine martens *Martes martes* (Thompson & Colgan, 1994). Mobility in yellow mongooses seems to impose a high energetic demand, and their daily movements are therefore affected by adverse ambient conditions. It was also observed that yellow mongooses were never active during rainy days, and therefore when the soil was wet. Here too, the inactivity of this species during such conditions may be due to the difficulty of obtaining food (prediction 3), especially due to a reduced or nil activity of terrestrial arthropods.

All in all, the radio-tracked yellow mongooses exhibited a considerable variation in their activity patterns. In the case of the Cape grey mongoose Galerella pulverulenta, Cavallini & Nel (1990) partly showed and suggested that this variability within the species cannot only be attributed to variations in food availability and climatic factors (as suggested above for yellow mongooses too), but could possibly also result from sexual differences. In the GFRR, radio-tracked male yellow mongooses were slightly bigger than females in terms of body mass. This should imply greater energy expenditure (McNab, 1989), and therefore more time spent active in search of food than females (prediction 5). However, the opposite was observed. Indeed, my results revealed that males rested more often and for an overall longer duration than their opposite sex. Although the resulting difference in activity duration did not reach significance, it is likely that this difference would have reached significance with a larger sample size. The GzLM analysis based on 5-min activity blocks rather than continuous tracking days clearly indicated that males have lower activity levels than females. A similar intersexual pattern where females rested less than males was found by Cavallini & Nel (1990) in their study of the Cape grey mongoose. They suggested that the resulting higher levels of activity in females could be owing to the lower prey density in their home ranges, whereas the lower activity of males might have been associated with the availability of concentrated food resources in their foraging ranges (as related to the conditions prevailing in the authors' study area) and their higher efficiency in hunting than females. The basis for the latter argument is however difficult to sustain in mongooses, due to the absence of clear morphological differences between both sexes. In any case this possible difference would have to be tested under laboratory or semi-natural conditions.

Chapter 4

Spatial ecology of the yellow mongoose

4.1 Introduction

In carnivores, space use has been found to be both affected by body size (Gompper & Gittleman, 1991) and by the distribution of resources (Macdonald, 1983). Home range size increases with body mass, which is in turn correlated with an increase in metabolic requirements (Bunnell & Harestad, 1989). The Resource Dispersion Hypothesis, on the other side, predicts that territories have to encompass a minimum total area of key habitats, and the former will therefore be larger when patches of these key habitats are more dispersed (Macdonald, 1983). These two factors seem have profound consequences on the spatial ecology of male and female carnivores, and mammals in general. Indeed, home ranges of females are generally presumed to be determined by food abundance and distribution, whereas in addition to food, male home ranges are strongly influenced by mate seeking activities (Powell, 1979; Sandell, 1989; Johnson *et al.*, 2000). Consequently, home ranges of males are often expected to be larger than those of females (Goodrich & Buskirk, 1989; McLoughlin *et al.*, 1999).

Both inter- and intraspecific variations exist among the mongoose species, in the way in which individuals are spatially distributed (for recent accounts on Herpestidae species, see Gilchrist *et al.*, 2009). For example, whilst the white-tailed mongoose *Ichneumia albicauda* is generally solitary and territorial (Waser & Waser, 1985), members of the solitary foraging small Indian mongoose *Herpestes auropunctatus* occupy broadly overlapping home ranges (Rood, 1986). Other species form highly cooperative groups, *e.g.* meerkats (Clutton-Brock *et al.*, 1998; Doolan & Macdonald, 1999), banded mongooses *Mungos mungo* (Rood, 1974; Cant, 2003; Gilchrist & Russell, 2007) and dwarf mongooses *Helogale parvula* (Rasa, 1987). Such variations seem to be partly related to the species' phylogenetic history (Nel & Kok, 1999; Veron *et al.*, 2004), but also to habitat type, and therefore resource abundance/dispersion and population density (Gorman, 1979; Rood, 1986; Gilchrist & Otali, 2002). Hence, in the white-tailed mongoose, Waser & Waser (1985) showed that the degree of range overlap between individuals increases when den

sites are limited. In another solitary species, the Egyptian mongoose *Herpestes ichneumon*, individuals can sometimes be found living in extended family groups in areas of particularly high food availability (Palomares & Delibes, 1993).

Although yellow mongooses belong to the "solitary" group of mongooses (sensu Veron et al., 2004) and are generally regarded as solitary foragers, previous studies have revealed a great deal of variation and plasticity in the socio-spatial ecology of *Cynictis*. In a high density population (133-200 ind./km²), in Vaal Dam (Free State), Earlé (1981) initially described a structure of group territories defended by both males and females, with up two 13 group members sharing a common den. Territory limits were patrolled regularly and scent-marks and faeces deposited at border latrines. In this same population, Wenhold & Rasa (1994) demonstrated that only subordinate adults engaged in territorial defence, whereas adult males never performed any territorial marking. In contrast, in a low density population (6–7 ind./km²; West Coast National Park, WCNP), Cavallini (1993b) reported that even if females defended a group home range, males had much larger ranges (up to four times bigger) that overlapped broadly with each other and with those of males from numerous neighbouring groups. The size of social units, including offspring, varied from 1 to 7 individuals. No regular border patrolling was observed. Le Roux et al. (2008) studied another low-density population (4–14 ind./km²) in the Kuruman River Reserve (KRR, Northern Cape) and found that groups consisted of 2-7 animals, including offspring. They reported that only alpha males were responsible for territory defence and border scentmarking, whilst subordinates were only marking near the cores. Finally, in a medium-density population (23–26 ind./km²) living in a farmland near Heidelberg (Western Cape), yellow mongooses formed groups in which both males and females defended a common territory that was used equally by all group members (6.3 on average). Overlap between home ranges of group members was extensive, whereas the ranges of neighbouring groups overlapped little or were clearly distinct from one another (Balmforth, 2004).

The above-mentioned variations have led to the view that yellow mongooses display an intermediate level of sociality (Balmforth, 2004; Le Roux, 2007). For this reason, further research in areas with differing habitats, climate and population density could provide explanations as to which factor(s) promote(s) the transition from solitary to group-living.

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4.2 Aim, objectives and predictions

This study was conducted with the aim to investigate the spatial behaviour of the yellow mongooses belonging to a formerly unstudied population (in the Great Fish River Reserve, GFRR), and compare my findings with the previous information collected on this species, when available at all. Estimations based on den distribution, observations at the den, haphazard observations when conducting field work, trapping data, and home range size suggest that the population density of yellow mongooses is low in the GFRR, with roughly 4–10 ind./km².

In particular, I aimed at determining: a) the total and daily home range sizes and perimeters of yellow mongooses, b) the daily movement distances travelled by radio-tracked individuals, c) possible intersexual and seasonal variations in the above-mentioned parameters, and d) the spatial distribution of individual home ranges.

The predictions for this study were:

- Males will have larger total home ranges than females, and their home ranges will overlap with those of neighbouring females, because at low population density males seem to be polygynous (Cavallini, 1993b). The expected difference should go way beyond the observed body mass dimorphism and related metabolic demands (Goodrich & Buskirk, 1998).
- If food or more generally resource abundance and distribution determine space use (Macdonald, 1993), as well as carrying capacity and population density, we should then expect yellow mongooses to have larger home ranges in the GFFR than in medium and low density populations.
- 3. Males' daily ranges will be larger and movement distances will be longer than those of females outside of the reproductive season (summer and autumn) due to their higher body mass and metabolic requirements (Gittleman & Harvey, 1982; Bunnell & Harestad, 1989; Gompper & Gittleman, 1991; Palomares 1994). An even higher difference should be observed during the reproductive season (see reasons below).

- 4. Males' daily ranges will be larger and movement distances will be longer during the reproductive season (winter and spring) than after it (summer and autumn), as males are expected to search for oestrous females and increase scent-marking and patrolling activities during the breeding period (Earlé 1981; Wenhold & Rasa, 1994; Balmforth, 2004; Zalewski *et al.*, 2004; Le Roux *et al.*, 2008).
- Yellow mongooses will cover larger daily ranges and/or move over longer distances during winter and spring than during summer and autumn, as these first two seasons are characterised by the lowest availability of their main prey, namely terrestrial arthropods (Fig. 3, p. 8). However, since this factor might be confounded by reproductive activity (see prediction 4), the potential effect should be tested in females only.

4.3 Materials and methods

4.3.1 Trapping and radio-tracking

The trapping and tracking was carried out in a similar way as for the study on activity patterns (see Chapter 3.3.1 for details). In order to facilitate radio-telemetric work, convenient tracking points were marked along the roads using a GPS device (Model eTrex, GARMIN International, Olathe, Kansas) and also on the maps of the reserve in order to take the daily locations of the animals. Fixes for the assessment of daily home ranges and daily movement distances were taken once every 30 minutes during continuous tracking sessions. Tracking started before sunrise and ended after the focus animal entered a burrow and engaged in nocturnal rest. Animals were located by triangulation on foot using a hand-held three element antenna (Wildlife Materials Inc., Murphysboro, IL, USA). Even though the sound made by the vehicle might have influence the behaviour of yellow mongooses (*ie.* the study animal running away when hearing the sound of the car), a vehicle was also used to locate the *Cynictis penicillata* by means of a portable VHF receiver (Model TR-4, Telonics, Mesa, AZ, USA and Model R-1000, Communications Specialists Inc., Orange, CA, USA).

4.3.2 Expression of results and data analysis

The daily movement distance (DMD) was calculated as the sum of straight-line distances between consecutive locations (Kowalczyk *et al.*, 2006) taken at intervals of 30 min. Interlocational distances were measured with a ruler on a 1:10,000 map after bearings were reported onto it. Overall, the accuracy of inter-location distance was \pm 30 m. The average speed of travel was calculated by dividing the DMD by the effective duration of activity (*i.e.* resting bouts during the activity period were not taken into account). Tracking locations were entered in ArcView GIS 3.3 (ESRI, Redlands, CA, USA) and daily and total home range sizes and perimeters were calculated with Biotas 1.03 Alpha (Ecological Software Solutions LLC, Hegymagas, Hungary). Home range sizes and perimeters were evaluated with the Minimum Convex Polygon method taking 100% of the locations into account (MCP 100%). Spatial parameters were compared between males and females, and between the different seasons. Mann-Whitney *U*-tests and Kruskal-Wallis tests were used when data did not meet the assumptions of normality as revealed by a Kolmogorov test. Parametric tests (*t*-tests and ANOVAs) were used otherwise. The significance level was set at 0.05.

4.4 Results

From 2005 to 2011, 12 yellow mongooses (five males and seven females) were radio-tracked for periods varying from only a few days to over eight months (Table A1). Overall, 1,491 locations were collected from 84 full tracking days (n = 1,349 locations), random locations (n = 121) and resting sites (n = 21). On average (\pm SD) 122 \pm 72 locations (range: 19–232) were used to calculate the total home range size and perimeter of radio-tracked individuals. The number of locations used for males and females did not differ significantly (Mann-Whitney *U*-test, *U* = 21, *p* = 0.63).

The total home range (MCP 100%) varied from 0.10 to 2.36 km² (for details, see Table A1; Fig. 8), with an average of $0.55 \pm 0.65 \text{ km}^2$. Although total home ranges of males were on average more than twice larger than that of their female counterparts (Table 7), this difference did not

reach statistical significance for both MCP 100% (Mann-Whitney *U*-test, U = 25, p = 0.22) and MCP 95% (*t*-test, t = 1.154, df = 10, p = 0.28). However, a significant intersexual difference was recorded when daily home ranges were compared statistically (U = 1,165, p < 0.003), with males clearly exploiting larger areas ($0.13 \pm 0.15 \text{ km}^2$) than females ($0.05 \pm 0.05 \text{ km}^2$). This difference cannot be attributed to sample size discrepancy, as the total number of locations used to calculate daily ranges was similar (U = 95, p = 0.32) for males (16 ± 6) and for females (16 ± 7).

The total perimeter covered by *C. penicillata* was on average 2.80 ± 1.71 km (range: 1.17–7.36 km). Here too, no intersexual difference was found when perimeters of total home ranges were compared statistically (U = 25, p = 0.22; Table 7), but male daily ranges had larger perimeters (1.47 ± 0.92 km) than those of females (0.96 ± 0.51 km; U = 1,154, p < 0.004). The DMDs of males (1.99 ± 1.07 km) were significantly longer (U = 466.5, p = 0.001) than that travelled by females (1.29 ± 0.66 km). Males (0.29 ± 0.13 km/h) also travelled at a faster speed than females (0.18 ± 0.07 km/h) (U = 311.0, p < 0.001).

When daily home ranges and perimeters were compared on a seasonal basis, no overall statistically significant difference was found (Kruskal-Wallis test, home ranges: H = 4.59, df = 3, p = 0.20; perimeters: H = 4.04, df = 3, p = 0.26; Table 8 and Fig. 6). Similarly, there were no statistically significant seasonal variations in the DMD travelled by yellow mongooses (ANOVA, F = 4.00, df = 3, p = 0.14; Table 8 and Fig. 7) and the speed at which they moved (F = 0.30, df = 3, p = 0.80; Fig. 7b).

Males covered larger daily ranges (U = 38.0, p = 0.033), perimeters (U = 30.0, p = 0.012) and distances (U = 26.0, p = 0.006) than females outside the breeding period (Table 9). The same was not observed during the breeding period, as only daily ranges were larger in males than in females (U = 277.0, p = 0.039). When comparing data between the breeding and the non-breeding season, no difference was observed for females (t-tests, df = 31, p > 0.44 in all cases; Table 9). For males, however, the perimeter of daily ranges was larger (t = -1.879, df = 49, p = 0.032) during the non-breeding period than when females were receptive. Differences observed for the daily ranges (t-test for unequal variances, t = -1.879, df = 18.59, p = 0.141) and DMDs, (U = 381.0, p = 0.066) were large (see Table 9) but not statistically significant.

Table 7. Sex, number of radio-tracked individuals (n), average body mass (g), home-range size (km²) and perimeter (km) of the studied yellow mongooses in the Great Fish River Reserve (2005–2011). Data are given as means \pm SD.

Sex	n	Body mass	Home range MCP 100%	Home range MCP 95%	Perimeter MCP 100%
Male	7	861 ± 179	0.73 ± 0.80	0.48 ± 0.49	3.28 ± 2.09
Female	5	743 ± 142	0.30 ± 0.23	0.22 ± 0.12	2.12 ± 0.75

Table 8. Number of tracking days per season (n) and seasonal values of MCP 100% daily ranges (km²), related perimeters (km) and daily movement distances (DMD; km) of yellow mongooses.

Season	n	Daily range	Perimeter	DMD
Spring	7	0.12 ± 0.05	1.55 ± 0.42	2.11 ± 0.72
Summer	11	0.21 ± 0.28	1.85 ± 1.46	2.27 ± 1.67
Autumn	15	0.09 ± 0.07	1.25 ± 0.69	1.70 ± 0.79
Winter	51	0.08 ± 0.08	1.22 ± 0.56	1.61 ± 0.77
Year	84	0.09 ± 0.13	1.27 ± 0.82	1.77 ± 0.94

Table 9. Number of tracking days (n), seasonal values of MCP 100% daily ranges (km²), related perimeters (km) and daily movement distances (DMD; km) of male and female yellow mongooses during and after the breeding season.

Season	Sex	n	Daily range	Perimeter	DMD
Winter & Spring	Male	34	0.10 ± 0.09	1.27 ± 0.71	1.74 ± 0.95
(breeding period)	Female	24	0.05 ± 0.05	1.00 ± 0.51	1.34 ± 0.69
	Total	58	$\boldsymbol{0.08 \pm 0.08}$	1.16 ± 0.64	$\boldsymbol{1.57 \pm 0.86}$
Summer & Autumn	Male	17	0.19 ± 0.23	1.86 ± 1.18	2.37 ± 1.26
(non-breeding period)	Female	9	0.06 ± 0.06	0.85 ± 0.53	1.14 ± 0.58
	Total	26	$\textbf{0.14} \pm \textbf{0.19}$	1.51 ± 1.10	1.94 ± 1.22

Figure 6. Seasonal variations in a) daily range size (km^2) and b) daily range perimeter (km) of radio-tracked yellow mongooses (n = 12) in the Great Fish River Reserve (2005–2011).

Figure 7. Seasonal variations in a) daily movement distance (m) and b) travel speed (km/h) of radio-tracked yellow mongooses (n = 12) in the Great Fish River Reserve (2005–2011).

Figure 8. The distribution and shape of the total home ranges of the 12 yellow mongooses (seven males and five females) radio-tracked in the Great Fish River Reserve (2005–2011).

4.4 Discussion

Spatial data presented in this chapter were collected over a 6-year period. For this reason and because the research team could never trap and radio-tag at the same time more than one individual from a specific burrow, it made it impossible to appropriately study home range overlaps among members of the same "social unit". In this study, traps were only checked twice a day, in the morning and in the late hours of the afternoon. It is possible that more frequent checks (so as to be able to remove the trapped animal within minutes from the capture) would have allowed to avoid potential trap avoidance by other group members following a successful trapping event.

In addition, an evaluation of home range overlaps between individuals of different units was seriously compromised by the fact that some of the denning sites actively used by yellow mongooses – or at least where trapping was successful – were separated by distances of several kilometres (see Fig. 8).

In spite of the above-mentioned limitations, trapping and radio-tracking data, as well as observations made while conducting field work suggest that yellow mongooses live in pairs or in small groups consisting of a pair and one or two additional adults – probably offspring that did not disperse (yet?) from the natal burrow –, as well as the possible young of the year. This type of social organization seems to be characteristic of low density populations, as was already described by Cavallini (1993b) and Le Roux *et al.* (2008). In addition to the role played by habitat characteristics (food abundance, number of favourable den sites), the observed low density might result from the important predation pressure exerted by medium carnivores. Indeed, during the study period, no less than eight out of the 12 radio-collared individuals were killed. The radio-collars that were recovered from the field showed teeth bites' signs, probably of black-backed jackals (see Table A1). It is hard to believe that such fatalities would solely be linked to the possible disturbance created by radio-collars (added weight, increased fatigue, lower vigilance), as some fatalities were only recorded after several months and other animals had at least survived until the collar failed (see Table A1).

The home ranges of yellow mongooses in the GFRR ($0.55 \pm 0.65 \text{ km}^2$, n = 12, MCP 100%) were similar to those obtained by Cavallini (1993b) during autumn in the WCNP ($0.59 \pm 0.46 \text{ km}^2$, n = 7, MCP 100%). Data collected for males in the GFRR ($0.73 \pm 0.80 \text{ km}^2$, n = 7, MCP 100%) also corresponded to those found in the WCNP ($1.02 \pm 0.32 \text{ km}^2$, n = 7, MCP 100%) and by Le Roux et al. (2008) in the KRR ($0.76 \pm 0.21 \text{ km}^2$, n = 6, Kernel 95%). Females' home ranges were also similar in the GFRR ($0.30 \pm 0.28 \text{ km}^2$, n = 5, MCP 100%) and in the WCNP ($0.27 \pm 0.17 \text{ km}^2$, n = 3, MCP 100%). Only one adult (dominant) female was tracked in Le Roux *et al.*'s (2008) study, and her home range was 0.20 km² in size. Concordantly with prediction 2, individual home range sizes recorded by Balmforth (2004) in her medium density population were two to three times smaller (0.26 \pm 0.06 km², n = 11, MCP 100%) than in low density populations, whereas at very high density, Earlé (1981) recorded home range sizes of only 0.05-0.06 km². The latter value, however, was most probably an underestimate, because data were not obtained with radio-tracking, but through visual observations. In the WCNP, yellow mongooses were reported to travel an average distance of 3.23 ± 1.14 km per day (Cavallini & Nel, 1995), which is almost twice longer as the values obtained in this study (1.77 \pm 0.94 km). Locations were collected every 15 min in the WCNP, as opposed to every 30 min in the GFRR, what might explain this

important discrepancy. This consideration, however, does not invalidate the inter-sexual differences obtained in my study (see below).

In the GFRR, radio-tracked vellow mongooses demonstrated a considerable variation in their ranging behaviour. Besides the potential differences related to the duration and timing of radiotracking periods, part of this variation, as already suggested above, could be ascribed to sex. Indeed, the total home ranges of male yellow mongooses were about 2.4 times larger than those of females, which is way above the average ratio (1.16) recorded for body mass difference (prediction 1). Although the range size difference was not statistically significant, it is believed that this result was largely due to small sample size and the fact that most individuals could not be tracked for long enough periods. The large home range size difference, together with the distribution (overlap) of some male and female home ranges (on the left side of Fig. 8), suggest that male yellow mongooses show a potential or tendency for polygyny (prediction 1). The same pattern was observed by Cavallini (1993b) in the low density population he studied in WCNP. Interestingly such spatial patterns were recorded in autumn, *i.e.* outside of the reproductive period. Similar variations in home range size attributed to sex have been reported in other small to medium carnivore species such as the Cape grey mongoose Galerella pulverulenta (Cavallini & Nel, 1990, 1995), the pine marten Martes martes (Zalewski et al., 2004) and the honey badger *Mellivora capensis* (Begg *et al.*, 2005).

Another source of variation in home range size and other spatial parameters can be attributed to temporal changes in food availability and climatic conditions (*e.g.* in stoats *Mustela erminea*: Erlinge & Sandell, 1986; and Eurasian badgers *Meles meles*: Do Linh san *et al.*, 2007b), as well as changes in the reproductive status of individuals (*e.g.* in common genets *Genetta genetta*: Camps Munuera & Llimona Llobet, 2004). In the present study, sample sizes were too small to calculate seasonal home ranges and investigate possible variations thereof. However, daily spatial parameters could be tested statistically, and no significant seasonal differences were recorded. In Poland, Zalewski *et al.* (1995) showed that the daily ranges of martens increased with decreasing density of prey. In the case of yellow mongooses, and contrarily to prediction 4, female spatial ecology was apparently not affected by food availability. Indeed, daily ranges and movement distances were not larger and longer, respectively, when terrestrial arthropods were less abundant (winter–spring). It is possible that the nursing activities of both mothers and

female helpers (Balmforth, 2004), which take place during the lean period, constrain them to forage near to the burrow. Indeed, contrarily to other mongoose species (e.g. meerkats), pups only start accompanying foraging adults at a very late stage, when aged about two months (Rasa et al., 1992). Another, possibly overarching reason, is that low temperatures might constitute the principal factor contributing to the decrease in home range size during winter. As suggested by Pereira (2010), small carnivores may intentionally restrict their movements as a strategy to minimize their energy expenditure when temperatures are low. This would also explain why, contrarily to what was expected (prediction 5), males tended to travel longer distances and roam over larger daily ranges during the non-breeding period (= hot rainy season) than when females were receptive (= cold dry season). Finally, a current study on the dietary habits of the yellow mongoose in the GFRR (Bizani, in prep.) might indicate whether Cynictis feeds on alternative, more abundant and profitable food resources (e.g. rodents) during winter and spring. This could possibly allow both males and females to quickly meet their energy requirements and therefore restrict their activity (see Chapter 3) and movements. However, we cannot exclude that the reduction in ranging behaviour shown by males might be more reminiscent of mate guarding than coherent with polygyny, as was also observed in red foxes (Cavallini, 1998).

Gittleman & Harvey (1982) and Lindstedt *et al.* (1986), amongst others, showed that differences in body mass/size can also affect the spatial ecology of carnivores and mammals in general. In this study, males covered larger daily ranges and longer perimeters and distances than females outside of the reproductive season (prediction 3). However, the ratios recorded (2.1-3.2) were well above the intersexual body mass ratio. These two observations suggest that besides temperature and possibly reproductive activity, other, unknown factors play a role in the spatial differences registered, and this would be worth investigating in a future study. This could also help understanding why male home ranges are still disproportionately larger than that of females outside of the breeding period, as reported by Cavallini (1993b) and Le Roux *et al.* (2008) in other low density populations.

CONCLUSION

In this dissertation, I presented for the first time information on the activity patterns and spatial ecology of the yellow mongoose across a full seasonal cycle in the Albany Thicket Biome. I essentially provided data on a) the duration of the activity period, b) the occurrence and duration of resting bouts during the activity period, c) the daily activity profile, d) the total and daily home range size and perimeter, e) the daily movement distance travelled by radio-tracked individuals, and f) intersexual and seasonal variations in the above-mentioned parameters.

At the beginning of the study, I formulated predictions related to environmental factors (photoperiod, climatic conditions, food availability), as well as life cycle (reproduction) and morphological and physiological characteristics (sexual dimorphism and thermoregulatory aspects). The following was found:

- 1. Photoperiod acted as the *zeitgeber* (timegiver), as the onset and offset of the activity period of yellow mongooses were correlated to the sunrise and sunset times; **prediction fully met**.
- 2. The availability of terrestrial arthropods was lower in spring and winter than in summer and autumn. In winter, yellow mongooses exhibited low activity levels, whereas they were expected to compensate for the low food availability by spending more time active during the day. This suggests that low temperatures affect yellow mongoose activity budget more than low food availability (see point 4 below). In contrast, activity levels were the highest in spring, but it is unclear whether this was due to a) the low food availability and facilitated by the higher daily temperatures (as compared to winter), b) the increased activity during the reproductive season or 3) an artefact linked to small sample size; **prediction not or only partially met**.
- 3. Low terrestrial arthropod activity probably affected the activity levels of yellow mongooses during rainy weather and/or when the soil was wet, as radio-tracked individuals were less active during such conditions; **prediction fully met**.
- 4. Yellow mongooses were less active during cold and hot weather conditions, presumably due to their elongated bodies that lead to higher than average surface to volume ratio, and therefore higher heat loss and overheating risk; **prediction fully met**.

- 5. No intersexual difference in activity levels was found. Females were therefore proportionally (with regard to body mass) more active than males, which is exactly the opposite of what was expected; prediction not met. It would be interesting to further explore whether this lower activity of males might be associated with the availability of concentrated food resources in their foraging ranges and/or their higher hunting efficiency as compared to females.
- 6. Males had larger total home ranges than females, because at low population density (as was the case in the GFRR) males seem to be polygynous and their home ranges overlap with those of several females; **prediction fully met**.
- 7. Yellow mongooses have larger home ranges in the GFFR than in medium and low density populations, probably because resource abundance and distribution determine space use and consequently carrying capacity and population density; **prediction fully met**.
- 8. Males' daily ranges were larger and movement distances were longer than those of females outside of the reproductive season (summer and autumn). However, the observed difference was well above the intersexual body mass ratio; **prediction met**, but (an) other overarching factor(s) probably affect male spatial behaviour outside of the breeding season.
- 9. Males' daily ranges were smaller and movement distances shorter during the reproductive season (winter and spring) than after it. The opposite was expected, as males are to search for oestrous females and increase scent-marking and patrolling activities during the breeding period; prediction not met. It is possible that, like other small carnivore species, male yellow mongooses intentionally restrict their movements as a strategy to minimize their energy expenditure when temperatures are low. The consumption of alternative prey (*e.g.* rodents) might also help males to quickly meet their energy requirements and therefore restrict their activity (see point 2 above) and movements. The possible role of mate-guarding would be worth investigating.
- 10. Females' daily ranges were smaller and movement distances shorter during winter and spring (low arthropod availability) than during summer and autumn (high arthropod availability). The opposite was expected; prediction not met. Here too, cold conditions and the consumption of alternative prey might explain the observed pattern. It is also possible that

the nursing activities of both mothers and female helpers constrain them to forage near to the burrow.

The above-mentioned conclusions must of course be put into perspective with the characteristics of the samples used for the analyses, and must therefore be considered with some caution. Indeed, spatio-temporal data presented and analysed in this dissertation were collected over a 6-year period and were largely biased towards the winter season. For this reason, and because the research team could never trap and simultaneously radio-track more than one individual from a specific burrow, an evaluation of home range overlaps was seriously compromised.

In spite of the such limitations, trapping and radio-tracking data, as well as observations suggest that in the GFRR yellow mongooses live in pairs or in small groups consisting of a pair, one or two additional adults, as well as the young of the year. This type of social organization seems to be representative of low density populations (4–10 ind./km² in the GFRR). In addition to the role played by key resources (food, den sites), the observed low density might result from the important predation pressure exerted by mesocarnivores, particularly black-backed jackals.

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APPENDICES

ID	Sex	Weight (g)	Group/Burrow	Tracking period	Tracking days	Tracking nights ^a	Home range (km ²)	Perimeter (km)
F4 ^c	Female	815	Grasslands	08.09.2005-23.10.2005	1	0	0.18	1.79
F14 ^c	Female	740	Kentucky	15.06.2006-23.11.2006	4	0	0.32	2.33
M18 ^c	Male	890	Kentuckykop	24.11.2006-26.11.2006	3	0	0.33	2.43
M25 ^c	Male	740	Kentucky	01.08.2007-30.01.2008	10	0	2.36	7.36
M27	Male	980	Kentucky	14.05.2008-09.12.2008	10	0	0.74	3.63
F29 ^c	Female	580	Village-Gate	21.06.2008-23.06.2008	3	0	0.15	1.58
M30 ^b	Male	980	Village-Gate	03.07.2008-07.08.2011	17	2	1.12	4.35
F32	Female	940	Kentucky	17.06.2010-11.12.2010	11	6	0.69	3.35
M35 ^c	Male	1060	Grasslands	24.06.2010-12.08.2010	4	3	0.21	1.87
M36 ^c	Male	850	Junction 10	28.06.2010-07.07.2010	4	1	0.29	2.18
M46 ^c	Male	530	Grasslands	18.04.2011-20.04.2011	3	0	0.10	1.17
F48	Female	640	Grasslands	14.05.2011-04.08.2011	14	6	0.16	1.56

Table A1. Code (ID), sex, body mass at capture, area of capture, tracking period, number of tracking days and nights (continuous sessions), home range size (as determined by the MCP 100% method) and perimeter of individual yellow mongooses in the Great Fish River Reserve (2005–2011).

^aFor most animals tracked between June 2006 and January 2009, nocturnal activity data were obtained through semi-continuous tracking sessions and random locations.

^bThis animal was last tracked on 19.01.2009 and retrapped and fitted with a new radio-trasnmitter on 15.06.2011.

^cAnimals that were killed by predators (probably only jackals).

Behavioural parameter	n*	Mean	SD	Min	Max
Number of resting bouts	83	4.77	2.32	0	11
Resting duration (min)	83	175	96	0	382
Mean duration of resting bouts (min)	83	42	32	0	187
Minimum duration of resting bouts (min)	83	15	22	0	151
Maximum duration of resting bouts (min)	83	89	58	0	310
Travelled distance (m)	84	1688	994	0	5960
Travel speed (m/min)	83	4.18	2.02	0.00	12.29
Travel speed (km/h)	83	0.25	0.12	0.00	0.74
Mean distance (m) travelled in 30 min	83	86	45	0	248
Max distance (m) travelled in 30 min	83	307	157	0	890
Activity period (min)	83	568	139	12	936
Effective activity (min)	84	383	132	0	627
Percentage time active (%)	83	68.4	17.3	16.3	100
Onset of activity (decimal time)	83	7.99	1.14	5.62	11.13
Offset of activity (decimal time)	83	17.46	1.56	9.98	21.62
Difference onset-sunrise (decimal time)	83	1.41	1.03	-0.18	6.15
Difference offset-sunset (decimal time)	83	-0.35	1.40	-7.63	3.76
Difference onset-sunrise (hour)	83	01H25	01H02	-00H11	06H09
Difference offset-sunset (hour)	83	-00H21	01H24	-07H38	03H45

Table A2. Mean, standard deviation (SD), minimum and maximum of behavioural parameters of the yellow mongoose in the Albany Thicket Biome of South Africa, based on 84 diurnal continuous radio-tracking sessions (2005–2011).

*No emergence was recorded on one tracking day, reason why sample size is reduced to n = 83 for some parameters.

Table A3. Activity parameters of yellow mongooses investigated through 84 diurnal continuous tracking sessions conducted in the Albany Thicket Biome of South Africa (2005–2011). ID = identity of animal, NRB = number of resting bouts, RD = resting duration, MEAN DRB = mean duration of resting bouts, MIN DRB = minimum duration of resting bouts, MAX DRB = maximum duration of resting bouts, START = onset of activity, STOP = offset of activity, AP = duration of the activity period, EA = effective activity, %A = percentage activity, DL = day length, DIFF ONSET-SUNRISE = difference between onset of activity and sunrise time, DIFF OFFSET-SUNSET = difference between offset of activity recorded during the tracking day.

ID	DATE	TRACK DAY	N RB	RD	MEAN DRB	MIN DRB	MAX DRB	START	STOP	AP	EA	%A	SUNRISE	SUNSET	DL	DIFF ONSET- SUNRISE	DIFF OFFSET- SUNSET
F4	23.10.2005	1	7	65	9	5	20	06H45	18H05	11H20	585	86	05H23	18H32	13H09	01H22	-00H27
F14	15.06.2006	1	6	51	9	3	24	08H26	17H03	08H37	468	91	07H14	17H12	09H58	01H12	—00Н09
F14	18.06.2006	2	3	134	45	4	120	09H00	17H35	08H35	381	74	07H15	17H13	09H58	01H45	00H22
F14	23.11.2006	3	7	252	36	5	88	05H38	20H05	14H27	615	71	04H59	19H00	14H01	00H46	01H05
F14	18.01.2007	4	6	361	60	8	185	05H44	21H20	15H36	575	61	05H22	19H24	14H02	00H22	01H56
M18	24.11.2006	1	7	294	42	4	200	08H03	19H08	11H05	371	56	04H59	19H01	14H02	03H04	00H10
M18	25.11.2006	2	2	29	15	14	15	10H07	17H00	06H53	384	93	04H58	19H02	14H04	05H09	—02Н02
M18	26.11.2006	3	9	224	25	5	94	06H43	19H07	12H24	520	70	04H59	19H03	14H04	01H45	00H04
M25	01.08.2007	1	4	77	19	3	62	07H55	20H34	12H39	613	81	07H04	17H34	10H30	00H51	03H00
M25	16.08.2007	2	5	153	31	19	91	07H55	17H55	09H30	396	70	06H50	17H45	10H55	01H50	-00H20
M25	21.08.2007	3	6	125	21	3	57	08H00	18H03	10H03	474	79	06H45	17H48	11H03	01H15	00H15
M25	22.08.2007	4	4	203	51	21	81	10H09	21H37	11H28	422	62	06H43	17H49	11H06	03H26	03H45
M25	23.08.2007	5	6	308	51	3	142	08H35	15H47	07H12	125	29	06H42	17H49	11H07	01H53	-02H47
M25	25.10.2007	6	4	157	39	20	52	06H00	18H02	12H02	565	78	05H21	18H33	13H12	00H39	-00H31
M25	10.01.2008	7	5	151	30	5	58	06H00	18H58	12H58	627	81	05H14	19H26	14H12	00H46	-00H28
M25	28.01.2008	8	8	382	48	4	198	05H33	19H11	13H18	424	53	05H31	19H20	13H49	00H22	—00Н09
M25	28.01.2008	8	8	382	48	4	198	05H33	19H11	13H18	424	53	05H31	19H20	13H49	00H22	—00Н09

Table A3. (CONTINUED)

ID	DATE	TRACK DAY	N RB	RD	MEAN DRB	MIN DRB	MAX DRB	START	STOP	AP	EA	%A	SUNRISE	SUNSET	DL	DIFF ONSET- SUNRISE	DIFF OFFSET- SUNSET
M25	29.01.2008	9	7	261	37	5	143	06H33	19H45	13H12	531	67	05H32	19H19	13H47	01H01	00H26
M25	30.01.2008	10	7	303	43	14	75	06H19	19H20	13H01	485	62	05H33	19H18	13H45	00H46	00H02
M27	14.05.2008	1	6	117	20	4	57	07H31	16H57	09H26	445	79	06H56	17H22	10H26	01H35	-00H25
M27	16.05.2008	2	6	42	7	3	19	07H49	17H43	09H54	555	93	06H57	17H21	10H24	00H52	00H22
M27	20.05.2008	3	5	133	27	4	60	08H00	20H11	12H11	597	82	07H00	17H18	10H18	01H00	02H53
M27	23.05.2008	4	2	46	23	8	38	08H37	17H15	08H38	470	91	07H02	17H17	10H15	01H35	-00H02
M27	26.05.2008	5	2	15	8	3	12	08H10	17H30	09H20	534	95	07H04	17H15	10H11	01H06	00H15
M27	27.05.2008	6	6	198	33	15	67	07H48	17H30	09H42	381	65	07H05	17H15	10H10	00H43	00H15
M27	29.05.2008	7	5	146	29	5	72	07H36	17H26	09H50	442	75	07H06	17H14	10H08	00H30	00H12
M27	28.08.2008	8	2	264	132	3	193	07H40	17H07	09H27	290	51	06H35	17H53	11H18	01H05	-00H46
M27	29.08.2008	9	4	99	25	4	77	07H55	20H34	12H39	493	65	06H34	17H54	11H20	01H21	02H40
M27	09.12.2008	10	6	345	58	11	115	06H46	19H01	12H15	390	53	04H57	19H14	14H17	01H49	00H13
F29	21.06.2008	1	7	69	10	5	25	08H35	17H03	08H28	440	87	07H16	17H14	09H58	01H19	-00H11
F29	22.06.2008	2	5	119	24	3	63	08H23	17H47	09H24	444	79	07H16	17H14	09H58	01H07	00H33
F29	23.06.2008	3	4	61	15	3	35	09H23	17H00	07H37	393	86	07H16	17H14	09H58	02H07	-00H14
M30	03.07.2008	1	8	274	34	5	171	08H00	18H08	10H02	336	56	07H17	17H18	10H01	-00H11	01H00
M30	09.07.2008	2	6	221	37	3	131	08H48	17H10	08H22	279	56	07H16	17H21	10H05	01H32	-00H11
M30	11.07.2008	3	6	311	52	10	180	08H05	17H10	09H05	234	43	07H15	17H22	10H07	00H50	-00H12
M30	16.08.2008	4	7	189	27	4	111	08H09	17H30	09H21	362	65	07H13	17H25	10H12	00H56	00H05
M30	21.08.2008	5	3	127	42	4	82	08H30	17H28	08H58	410	76	07H11	17H28	10H17	01H19	00H00

Table A3. (CONTINUED)

ID	DATE	TRACK DAY	N RB	RD	MEAN DRB	MIN DRB	MAX DRB	START	STOP	AP	EA	%A	SUNRISE	SUNSET	DL	DIFF ONSET- SUNRISE	DIFF OFFSET- SUNSET
M30	24.08.2008	6	7	293	42	4	150	08H04	18H19	10H15	326	53	07H10	17H28	10H18	00H54	00H51
M30	18.11.2008	7	8	347	43	3	97	08H41	16H10	07H29	104	23	07H09	17H30	10H21	01H32	-01H20
M30	11.12.2008	8	9	180	20	3	44	06H08	16H40	10H32	446	71	05H01	18H56	13H55	01H07	-02H16
M30	19.01.2009	9	11	212	19	4	65	06H01	19H33	13H32	598	74	04H57	19H15	13H18	01H04	00H18
M30	17.06.2011	10	5	364	73	4	197	05H37	19H07	13H30	445	55	05H23	19H24	14H01	00H14	-00H17
M30	17.06.2011	11	1	58	58	58	58	10H37	16H31	05H54	296	84	07H15	17H13	09H58	03H22	00H42
M30	18.06.2011	12	3	223	74	51	102	08H37	17H01	08H24	281	56	07H15	17H13	09H58	01H22	-00H12
M30	19.06.2011	13	4	146	37	20	93	08H46	17H07	08H21	355	71	07H15	17H13	09H58	01H31	-00H06
M30	25.07.2011	14	0	0	0	0	0	_	_	_	0	0	07H09	17H30	10H21	-07H09	-17H30
M30	05.08.2011	15	0	0	0	0	0	09H47	09H59	00H12	12	100	07H01	17H37	10H36	02H46	-07H38
M30	06.08.2011	16	2	149	75	40	109	11H08	14H21	03H13	45	23	07H00	17H38	10H38	04H08	-03H17
M30	07.08.2011	17	1	12	12	12	12	10H35	17H54	07H19	427	97	06H59	17H39	10H40	03H36	02H15
F32	17.06.2010	1	10	161	16	3	42	08H21	16H51	08H30	354	69	07H15	17H13	09H58	01H06	00H22
F32	08.07.2010	2	2	135	68	10	125	09H01	16H11	07H10	300	70	07H16	17H20	10H04	01H45	01H09
F32	09.07.2010	3	4	142	36	5	69	08H40	17H05	08H25	363	72	07H16	17H20	10H04	01H24	-00H15
F32	10.07.2010	4	2	165	83	54	111	08H37	16H45	09H08	322	59	07H16	17H21	10H05	01H21	00H36
F32	05.08.2010	5	1	51	151	151	151	09H30	17H07	07H37	306	67	07H01	17H37	10H36	02H29	-00H30
F32	06.08.2010	6	2	134	67	5	129	07H52	17H32	09H40	446	77	07H00	17H38	10H38	00H52	00H06
F32	11.08.2010	7	4	100	25	5	48	08H05	16H59	08H54	432	81	06H55	17H41	10H46	01H10	-00H42
F32	04.10.2010	8	5	249	50	6	92	07H09	16H52	09H43	334	57	05H46	18H17	12H31	01H23	-01H25

Table A3. (CONTINUED)

ID	DATE	TRACK DAY	N RB	RD	MEAN DRB	MIN DRB	MAX DRB	START	STOP	AP	EA	%A	SUNRISE	SUNSET	DL	DIFF ONSET- SUNRISE	DIFF OFFSET- SUNSET
F32	09.12.2010	9	2	306	153	41	265	07H07	17H32	10H25	319	51	04H57	19H14	14H17	02H10	01.42
F32	10.12.2010	10	5	247	49	8	143	06H33	18H15	11H42	455	65	04H57	19H14	14H17	01H36	00H59
F32	11.12.2010	11	4	167	42	8	126	06H43	16H47	10H04	437	72	04H57	19H15	14H18	01H46	02H28
M35	24.06.2010	1	5	304	61	3	141	07H51	17H23	09H32	261	46	07H16	17H14	09H58	00H35	00H09
M35	25.06.2010	2	7	238	34	10	77	08H02	17H35	09H33	340	59	07H16	17H14	09H58	00H46	00H21
M35	26.06.2010	3	5	271	54	3	130	08H12	17H09	08H51	261	49	07H19	17H15	09H56	00H57	—00Н09
M35	06.07.2010	4	2	374	187	64	310	08H36	17H48	09H12	179	32	07H16	17H19	10H03	01H20	00H29
M36	28.06.2010	1	6	105	18	5	42	07H45	17H20	09H35	470	82	07H17	17H15	09H58	00H28	00H05
M36	29.06.2010	2	4	199	50	22	81	08H03	17H58	09H55	395	66	07H16	17H16	10H00	00H46	00H42
M36	30.06.2010	3	4	186	47	6	80	07H54	16H27	08H33	327	64	07H16	17H16	10H00	00H37	-00H49
M36	07.07.2010	4	4	52	13	5	21	08H18	17H06	08H48	481	91	07H16	17H19	10H03	01H02	-00H13
M46	18.04.2011	1	7	217	31	5	84	07H44	17H22	09H38	351	61	06H37	17H48	11H11	01H07	-00H26
M46	19.04.2011	2	9	169	19	7	41	07H14	17H31	10H17	449	73	06H37	17H46	11H09	00H37	-00H12
M46	20.04.2011	3	7	286	41	6	100	07H36	16H48	09H12	265	48	06H38	17H45	11H07	00H58	-00H57
F48	14.05.2011	1	4	117	29	10	50	08H18	16H34	08H16	379	76	06H55	17H23	10H28	01H23	-00H49
F48	15.05.2011	2	5	138	28	4	51	07H43	17H27	09H44	446	76	06H56	17H22	10H26	00H47	00H05
F48	16.05.2011	3	5	265	53	16	86	08H16	16H12	07H56	211	44	06H57	17H21	10H24	01H19	-01H08
F48	17.05.2011	4	7	149	21	15	33	08H11	16H23	08H12	343	70	06H58	17H21	10H23	01H13	-00H04
F48	17.05.2011	5	3	169	56	12	119	07H31	16H12	08H41	352	68	06H58	17H20	10H22	00H33	-00H36
F48	14.06.2011	6	3	103	34	6	50	08H04	17H08	09H04	441	81	07H14	17H12	09H58	00H50	-01H07

Table A3. (CONTINUED)

ID	DATE	TRACK DAY	N RB	RD	MEAN DRB	MIN DRB	MAX DRB	START	STOP	AP	EA	%A	SUNRISE	SUNSET	DL	DIFF ONSET- SUNRISE	DIFF OFFSET- SUNSET
F48	15.06.2011	7	5	122	24	7	59	07H48	16H36	08H48	406	77	07H14	17H12	09H58	00H34	-01H21
F48	22.06.2011	8	2	40	20	16	24	08H25	16H07	07H48	422	90	07H16	17H14	09H58	06H09	—00Н39
F48	22.07.2011	9	3	90	30	24	66	08H29	16H08	07H39	369	80	07H11	17H29	10H18	01H18	-01H40
F48	23.07.2011	10	6	172	29	6	57	08H08	16H50	08H42	350	67	07H10	17H29	10H19	00H58	—00Н39
F48	24.07.2011	11	4	272	68	47	103	10H18	15H49	05H31	54	16	07H10	17H29	10H19	03H08	-01H40
F48	03.08.2011	13	2	99	50	48	51	08H06	16H11	08H05	386	80	07H03	17H36	10H33	01H03	-01H25
F48	04.08.2011	14	1	66	66	66	66	07H51	15H25	07H34	388	85	07H02	17H37	10H35	00H49	-02H12

Table A4. Behavioural parameters of yellow mongooses investigated through 84 diurnal continuous tracking sessions in the Albany Thicket Biome of South Africa (2005–2011). ID = identity of animal, n = number of locations, DMD = daily movement distance, MEAN and MAX D = mean and maximum distances travelled between two consecutive locations (collected every 30 min), respectively, TS = travelling speed. Daily range sizes and perimeters were determined by means of the MCP 100% method.

ID	DATE	TRACKING DAY	n	DMD	MEAN D	MAX D	TS (m/min)	TS (km/h)	DAILY RANGE (km²)	PERIMETER (km)
F4	23.10.2005	1	19	3000	130	400	5.13	0.31	0.18	1.79
F14	15.06.2006	1	35	1820	107	270	3.89	0.23	0.12	1.75
F14	18.06.2006	2	25	1210	61	450	3.18	0.19	0.05	1.14
F14	23.11.2006	3	29	2210	74	430	3.59	0.22	0.1	1.59
F14	18.01.2007	4	35	2070	61	300	3.6	0.22	0.21	1.83
M18	24.11.2006	1	24	2400	104	600	6.47	0.39	0.16	2.04
M18	25.11.2006	2	14	1650	118	230	4.3	0.26	0.13	1.36
M18	26.11.2006	3	21	1760	70	420	3.38	0.2	0.07	1.45
M25	01.08.2007	1	24	2860	110	510	4.67	0.28	0.08	1.44
M25	16.08.2007	2	19	1780	94	340	4.49	0.27	0.05	0.88
M25	21.08.2007	3	20	2010	101	330	4.24	0.25	0.04	0.87
M25	22.08.2007	4	23	2070	86	230	4.91	0.29	0.04	1.01
M25	23.08.2007	5	5	590	39	250	4.72	0.28	0.01	0.49
M25	25.10.2007	6	23	3050	127	370	5.4	0.32	0.23	1.98
M25	10.01.2008	7	22	3290	127	510	5.25	0.31	0.38	2.76
M25	28.01.2008	8	17	870	33	220	2.05	0.12	0.01	0.59
M25	29.01.2008	9	25	2960	100	580	5.07	0.3	0.21	2.34
M25	30.01.2008	10	25	5960	248	890	12.29	0.74	0.92	4.8
M27	14.05.2008	1	17	2270	119	240	5.1	0.3	0.16	1.52

Table A.4. (CONTINUED)

ID	DATE	TRACKING DAY	n	DMD	MEAN (D)	MAX (D)	TS (m/min)	TS (km/h)	DAILY RANGE (km²)	PERIMETER (km)
M27	16.05.2008	2	21	2950	134	440	5.31	0.31	0.18	2.23
M27	20.05.2008	3	17	2470	99	290	4.1	0.25	0.11	1.54
M27	23.05.2008	4	19	2090	116	350	4.45	0.27	0.19	2.15
M27	26.05.2008	5	18	2180	115	270	4.08	0.24	0.18	2.19
M27	27.05.2008	6	18	2240	112	350	5.88	0.35	0.14	1.77
M27	29.05.2008	7	18	2770	139	460	6.27	0.38	0.13	1.96
M27	28.08.2008	8	11	2060	103	390	7.1	0.43	0.15	1.66
M27	29.08.2008	9	21	3300	150	390	6.69	0.4	0.27	2.35
M27	09.12.2008	10	10	2160	86	300	5.54	0.33	0.04	1.05
F29	21.06.2008	1	16	2350	138	390	5.34	0.32	0.05	1.25
F29	22.06.2008	2	14	1900	100	360	4.28	0.26	0.09	1.34
F29	23.06.2008	3	17	1940	129	420	4.94	0.3	0.01	1.53
M30	03.07.2008	1	15	2720	130	400	8.1	0.49	0.25	2.19
M30	09.07.2008	2	14	1120	66	470	4.01	0.24	0.04	1.63
M30	11.07.2008	3	12	1830	61	420	3.93	0.24	0.15	1.62
M30	16.08.2008	4	14	2650	156	500	7.32	0.44	0.28	2.17
M30	21.08.2008	5	18	840	44	160	2.05	0.12	0.01	0.5
M30	22.08.2008	6	9	1280	61	420	3.93	0.24	0.02	0.98
M30	24.08.2008	7	1	0	_	-	-	_	0.00	0.00
M30	18.11.2008	8	18	1940	88	420	4.35	0.26	0.14	1.82
M30	11.12.2008	9	22	3800	141	660	6.35	0.38	0.43	3.84

Table A.4. (CONTINUED)

ID	DATE	TRACKING DAY	n	DMD	MEAN (D)	MAX (D)	TS (m/min)	TS (km/h)	DAILY RANGE (km²)	PERIMETER (km)
M30	19.01.2009	10	16	610	23	100	1.37	0.08	0.01	048
M30	17.06.2011	11	10	1230	103	290	4.16	0.25	0.06	1.09
M30	18.06.2011	12	12	1030	61	190	3.67	0.22	0.03	0.81
M30	19.06.2011	13	12	2070	115	420	5.63	0.25	0.13	1.53
M30	25.07.2011	14	2	0	0	0	0	0	0.00	0.00
M30	05.08.2011	15	1	0	0	0	0	0	0.00	0.00
M30	06.08.2011	16	2	30	4	30	0.67	0.04	0.00	0.00
M30	07.08.2011	17	15	3230	215	460	7.56	0.45	0.33	2.81
F32	17.06.2010	1	16	780	46	120	2.2	0.13	0.01	0.31
F32	08.07.2010	2	11	1210	101	360	4.03	0.24	0.03	0.97
F32	09.07.2010	3	15	980	54	145	2.7	0.16	0.01	0.45
F32	10.07.2010	4	18	810	48	140	2.52	0.15	0.01	0.45
F32	05.08.2010	5	17	660	44	230	2.16	0.13	0.22	1.01
F32	06.08.2010	6	15	1680	84	380	3.77	0.23	0.09	1.58
F32	11.08.2010	7	13	2290	127	370	5.3	0.32	0.17	1.81
F32	04.10.2010	8	15	880	44	200	2.63	0.16	0.02	0.75
F32	09.12.2010	9	21	620	30	110	1.94	0.12	0.01	0.46
F32	10.12.2010	10	22	1350	56	160	2.97	0.18	0.03	0.7
F32	11.12.2010	11	22	1630	71	170	3.73	0.22	0.11	1.43
M35	24.06.2010	1	17	1700	81	450	6.51	0.39	0.1	1.46
M35	25.06.2010	2	17	1960	103	400	5.76	0.35	0.09	1.46

Table A.4 (CONTINUED)

ID	DATE	TRACKING DAY	n	DMD	MEAN (D)	MAX (D)	TS (m/min)	TS (km/h)	DAILY RANGE (km²)	PERIMETER (km)
M35	26.06.2010	3	13	1490	83	320	5.71	0.34	0.07	1.21
M35	06.07.2010	4	16	790	42	240	4.41	0.26	0.03	0.72
M36	28.06.2010	1	19	2960	148	460	6.3	0.38	0.21	2
M36	29.06.2010	2	17	2020	101	380	5.11	0.31	0.08	1.26
M36	30.06.2010	3	15	1780	99	300	5.44	0.33	0.12	1.38
M36	07.07.2010	4	19	2830	149	350	5.88	0.35	0.08	1.11
M46	18.04.2011	1	18	1290	65	190	3.68	0.22	0.04	0.85
M46	20.04.2011	3	18	1130	59	160	4.26	0.26	0.01	0.47
M46	20.04.2011	3	19	1130	59	160	4.26	0.26	0.01	0.47
F48	14.05.2011	1	13	1220	72	200	3.22	0.19	0.04	0.83
F48	15.05.2011	2	16	1030	52	230	2.31	0.14	0.04	0.83
F48	16.05.2011	3	11	40	2	20	0.19	0.01	0.00	0.00
F48	17.05.2011	4	12	970	57	230	2.83	0.17	0.03	0.73
F48	17.05.2011	5	12	1340	74	300	3.81	0.23	0.04	0.83
F48	14.06.2011	6	14	1450	81	200	3.29	0.2	0.06	1
F48	15.06.2011	7	14	1250	69	230	3.08	0.18	0.03	0.89
F48	22.06.2011	8	15	730	46	150	1.73	0.1	0.02	0.5
F48	22.07.2011	9	13	1350	84	190	3.66	0.22	0.04	0.76
F48	23.07.2011	10	12	710	46	150	2.03	0.12	0.01	0.51
F48	24.07.2011	11	1	0	84	190	0	0	0.00	0.00
F48	02.08.2011	12	12	1240	39	200	3.05	0.18	0.06	1.08

Table A.4 (CONTINUED)

ID	DATE	TRACKING DAY	n	DMD	MEAN (D)	MAX (D)	TS (m/min)	TS (km/h)	DAILY RANGE (km²)	PERIMETER (km)
F48	03.08.2011	13	11	910	0	0	2.36	0.14	0.03	0.78
F48	04.08.2011	14	12	870	78	210	2.24	0.13	0.02	0.67

