

1 **Title: The post-captive movement ecology of endangered mountain caribou**

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24 **Abstract**

25 Translocation and captivity are important tools for conservation biology and wildlife
26 management – they have the potential to restore populations, augment existing populations, and
27 improve the fitness outcomes for individuals Efforts to understand the spatial extent of individual
28 movement in novel terrain is critical to the choice of translocation release sites and management
29 of the surrounding area, i.e., the management neighbourhood. We examined the movements of
30 adult female caribou (N= 36) following their translocation to, and release from, a maternity pen
31 (‘penned caribou’) and compared these movements to animals that were not translocated
32 (‘unpenned caribou’, N = 22). A maternity pen is a temporary holding facility, within the
33 animals’ existing range, that enables them to bear and raise their young in the absence of
34 predators and with augmented resources. Penned and unpenned animals had similar home range
35 sizes (1052.2 km² and 1314.6 km², respectively, $P = 0.46$) though penned animals moved
36 through the landscape in a faster yet less directed manner. We found some evidence that memory
37 may improve the efficiency of space use. Home ranges with higher quality habitat tended to be
38 smaller than home ranges with poorer quality habitat irrespective of penning status. Penned
39 animals ranged at lower elevation (~150m) than unpenned animals, particularly in spring and
40 early winter. For penned animals, we did not detect evidence of homing back to the original
41 capture site. The best predictor of how they will use the landscape appears to be driven by the
42 location of the release site. To maximize the fitness of post-released animals, future plans for
43 maternity pens and captive breeding programs need to consider the management of food,
44 predators, and habitat across the 1000-2000 km² home ranges that will form near the release site.

45

46 **Keywords:** maternity pen, movement ecology, restoration, translocation

47

48 **Introduction**

49 Habitat loss is one of the most important factors leading to the global decline of biodiversity
50 (Ceballos, Ehrlich, & Dirzo, 2017; Bradshaw et al., 2021). Efforts to curb human-driven
51 extinctions may include the creation of protected areas (Le Saout et al., 2013), changes in harvest
52 regulations (Williams & Johnson, 1995), and population-level management (Tilman et al., 2017).
53 Broadly speaking, these efforts are intended to improve the survival and reproduction of
54 individuals, thereby increasing population growth rates to a point where self-regulating
55 mechanisms are influential enough that human intervention can be withdrawn and invested
56 elsewhere.

57 One of the more intensive strategies to improve population recovery separates vulnerable
58 animals from threats faced by predators, food shortages, or illegal harvest. For example, captive
59 rearing, with appropriate genetic support (Fraser, 2008), can provide a source population for
60 augmentation or reintroduction efforts in the wild, and/or reduce the exposure of animals to
61 threats until such time that conditions in the wild improve (Tribe & Booth, 2003). In some cases,
62 captivity is long term, with very limited prospects for wild reintroduction or translocation of
63 individuals (Witzenberger & Hochkirch, 2011). In other cases, captivity is designed to minimize
64 human intervention while maximizing fitness. Captive facilities could be quite large and
65 permanent, with active management occurring at low intensities (e.g., predator removal from
66 pen) (Ali et al., 2018). Other facilities could require more intensive management over shorter
67 periods and less space. In caribou (*Rangifer tarandus*), for example, maternity penning provides
68 a brief respite for young animals who may have survival rates below 19% over the first year of
69 life in the wild (Adams et al., 2019). In contrast, survival for penned and released young may be
70 closer to 57% (Adams et al., 2019).

71 Animals released from captivity, translocation, and maternity pens will often be exposed
72 to the same types of factors affecting wild populations – limited access to food, inclement
73 weather, and mortality from predation. Some species subject to captive management respond to
74 these limitations by remaining within close proximity to their release sites (Mertes et al., 2019),
75 or returning to the release site during risky periods (Smith & Pittaway, 2011), which can impact
76 the long-term viability of these conservation efforts. As such, managers seeking to enhance or
77 maintain fitness for released animals need to better understand how space use changes over time
78 following release (Van Dierendonck & Wallis De Vries, 1996). This post-release environment
79 contributes to the survival of animals, and therefore could determine the success of the captive
80 program as a whole, and ultimately, the trajectory of the population (Seddon, Armstrong, &
81 Maloney, 2007; Hare et al., 2020). Understanding where such conditions are optimal for newly
82 released animals may help guide facility placement – particularly for animals who are not
83 returned back to the original capture site by managers. Likewise, the post-release home range of
84 animals can guide the scope of a ‘management neighborhood’ –i.e., the area where habitat
85 protections, forage supplementation, and predator reductions could be concentrated to provide
86 the most efficient gains for recovering populations.

87 One of central questions in predicting the spatial dynamics of post-release home ranges is
88 the extent to which animals’ response to novel terrain will reflect their response to familiar
89 terrain. Studies on animals encountering novel terrain reveal complex movement and navigation
90 processes. For example, some species retain their aversion to people / disturbance following
91 translocation (Ford & Fahrig, 2008), while other translocated species may travel farther,
92 encounter more disturbances, and experience greater risks than non-translocated conspecifics
93 (Ishii et al., 2019; Wright et al., 2020). Studies have shown that there can be an exploratory

94 phase when an animal encounters a new environment before ‘settling’ (Fryxell et al., 2008), akin
95 to home range formation following natal dispersal (Fattebert et al., 2015). Social interactions
96 (Jesmer et al., 2018) and memory formation may further shape the extent of movement and
97 interactions with novel terrain (Fagan et al., 2013).

98 Caribou are one of the most endangered terrestrial mammals in North America and are
99 the first large mammal to be extirpated from the conterminous United States of America in the
100 21st century. For caribou, maternity penning is seen as a management intervention worthy of
101 consideration and has been used on several caribou herds in Canada and the USA (Smith &
102 Pittaway, 2011; Adams et al., 2019; Serrouya et al., 2019). While the results of many penning
103 studies are still under development, early evidence suggests that the local conditions near the pen
104 greatly affect post-release survival of adult and young caribou. With management of caribou
105 facing intense scrutiny by the public and scientific community alike (Hebblewhite, 2017; Struzik,
106 2020), efforts to optimize actions in the management neighborhood around maternal pens is
107 critical for caribou recovery and persistence.

108 Here we contrasted the movement ecology of sympatric penned and unpenned caribou to
109 determine the extent of movement, and the interactions between movement and habitat. While
110 we only examined the movements of free-ranging animals, we refer to the animals that were in
111 the maternity pen and then released as ‘penned’ and the animals that were never penned as
112 ‘unpenned’. We hypothesized that unpenned caribou would have greater familiarity with their
113 environment, such that we would expect these animals to have smaller home ranges and shorter
114 displacement distances compared to penned caribou. We also examined effects of multiple
115 releases and reproductive status (presence/absence of a calf at release) for penned animals. We
116 compared seasonal use of a regional habitat model and elevation – a composite measure of

117 resource availability, weather, and exposure to predation – for penned and unpenned caribou
118 (Wittmer et al., 2007; Apps et al., 2013; MacNearney et al., 2016).

119

120 **Methods**

121 *Study Site*

122 This study took place near the town of Revelstoke, British Columbia (BC), Canada and
123 centered on the Columbia North herd of southern mountain caribou (*Rangifer tarandus caribou*),
124 with overlap into the herd ranges of the Groundhog herd to the west, Frisby-Boulder to the
125 southwest, and Columbia South to the southeast. The Columbia North herd occupies a 4652 km²
126 range situated in the Selkirk and Monashee mountains within the northern portion of the
127 Columbia River basin (Wittmer et al. 2005). Caribou populations in this area exhibit a bimodal
128 cycle pattern of elevational migrations utilizing upper parkland portions of the Englemann
129 Spruce – Subalpine Fir and Alpine-Tundra biogeoclimatic zones in late winter when deep
130 consolidated snowpacks support foraging on arboreal lichens (Apps et al., 2001). In early spring
131 they briefly descend into closed canopy portions of the Englemann Spruce – Subalpine Fir and
132 the Interior Cedar-Hemlock zones. By mid-May they return to the alpine-ecotone where they
133 give birth and remain until late fall/early winter when they again descend before returning to late
134 winter habitats in January.

135 The Columbia North subpopulation declined steadily from the mid-1990s to 2004, then
136 stabilized for 10 years during an experimental moose reduction that led to lower predator
137 numbers (Serrouya et al. 2017). Population growth for caribou, however, was elusive (or did not
138 occur). In further support population growth in the Columbia North, a multi-sector partnership
139 formed - Revelstoke Caribou Rearing in the Wild - to create and manage a maternity pen aa a

140 pilot study from 2014 to 2018. The initial goal of this pen was to test the concept on a low
141 proportion of animals, with the possibility of scaling up the treatment to a level that would affect
142 population growth. The pen was located 100 km north of the City of Revelstoke, in a sparsely
143 restocked clearcut at 580 m elevation on the west shore of Lake Revelstoke. This location is
144 approximately centered within the Columbia North's population bounds. The site's microclimate
145 is typified by warm, wet summers and cool winters with moderate snowfall. Although not within
146 typical alpine-ecotone calving range, the site was chosen because of a lower late-winter
147 snowpack (approximately 1–2 m) compared to in-situ conditions (3+ m) where logistical aspects
148 of the project would have been extremely challenging.

149 The 9.3 ha maternity pen consisted of a 4-m high geotextile wall surrounded by a 2.4-m
150 high 5000 volt electric fence. Water was provided and animals were fed at a rate of 3.2
151 kg/animal/day (Cook, *personal comm.*) using a commercial pelleted ration developed for the
152 Calgary Zoo (Wetaskiwin Co-op Association, Calgary Zoo Winter Herbivore Ration Formula
153 Code M800710). Transitioning from their natural diet of arboreal lichens to pelleted feed
154 occurred over a 10-day period. Personnel continuously monitored the animals through a
155 combination of direct observation, radiotelemetry, and a live feed remote camera. Camera traps
156 were used to detect predators on the perimeter of the pen, which included wolf (*Canis lupus*),
157 black bear (*Ursus americanus*), grizzly bear (*Ursus arctos*), wolverine (*Gulo gulo*), cougar
158 (*Puma concolor*) and lynx (*Lynx canadensis*), however, no predators entered the pen during its
159 five years of operation.

160

161 *Data Collection*

162 Animals were captured in late March or early April when gravid females were still
163 approximately two months pre-parturition and fresh, deep soft snow increased animal detection
164 and safety during capture. By that time, adult males had dropped their antlers allowing for easier
165 identification of target adult females, who retained their antlers. Capture protocols were adapted
166 from those used by Level-Kawdy/Purcell translocation (Kinley 2010). All animals were captured
167 by a net-gun from a helicopter using a qualified contractor and crew. After sedation with
168 medetomidine administered by an intranasal atomizer device, animals were hobbled, blindfolded,
169 secured in a transport bag and transported with an attendant inside a helicopter to the pen site for
170 final processing. Authority to capture, transport, possess, and release the caribou was provided
171 under BC *Wildlife Act* Permit CB16-220408.

172 Captured animals were fit with one of three models of Vectronic Aerospace GmbH
173 radiotelemetry collars. Some collars were programmed to acquire 12 location fixes/day, while in
174 year 3 the number of location fixes/day was reduced to 6 in order to extend battery life. In year 4
175 Vectronic Vertex Lite Globalstar adult collars were deployed and programmed to acquire 2
176 location fixes/day. These collars had a 54% failure rate due to inherent flaws with the GPS and
177 VHF transmitters so in year 5 of the penning project Vectronic GPS PLUS Globalstar collars
178 were used and programmed to provide a location fix every 13 hours. These failure rates are
179 similar to global averages (Hofman et al., 2019).

180

181 *Data analysis*

182 For each location estimate, the GPS collars we used recorded a unitless Dilution of Precision
183 (DOP) value as a measure of the accuracy of each positional fix. To prepare the data for error-
184 informed analyses (C. H. Fleming et al., 2020) we converted these unitless DOP values into

185 calibrated error circles by assigning a User Equivalent Range Error (UERE) of 10 m to the
186 tracking devices, which tends to be the standard value for most GPS devices (Noonan, Fleming,
187 et al., 2019; C. H. Fleming et al., 2020). For each individual dataset, we then filtered out outliers
188 based on error-informed distance from the median longitude and latitude, and the minimum
189 speed required to explain each location's displacement (for further details see Additional File S2
190 in Noonan et al. 2019). We did not measure movements of penned caribou while they were in the
191 pen.

192

193 *Movement metrics*

194 Our primary aim was to determine whether penned animals exhibited movement behaviour that
195 was significantly different from unpenned animals. To do this, we quantified 6 key movement
196 metrics using the methods implemented in the R package `ctmm` (ver. 0.5.11; Calabrese et al.
197 2016): displacement distances, autocorrelation timescales, home range areas, and median
198 movement speeds. We opted to use the continuous-time methods implemented in the `ctmm`
199 package, as these are robust to differences in sampling protocols.

200 *Displacement distances* – We quantified the maximum and median distances that penned
201 and unpenned caribou displaced from both the maternal pen and from each individual's capture
202 location. Displacements were calculated using the haversine great-circle formula implemented in
203 the R package `geosphere` (ver. 1.5-10; (Hijmans, 2016).

204 *Positional and velocity autocorrelation time scales* – Following the workflow described
205 in Calabrese et al. (2016), we fit a series of continuous-time movement models to the data using
206 perturbative-Hybrid Residual Maximum Likelihood (pHREML; Fleming et al. 2019), and
207 identified the best model for each individual via small-sample-sized corrected Akaike's

208 Information Criterion (AICc). We then extracted the positional autocorrelation timescale (τ_p),
209 which provides a measure of the home-range crossing time, and the velocity autocorrelation
210 timescale (τ_v), which provides a measure of directional persistence, from each individual's best
211 fit model.

212 *Home-range area* – We estimated the 95% home-range areas of each caribou using
213 Autocorrelated Kernel Density Estimation (AKDE; Fleming et al. 2015). AKDE home-range
214 estimates were conditioned on the autocorrelation structure of the best fit model identified above,
215 and we implemented the small-sample-size bias correction of (Christen H. Fleming & Calabrese,
216 2017), and the location weighted of Fleming et al. (2018). In addition to estimating the home-
217 range area, we also calculated the Euclidean distance between each individual's home-range
218 centre and the maternal pen for both penned and unpenned animals.

219 *Mahalanobis distances* – In order to understand how each individual's post-collaring
220 space use related to their original capture location, we calculated the Mahalanobis distances
221 (MD; Mahalanobis 1936) between each animal's home range and i) its capture location; and ii)
222 the maternal pen. The MD is a statistical measure of the distance between a point and a
223 distribution that is typically used in outlier identification. In this context, if an animal's observed
224 home range had a large MD from its capture location, this could be considered an 'outlier' and
225 provide evidence of a range shift. Similarly, a short MD between an animal's observed home
226 range and the maternal pen would suggest that the maternal pen can be considered as part of the
227 animal's range. We calculated these using the `distance()` function in `ctmm`.

228 *Median movement speed* – We estimated the median daily movement speed (in km/day)
229 using continuous-time speed and distance (CTSD) estimation (Noonan, Tucker, et al., 2019).
230 CTSD uses a simulation-based approach to sample from the distribution of possible trajectories

231 that are consistent with the data and a fitted continuous-time movement model, from which the
232 median speed estimate and confidence intervals can be extracted. This approach is insensitive to
233 the sampling schedule, enabling robust comparisons across individuals.

234 We were also interested in understanding whether repeated capturing and (re-)penning
235 influenced individuals' movement over time. For the nine animals that were held in the maternity
236 pen on > 1 occasion, we split individual datasets up by penning cycle (year) and estimated each
237 of the above movement metrics for their annual data.

238 To explore for any underlying patterns in movement behaviour between penned and
239 unpenned animals, we performed a principal component analysis (PCA), with scaling, across
240 these movement metrics. Home-range areas, movement speeds, and model parameters were
241 compared using the meta-regression model implemented in the R package `metafor` (ver. 2.1-0;
242 Viechtbauer, 2010), which allowed uncertainty in each individual estimate to be propagated into
243 the population level estimate when making comparisons. All other metrics were compared using
244 two-tailed permutation tests, as described by (Strasser & Weber, 1999), and implemented in the
245 R package `lmPerm` (Wheeler, Torchiano, & Torchiano, 2016). In addition to penning status, we
246 tested if reproductive status of caribou – i.e., if there was a calf with the female at the time of
247 release – affected home range size using a permutation test.

248 Lastly, we examined if penning affected habitat use via two analyses related to habitat
249 quality and elevation. Using an existing habitat model (Apps et al., 2001) we first examined if
250 the average seasonal habitat quality affected home range size. Using GIS software, we extracted
251 the average values of a resource selection function (i.e., the RSF score) of each home range
252 polygon (derived from the AKDE analyses described above). We evaluated if penned and
253 unpenned animals had access to the similar types of habitat, by first using a mixed-effects model

254 with the mean RSF score as the response variable and penning status and season as interacting
255 predictors and animal identity as a random intercept. We then used a linear model to analyze if
256 the seasonal-specific RSF score affects home range size, along with interacting effects of
257 penning and season. Second, we examined how penning affected seasonal use of elevation. In
258 this landscape, elevation is an important driver of access to resources and risk of predation,
259 mediated by disturbance from roads, elevational gradients in snowfall, and forestry (Wittmer et
260 al., 2007; Serrouya, McLellan, et al., 2017). We used a mixed-effects model with the median
261 seasonal elevation for each individual as the response variable and season and penning status as
262 interacting predictors. Animal identity as a random intercept. Only data from an animals' first
263 release was used in this analysis.

264

265 **Results**

266 We found that the first two dimensions of a PCA explained 75.2% of the variance in caribou
267 movement metrics. The first dimension ('range dimension') explained 53.1% of the variance,
268 and was governed primarily by the four metrics that described movement range (i.e., τ_p , home-
269 range area, and median/maximum displacements). The second dimension ('mode dimension')
270 explained 22.1% of the variance, and was governed primarily by the two metrics that described
271 movement mode (i.e., τ_v , speed). Caribou with greater values across the range dimension tended
272 to move across larger areas, and those with greater values across the mode dimension tended to
273 move more slowly and with longer directional persistence. When projecting the data into the
274 reduced dimension space of these two dimensions, we found that most of the separation between
275 penned and unpenned animals occurred along the mode dimension, with little separation along

276 the range dimension (Fig. 1). In other words, penned and unpenned animals used areas of
277 comparable magnitudes, but movement range within these areas were different.

278

279 *Home-range metrics*

280 Overall, we found few differences in movement-range metrics between penned and
281 unpenned caribou. While a permutation test revealed that the home-range centres of penned
282 caribou tended to be closer to the maternal pen than those of unpenned caribou ($F_{[1,65]} = 134.4$, p
283 < 0.001 ; Fig. 2a,b), we found no evidence that home-range sizes differed between penned and
284 unpenned animals ($\bar{x} = 1052.2 \text{ km}^2$, 95% CIs 653.3 – 1451.1 km^2 , $\bar{x} = 1314.6 \text{ km}^2$, 95% CIs
285 744.1 – 1885.1 km^2 , respectively, $p = 0.46$; Fig. 3). There was also no evidence that median, nor
286 maximum displacements differed between groups ($F_{[1,62]} < 0.01$, $p = 0.95$; $F_{[1,62]} = 0.55$, $p = 0.46$,
287 respectively). In other words, beyond the difference in mean location, there was no evidence of
288 any differences in the range of movement exhibited by penned and unpenned animals. When
289 calculating the MDs between individual home ranges, capture locations, and the maternal pen,
290 we found that the home ranges of penned animals had 96.7% lower MDs to the pen on average
291 as compared to unpenned animals ($F_{[1,61]} = 25.1$, $p < 0.001$). Penned animals also had 3678.8%
292 larger MDs from their capture locations on average as compared to unpenned animals ($F_{[1,61]} =$
293 11.8, $p < 0.005$). In addition, penned animals had, on average, 75.2% larger MDs from the pen
294 than unpenned animals had from their capture locations ($F_{[1,61]} = 6.28$, $p = 0.015$), but with no
295 significant difference between how far penned animals were from their capture locations vs.
296 unpenned animals from the pen ($F_{[1,61]} = 2.45$, $p = 0.123$). Finally, displacement distances over
297 time showed no evidence of penned animals tending to return to their release location (Fig. S6).

298 Collectively, these results indicate a tendency for penned animals to establish their home ranges
299 in the vicinity of the maternal pen.

300 For the nine caribou that were held in the maternity pen over multiple breeding seasons,
301 we found that home range areas were significantly smaller in subsequent captures ($p < 0.0001$;
302 Fig. 4). These individuals had an average home range area of 2054.4 km^2 (95% CI: $1031.4 -$
303 3077.5 km^2) at first capture, with a reduction to a mean home range area of 842 km^2 (95% CI:
304 $1031.4 - 3077.5 \text{ km}^2$) after their second release. A permutation test revealed no relationship
305 between caribou home range size and whether or not the animals had a calf at the time of release
306 ($F_{[1,40]} = 0.526$, $p = 0.47$; Fig. S7)

307

308 *Movement-mode metrics*

309 When comparing the two movement mode metrics, we found that penned animals tended to
310 move faster than unpenned animals ($\bar{x} = 9.13 \text{ km/day}$, 95% CIs $5.39 - 12.87 \text{ km/day}$, $\bar{x} = 3.46$
311 km/day , 95% CIs $2.69 - 4.24 \text{ km/day}$, respectively, $F_{[1,45]} = 8.29$, $p = 0.006$; Fig. 4), and exhibited
312 less directional persistence ($F_{[1,44]} = 19.95$, $p < 0.001$).

313

314 *Habitat use*

315 Home range area tended to decline with the average RSF score in each home range (Table 1;
316 Figure 6). We also found average RSF score varied by season, with spring being slightly higher
317 and late winter being slightly lower quality compared to the RSF scores in other seasons. We did
318 not find an effect of penning status on habitat quality in the home range (Table 1). Caribou use of
319 elevation varied by season and this effect was mediated by penning status (Table 2; Figure 8).
320 On average, penned animals were 150-m lower than unpenned caribou, but there was a strong

321 effect of season with the largest differences observed in spring when penned animals were ~500-
322 m lower in elevation (Figure 8).

323

324 **Discussion**

325 Caribou – particularly the Southern Mountain herds – are one of Canada’s most
326 endangered terrestrial mammals and there are substantial efforts focused on stabilizing and
327 restoring their populations (Hebblewhite, 2017; Serrouya et al., 2019). Maternity penning is one
328 such effort, where it has been shown that by separating caribou and predators for the early period
329 of the calves’ life, annual survival can be higher and help contribute towards population growth
330 (Adams, Singer, & Dale, 1995; Adams et al., 2019). Our goal in this study was to determine
331 whether maternal penning might have an impact on the movement of caribou post release.
332 Contrary to our hypothesis, we found that, following release from the maternity pen, caribou
333 interacted with novel terrain in broadly similar ways as animals that were never translocated.
334 Penned caribou tended to move in a less directed manner and had smaller home ranges after
335 subsequent releases, but, on the whole, there were few differences in the movement of penned
336 and unpenned individuals. In terms of habitat use, penned and unpenned caribou used habitat of
337 similar quality, and both groups exhibited seasonal patterns in elevation, however, penned
338 animals spent more time at lower elevation during spring and early winter. Given that predators
339 spend more time at low elevation during those seasons, this behavior by penned caribou could
340 have negative implications for their survival.

341 Caribou in the deep snow zones of British Columbia’s interior rainforest have some of
342 the largest home ranges for their body size, with allometric equations predicting areas less than
343 half of the size we observed here (Noonan et al 2020). Preserving the unique movement ecology

344 of this species is therefore an important part of their conservation. We found that translocated
345 animals established their home ranges in and around the maternal pen from which they were
346 released, with no evidence of any ‘homing’ behaviour. Encouragingly, we also found that penned
347 and unpenned caribou had similar-sized home ranges, and there was no effect of penning on
348 maximum or median displacements. Similarly, habitat quality within home ranges was similar
349 for penned and unpenned caribou. Taken together, our findings indicate that the characteristics of
350 the release location are likely to be the biggest determinant of space use for penned caribou.

351 While we found some evidence that penned animals had smaller home ranges after
352 subsequent recaptures, we could not distinguish the extent to which this may have been driven by
353 the effect of maternity pens versus natural behavioural changes. For instance, this reduction in
354 home range size likely reflects some level of increasing efficiency in space use as an animals’
355 memory of the landscape improves with time (Van Moorter et al., 2009). In this regard, we did
356 find that, on average, penned animals moved in a less directed manner through the environment,
357 when compared to unpenned animals (Figure 4). This pattern is suggestive of exploratory
358 behaviour as individuals learn to navigate new habitats without the capacity to rely on spatial
359 memory (Schmidt-Koenig & Walcott, 1978; He et al., 2019). Indeed, most individuals had fewer
360 than two years of data however, and we did not have multiple captures on unpenned animals, so
361 it is still unclear how penning per se interacts with memory and learning to influence space use
362 over time. Nonetheless, it is likely that animals released from the maternity pen for the first time
363 will use an area that is about twice as large as animals released from the pen on multiple
364 occasions.

365 In addition to memory, we expected that resource demands and resource availability to
366 further affect home range size (Lucherini & Lovari, 1996; Relyea, Lawrence, & Demarais, 2000;

367 Nilsen, Herfindal, & Linnell, 2005; Nathan et al., 2008). Calving can exert high nutritional and
368 energetic demands on ungulates, with nursing mothers typically requiring greater space than
369 non-nursing adult females (Clutton-Brock, Guinness, & Albon, 1983; Parker et al., 1990).
370 However, we found that animals with calves had the same home range size as animals without
371 calves, suggesting that the demands of calving did not significantly influence area requirements.
372 Similarly, long-term data on roe deer showed that home range sizes were comparable for
373 reproductive and non-reproductive females (Saïd et al., 2009). It is possible that the gregarious
374 social structure of caribou may be a more important driver of home range size than reproductive
375 status. For example, more nutritionally-stressed cow-calf dyads may use the same home ranges
376 areas as dry cows to exploit the fitness benefits of herd formation (Hamilton, 1971).

377 Resource availability – as indexed by the average seasonal RSF score in the home range
378 – was weakly and negatively associated with home range size. This finding supports predictions
379 from ecological theory (Fretwell, 1969) and biogeographic patterns (McNab, 1963),
380 demonstrating that animals in more productive environments have higher densities and smaller
381 ranges. Given that caribou densities are sensitive to resource extraction, our results indicate that
382 habitat loss near the post-translocation release sites will strongly affect caribou movements with
383 potential consequences for maternal penning and captive breeding programs. We predict that
384 larger management neighborhoods will be required in landscapes with greater modification and
385 lower productivity.

386 Landscape change in mountain caribou herd ranges area has an elevational bias that
387 interacts with caribou movements (MacNearney et al., 2016). Work completed on caribou
388 movement in the 1990s suggest there are two seasonal migrations from high to low elevation
389 areas (Apps et al. 2001, and See Figure S3). One of these movements occurs in the spring when

390 caribou are calving. The other migration occurs in early winter when caribou crater-forage
391 through the snow for low lying plants, until the snow gets too deep and then they move back up
392 to the supported snowpack that lets them feed on arboreal lichen in the subalpine (Apps et al.,
393 2001; Serrouya, McLellan, & Flaa, 2007). In addition to access to forage, use of high-elevation
394 areas may reduce exposure of caribou to predators, particularly near the resource roads that
395 characterize low-elevation sites in this landscape. Roads and other linear features can facilitate
396 wolf movement and likely confer added risk to caribou (Dickie et al., 2017), particularly given
397 that mountain caribou also select forestry roads for ease of travel (Serrouya, Kellner, et al.,
398 2017). Our observations of the low-elevation return of adults to an area near the maternity pen
399 were observed in Alberta as well (Smith & Pittaway, 2011). Further analyses of how landscape
400 change has influenced seasonal use of elevation by caribou should be a priority for future
401 research, particularly given that risk of predation increases at lower elevation (Stotyn, 2008).

402 While our study exploited available telemetry data to ask an important question to
403 support caribou conservation, we note a number of limitations that affect the strength of our
404 inferences. First, while the telemetered animals occurred in the same area (Figure 1), their
405 collaring schedules were not synchronous (Figures S1 and S2). This means that annual variation
406 in weather, predators, or landscape change was not systematically applied across treatments
407 (penning status). Second, we did not have measures of movement patterns before and after
408 penning for individuals. We also did not translocate unpenned animals to new areas. Ideally,
409 such a design (i.e., before-after-control-impact) would help us separate the potential effects of
410 penning and translocation per se on caribou. While interesting from an ecological perspective,
411 such insights would require the handling of several more individuals and this comes with a risk
412 of injury to telemetered animals, with questionable returns on population growth under the best-

413 case scenario of no injury. Finally, we focused our analyses on the movement ecology of caribou
414 and see this work supporting the restoration of caribou populations. We did not measure direct
415 links between movement metrics and survival or population growth, but there is a clear need for
416 further research on this subject. Ongoing work in British Columbia is taking a closer look at the
417 effects of caribou management strategies on populations (Lamb et al *In Review*).

418

419 **Conclusion**

420 Maternity penning is an important conservation effort that can help stabilize and restore the
421 populations one of Canada's most endangered terrestrial mammals (Adams et al. 1995, 2019b
422 Hebblewhite 2017, Serrouya et al. 2019, Lamb et al In review). For penning efforts to yield
423 positive conservation outcomes it is critical to ensure that post-penned caribou have access to the
424 resources they need to survive and reproduce. We found that penned animals established home
425 ranges in and around the vicinity of the maternal pen, with few differences in movement
426 behaviour between penned and unpenned individuals. A notable exception is the use of lower
427 elevation areas by penned animals, which may influence their survival. The management
428 neighborhood of penned caribou had an upper limit of close to 10,000 km² and an average area
429 that was similar to penned animals (~1200 km²). For caribou, the best predictor of how they will
430 use the landscape appears to be driven by conditions at the release site. Future plans for
431 maternity pens and captive breeding programs need to carefully choose a location that considers
432 the survival of post-released animals across the expansive home ranges that will form near the
433 release site. Collectively, these home ranges form a neighborhood around the captive release site
434 where managing the distribution of key factors limiting population growth – such as food,
435 predators, and habitat - need to be prioritized. Further work is needed to understand how

436 seasonal shifts in elevation relate to habitat disturbance and survival for these threatened
437 populations.

438

439 **Author's contributions:** *ATF, MJN, and RS co-lead the writing and analysis of the manuscript.*
440 *CL, RG, KB, RS collated field data collection and acquisition. ATF, MJN, RS conceived the*
441 *ideas and designed methodology. All authors contributed critically to the drafts and gave final*
442 *approval for publication.*

443

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447

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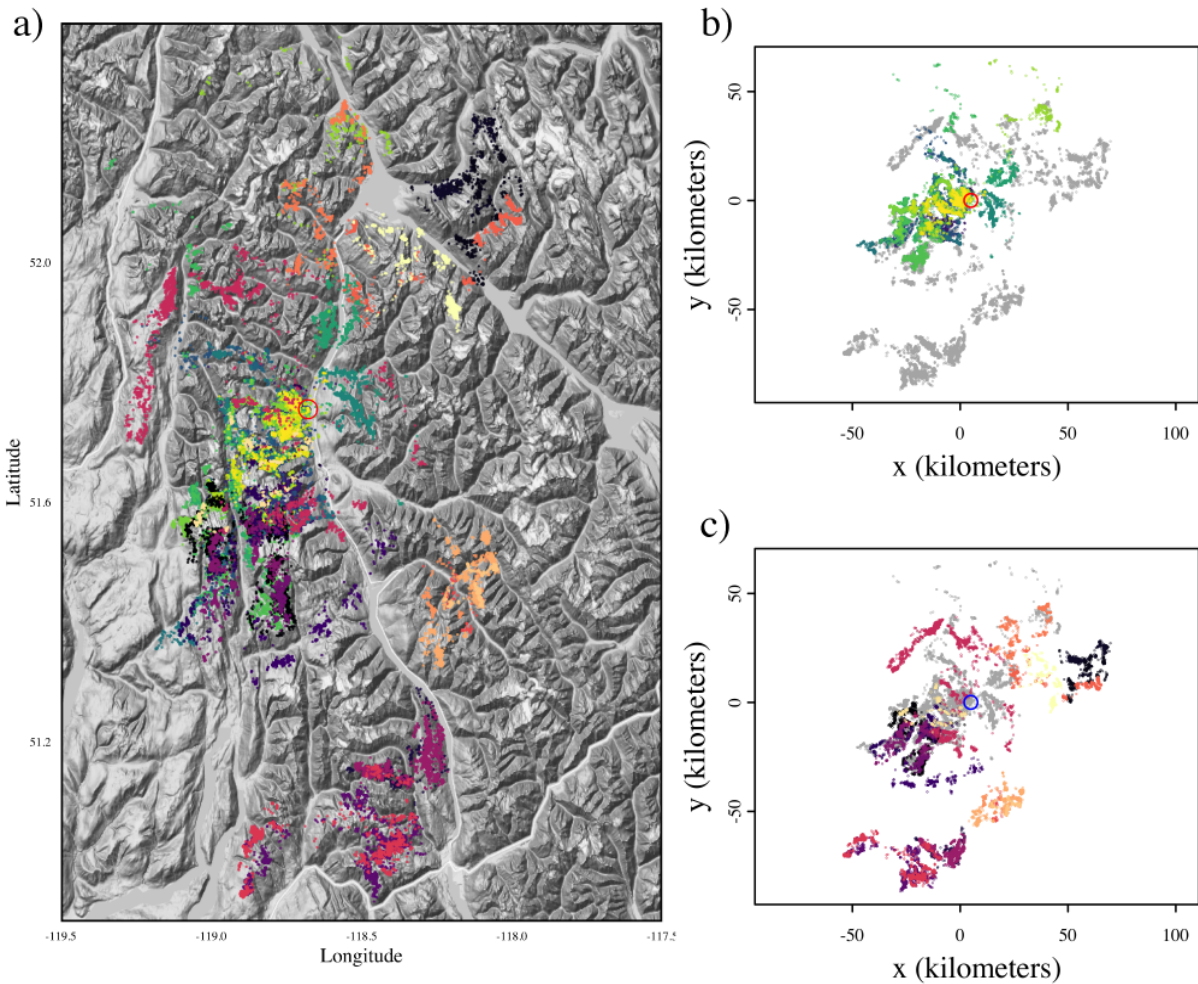
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637 **Figure 1. Distribution of penned and unpenned caribou near the Lake Revelstoke Valley of**
 638 **British Columbia, Canada.** In a) all of the individual tracking data are overlaid on a satellite
 639 image. The location of the maternity pen is shown via the red circle at Long: -118.6784, Lat:
 640 51.75512, and the colours correspond to different individuals. In b) each penned individual is
 641 shown in a unique colour, whereas the unpenned animals are grey. In c) unpenned individuals
 642 are shown in unique colours, whereas penned animals are grey. The red and blue circles in b) and
 643 c) show the location of the maternal pen.

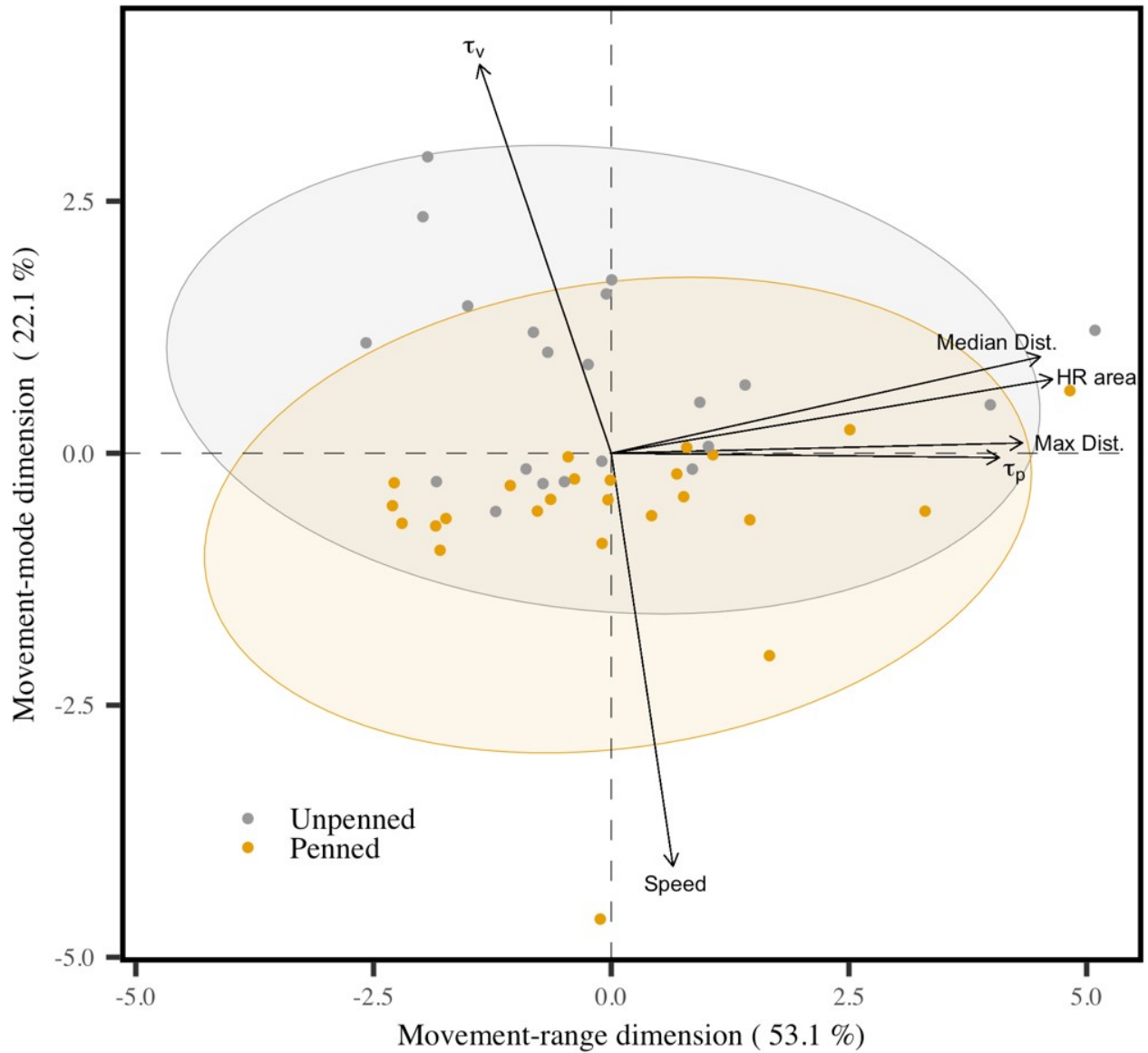
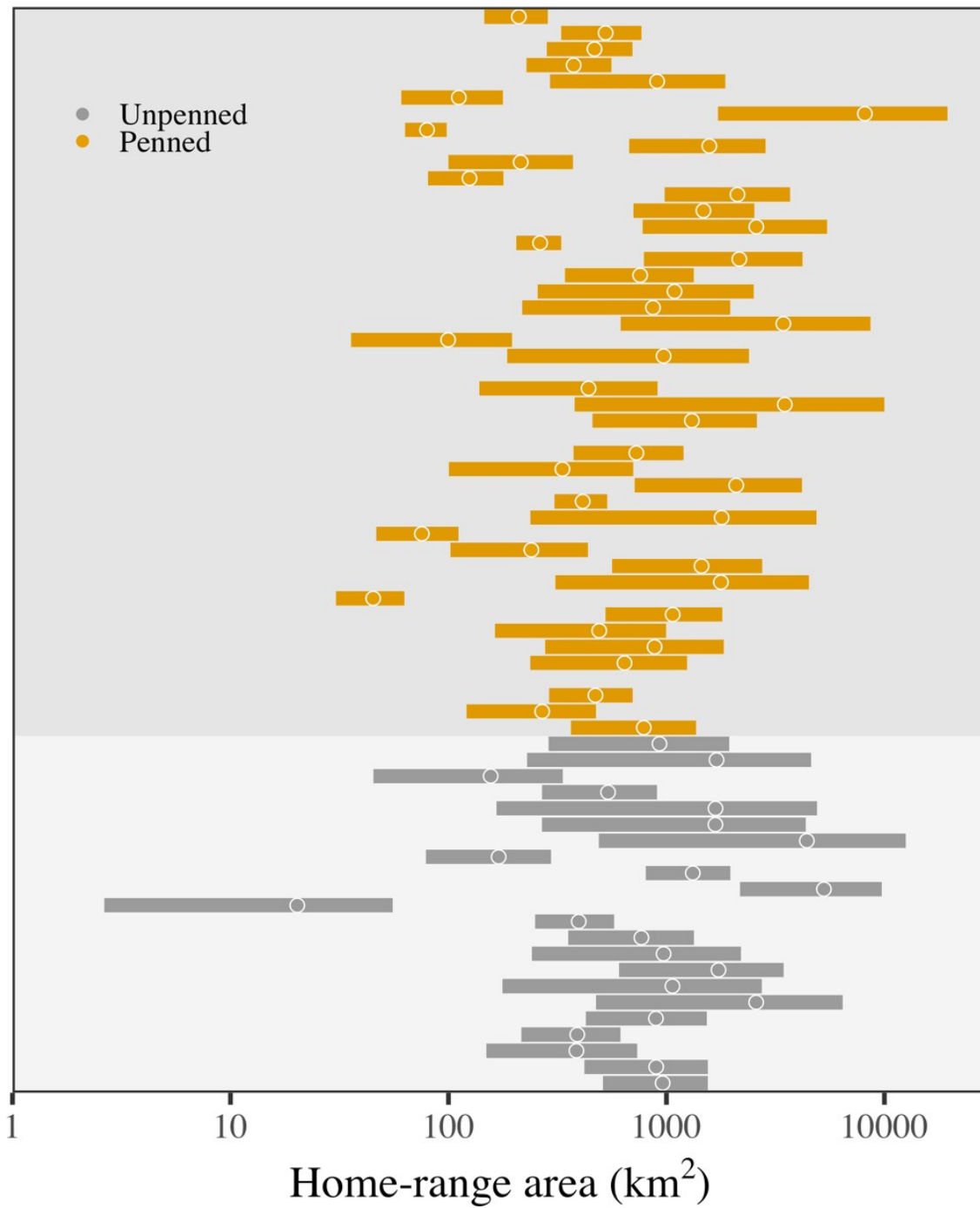
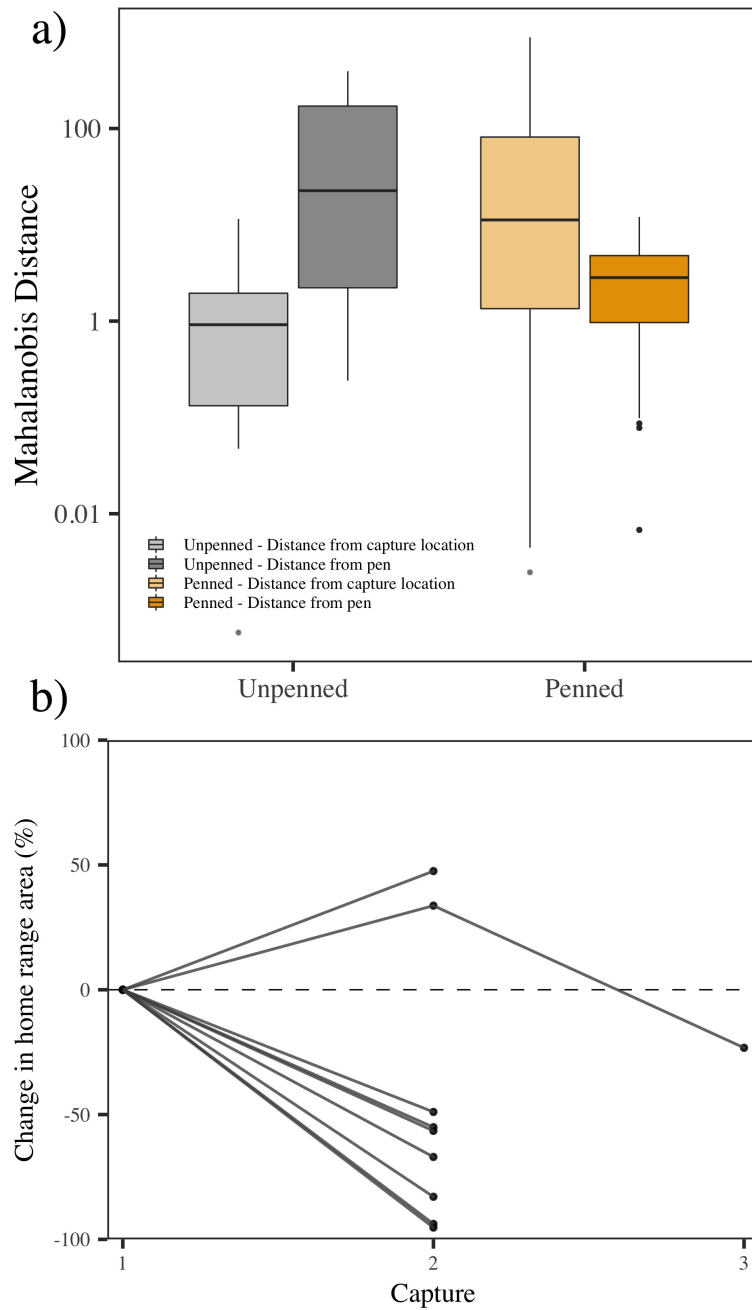


Figure 2 Scatter plot depicting the first two dimensions of a principal component analysis (PCA) across the movement metrics for panned and unpanned caribou. Ellipses depict the means and covariances of the first two dimensions of the PCA for each group. Note how most of the separation is along the movement-mode dimension.



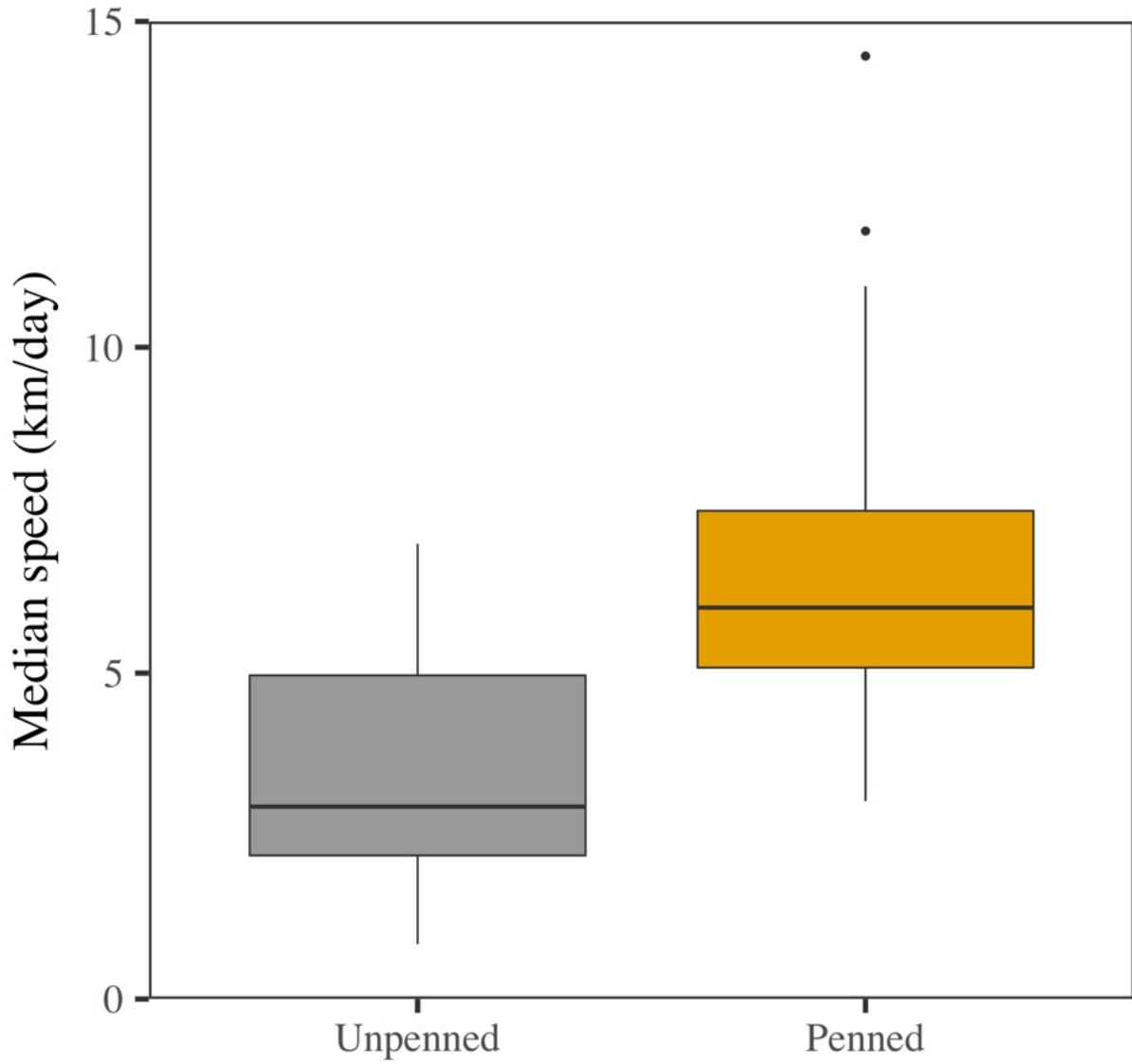
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648 **Figure 3.** The individual home-range area estimates \pm 95% confidence intervals for panned and unpanned caribou. The circles depict the point estimates, and the bars the width of the 95% confidence intervals.



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Figure 4 Panel a) shows the Mahalanobis Distances between each animal's home range and its capture location or the maternal pen. In b) a scatterplot depicting the change in home range area over time for those caribou that were held in the maternal pen for multiple breeding seasons is shown.



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Figure 5 Boxplots depicting the movement speeds of penned and unpenned caribou.

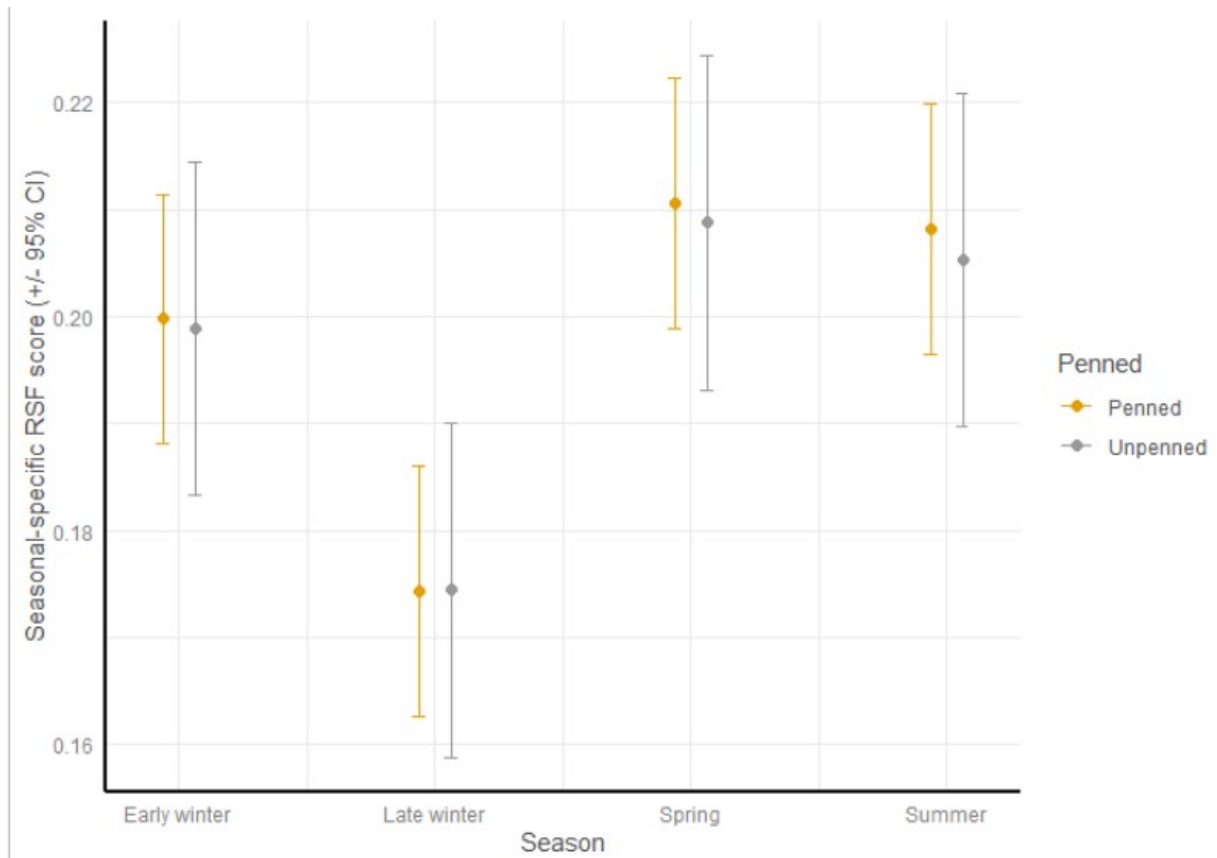
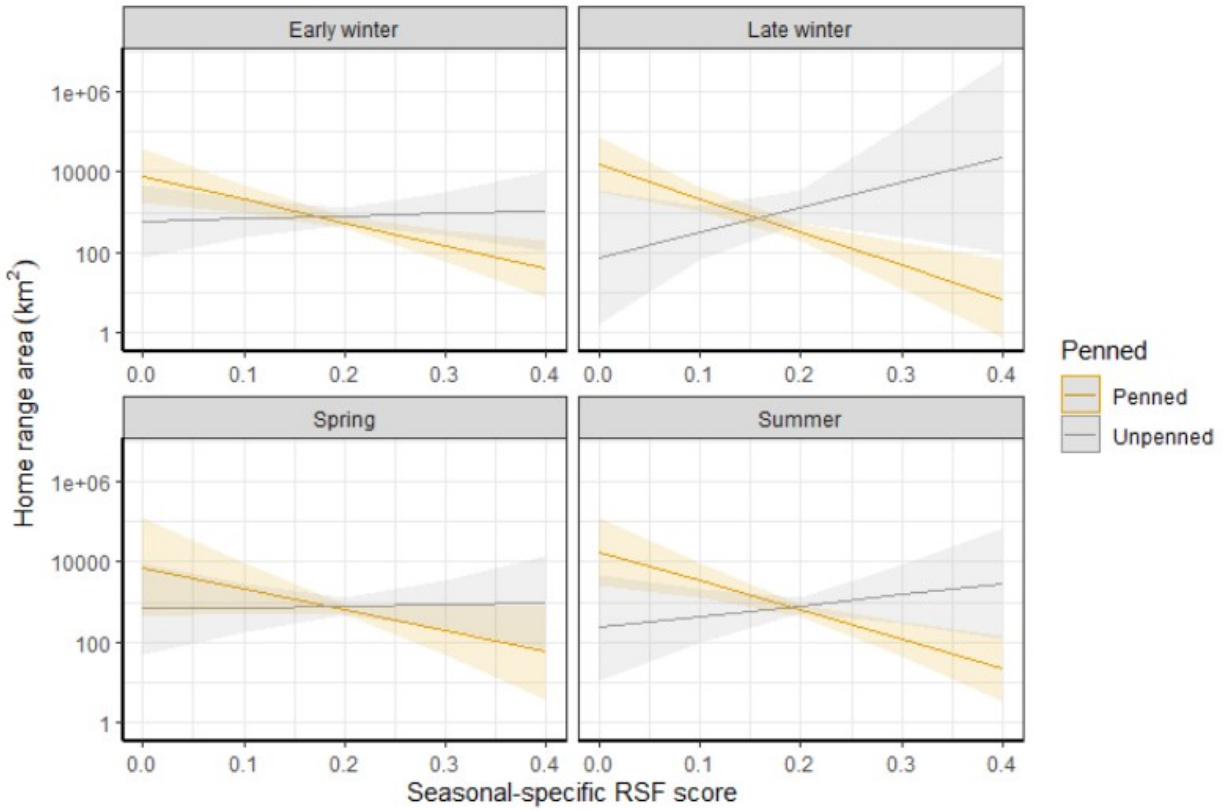


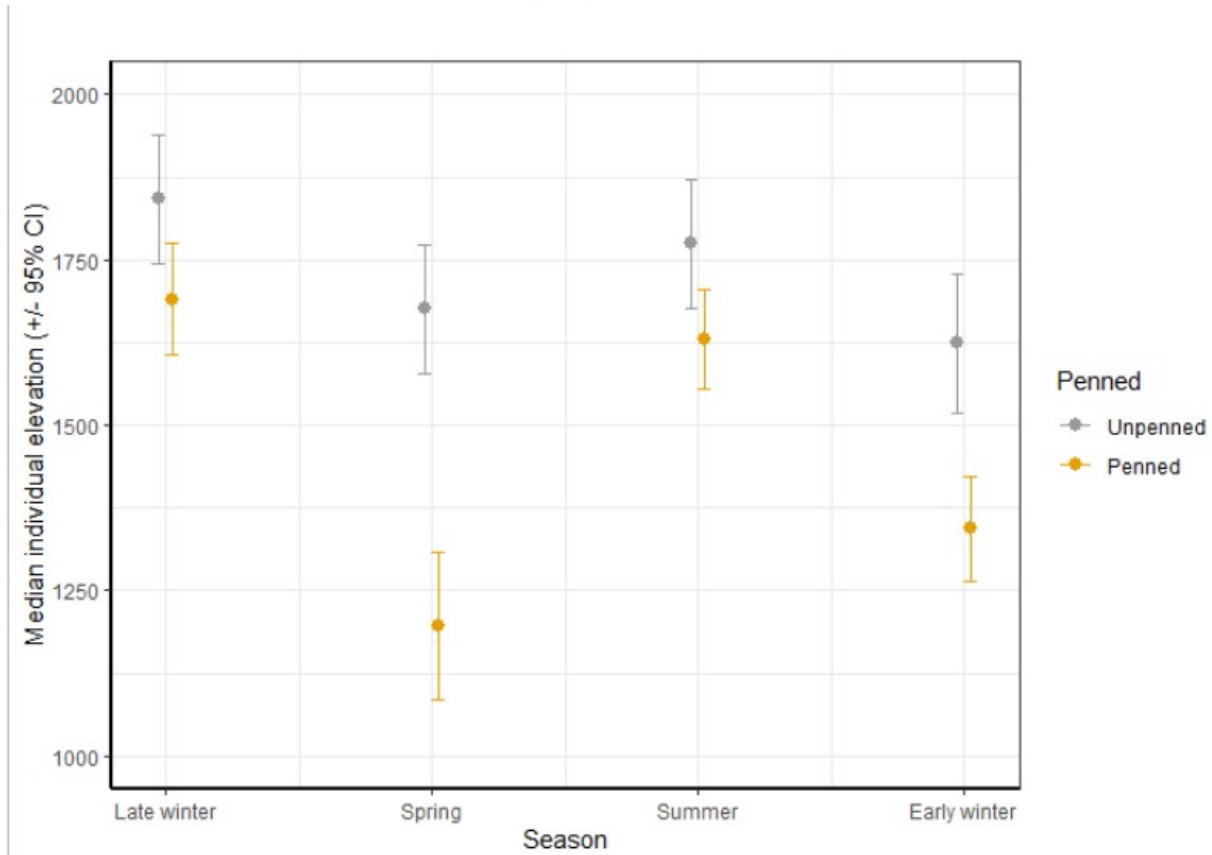
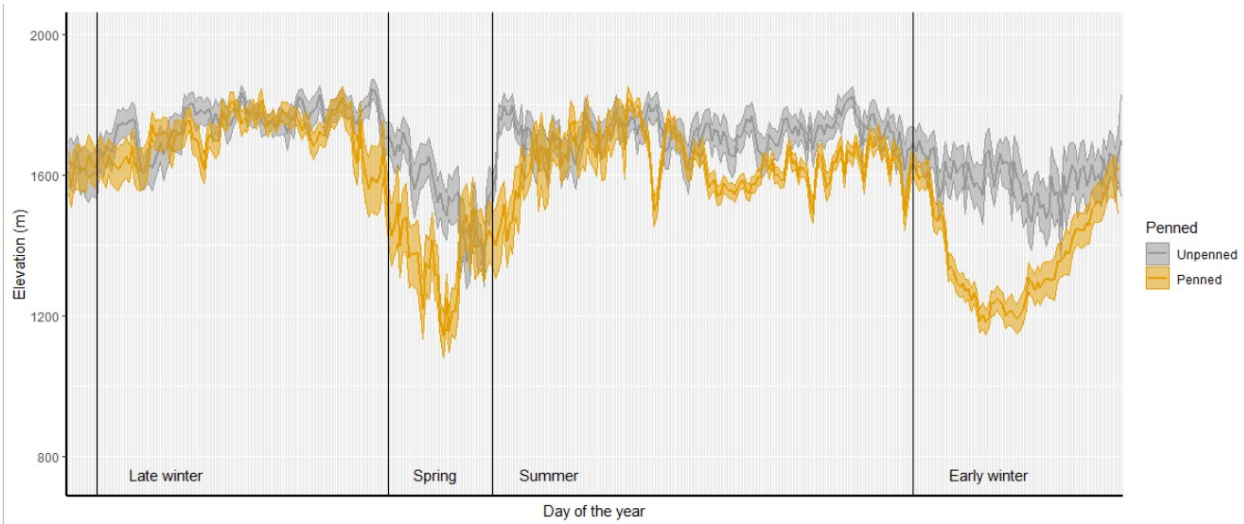
Figure 6. Predicted habitat quality (i.e., the seasonal-specific resource selection function (RSF) score) for panned and unpanned animals, after controlling for individual-level random effects. Habitat quality was similar at the home range scale across seasons, but late winter tended to have lower quality than other seasons (see Table 1).

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670 **Figure 7.** The predicted effect of average habitat quality (i.e., the home range average, seasonal-
671 specific resource selection function (RSF) score) on home range size for panned and unpanned
672 caribou. A single home range was used for each animal for all seasons (see Table 1). Shaded
673 areas represent the 95th confidence intervals of the prediction

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Figure 8. Seasonal use of elevation for panned and unpanned caribou, with (top) showing raw data pooled across individuals per day of the year and (bottom) predicted marginal effects of median seasonal elevation use (see Table 2).

677 **Table 1.** Summary of a linear mixed effect model predicting the effects of penning status and
 678 season on habitat quality at the home range scale (based on the Apps 2007 RSF).

Predictors			
<i>Predictors</i>	<i>Estimates</i>	<i>CI</i>	<i>p</i>
(Intercept)	0.20	0.19 – 0.21	<0.001
Penning [vs Unpenning]	-0.00	-0.02 – 0.02	0.920
Season [Late winter]	-0.03	-0.03 – -0.02	<0.001
Season [Spring]	0.01	0.00 – 0.02	0.025
Season [Early winter]	0.01	-0.00 – 0.02	0.080
Home range area	-0.08	-0.13 – -0.03	0.003
Penning x Late winter	0.00	-0.02 – 0.02	0.899
Penning x Spring	-0.00	-0.02 – 0.02	0.912
Penning x Summer	-0.00	-0.02 – 0.01	0.807
Random Effects			
σ^2	0.00		
$\tau_{00 \text{ ID}}$	0.00		
ICC	0.57		
N _{ID}	64		
Observations	256		
Marginal R ² / Conditional R ²	0.211 / 0.664		

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Table 2. Summary of a linear mixed effect model predicting the effects of penning status and season on elevation.

<i>Predictors</i>	Elevation		
	<i>Estimates</i>	<i>CI</i>	<i>p</i>
(Intercept)	1841.66	1743.85 – 1939.47	<0.001
Penned [Penned]	-150.82	-279.61 – -22.03	0.022
Spring vs Late winter	-166.05	-283.22 – -48.89	0.005
Summer vs Late winter	-67.27	-184.44 – 49.89	0.260
Early winter vs Late winter	-217.57	-339.76 – -95.37	<0.001
Penned x Spring	-328.22	-498.92 – -157.52	<0.001
Penned x Summer	5.91	-146.44 – 158.26	0.939
Penned x Early winter	-130.18	-286.99 – 26.64	0.104
Random Effects			
σ^2	37050.82		
$\tau_{00 \text{ ID}}$	15571.56		
ICC	0.30		
N_{ID}	58		
Observations	192		
Marginal R^2 / Conditional R^2	0.406 / 0.582		

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Supplemental information.

Figure S1. Data operability for unpenned caribou in the study.

Figure S2. Data operability for penned caribou in the study.

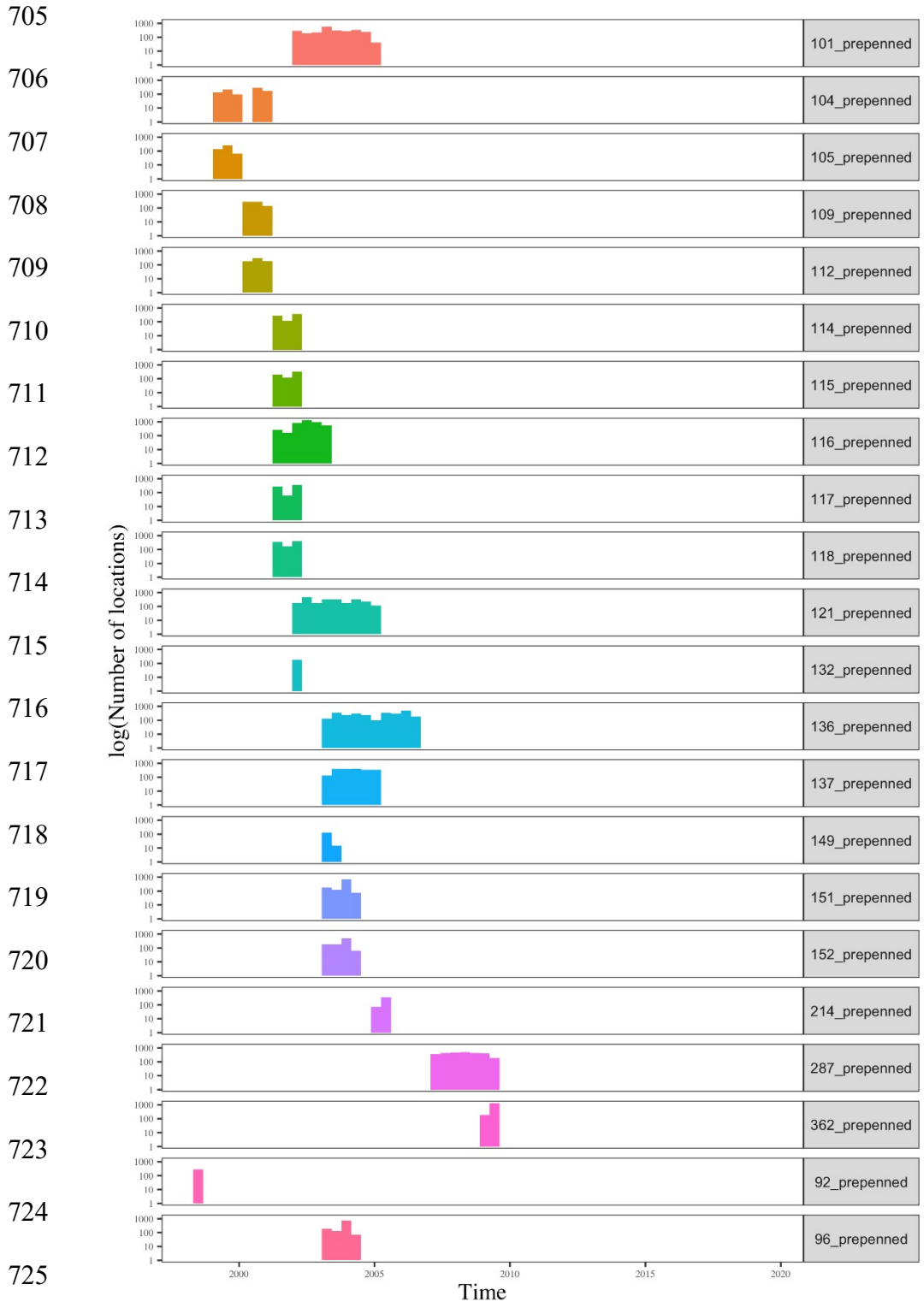
Figure S3. Seasonal cutoff dates based on Apps 2007, with end dates as: 11 January (EW), 22 April (LW), 28 May (SP), and 21 Oct (SU), taken from Apps 2007

Figure S4. Distribution of RSF scores (Apps et al 2007) by season and penning status for all GPS relocations.

Figure S5. Home range size for caribou with and without a calf at the time of release.

Figure S6. Displacement distances over time from both the pen, and each animal's capture/release location.

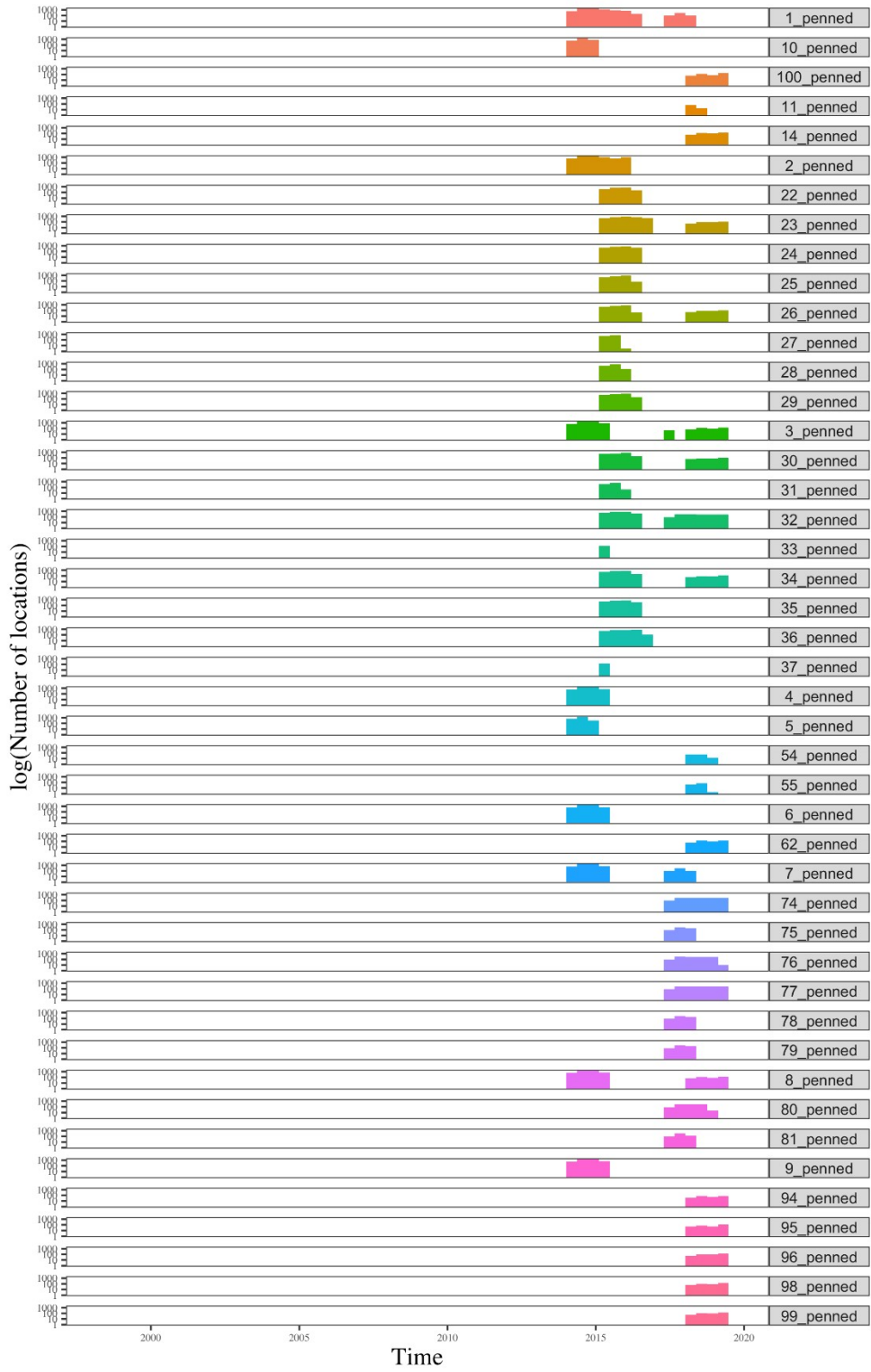
Figure S7. Box plot showing the home range area of caribou release with and without a calf.



726 **Figure S1.** GPS collar operability for unpenning caribou.

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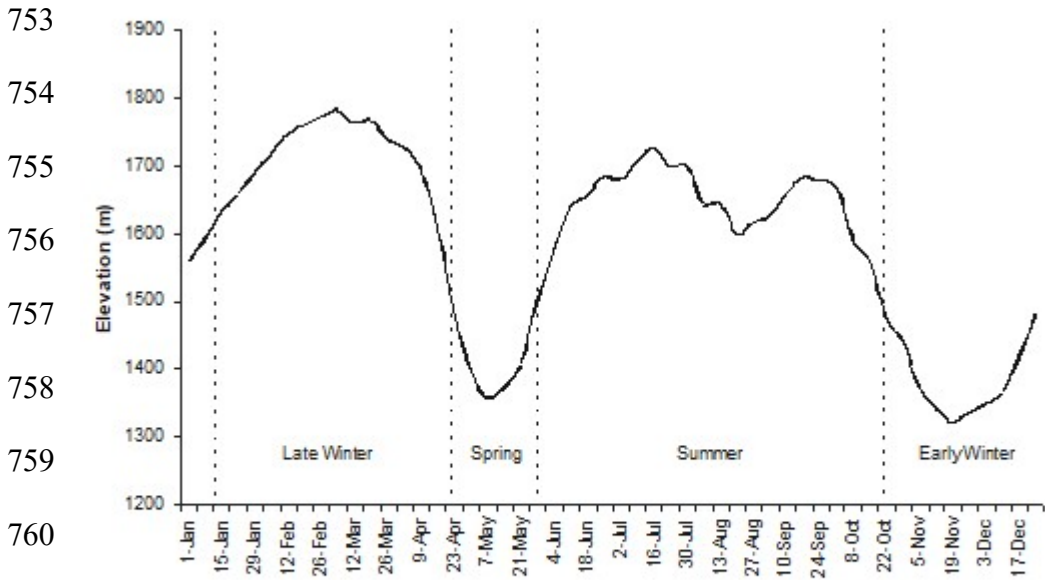
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749 **Figure S2.** GPS collar operability for penned and released caribou.

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751 **Figure S3.** Seasonal cutoff dates based on Apps et al. (2001) with end dates as: 11 January
752 (EW), 22 April (LW), 28 May (SP), and 21 Oct (SU).



761 **Figure 3.** Running 3-week mean elevations used by radiocollared mountain caribou, 1992 – 2006, in
762 the North Columbia Mountains ecoregion and environs, British Columbia. Vertical lines indicate
763 multi-year seasonal cutpoints defined by Apps et al. (2001).

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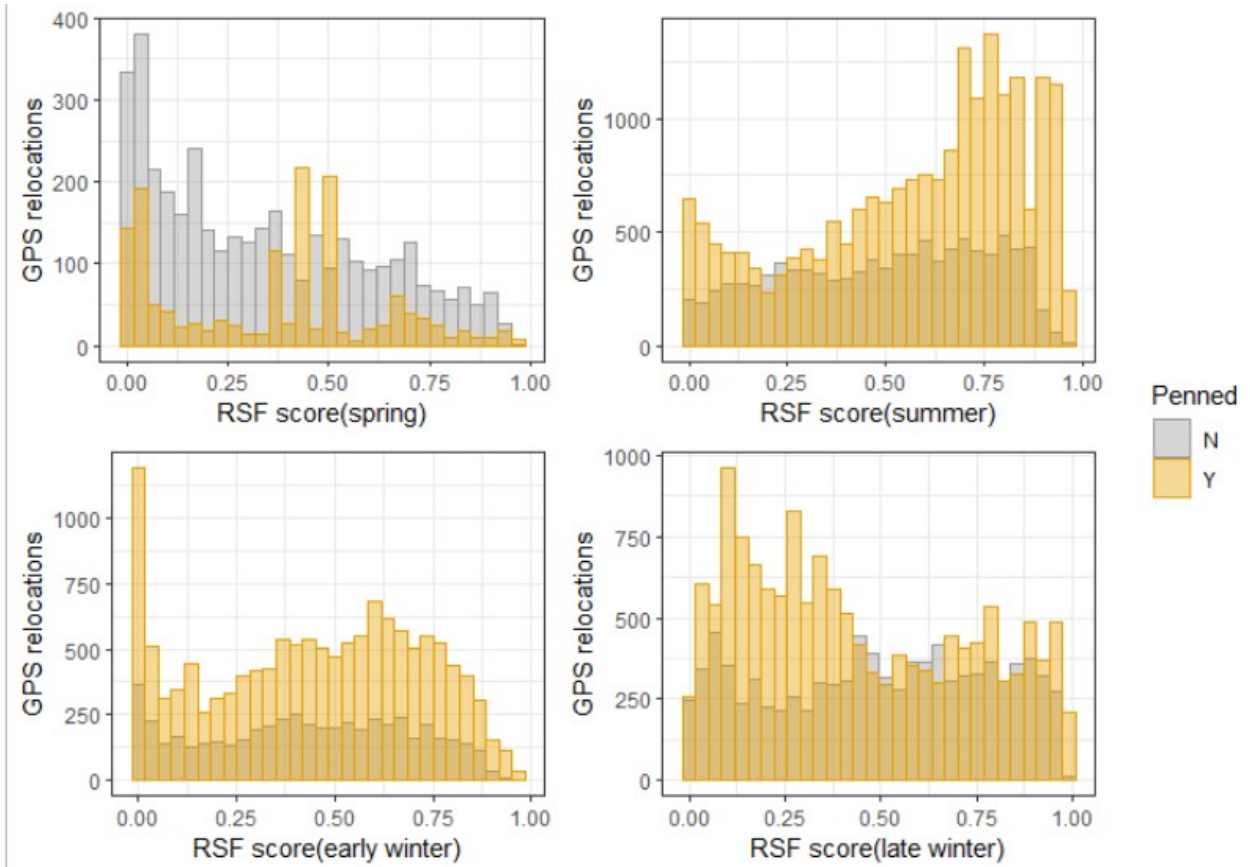
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788 **Figure S4.** Distribution of RSF scores (Apps 2007) by season and penning status for all GPS
789 relocations.

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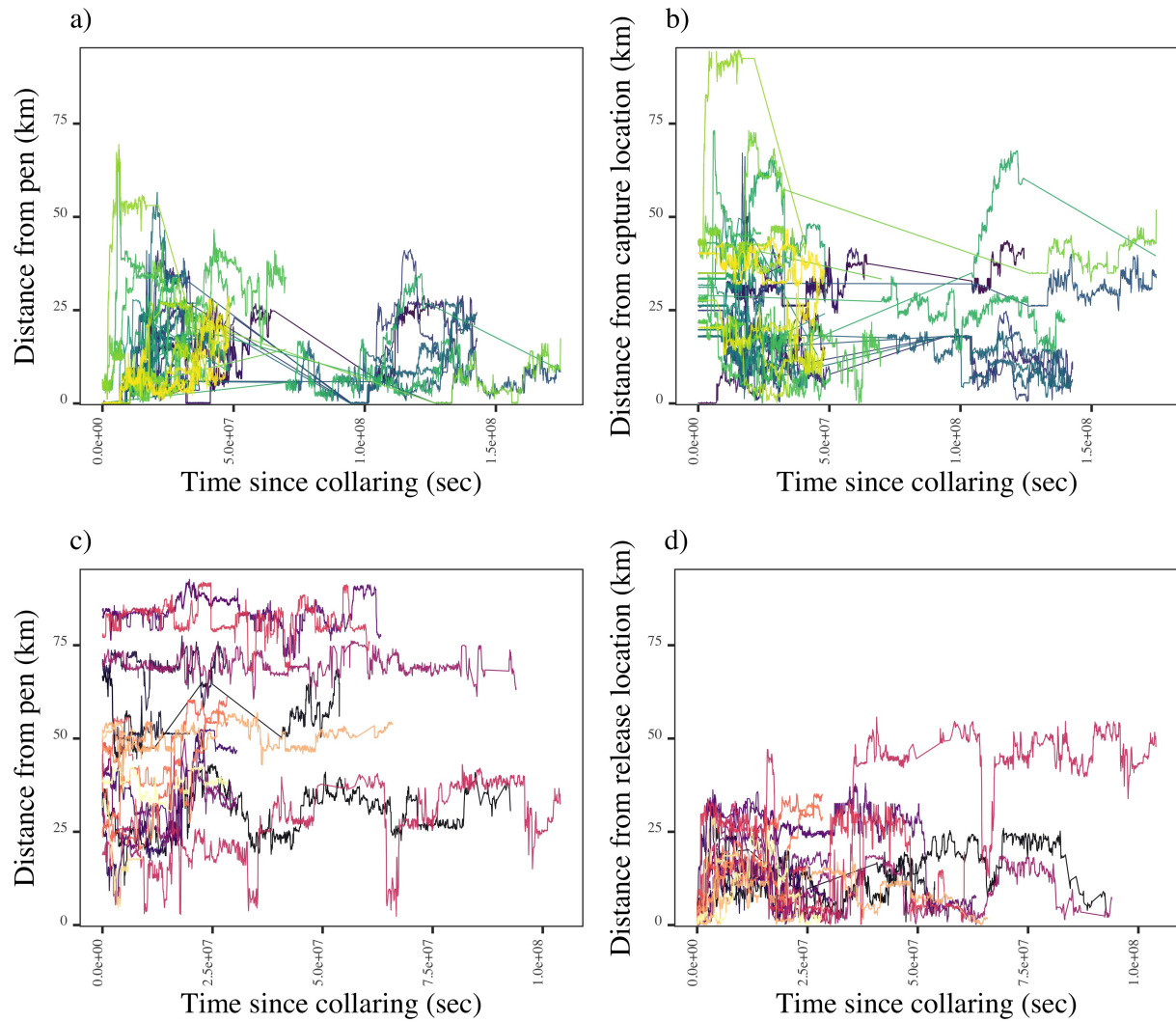
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798 **Figure S6.** Figure depicting the displacement distances over time from both the pen, and each
 799 animal's capture/release location. The top row, panels a) and b), show displacement distances for
 800 penned animals, whereas the bottom row, panels c) and d), show displacement distances for
 801 unpenna animals. In all panels each colour corresponds to a unique animal.

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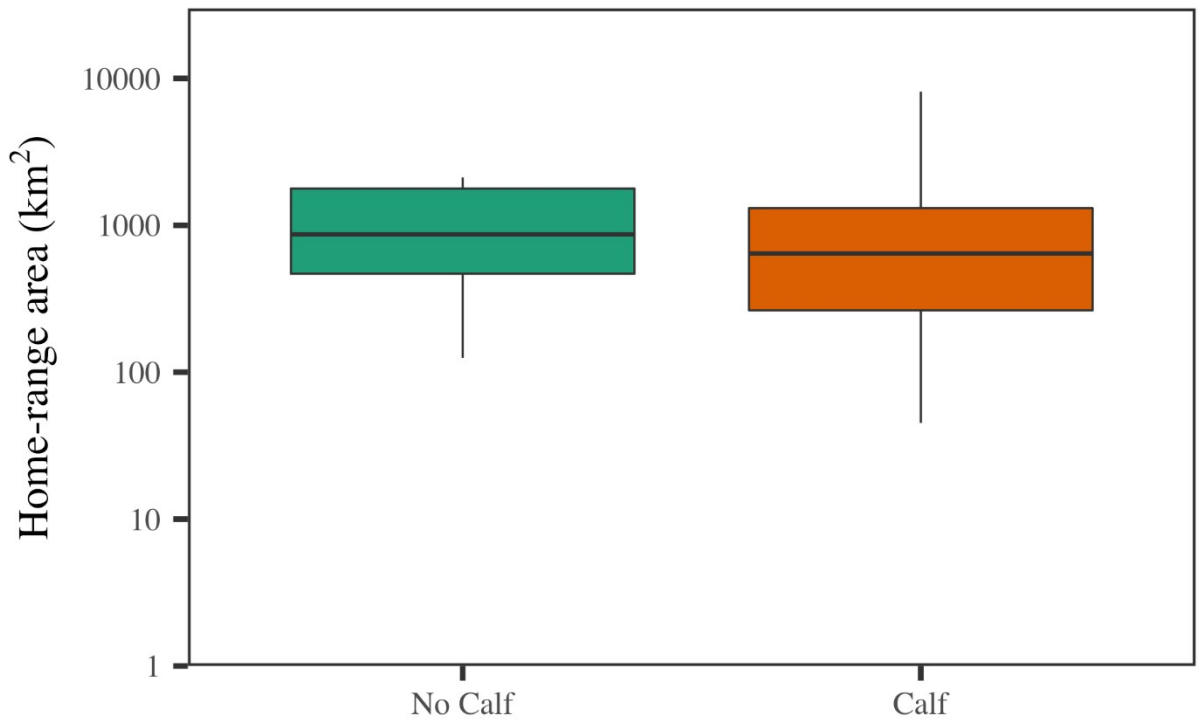


Figure S7. Box plot showing the home range area of caribou release with ($\bar{x} = 1140.0 \text{ km}^2$, $n = 33$) and without ($\bar{x} = 1081.2 \text{ km}^2$, $n = 9$) a calf. A permutation test revealed no relationship between caribou home range size and whether or not the animals had a calf at the time of release ($F_{[1,40]} = 0.526$, $p = 0.47$).