1	Can zoo enclosures inform exclosure design for crop-raiding primates? A			
2	preliminary assessment.			
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4	Caroline Howlett ^{1,2,3*} and Russell A. Hill ^{1, 2}			
5	*Author for correspondence.			
6	1. Durham University, Dawson Building, South Road, Durham, DH1 3LE, UK;			
7	r.a.hill@durham.ac.uk; Tel: 0191 334 1601.			
8	2. Primate & Predator Project, Lajuma Research Centre, P.O. BOX 522, Louis Trichardt,			
9	Limpopo Province, 0920, South Africa.			
10	3. School of Anthropology and Conservation, Marlowe Building, The University of Kent			
11	Canterbury, Kent, CT2 7NR, UK; <u>ch616@kent.ac.uk</u> .			
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1 Abstract

2 Crop raiding by wild primates is an issue affecting farming communities in many parts of the 3 world and resulting economic losses and food insecurity can cause resistance to conservation 4 efforts. A wide variety of methods have been employed to reduce the amount of crops lost to primate species with varying degrees of success. We tested the effectiveness of a fence 5 6 design commonly used in captive settings to keep primates inside zoo enclosures, to 7 determine if it could keep primates out of an enclosed area in a wild setting. We built three enclosed areas (exclosures) of different heights in the Soutpansberg Mountains of South 8 9 Africa. The area was visited by both habituated and non-habituated chacma baboon (Papio 10 ursinus) groups on an almost daily basis. In all cases the primates attempted but were unable to reach the bait inside the exclosure through scaling the fence, with habituated animals 11 12 making more attempts than groups less exposed to humans and human infrastructure. The experiment indicates that zoo enclosure designs could be effective in excluding wild primate 13 species from food sources. These positive small-scale results call for a field-scale trial of this 14 design to be carried out to determine its suitability for large-scale crop protection. 15

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18 Introduction

Crop raiding by wildlife is one of the major causes of human-wildlife conflict in Africa with many primate species cited as problematic (Naughton-Treves, 1998; Hill, 2000; Hoffman & O'Riain, 2012; Healy & Nijman, 2014). Primates are intelligent, opportunistic animals and baboons (*Papio* spp) have non-specialised omnivorous diets (Hill, 2000) that allow them to adapt quickly to living alongside humans and exploiting human food resources (Hill, 2000). Crops, in particular, can provide wild primates with an alternative and accessible food source (Hill & Wallace, 2012). Since group sizes of raiding species such as baboons can exceed
 seventy individuals, the effect of a single raid on a crop field can have devastating effects for
 farmers (Hill, 2000).

4 Research into crop raiding prevention has shown that it is a complex issue requiring 5 mitigation methods to be tailored toward specific species and situations (Saraswat, Sinha & 6 Radhakrishna, 2015). Farming practises can be adapted to reduce crop damage by wildlife 7 through planting unpalatable crops, planting buffer zones of highly palatable crops to protect main crops or leaving land fallow (McGuiness & Taylor, 2014). Alternative methods 8 9 employed by farmers to prevent crop losses range from noise-making scaring devices, net 10 wires, scarecrows, trenches, biofences (Thapa, 2010), reflective prisms (Kaplan & O'Riain, 2015), spraying chilli grease around farm boundaries (Sitati & Walpole, 2006), as well as 11 12 poison, snares, traps (Naughton-Treves, 1998) and lethal removal of problem animals (McGuiness & Taylor, 2014). Many methods tend to have only temporary success, with 13 raiding wildlife driven away initially but subsequently returning to raid crops (Thapa, 2010). 14

Active guarding by people and guard animals (McGuiness & Taylor, 2014) and improved 15 fencing are mitigation methods shown to be effective in reducing crop raiding damage in the 16 17 long term (Hill, 2000; Hill & Wallace, 2012; Karanth, Naughton-Treves, & Gopalaswamy, 2013). Active guarding is time consuming and labour intensive for farmers (Thapa, 2010) and 18 19 can impose social costs on communities where children are needed to guard crop fields when they would otherwise be attending school (Linkie et al. 2007). Fences provide protection for 20 21 crops against damage by wildlife but their use is often limited by the costs of construction and maintenance (McGuiness & Taylor, 2014; Hill & Wallace, 2012; Thapa, 2010). Where 22 fences are employed, their heights (most often between 1-1.5m) may be sufficient to exclude 23 animals such as porcupine (Hystrix africaeaustralis) and pig species (Phacochoerus 24 africanus, Potamochoerus larvatus), but are not always effective in excluding primates which 25

can climb and larger ungulates that can jump over the fence (Thapa, 2010). Increasing the
height of a farm's barbed wire fence resulted in an 80% reduction in maize damage by
primates in Uganda (Wallace & Hill, 2012), while electric fencing has also been used by
farmers with some success to deter primates. This is an expensive, maintenance-heavy option
(Thouless & Sakwa, 1995), however, and not available to many subsistence farmers living in
rural locations. Additionally, electric fences also pose high risks to other, non-target wildlife
species (Beck, 2010).

8 Here we tested whether a fence design typically employed in preventing captive primates 9 escaping zoo enclosures (Figure 1) could be used to prevent wild primates from accessing 10 food. If successful, the design would improve on existing physical barriers with little 11 additional maintenance and labour costs, whilst reducing the financial costs and wildlife 12 damages associated with electric fences.

13 (Figure 1)

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15

16 *Methods*

The trials were conducted at the Lajuma Research Centre in the Soutpansberg Mountain 17 Range, South Africa (23°02'23"S & 2920'05"E). The climate is temperate-mesothermal with 18 19 vegetation types including forest, grassland and savannah biomes (Mostert et al. 2008). Several wild chacma baboon (Papio ursinus) groups are present at the site with one group 20 fully habituated to human observers. We thus had the potential to determine the effectiveness 21 of the fence design on both habituated and non-habituated groups; this is important as 22 habituated animals may be more relaxed around man-made structures and so are more willing 23 to enter farmland and spend more time trying to gain access to food. 24

1 We built three triangular exclosures (3mx3mx3m) of three different heights (2m, 3m, 3.5m) 2 in an open bushveld area (30m from the forest edge) known to be frequented by a number of baboon groups (Figures 2a-c). We used wire mesh (squares 5cm²) and eucalyptus poles 3 4 topped with a barrier of sheet metal (1m high and 0.5mm thick). The metal sheeting was attached to horizontal poles that were mounted on brackets fixed to the tops of the vertical 5 poles. This held the barrier 30cm away from the sides of the exclosure to create an overhang 6 (Figure 2a). Wire mesh wrapped over the horizontal poles and fixed to the sides of the 7 8 exclosures closed any gaps between the fencing and the barrier. We chose a height of 1m for 9 the barrier as this exceeded the arm reach of the baboons. 0.5m of the barrier extended above the fence line and 0.5m hung below (Figures 2a and b) as in zoo enclosure designs (Figure 1a 10 and b). Although it is common practise to bury fences 0.5-1m deep in the ground to deter 11 12 burrowing species, the rocky terrain in the test area made this difficult. For the purposes of our experiment we buried the mesh just 10cm deep and surrounded the base of the fence with 13 rocks. 14

We baited each exclosure with twelve oranges piled in the centre beyond the reach of the 15 baboons from the sides (Figure 2c). A pair of motion-activated Bushnell® Trail cameras 16 17 (Trophy, model, 2010, Non Typical Inc., USA) were positioned on opposite sides of each 18 exclosure to capture video footage of all animal visits. Videos were downloaded and 19 reviewed daily at 18:00h with all visits from primates and other animals and their outcomes 20 recorded by the first author. The habituated baboon group was distinguished from the nonhabituated groups through identification of known individuals. We tested the effectiveness of 21 22 the fence design for preventing access to crops for an eight-day period between the 10 and 17 23 February 2015. We conducted all data analyses using IBM SPSS statistics for Windows version 20, with significance levels set at P < 0.05. 24

25 (Figure 2)

2 *Results*

3 Upon discovery of the bait, baboon groups visited every day until the end of the study. A total of 161 individual baboons from at least two different groups were filmed at the 4 exclosure site, including individuals of all age/sex classes (adult males 18%; adult females 5 25%; adolescents/juveniles/infants 57%). In 34 cases, individuals showed no apparent 6 7 reaction to the exclosures or the bait within. Of the remaining events, 49 baboons were observed repeatedly circling the exclosure whilst glancing at the barrier and bait 8 9 (Supplementary information 1), while 78 were standing or sitting at the exclosure fence and looking towards the barrier and bait (Supplementary information 2). In 80 of these 127 cases, 10 11 individuals then made no further attempts to reach the bait within the exclosures. Secondary 12 responses included 47 active attempts to reach the bait through climbing the fence or manipulating it (reaching through the mesh, pulling on the mesh, moving the rocks or digging 13 14 at the base of the fence) (Table 1). Each fence height proved successful in keeping out both habituated and non-habituated wild baboons. 15

The habituated baboon group spent significantly longer at the bait site than non-habituated baboons (habituated group: 85.3 ± 56.7 mins; non-habituated groups: 31.3 ± 15.6 mins; t = -2.41, df = 7.03, p = 0.047). Habituated baboons also made significantly more attempts per visit to manipulate the structure in order to gain access to the bait (habituated group: 5.86 ± 3.97 attempts; non-habituated groups: 1.26 ± 0.52 attempts; t = -3.06, df = 7.38, p = 0.017). There was a trend for duration of visit to decline over time for habituated group (r = -0.671, n=7, p = 0.099), but not the non-habituated groups (r = 0.673, n=6, p = 0.143).

23 (Table 1)

1 Discussion

Game fences are widely used to mitigate human-wildlife conflict, but appropriate design, alignment and maintenance are key to their effectiveness (Kesch, Bauer & Loveridge, 2015). The results presented here suggest that crop depredation by wild primates may be reduced or even prevented through the use of relatively simple fencing techniques based on zoo exhibit design, where a barrier is placed around the top of the fence. Furthermore, a fence as low as 2m could be effective in excluding baboons of all age-sex classes.

The habituated baboons spent more time at the exclosures and attempted to reach the bait more times than the non-habituated baboons. Despite the short duration of our study, therefore, the results cannot be explained by neophobia, since animals regularly exposed to human presence spent long periods interacting with the fences and attempting to reach the food. The fact that time spent at the exclosure declined on subsequent visits suggests that the animals in the group became increasingly aware of the inaccessibility of the food.

After initial construction efforts, physical barriers require little from farmers other than 14 maintenance costs and labour (Hill & Wallace, 2012). The barrier and overhang elements of 15 16 the design are the important features which prevent the primates from climbing over. Any durable material can be used for the barrier around the top of the fence - heavy duty plastic 17 (most common in zoos), metal and wood - and should be applicable to a broad range of 18 19 species. The fence design tested here provides an adaptable, non-lethal, long-term method of protecting farmers' crops against primates. The next step will be to conduct a larger, field-20 scale trial using this fence design in order to further assess its utility in reducing human-21 22 primate conflict.

23

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- 5

1 Table legends:

- 2 Table 1: Number of visits, duration of visit at the experimental site and number of active
- 3 attempts made per visit to gain access to the bait in both groups.

Visit	Habituated baboons		Non-habituated baboons	
number	Time at site	Active attempts	Time at site	Active attempts
	(minutes)	on bait	(minutes)	on bait
1	162	11	6	0
2	157	0	31	2
3	22	4	46	3
4	104	3	23	0
5	35	8	34	1
6	58	10	48	0
7	59	5	-	-
Mean	85.3	5.86	31.3	1.26

1	Figure	Legends:
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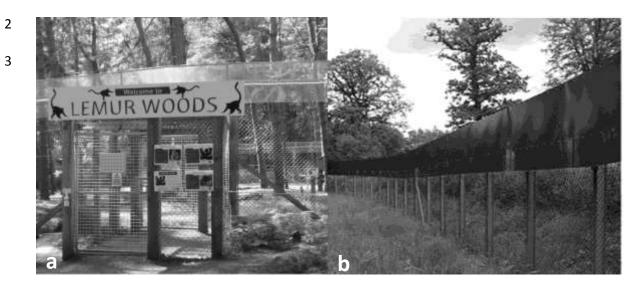
Figure 1: Examples of barrier fence designs used in zoo enclosures of (a) one acre housing
lemurs at Yorkshire Wildlife Park, UK, and (b) 60 acres housing Barbary macaques at
Trentham Monkey Forest, UK.

Figure 2: Fence design with (a) the bracket positioned to hold the barrier away from the fence
mesh (b) the completed 3m high exclosure with camera trap in foreground and (c) the
position of bait in centre of exclosures.

8

Figure 1





1 Figure 2

