1	Effects of temporary captivity on ranging behaviour in
2	urban red foxes (Vulpes vulpes)
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12	Abstract
13	Temporary removal of wild animals from a resident territory has the potential to
14	markedly impact subsequent ranging behaviour, and may negatively affect post-
15	release welfare and survival. Admission of sick or injured wildlife into temporary
16	captivity (termed 'rehabilitation') is a common practice in the UK. However, post-
17	release monitoring of rehabilitated animals is unusual or restricted to recording
18	survival rates over limited time periods. As part of a wider study of urban fox
19	behaviour, we employed an experimental approach to compare the ranging behaviour
20	of seven rehabilitated and 13 wild-caught 'control' urban red foxes using GPS
21	tracking. Foxes were tracked over a two-year period for an average of 48 nights, and

- seasonal and sex-related effects were controlled for via inclusion in statistical models.
- 23 Three of the five movement parameters we investigated were irregular for the
- 24 rehabilitated animals, relative to controls. These were: reduced likelihood of

25	establishing a stable home range (42.9/57.1% of rehabilitated foxes versus 84.6% of
26	controls); larger home ranges (Kruskal Wallis test, $\chi^2 = 7.517$, df = 1, p < 0.01); and
27	further distance travelled from release point, as measured by overlap between initial
28	and final home ranges (Linear regression, $F_{1, 12} = 4.755$, df = 1, P < 0.05). Females
29	moved greater distances than males overall, and foxes from both groups travelled
30	further in spring, and delayed home range establishment in summer. However, these
31	results were skewed by the movements of two apparently cooperatively breeding
32	wild-caught vixens. Our data provide evidence of territorial displacement of
33	rehabilitated foxes on release. We discuss the welfare implications of this finding.
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44	Key words: red fox, ranging behaviour, captivity, rehabilitation, home range, ex situ

45 **1.** Introduction

46 Urban-dwelling simultaneously provides benefits and poses risks for wild mammals (Baker
47 and Harris, 2007) particularly carnivores (Bateman and Fleming, 2012). The red fox (*Vulpes*48 *vulpes*) is widespread in UK conurbations (Scott et al., 2014), which in general are resource49 rich, with low rates of anthropogenic persecution (Baker and Harris, 2007). However, high
50 rates of injury from road traffic (Baker et al., 2007) and other form of misadventure,
51 combined with enzootic disease (e.g. Soulsbury et al., 2007) and the visibility of foxes to the
52 public, result in relatively high rates of admission of foxes to wildlife rehabilitation centres.

53 1.1 Wildlife rehabilitation

54 Wildlife rehabilitation is defined by the International Wildlife Rehabilitation Council 55 (IWRC), as the 'treatment and temporary care of injured, diseased, and displaced 56 indigenous animals, and the subsequent release of healthy animals to appropriate 57 habitats in the wild' (Miller, 2012). Rehabilitation is common practice in the UK – an 58 estimated 71,000 wild animals are annually admitted to rehabilitation centres, of 59 which an estimated 28,000 are released (Grogan and Kelly, 2013). Despite this there 60 is no universally agreed 'successful outcome' of rehabilitation (Mullineaux, 2014). 61 Furthermore, the potentially negative ecological impacts of release following 62 rehabilitation to receiving populations are often overlooked (Mullineaux, 2014) and 63 impacts on the welfare of rehabilitated animals inadequately considered. Post-release 64 monitoring is essential for evaluation of wildlife rehabilitation success (Mullineaux, 65 2014) yet is undertaken by few rehabilitation programmes (Guy et al 2013). Instead, 66 successful outcomes are usually evaluated in terms of release rates of admitted 67 animals (Kelly et al., 2010). 68

Where post-release data are collected, it is often to determine survivorship rates overrelatively short time periods. This is particularly evident in studies of raptors (e.g.

71 Leighton et al., 2008; Griffiths et. al, 2010), but is also true for mammals, e.g. 72 hedgehogs (Erinaceus europaeus) (Molony et al., 2006) and polecats (Mustela 73 putorius) (Kelly et al., 2010). Whilst assessing short-term survival is clearly an 74 important objective, other measures of animal welfare are required to truly evaluate 75 the rehabilitation process. This is especially true for carnivores because of their 76 tendency to be socially complex (Gittleman, 1996) resulting in a greater potential for 77 social stress and consequent negative effects. Techniques for determining survival 78 such as radio and GPS tracking can be used to additionally monitor detailed 79 movement patterns (i.e. ranging behaviour) at little extra effort and these data can be 80 used as a proxy measure of disruption to social systems.

81 **1.2** Behavioural ecology of red foxes

82 Red foxes are flexible in their social organisation and occupy contiguous and 83 mutually exclusive group territories in several UK cities (e.g. Oxford: Doncaster and 84 Macdonald, 1997; White et al, 1996; Bristol: Baker et al, 2000). In such resource-rich 85 urban environments, foxes can occur at high densities (Harris and Rayner, 1986; 86 Soulsbury et al., 2010). In accordance with the Resource Dispersion Hypothesis 87 (RDH) urban foxes have small home ranges and large group sizes (Baker et al., 88 2000). Consequently, the creation of a vacant territory via death, removal or 89 emigration of members of the resident social group, has the potential to markedly 90 alter fox territory configuration, ownership and social group composition. This is particularly likely to be the case when vacating individuals are dominant (White et al., 91 92 1996) and overlap between adjoining groups is greatest; e.g. during the main dispersal 93 period in late autumn (Robertson et al., 2000; Soulsbury et al., 2011) or when males 94 make winter mating incursions into neighbouring territories (White and Harris, 1994).

95 **1.3 Territorial displacement**

96 Temporary removal of an adult fox from a group territory might initiate displacement 97 of that animal post-release, although the extent of this is likely to vary with age, sex 98 and social status on removal. A returning fox might therefore be expected to make 99 exploratory movements for establishing or joining a territory elsewhere. This process 100 may mirror dispersal and is associated with high mortality due to animals traversing 101 unfamiliar terrain and crossing more major roads (Baker et al., 2007). Robertson and 102 Harris (1995a) describe the ranging behaviour of two groups of captive-reared 103 'juvenile' foxes, classed as those under one year-old: one group released into a novel 104 environment ('hard-released); and the other with site acclimation ('soft-released'). An 105 'erratic phase' was observed for both groups immediately following release (although 106 this was less marked in the latter group) characterised by episodic rapid movements, 107 after which ranging behaviour became more constant and a smaller area was used, i.e. 108 a home range. The duration of this erratic phase was longer than the period of 109 unsettled movements reported for dispersing wild foxes and behaviour more 110 disorientated.

111 **1.4** Aims and objectives

112 Few studies describe the effects of captivity (and subsequent absence from a resident 113 range) on adult carnivores. Previous research on post-release ranging behaviour and 114 survival of red foxes focused on captive-reared juveniles in rural environments 115 (Robertson and Harris 1995a and b) and did not have a control group as a baseline for 116 comparisons. Our study fills a knowledge gap by investigating post-release movement 117 of rehabilitated adult and sub-adult urban red foxes that were temporarily kept in 118 captivity, as compared to a control group of 'wild' foxes over the same time period. 119 Data were collected from the control group as part of a wider study aimed at 120 characterising focal activity areas in urban foxes. We hypothesised that, if displaced, 121 the rehabilitated foxes would behave differently to their counterparts in situ.

Specifically, we tested five predictions concerning rehabilitated relative to control group movements. These were that rehabilitated animals would: i) travel further from the point of release; ii) cover greater distances on a nightly basis; iii) move over a larger area; iv) be less likely to establish a stable home range; and v) take longer to establish a home range. Our findings will help to elucidate the potential impacts of *exsitu* care of wild foxes on their post-release behaviour.

128 **2.** Methods

129 **2.1** Study sites

130 The study was conducted between April 2012 and 2014 in eight urban areas in 131 England and Wales, UK: Brighton and Hove, East Sussex; Woodingdean, East 132 Sussex; Rustington, West Sussex; Teignmouth, Devon; Brixham, Devon; London; 133 Manchester; and Newport, Gwent. A total of 20 foxes were tracked using GPS 134 telemetry, of which 13 were wild-caught (7 males and 6 females) and seven were 135 rehabilitated (5 males and 2 females) (see Table 1). Wild-caught foxes were released 136 at the site of capture immediately, whereas rehabilitated foxes were released at the 137 site of capture following an absence of between two and eight weeks. All wild-caught 138 foxes were tracked in the city of Brighton and Hove (N 50.82253, E -0.137163; 139 WGS84) whereas rehabilitated foxes were tracked in each of the towns or cities listed 140 above (Table 1). Each fox was tracked for at least one season over a period of two 141 years. Seasons were classified as: spring (March to May); summer (June to August); 142 autumn (September to November); and winter (December to February).

143 2.2 Live-capture and attachment of GPS collars

144 Foxes were captured in galvanised steel humane cage traps (Pest- Go Limited,

- London, www.pestgo4u.com) measuring 5ft x 18' with a mesh size of 2 inches x 2
- inches. Up to 10 traps per capture session were deployed in private gardens or public

147 parks with restricted access. Traps were positioned along fox paths, gaps in fences or 148 hedges, or other known access points, parallel to a wall, fence or tree where possible. 149 The end of traps were placed against an obstruction or blocked with heavy objects to 150 prevent foxes or non-target animals digging out the bait without entering the trap. 151 Traps were baited with eggs, chicken or sausages and bait was also dragged along the 152 ground in the area immediately surrounding the trap to create a scent trail. Traps were 153 baited and set in the early evening and checked twice per night to minimise the length 154 of time a fox was confined.

155 When a fox was captured, it was transferred to a galvanised steel 1 x 1inch mesh 156 holding cage, weighed, sexed and approximately aged (from size, time of year, and 157 incisor-wear [Harris, 1978]) and assessed for suitability for anaesthesia. All cubs, 158 pregnant vixens, and animals in poor body condition were immediately released. 159 Combined anaesthesia was administered by intra-muscular injection in a graded 160 syringe, with dosages determined by weight, and consisting of Medetomidine 161 hydrochloride (0.02mg /kg body weight) (Domitor, 1mg/ml solution), Ketamine 162 hydrochloride (4mg/kg) (Ketaset, 1ml solution) and Butorphanol tartrate (0.4mg/kg) 163 (Torbugesic, 10 mg/ml solution). Anaesthesia was reversed prior to release of the fox 164 using an intramuscular injection of Atipamezole hydrochloride (0.1mg/kg) 165 (Antisedan, 5 mg/ml solution). Anaesthesia was carried out under Home Office 166 licence, in accordance with the Animals (Scientific Procedures) Act (1986). The 167 trapping procedure underwent ethical review under the Pharmacy and Biomedical 168 Sciences School Ethics Committee at the University of Brighton. 169 Anaesthetised animals were fitted with GPS Tellus collars bearing VHF and GSM 170 modules (manufactured by FollowIt, Lindesberg AB, Bandygatan 2, SE 711 34, 171 Lindesberg, Sweden) and remotely-programmable drop-off units for collar retrieval at

172	the end of the study.	. Collars	weighed a maximur	n of 240g,	, within the 3% of
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173 minimum body weight guideline for welfare of tagged animals (Kenward, 2001).

174 2.3 Data analysis

175 GPS collars were programmed to record location data in the form of WGS84 X and Y 176 coordinates from satellites every 10-15 minutes, which were downloaded 177 automatically onto digitised maps of the study areas (www.followit.se). These 178 locations formed the basis of all subsequent analyses. The inter-location interval was 179 chosen to maximise the resolution of the data whilst reducing the probability of 180 temporal autocorrelation, on the basis that within this period a fox would be able to 181 comfortably cross an average home range (Doncaster and Macdonald, 1997). 182 All spatial and statistical analyses were computed in Ranges (Version 8, Anatrack 183 Ltd, 52 Furzebrook Road, Wareham, BH20 5AX, Dorset, United Kingdom) and R 184 (Version 3.2.0: R Foundation for Statistical Computing, Vienna, Austria).

185 2.3.1 Estimation of error

186 An experiment was conducted to estimate the error associated with location data 187 derived from the Tellus GPS collars within an urban environment. A fixed route was 188 followed within an area of central Brighton and Hove within which wild foxes were 189 tracked. One observer carrying a GPS collar paused at 15-minute intervals 190 (corresponding to the study inter-location interval) at 9 predefined and mapped road 191 intersections. Satellite locations were later downloaded and deviation from true 192 locations recorded as straight-line distances using the measuring tool in ArcMap 193 Version 10.3.1, 2015 (Environmental Systems Research Institute [ESRI], Redlands, 194 California, USA). The mean difference in metres (\pm SE) between true locations and 195 those downloaded from GPS satellites was 19.411 (\pm 5.433). This was deemed 196 acceptable to robustly meet the study objectives given that inferences were derived

197 from comparisons between capture status groups (i.e. wild-caught versus rehabilitated198 foxes) with similar error.

199 2.3.2 Incremental area analysis

200 Quantification of animal movement is commonly described by the Utilisation 201 Distribution (UD) - a relative frequency distribution for animal locations in space and 202 time (e.g. Van Winkle, 1975). Kernel density estimators (KDE) are widely reported in 203 the literature as robust statistical tools for quantitatively describing the UD (e.g. 204 Worton, 1989; Cuming and Cornélis, 2012). We used KDE ('kernels') as the basis of 205 the movement analysis conducted in our study. Movements of all foxes were initially 206 characterised using Incremental Area Analysis (IAA) generated by 99% kernel 207 isopleths, which plot the area used by each individual as successive locations are 208 added (Kenward et al, 2008). In this process the number of locations that characterise 209 a stable home range for a defined period is determined as the point at which the curve 210 plateaus and the area traversed remains the same with successive locations - also 211 known as an asymptote (Springer, 2003). Inflection points were identified by eye 212 from IAA plots and used as a measure of: i) whether or not individual foxes reached 213 stable home ranges (asymptotes) and; ii) if asymptotes were reached how long this 214 process took in terms of number of locations and number of nights. In addition, we 215 determined the number of locations/nights to reach 100% of the total area used; 216 hereafter termed 'maximum area' and contrasted this with time to reach asymptote for 217 each animal. This was to identify and characterise any accelerated periods of 218 movement over large areas, analogous to the erratic phase documented by Robertson 219 and Harris (1995a) and occurring prior to habitual use of a smaller area, i.e. a home 220 range. Thus, we would expect resident animals to reach maximum area and asymptote 221 more-or-less simultaneously, whereas displaced animals would be expected either to 222 reach asymptote at a later stage than maximum area, or not at all. Datasets were

truncated accordingly and all subsequent analyses were conducted on truncated data.

224 Any individual foxes exhibiting unusual behaviour that was considered to be

anomalous were subsequently removed and all analyses re-computed.

226 2.3.3. Time to asymptote and maximum area

Potential effects of capture status on the number of nights to reach: i) asymptote; and
ii) maximum area were investigated using Poisson regression within a Generalised
Linear Model (GLM). To investigate potentially confounding effects of sex and
season, both of these variables were included as model terms. A three-way interaction
term was also included between capture status (hereafter 'CS'), sex and season. A
backwards stepwise procedure of model selection was followed where non-significant
terms were sequentially removed in order of lowest *F* values.

234 2.3.4 Home range size

235 Fixed kernels were used to generate 95% home range isopleths (i.e. all locations, 236 excluding outliers) defining an area in hectares (ha), for the foxes in each of the CS 237 groups that reached asymptote. Although Least Squares Cross Validation (LSCV) for 238 estimating the smoothing parameter (h) in KDE is recommended by a number of 239 authors (e.g. Seaman et al, 1999; Horne and Garton, 2006) it is sensitive to sample 240 size and can under-smooth kernel isopleths, resulting in artificially fragmented home 241 ranges, particularly when using data derived from GPS tracking (Kie et al., 2010). In 242 the current study fox locations were individually assessed by eye and compared to 243 both LSCV-inflected and fixed KDE, with the latter better representing actual 244 movement patterns overall. Testing for normality and equal variance was performed prior to analysis by generating histograms and using Bartlett's test for homogeneity. 245 246 Home range size was non-normally distributed with unequal variance (Bartlett's test,

247 $K^2 = 28.281$, df = 1, P < 0.001) hence comparisons between CS groups were 248 computed using the Kruskal Wallis non-parametric test.

249 2.3.5 Distance travelled

250 Inter-location analysis, which generates distances between all locations for each 251 animal, was computed for the: i) asymptote and ii) maximum area datasets. Each 252 dataset was cleaned before use as follows: all 'daytime' fixes – defined as the period 253 between 08:00 h and 16:00 h were removed (this period was based on the earliest 254 evening activity and the latest morning activity observed by foxes during the study, 255 used throughout the year for consistency); distances were totalled for each night and 256 divided by the number of hours over which data were recorded to derive a distance 257 per hour (DPH) per night. The effects of CS, sex and season, and a three-way 258 interaction term on DPH were subsequently investigated for each dataset using linear 259 regression. Exploration of normality and heterogeneity was performed via generation 260 of histograms on both observed data and residuals, and Bartlett's test for 261 homogeneity. Both response variables (and residuals) were non-normally distributed, 262 with unequal variance (Bartlett's test, asymptote: $K^2 = 51.553$, P < 0.001; maximum 263 area: $K^2 = 58.768$, P < 0.001) and were subsequently log-transformed for analysis.

264 2.3.6 Home range overlap

To investigate home range shifts in rehabilitated foxes as a potential consequence of displacement, fox locations for each CS category were pooled over 3-day periods and 95% home range polygons were generated using fixed kernel density estimators (KDE). We considered three days to be long enough to generate a sufficient number of locations to robustly describe the UD, and short enough to be sensitive to changes over time. Percentage overlap between initial (first 3 days) and last (last 3 days) home ranges were computed using overlap analysis, and converted into proportions. 272 Proportional overlap was approximately normally distributed and variances were 273 equal (Bartlett's test, $K^2 = 1.382$, P > 0.05) hence comparisons between CS groups 274 were computed using simple linear regression.

275 **3. Results**

276 Of the 20 foxes, 19 (95%) survived the tracking period, with one rehabilitated male 277 (RH7) dying of a suspected brain tumour five days post- release. In addition, one 278 wild-caught male (WC8) dispersed from its putative home range in Brighton and 279 Hove 73 days following release, and 65 days after asymptote was reached. The fox 280 travelled approximately 70 km in a straight-line distance from the point of origin (315 281 km in total) traversing surrounding rural areas and towns before the GPS collar 282 battery failed and tracking ceased. Furthermore, two wild-caught females (WC12 and 283 WC13) tracked simultaneously and lactating when captured in spring were observed 284 to be provisioning the same litter of cubs, although it is unknown which vixen gave 285 birth to the litter.

286 **3.1 Proportion reaching asymptote**

Of the 13 wild-caught (WC) foxes, 11 (84.6%) reached asymptote during the tracking
period. Of the 7 rehabilitated (RH) foxes only 4 reached asymptote (57.1%) and this
was reduced to 3/7 (42.9%) when RH7 was removed.

290 **3.2** Time to asymptote and maximum area

291 Rehabilitated foxes were more variable than wild-caught ones in the time taken to a) 292 traverse 100% of the total area covered (i.e. time to reach maximum area) (Figure 1; 293 Table 2) and; b) time to reach asymptote, where this occurred (Figure 2; Table 2). 294 Capture status (CS) influenced time to maximum area (GLM, Likelihood ratio $\chi^2 =$ 295 4.251, *df* =1, *P*<0.05) with RH foxes taking longer to reach maximum area than WC 296 foxes (*Maximum Likelihood Parameter Estimate [MLPE]* = 0.999, z=2.835, p<0.01). 297 There was an effect of season (GLM, Likelihood ratio $\chi^2 = 23.427$, df = 3, p < 0.001) 298 where foxes took longer in summer than any other season (winter, MLPE = -1.389, 299 z=-3.939, p<0.001; autumn, *MLPE*= -0.999, z=-3.225, p<0.01; spring, *MLPE*= -1.418, z=-4.958, p<0.001). A significant interaction between season and CS (χ^2 = 300 301 22.570, df = 2, p < 0.001) was also detected. A greater proportion of wild-caught foxes 302 reached asymptote and maximum area simultaneously, i.e. home ranges encompassed 303 the full extent of the area used (Table 2). CS had no effect on time to asymptote 304 (GLM, Likelihood ratio $\chi^2 = 1.337$, df = 1, P>0.05) but there were seasonal differences (GLM, Likelihood ratio $\chi^2 = 14.262$, df =2, P<0.001) where foxes reached asymptote 305 306 more quickly in winter than in autumn (MLPE= -1.012, z=-2.570, p<0.05) or spring

307 (*MLPE*= -1.155, z=-170, p<0.01).

308 **3.3** Home range size and overlap

309 For the 15 foxes that reached asymptote, mean 95% home range size (\pm SE) was 310 118.5 (\pm 67.23) hectares for RH foxes and 14.2 (\pm 3.26) hectares for WC ones, and 311 this difference was statistically significantly (Kruskal Wallis test, $\chi^2 = 7.517$, df = 1, p 312 < 0.01). In addition, proportional overlap between the first and last 95% 3-day home 313 ranges differed between CS groups (Linear regression, F_{1,12} =4.755, df=1, P < 0.05) and was smaller in RH foxes (MLPE = -0.498, t = 2.181, P < 0.05). Two of the four 314 315 RH foxes (50%) and one of the 11 WC foxes (9%) showed zero proportional overlap 316 between the ranges (see Figure 3 for examples).

317 **3.4 Distance travelled**

318 Mean DPH per night $(\pm SE)$ for the period until maximum area was reached was

319 290m (\pm 24.9) for RH foxes and 361.3m (\pm 41.9) for WC ones. There was no

difference between the two groups (Linear regression, $F_{1, 179} = 0.4554$, P > 0.05).



333 4. Discussion

334 4.1 Evidence of territorial displacement

335 Our findings showed that several aspects of urban fox ranging behaviour were 336 different in animals that had been subject to temporary captivity, and we interpret 337 these irregular movements as evidence of displacement of rehabilitated foxes from a 338 resident area. We present evidence to support prediction one - that rehabilitated foxes 339 would travel further from the point of release - in the form of reduced overlap 340 between initial and final home ranges in rehabilitated animals. Our data are also 341 consistent with prediction three - that of rehabilitated foxes moving over a larger 342 area, as evidenced by larger home ranges in this group; and four – of proportionally 343 fewer rehabilitated foxes establishing a stable home range.

However, for other movement measures we either did not detect a difference betweencapture status groups, or found the reverse relationship. Wild-caught foxes travelled

346 further on a nightly basis during the period until a stable home range was reached, 347 which contrasts with prediction two - that rehabilitated foxes would travel greater 348 distances. We explain this apparently anomalous finding in section 4.2. There was 349 also no difference between capture status groups in the time taken to reach a stable 350 home range (which conflicts with prediction five), although rehabilitated foxes did 351 take longer to traverse the maximum area used. We argue that the lack of a delay in 352 home range establishment by rehabilitated foxes may actually reflect a dichotomous 353 relationship between captivity and movement patterns where either rehabilitated 354 animals were completely displaced (and home range establishment simply did not 355 occur) or they were not displaced at all. As non-displaced foxes comprised the 356 asymptote cohort, a comparison with wild-caught animals would reveal little 357 difference between the two groups.

Data were less precise for rehabilitated than control animals, notwithstanding the subsequent unusual behaviour of WC8. This may simply reflect both smaller sample sizes, and unbalanced datasets for the former group, particularly for the asymptote subset, which was by nature restricted to data from fewer individuals. However it may also suggest that there are individual-based factors that cause foxes to respond unpredictably following release from temporary captivity, which were not explicitly modelled in this study.

365 4.2 Seasonal and sex-related patterns

Seasonal patterns in time to establish a stable home range, and nightly distance travelled, did not vary between capture status groups in our study. For both groups greater distances were travelled in spring, and the establishment of stable home ranges was delayed in the summer and accelerated in the winter. This is broadly consistent with the stages of the fox reproductive cycle, and associated shifts in both energetic requirements and territorial activity, which themselves reflect changing

weather conditions. However, the extent to which seasonal changes in food
availability drive these patterns is unclear. Although food availability is widely
considered to be a limiting factor driving territory size and ranging behaviour in
carnivores (Macdonald, 1983) anthropogenic food sources are significant components
of urban fox diet (e.g. scavenged food comprised 64% of fox diet by weight in Bristol
[Saunders et al., 1993]) and tend to be more consistently available throughout the year
than natural food items (White et al., 1996).

379 Our findings showed interactions between: i) season and capture status in terms of 380 time to traverse maximum area used; and ii) sex and capture status in terms of nightly 381 distance travelled for the period until a stable range was reached. There are two well-382 documented processes by which male and female movement patterns might be 383 expected to differ from random over the annual cycle in resident foxes. These are: 384 increased female activity in spring and summer due initially to lactation and 385 subsequently to provisioning of semi-dependent cubs (e.g. Saunders et. al, 1993); and 386 winter expansion of male ranges due to forays in search of extra-group mating 387 opportunities (e.g. White and Harris, 1994; White et al., 1996; Soulsbury et al., 2011). 388 In our study the behaviour of the wild-caught female cohort was skewed by breeding 389 and putative alloparenting exhibited by the two vixens WC12 and WC13. Removal of 390 these two animals from the main dataset both eliminated the effect of sex on nightly 391 distance travelled, and lessened the effect of season (presumably by reducing the 392 breeding spike in activity in spring) resulting in a more uniform effect of capture 393 status for non-breeding animals. However the greater nightly distances travelled by 394 wild-caught foxes persisted.

Although this at first appears unexpected in the context of prediction two (that
rehabilitated foxes would travel greater distances) the prediction is only logical where
distances represent cumulative trajectories in one direction rather than repetitive

398 movements within a smaller area. The latter are consistent with: i) patrolling of 399 resident territories; ii) exploiting reliable resources such as food supplied by 400 householders; and iii) denning, and rearing cubs. Supplementary feeding of foxes by 401 householders in Brighton and Hove is common whilst fox densities and 402 corresponding territorial defence are high (Scott and Tolhurst unpublished 403 observations). Furthermore, home-ranges were small for wild-caught foxes in the 404 current study and at least two animals were provisioning cubs, supporting the 405 assertion that greater distance travelled was indicative of resident territorial 406 behaviour.

407 **4.3** Patterns of space use

408 Three distinct patterns of space use emerged in our study: one where a stable home 409 range was never established; a second where home range extent was equal to the 410 maximum area covered; and a third where maximum area peaked at an early stage, 411 and home range was established later. Under the classification system presented by 412 Dekker et al (2001), the first pattern is similar to the early stages of dispersal or of 413 itinerant animals that are non-territorial and range over large areas. The second 414 pattern suggests that the fox is resident and, either solely or jointly, defends an 415 existing territory. The third indicates an initial exploratory period where the fox 416 ranges widely over a large area before 'settling 'on a smaller section of that area for 417 habitual use (i.e. a home range) and is analogous to the two-stage process reported by 418 Robertson and Harris (1995) for captive-bred juveniles. Based on this classification, 419 in the current study the relative proportion of dispersing or itinerant foxes was higher 420 for the rehabilitated group, indicating that for these animals temporary captivity led to 421 territorial displacement. However this pattern was not universal – for example two of 422 the wild-caught foxes in the study could also be categorised as dispersing or transient. 423 As both of these animals were non-breeding vixens of approximately 4-5 years of

424 age, it is possible that they were transient as a consequence of social exclusion from a 425 group territory. Patterns of space use are however inevitably dynamic where foxes 426

occur at high-densities in urban areas with high rates of population turnover.

427 4.4 Welfare implications of displacement

428 Dispersal is linked to an increase in mortality (e.g. Robertson and Harris, 1995; Baker 429 et al 2007) and we demonstrate here the similarities between dispersal and the ranging 430 behaviour of displaced rehabilitated animals. It therefore follows that foxes subject to 431 rehabilitation might subsequently be at greater risk of death. The single fatality 432 recorded during our study was a rehabilitated animal but this was believed to have 433 occurred due to existing disease and was therefore a probable cause rather than 434 consequence of captivity. Thus we did not find evidence of greater mortality in the 435 rehabilitated cohort during the study period. However, there are a number of social 436 and nutritional stressors that dispersing and itinerant foxes are vulnerable to, 437 including: i) the threat of aggressive extra-group encounters (White and Harris, 438 1994); the absence of enriching social contact between members of the same social 439 group (e.g. Hovland et al., 2011); and iii) the higher energetic costs associated with 440 erratic movements, lack of knowledge of the location of food patches, and the 441 opportunity costs of foraging time lost (Robertson and Harris, 1995b). The displaced 442 rehabilitated foxes in our sample are likely to have suffered at least some of these 443 negative yet sub-lethal effects, with potential long-term implications for survival. 444 Further research into these effects is necessary to determine the full consequences of 445 displacement.

446 4.5 Limitations of the study

447 Limitations of the study include: i) lack of replication of both capture status groups 448 across different urban areas and associated potential for bias arising from city-specific factors; and ii) small and unbalanced datasets, particularly when comparing ranging
parameters for foxes that reached home range asymptote. Further work with a larger
sample of rehabilitated animals is advised to determine whether the variability of this
group is an inherent characteristic or an artefact of small sample size.

453 4.6. Management implications and conclusions

We present evidence of perturbed ranging behaviour in foxes subjected to temporary captivity. Further work is needed to confirm these findings, however in accordance with the precautionary principle we recommend that where possible, time in captivity is limited, and alternatives to ex situ care are considered in the decision-making process.

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Figure 3 Examples of variation in percentage overlap between initial (first 3 days)
and final (last 3 days) 95% home range kernel isopleths for rehabilitated and wildcaught foxes; showing a) rehabilitated female RH5; and b) wild-caught male WC9,
tracked in Autumn 2013

Code	Sex	Approx.	Capture	Season	Year	Area	Total	Total
WCI		age	status	Гаскей		Ггаскей	locations	nignts
WC1	Male	e 2 years WC		Spring	2012	Brighton	4181	1/
WC2	Male E1-	2 years	WC	Spring	2012	Brighton	1620	00
WC3	Female	4 years	WC	Spring	2012	Brighton	1558	19
WC4	Female	1 year	WC	Spring	2012	Brighton	1515	30
WC5	Male	2 years	WC	Spring	2013	Brighton	1341	22
WC0	Male	1 year	WC	Spring	2013	Dirgitton	2037	20 45
WC?	Male	2 years	WC	Spring	2013	Hove	2834	43
WC8	Male	2 years	WC	Autumn	2013	Hove	1002 133	
WC9	Male E1-	10 months	WC	Autumn	2013	Brighton	081	147
WC10	Female	5 years	WC	Winter	2013	Brighton	968	8/
WC11	Female	8 months	WC	Winter	2014	Brighton	/84	86 17
WC12	Female	2 years	WC	Spring	2014	Brighton	209	1/
WC13	Female	4 years	WC	Spring	2014	Brighton	245	10
KHI	Male	l year	RH	Spring	2012	Newport	1/18	32
RH2	Male	2 years	RH	Spring	2012	Brixham	2327	31
RH3	Male	l year	RH	Spring	2012	Manchester	1047	19
RH4	Female	18 months	RH	Spring	2012	London	1141	16
RH5	Male	3 years	RH	Summer	2013	Rustington	2220	36
RH6	Female	8months	RH	Autumn	2013	Teignmouth	1629	110
KH/	Male	11 months	KH	winter	2014	woodingdean	102	9
650								
651	Table 1	List of foxes that	t were GPS-tr	racked during	the 2-year stu	dy, showing captur	e	
652	status (W	C = wild-caught	t; RH = rehat	oilitated), app	roximate age a	and sex, season,		
653	location a	and length of tim	ne tracked in	terms of both	nights and nu	mber of locations.		
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Capture Status (CS)	Mean nights to maximum area (±SE)	Mean nights to asymptote (±SE)	Proportion asymptote equals max. area
Rehabilitated	8.43 (±3.44)	15.00 (±2.66)	2/4* = 50% 1/4**= 33%
Wild-caught	9.54 (±2.64)	11.73 (±1.03)	7/11=64%

Table 2 Summary of movement parameters by capture status group, showing: mean number of nights to reach: i) maximum area (100% of area used) and ii) home range asymptote; and proportion of animals for which maximum area and asymptote were reached simultaneously (* including and ** excluding RH7).

Time period until maximum area reached			Time period until asymptote reached					
Variable ANOVA P		Variable	ANOVA	Р				
Season	<i>F</i> ₃ , ₁₈₁ = 2.799	*	CS	<i>F</i> ₁ , ₁₆₈ , = 28.56	***			
			Sex	<i>F</i> ₁ , ₁₆₈ = 13.95	***			
			Season	$F_{2}, _{168} = 5.71$	**			
			CS x Sex	<i>F</i> ₁ , ₁₆₇ = 7.10	**			
		Results after fo	ox RH7 rem	oved				
Season	<i>F</i> ₃ , ₁₇₉ = 2.980	*	CS	<i>F</i> ₁ , ₁₆₆ = 28.86	***			
			Sex	<i>F</i> ₁ , ₁₆₅ = 14.47	***			
			Season	$F_{2, 168} = 3.24$	*			
			CS x Sex	<i>F</i> ₁ , ₁₆₅ = 7.33	**			
	Results after foxes WC12 and WC13 removed							
			CS	<i>F</i> ₁ , ₁₄₁ = 22.76	***			
			Season	<i>F</i> ₂ , ₁₄₁ = 4.38	*			

Table 3 Significant variables predicting distance travelled by foxes in metres per hour

688 per night for the time period until: i) asymptote was reached; and ii) maximum area

689 was reached, using linear fixed effects models. ANOVA = Analysis of Variance; CS

690 = capture status; x operator indicates interaction term. * P < 0.05; ** P < 0.01;

691 *** *P* < 0.001.

Time period until maximum area reached			Time period until asymptote reached			ached		
	MLPE	t	Р		MLPE	t	Р	
Spring v. Summer	0.167	2.43	*	WC v. RH	0.32	5.25	***	
				Spring v. Winter	0.26	2.59	*	
				♀ v. ♂ 0.53 3.93 ***		***		
	Results after fox RH7 removed							
Spring v. Summer	0.167	2.45	*	WC v. RH	0.33	5.27	***	
	Spring v. Winter		0.30	2.69	**			
<u> </u>		♀ v . ♂	0.55	4.01	***			
	Res	ults afte	r foxes	s WC12 and WC13 r	emoved			
			WC v. RH	0.27	4.52	***		
				Summer v. Spring	0.16	2.40	*	
			Summer v. Winter	0.28	2.43	*		

698 **Table 4** Post-hoc tests for significant variables predicting distance travelled by foxes

in metres per hour per night for the time period until: i) asymptote was reached; and

ii) maximum area was reached, using linear fixed effects models. MLPE = Maximum

701 Likelihood Parameter Estimate; WC = wild-caught, RH = rehabilitated; v. = versus;

direction of difference indicated by positive or negative operator. * P < 0.05; ** P <

703 0.01; *** *P* < 0.001.

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