

THE POPULATION DYNAMICS OF RODENTS AT PONGOLA,
NORTHERN ZULULAND, EXPOSED TO DIELDRIN COVER-
SPRAYING

BY

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To my wife

ABSTRACT

THE POPULATION DYNAMICS OF RODENTS AT PONGOLA,
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Four grids, each 3,42 ha (4 morgen) in size, were live trapped from April 1967 through May 1969 in two soil and vegetation types (black turf: Acacia nigrescens community, and brown reddish soil: Acacia tortilis community) at Pongola, northern Zululand, to determine the effect of dieldrin coverspraying, at a dosage of 87,4 g/hectare (2,64 oz/morgen), on rodents. Low population numbers before and especially at the time of spraying made clear-cut conclusions impossible to reach. Rodent populations (mainly Praomys (Mastomys) natalensis, Saccostomus campestris, and Lemniscomys griselda) were apparently not adversely effected, although L. griselda numbers showed a decline which was not in correspondence with that on the control area. This might be ascribed to dieldrin spraying. Relatively higher numbers of S. campestris and L. griselda were observed during periods of lower P. (M.) natalensis numbers. Decreases in P. (M.) natalensis populations coincided with times of food scarcity. Praomys (Mastomys) natalensis are thus found in association with other rodents when abundant food is available, but seems to give way when competition due to food scarcity occurs.

Reproductive data obtained from the study were too meagre to allow any conclusions concerning the effect of spraying thereon.

The method involving the calculation of maximum distance between captures was used to express movement patterns of the species studied.

Population structure is expressed in terms of sex ratios, and frequency per mass class for each season.

The size of animals was investigated by measuring total length, tail length, and head and body length. Behavioural features of the species captured were also noted.

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1. Introduction

Large tracts of land in Southern Africa are infested by harvester termites Hodotermes mossambicus (Hagen). Although the recommended treatment with sodium fluosilicate bait is effective, implementation of this method on a large scale proved to be impractical. This led to the temporary registration by the Department of Agricultural Technical Services in 1965 of dieldrin coverspraying at a dosage of 87,4 g/ha (2,64 oz per morgen). Due to worldwide concern about the use of organochlorines in general and dieldrin in particular, the permanent registration of dieldrin depended on the outcome of longterm investigations into all its effects on animal life.

In recent years the effect on mammals of pesticides in general and the persistent organochlorines in particular has received increased attention. Pesticides have on occasion been used for the control of rodents although usually at much higher concentrations than when used for insect control (Luckman, 1957; Schneider, 1966; Webb and Horsfall, 1967). More frequently, however, the effect of pesticides on mammals and other vertebrates is a secondary byproduct of attempts to eradicate insect pests.

The effect of persistent pesticides on mammals have been widely studied both in the laboratory and in the field. A field application of dieldrin (three pounds per acre) was reported to have virtually exterminated several species of mammals and birds (Scott, Willis, and Ellis, 1959). In a forest, however, sprayed with two pounds of DDT in oil per acre, no evidence of any adverse change in the rodent population was observed (Stickel, 1946).

Morris (1970) reports endrin, sprayed at 0,5 pounds/acre on an unenclosed field population, to illustrate an immediate decline in Microtus pennsylvanicus numbers. No long term toxicological effect was demonstrated in the Microtus population, which rapidly recovered, while a long term effect was demonstrated in Peromyscus maniculatus, indicating a different response by the two small mammal species to endrin. It was concluded that the Microtus population responded to endrin as it would to a local depopulation by removal trapping. Morris (1971) came to the same conclusion from a study on an enclosed Micro-

tus populations, sprayed at the same dosage.

Resistance to organochlorines in insects is a widely known phenomenon. This resistance has, however, now also been illustrated in the Pine mouse, Pitymys pinetorum (Webb and Horsfall, 1967).

Most experimental work, however, has been done on laboratory rodents. Studies on the effect of exposure of mammals to organochlorines have been undertaken by various writers, e.g. Bernard and Gaetner, 1964; Hunter, Stevenson, and Ferrigan, 1964; Ware and Good, 1967; Morris, 1968; Deichmann, Kepingler, Dresler, and Sala, 1969; Good and Ware, 1969; and Murphy and Korschgen, 1970..

In South Africa, Wiese, Basson, and van der Merwe (1970) illustrated that livestock was not adversely effected by dieldrin coverspraying at the registered concentration.

The effect of organochlorine pesticides on birds has been widely studied by various authors, especially in the United States of America (Robbins, Springer, and Webster, 1951; Genelly and Rudd, 1956; Clawson and Baker, 1959; Cross, King, and Haynes, 1962; Wurster, Wurster, and Strickland, 1965; Keith, 1966; Atkins and Linder, 1967; Labisky and Lutz, 1967; Baxter, Linder, and Dahlgren, 1969).

In South Africa Wiese and Basson (1967) concluded from a study on caged crowned guinea fowl, Numida meleagris, that it would be unlikely that acute intoxication would result from blanket treatment with dieldrin at a dosage of 2,64 oz per morgen. Wiese, Basson, van der Vyver, and van der Merwe (1969) report significantly higher egg production of crowned guinea fowl exposed to higher dieldrin dietary levels. The greater viability (weight gain and egg production) of the F₁ progeny of these birds was ascribed to a selection (resulting from dieldrin intoxication) for increased vigour.

Dieldrin and related compounds seem to be much more lethal to invertebrates and fish than to mammals and birds (Harrington and Bidlingmayer, 1958; Meeks, 1968).

In order to appreciate the ecological effects of pesticides, the ecology of the animals and areas studied should be

known. In South Africa work on rodent ecology was initially undertaken mainly in connection with plague (Davis, 1939, 1946a, 1946b, 1948, 1953, 1963a, 1963b, 1964; Davis and Thomas, 1941; Oliff, 1953; Measroch, 1954; Johnston and Oliff, 1954; Allanson, 1958; Veenstra, 1958; Coetzee, 1965, 1967; Hallett, 1967; De Moor, 1969).

Work on rodent ecology in general has been undertaken, amongst others by Davis (1958, 1959), Meester (1958, 1960), De Graaff (1962), De Graaff and Nel (1965), Nel and Nolte (1965), Meester and Hallett (1970), and Davis (in press).

Against the background of this work the present study reports on the effect of dieldrin spraying on the general ecology of wild living rodents occurring on two soil and vegetation types 11 km SSE of Pongola ($27^{\circ}29'S$, $31^{\circ}42'E$), in the northern Zululand lowveld, Natal.

The area was studied by means of live trapping from April 1967 through May 1969. In July 1968 it was aerially sprayed with dieldrin at 83,0 g/ha.

Several species of rodents, and particularly Praomys (Mastomys) natalensis which is one of the most important species for health and economic reasons, encountered during the study, are subject to periodic increases in numbers. Praomys (Mastomys) natalensis is a semi-commensal rodent which plays an important role in the transmission of plague, Pasturella pestis, from gerbils to man (Davis, 1946a; 1946b; 1948). Recently plague was reported from the Orange Free State during 1967/68, and from Lesotho at the end of 1968, which coincided with a rodent population outbreak which started and ceased sporadically at different localities in South Africa during the period late 1966 to early 1969. This outbreak, which caused considerable damage to maize and other crops, was observed over practically the whole of the Transvaal, the northern Cape near the Botswana border, the northern and central Orange Free State, and probably extended through Lesotho to the northeastern Cape Province. It also occurred in large parts of Natal and probably extended from there through Swaziland to the Transvaal lowveld (van der Merwe and Keogh, 1970; Hallett and Keogh, personal communication).

Wilson (1970) reports on a population explosion of Praomys (Mastomys) natalensis becoming evident in Rhodesia during January 1967 which steadily increased to a peak in July/August of the same year, after which numbers declined.

One of the main functions of ecological work on rodents in South Africa is to conduct surveys of those species that are involved directly or indirectly in vector-borne diseases of man (Davis, 1963a).

A secondary purpose of this study, therefore, was to try to obtain information about those aspects of the ecology of Praomys (Mastomys) natalensis and other species captured which would assist in understanding, and perhaps preventing, similar outbreaks and the plague epidemics which might accompany them.

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3. Study area

3.1 Location

The study area is located on the farm Vergeval 644, district Ngotshe, northern Zululand, Natal (figs. 1 and 2), 11 km SSE of Pongola, at an altitude of approximately 360 m above sea level and at the coordinates $27^{\circ}29'S$, $31^{\circ}42'E$.

An area of 428,3 hectares (500 morgen) was selected for the dieldrin project. One half of this area was sprayed and the other half was used as a control area.

Trapping was conducted on two grids on each half of the study area. Grids P46 and P89 were the control grids, while grids P50 and P88 were sprayed. The position of each grid on the study area is shown in fig. 3. In each community (see section 3.3. below) the most uniform habitat where grid live trapping would be practical, was selected.

3.2 Climate

The climate of the area is subtropical, with a wet summer season followed by a dry winter. The temperature and relative humidity prevailing over the study area were determined by means of a thermohygrograph housed in a standard Stevenson screen.

The highest monthly maximum temperature, mean maximum, lowest minimum, mean minimum, and the monthly mean for the study area appear in table 1. The highest monthly maximum relative humidity, mean maximum, lowest minimum, mean minimum, and the monthly mean for the study area are shown in table 2.

Rainfall figures for the study area and for the Pongola Gorge ($27^{\circ}26'S$, $32^{\circ}4'E$; 50 km ENE of the study area) are shown in table 3. Due to the fact that rainfall data for the study area were only available from September 1967 on, the Pongola Gorge rainfall figures (January 1966 to May 1969) and the average for Pongola Gorge area (657 mm per annum), were obtained from the Weather Bureau (Department of Transport, Pretoria) for comparison. The rainfall statistics for the nearby Pongola settlement ($27^{\circ}23'S$, $31^{\circ}37'E$; alt. 274 m), available only for the period 1942 to 1950, are summarized up as follows:

Average over nine years: 718,8 mm
 Max: 977,6 mm (1943)
 Min: 497,6 mm (1947) (Weather Bureau, 1954).

When the total rainfall on the study area during 1968, viz. 327,4 mm (the only complete rainfall data for a full year available) and that on the Pongola Gorge during the same period (403,1 mm), are compared with the average over nine years (1942 to 1950) at the Pongola settlement (718,8 mm), it becomes apparent that 1968 was an extremely dry year, the nine-year average rainfall at the Pongola settlement being much higher than the 1968 figures observed on the study area and at the Pongola Gorge Weather Station. The 1968 rainfall on the study area, in fact, was even lower than the minimum of 497,6 mm observed at the settlement over the nine year period.

From January to May 1967 the rainfall on the study area was much higher than during the same period in 1968 (records from surrounding farmers). From July 1968 (the time of spraying) until February 1969, the rainfall was lower than during the same period the previous year. From March to May 1969 the rainfall exceeded that for the previous year (table 3).

3.3 Habitat

The study area, situated in the lowveld veld type (Acocks, 1953) and the Southern savannah biotic zone of Moreau (Davis, 1962), is composed of two plant communities viz. Acacia tortilis, and A. nigrescens. Two grids were situated in each community, grids P46 and P50 in the A. tortilis community and grids P88 and P89 in the A. nigrescens community. This means that a control and a sprayed grid occurred in each plant community.

The study area was grazed during the first three weeks of October, 1967 by approximately 1000 cattle, from 9 to 18 May 1968 by 300 cattle, and from 19 to 31 May 1968 by 170 cattle. Thereafter no grazing by cattle took place.

At least 100 Impala, Aepyceros melampus, were present on the area throughout the period of the study, although a much higher population presumably occurred most of the time. Other ungulates present on the area in low numbers were kudu, Trage-

laphus strepsiceros, bushbuck, Tragelaphus scriptus, steenbok, Raphicerus campestris and grey duiker, Sylvicapra grimmia.

The following small mammals were captured in the course of the study:

Praomys (Mastomys) natalensis (A. Smith, 1834) (Multimammate mouse)
Saccostomus campestris Peters, 1846 (Pouched mouse)
Lemniscomys griselda (Thomas, 1904) (Single-striped grass rat)
Leggada minutoides (Smith, 1834) (Pygmy mouse)
Steatomys pratensis (Peters, 1846) (Fat mouse)
Aethomys (Aethomys) chrysophilus (de Winton, 1897) (Red veld rat)
Tatera brantsi (A. Smith, 1834) (Highveld gerbil)
Otomys angoniensis Wroughton, 1906 (Vlei rat)
Crocidura hirta Peters, 1852 (Musk shrew)

The numbers of each species caught are shown in tables 4 to 7. For the distribution throughout Africa of the rodent species caught on the study area, see Davis (1962).

The mechanical and chemical analyses of eight soil samples, taken from the four grids at depths of 0 - 10 cm, are shown in tables 8 to 10, and the position where each sample was taken on the grids and study area is shown in fig. 3.

3.3.1 Grid P46

The position of this grid in the study area is shown in fig. 3 and described in section 4.1.

The general topography and nature of the habitat during November 1968 are indicated in fig 4. The soil colour varies from dark brown to brownish red (table 10). The area is flat and free of stones with Acacia tortilis and A. karroo the two most common tree species. The trees, shrubs, and grasses recorded from this grid are listed in table 11. The most common grass was Sporobolus smutsii. In the shade of the acacias, Panicum maximum and P. deustum were, however, the dominant species. These latter two species were those most damaged by termites through the winter months.

During April/May 1967 the grass cover was denser than at any other time during the study period. By the end of August

(ie. the end of winter), however, the grass cover had been severely damaged by harvester termites, more than on any of the other three grids. During the winter of 1968 (June to August) much less termite activity was observed than during the previous winter.

At the end of the wet season in April/May 1968, the grass stand was far less than at the same time during the previous year. This was due mainly to the much lower rainfall during early 1968 (table 3).

The vegetation cover during late spring (November) of 1968 is shown in fig. 4. From this it can be seen that no new growth had taken place by the end of the spring. No substantial growth occurred before good rains fell in March 1969. This was, however, too late to enable any significant rodent population increase to take place before the termination of the study (see section 5.1).

3.3.2 Grid P50

The position of this grid in the study area is shown in fig. 3 and described in section 4.1.

The general topography and nature of the habitat during November 1968 are depicted in fig. 5. The soil colour is brown-red (table 10) and the area is flat and free of stones, with A. tortilis the most common tree. The trees, shrubs, and grasses recorded from this grid are listed in table 11.

Panicum maximum and P. deustum were less common than on grid P46. These two grass species seemed to be favoured by termites. The most common and less favoured species, S. smut-sii, remained relatively dense even during winter.

During the 1968/69 rainy season this grid had a relatively better grass cover than did P46 (see figs. 4 and 5). The vegetation cover on this grid, however, was also poor during late spring of 1968 (November) and did not improve before March 1969.

3.3.3 Grids P88 and P89

The position of these two grids in the study area is shown in fig. 3 and described in section 4.1. They are situated on a slightly stony slope, sloping from west to east. The

soil type is black turf (table 10).

The general topography and nature of the habitat during November 1968 are evident from fig. 6. The trees, shrubs, and grasses recorded from these two grids are listed in table 11 with A. nigrescens the most common tree.

Heteropogon contortus and S. smutsii were the most abundant grasses. P. maximum and P. deustum were sparsely distributed and are assumed to have played an insignificant role on these two grids.

Grids P88 and P89, on turf soil, and belonging to the A. nigrescens community, had a continuous grass cover (fig. 6) in contrast with the A. tortilis community (figs. 4 and 5), probably as a result of undergrazing of the A. nigrescens community, the conspicuous absence of termites or termite damage, and the soil type.

4. Material and methods

4.1 Trapping

Trapping was carried out in four grids, situated in two main plant communities (figs. 3 to 6). Grids P46 and P50 were situated in an Acacia tortilis plant community and the other two grids, P88 and P89, in an Acacia nigrescens community. In each community the most uniform habitat where live trapping on grids would be practical was selected.

The position of the four grids in relation to each other is shown in fig.3. Each grid was 3,42 ha (four morgen) in size. Grids P88 and P89 were adjacent to each other with a 182,9 metre (600 foot) communal boundary, and were situated approximately 0,8 km from the other two grids. Grid P89 was not sufficiently far from grid P88 to escape the effect of spraying on grid P88, but was chosen in order to study the interaction between the sprayed and unsprayed populations after spraying. Extremely low rodent population levels directly before and after spraying made this impossible.

The four grids were each trapped with 225 Chauvancy live traps (fig.7) spaced 13,1 metres (43 feet) apart, 15 rows with 15 trap stations each, and one trap per station, placed haphazardly within a 1 metre radius of the station marker.

The time and duration of trapping on the four grids are indicated in tables 4 to 7. Grids P46 (19 times) and P89 (16 times) were trapped from May 1967 through May 1969. Grid P88 (16 times) was trapped from April 1967 and grid P50 (18 times) from August 1967, both through May 1969. Each grid was trapped for four successive nights during each trapping period, with all 225 traps operating concurrently. Because of the low number of animals captured, grids P88 and P89 were sometimes trapped for only 3 nights during a trapping period.

A mixture of peanut butter and rolled oats was used as bait. No prebaiting was done.

During trapping operations traps were serviced early each morning. Sprung traps were investigated, and any mice caught were transferred from the trap to a large plastic bag (400 to 800 gauge plastic), approximately 375 mm x 250 mm (15 in. x

10 in.) in size, and from this bag to a smaller sized linen bag 200 mm x 125 mm (8 in. x 5 in.). The linen bag containing the animal was then taken to a light delivery truck used as a field station.

On first capture each rodent was marked by toe-clipping and/or ear-clipping (for method see fig. 8). In addition, the following data were recorded for each animal at every capture:

- 1) Species.
- 2) The mass of each animal to the nearest gram, obtained on a triple beam balance.
- 3) Sex.
- 4) Position of testes, ^hwhether scrotal or abdominal (males).
- 5) Vagina open or closed (females).
- 6) Pregnant females, as detected by palpation.
- 7) Total length in mm. Animals were stretched out on their backs on a ruler and measured from the tip of the nose to the end of the tail.
- 8) Tail length, by the vertebral method (Coetzee, 1967).
- 9) Trap number.

After the above data had been recorded the animals were released at their point of capture.

When an animal was caught more than once within a trapping period, the mass recorded at the first capture was taken to apply throughout. The total length, head and body length, and tail length were averaged for a particular trapping period to make measurements more accurate.

During all the trapping periods from 21 May, 1968 to November 1968, traps in grids P46 and P50 were serviced twice daily, in the early morning and again at sundown. This prevented mortality of the diurnal Lemniscomys griselda, which otherwise had to remain in the traps for a day and a night before release. Prior to 21 May, 1968 the numbers of L. griselda captured did not warrant this procedure, and their numbers in the other two grids were too low throughout the study to require traps to be serviced twice daily.

For the purpose of population density estimation the afternoon catches were ~~at University of Pretoria~~ of the following morning.

The data thus accumulated were treated as if the traps had only been cleared in the mornings.

4.2 Spraying

Grids P50 and P88 were sprayed from the air on 2 July, 1968 with a solution of 13% (weight/weight) technical dieldrin (85 percent 1,2,3,4,10, 10-hexachloro-6,7-epoxy-1,4,4a,5,6,7, 8, 8a-octahydro-exo-1,4-endo-5, 8-dimethanonaphthalene, Heod, and 15 percent related compounds) in a mixture of 70 percent xylene/styrene polymer and 30 percent Shellsol R, at the rate of 0,630 litres/hectare (0,95 pints/morgen; 83 g per ha). A rate of 0,663 l/ha (1,00 pints/morgen) is equal to 87,4 g active material per ha (2,64 oz/morgen). Therefore, slightly less dieldrin was sprayed than was intended. The insecticide was delivered by four two-blade rotary atomisers giving a distribution pattern of 5,77 droplets per cm^2 (37,2 droplets/ in^2) (Wiese and Basson, unpublished data).

4.3 Sampling for residue analyses

At intervals of 10, 14, 20, and 60 days after spraying, small mammals were snap-trapped, and whole carcass samples taken for gas-chromatographic determination of dieldrin and photodieldrin (photoisomerization product of dieldrin) residues. As rodent populations were low at the time, all the species occurring were not sampled every time.

Three separate grass samples for analysis were taken from the sprayed area immediately after spraying and at one, two, seven, 14, 21, 30, 42, 56, 90, 146, 189, 258, and 380 days after spraying.

The gas-chromatographic method used for analysis is described by Wiese, Basson, and van der Merwe (1970).

4.4 Population density

The density for April/May 1967 was estimated by means of the capture-recapture method described by Davis (1956). This was adopted because the method of Jolly (1965), which was used for data from the rest of the study (see below), supplies no

population estimate for the first sample.

From August 1967 to May 1969 densities were estimated by means of the stochastic capture-recapture model of Jolly (1965). These estimates are of the trappable population only. It is assumed that each sample from the population is random, and that the captured animals so distribute themselves after release that they have the same probability as any other of being caught in the next sample. This model takes death and immigration into account.

A grid was trapped for four days in succession during each trapping period (section 4.1). The data for the four days were used as if they represented one capture. Therefore, if an animal was caught more than once within the four day trapping period, the captures after the first capture were ignored for population estimation purposes, as suggested by Jolly, in order to ensure that the assumptions of the method regarding randomness of trapping opportunity be met as far as possible. An animal caught on the first night might be more liable to be caught again on the second, either because it was still in the vicinity of the trap or for some other reason such as trap proneness. Animals on the second, third, and fourth nights could accordingly not be assumed to represent a random sample of the total.

4.5 Reproduction

The percentage of scrotal males and pregnant females per trapping period was calculated and breeding seasons for the different species were obtained.

4.6 Movements

Various methods for computing home range size have been suggested. The method of maximum distance between captures (M) was used in this study (Brant, 1962).

With this method the distance between the two furthest points of capture is measured, and computed for an animal after the second, third,, nth capture.

Maximum distance between captures (M) was calculated as follows in the example illustrated in fig. 9:

<u>No of captures</u>	<u>M in metres (feet)</u>
After the 2nd capture	13,1 (43) distance between first and 2nd capture
After the 3rd capture	26,2 (86) longest distance between captures since the first. Therefore, the distance between 1 and 3
After the 4th capture	26,2 (86) distance between 1 and 4
After the 5th capture	29,5 (96,15) 4 to 5
After the 6th capture	29,5 (96,15) 4 to 5
After the 7th capture	29,5 (96,15) 4 to 5
After the 8th capture	47,3 (155,03) 7 to 8
After the 9th capture	47,3 (155,03) 7 to 8

The average maximum distance between captures (av. M) for a number of animals after, for example, the second capture can be calculated as follows:

<u>Animal number</u>	<u>M in metres (feet) after the 2nd capture</u>
1	0 (0)
2	13,1 (43)
3	18,6 (61)
4	26,2 (86)
Total	57,9 (190)

The value of av. M = $57,9 \div 4 = 14,5$ metres

Maximum distance between captures (M) was calculated for each animal captured more than once, provided that no more than half the captures were in the outermost two rows of a grid, and of these not more than half in the last row. An average maximum distance between captures (av. M) was then calculated for each sex of each species on each grid after each capture. The av. M for each species, sex and grid was plotted against the number of captures. Differences in the av. M between the species, sexes and grids were tested by means of the Mann Whitney - U test.

This test (which is the equivalent of the t-test for normally distributed data) is used to determine whether two inde-

pendent samples were drawn from the same population when the data are assumed not be normally distributed.

The equation for the test is (Siegel, 1956):

$$U' = N_1 N_2 + \frac{N_2 (N_2 + 1)}{2} - R_2$$

$$U = N_1 N_2 - U'$$

where N_1 = number of cases in smaller sample

N_2 = number of cases in larger sample

R_2 = sum of the rank numbers of the second sample

The smallest value of U' or U is used in the tables to determine significance. When calculated U values are smaller than or equal to U_k values (table values), the two samples compared, differ significantly (Siegel, 1956: table K).

4.7 Sizes and mass

The mean, standard deviation, and standard error of the body mass, total length, head and body length, and tail length were calculated for each species and sex and for each season of the year. Spring was taken to include September, October, and November; summer included December, January, and February; autumn included March, April, and May; and winter included June, July, and August. The differences between mean values for the two sexes and different seasons were tested for significance by means of the t-test.

$$S = \sqrt{\frac{1}{N-1} \sum_{i=1}^N (x_i - \bar{x})^2}$$

S = standard deviation

N = sample size

\bar{x} = mean of parameter

$\sum_{i=1}^N$ = sum overall data (x_1 to x_N)

$i=1$

$$t = \frac{\bar{x}_1 - \bar{x}_2}{\sqrt{\frac{s_1^2}{n_1} + \frac{s_2^2}{n_2}}}$$

t = t-value

\bar{x}_1 = mean of first parameter

\bar{x}_2 = mean of second parameter

s_1^2 = variance of \bar{x}_1

s_2^2 = variance of \bar{x}_2

n_1 = sample size of first parameter

n_2 = sample size of second parameter

4.8 Population structure

The relative frequency of animals of different body mass during the four seasons of the year was used to divide the population into different age classes.

The sex structure of the different species for each season and grid was determined.

These ratios were tested by means of the χ^2 -test (Siegel, 1956) for a 1:1 ratio.

$$\chi^2 = \sum_{i=1}^K \frac{(O_i - E_i)^2}{E_i}$$

O_i = observed number of cases in ith category

E_i = expected number of cases in ith category

$\sum_{i=1}^K$ = sum over all (K) categories (two in the case of sex ratios).

4.9 Behaviour

Behaviour of the species encountered were noted, during trapping, handling and release.

5. Results and discussion

5.1 Population densities

The rodent population density on each of the four grids is illustrated in figs. 10 to 19. The numbers of animals of each species and sex captured, the number of first captures, and the total number captured during each trapping period, appear in tables 4 to 7.

5.1.1 Comparison of population densities on the four grids

Throughout the study the A. nigrescens community (see section 3.3) usually had a denser grass cover than did the A. tortilis community, especially during drier periods. It is surprising, therefore, that grids P88 and P89, adjoining each other in the A. nigrescens plant community (see section 3), consistently supported a relatively much lower rodent population than did grids P46 and P50, situated in the A. tortilis community. During the rainy season the new growth in the A. tortilis community was better than in the A. nigrescens community. Dead grass was always present in the latter but never in the former, suggesting undergrazing in the A. nigrescens community.

5.1.1.1 Total rodent population

During April/May 1967 grids P88, P89 and P46 supported the largest rodent population per grid observed at any time during the study, consisting mostly (52% and more) of P.(M.) natalensis. Grid P50 was not trapped during this period. Grid P46 supported the largest population: 153 P.(M.) natalensis, 18 S. campestris, and 6 Lemniscomys griselda. Grid P88 supported 17 P.(M.) natalensis, 3 S. campestris, 2 L. griselda, 1 Leggada minutoides, and 3 A. chrysophilus, while grid P89 supported 13 P.(M.) natalensis, 1 S. campestris, 2 Steatomys pratensis, 3 Lemniscomys griselda and 6 Leggada minutoides. This high rodent population during the late autumn of 1967 coincided with a rodent population outbreak observed through large parts of Southern Africa, extending from late 1966 to early 1969 in some localities (Van der Merwe and Keogh, 1970).

After autumn 1967, there was no evidence of the outbreak in the study area.

Of this population, only a small breeding stock still remained in August/September 1967 for the 1967/68 breeding season. This can be primarily ascribed to a considerable reduction in amount of vegetation and ground cover during the winter. Grid P46 in particular was largely laid bare by harvester termites between May and August 1967. This grid experienced its most marked decrease in rodent population density during this time (figs. 16 to 19).

The total population on both grids P88 (fig. 10) and P89 (fig. 11) declined steadily through the winter of 1967 and summer of 1967/68, reaching its lowest point (1 to 4 animals per grid) in April/May 1968. The population stayed at this low level until the termination of the study.

The population on grid P50 (fig. 12) peaked in the late spring (October to November) of 1967 at 34 animals. Thereafter, the population showed a progressive decrease to three in November 1968, followed by an increase to eight in February and 12 in May 1969, the latter consisting mostly of S. campestris.

On grid P46 (fig. 16) the high population (183) found in May 1967 declined through the winter, spring and early summer to 30 animals in November, whereafter it increased to a peak of 68 in February 1968, to decline to 18 in late June (just prior to spraying). During July (after spraying) the population stayed at about 17 but declined to four animals towards September 1968, staying at that level until February 1969. An increase to 16 animals, mostly S. campestris, was observed during April/May 1969.

Low numbers of all species on all grids after spraying, made a meaningful post-spraying evaluation of population structure impossible. According to Veenstra (1958) P.(M.) natalensis is found in association with other rodents (Rattus, Tatera, Mus and Rhabdomys) when abundant food is available, but when competition leads to food scarcity it gives way. In domestic habitats where Rattus or Mus musculus have established themselves P.(M.) natalensis seem to be driven away (Shortridge, 1934 citing Hewitt, 1918 and 1931). Delany and Neal (1966) report

the same phenomenon, that is after the introduction of Rattus rattus in Uganda, P.(M.) natalensis was driven from its domestic habitat (native huts).

On both grids P50 (fig. 14) and P46 (fig. 18) S. campestris experienced a relatively large increase in numbers during the period January/February to early May 1968, before P.(M.) natalensis started to decline (see below). Although the sample was small, the fact that both grids showed more or less the same trend suggests that the relationship is a real one and not a result of sampling error.

Relatively higher numbers of S. campestris and L. griselda were observed during times of lower P.(M.) natalensis populations. The total population on grid P50 comprised from August 1967 to February 1968 (the time of a P.(M.) natalensis high) on the average 60% P.(M.) natalensis, 19% S. campestris, and 12% L. griselda of the 135 animals captured. Other species captured comprised the remaining 9% of the animals captured. During the subsequent period, towards late July 1968 (time of relative high S. campestris and L. griselda numbers), P.(M.) natalensis averaged 13% of the 110 animals captured, S. campestris 45%, and L. griselda 41% (table 6; fig. 20). During the following period, towards termination of the study in May 1969, the animals captured comprised 16% P.(M.) natalensis, 75% S. campestris, and 3% L. griselda (fig. 20).

During April/May 1967, on grid P46, P.(M.) natalensis comprised 86% of the 177 animals captured, S. campestris 10%, and L. griselda 3%. From September 1967 to February 1968 P.(M.) natalensis comprised on the average 67% of the 219 animals captured, S. campestris 13%, and L. griselda 15%. During the subsequent period, towards late July 1968 (time of relative^{ly} high S. campestris and L. griselda numbers), P.(M.) natalensis averaged 28% of 163 animals captured, S. campestris 44% and L. griselda 22%. The trapping periods from July 1968 to May 1969 yielded 20% P.(M.) natalensis, 64% S. campestris, and 9% L. griselda (table 7; fig. 21). These lower P.(M.) natalensis numbers coincided with times of extreme food scarcity. During the autumn (April/May) of 1967 when the habitat was good, with abundant food, P.(M.) natalensis numbers were high while S. campestris and L. griselda numbers were relatively low. During the

autumn of 1968 and 1969 S. campestris was present in relatively high numbers, coinciding with a time of food scarcity.

In spite of the fact that P. (M.) natalensis is a very successful rodent in terms of reproduction and distribution, the present data seem to favour the hypothesis that P. (M.) natalensis gives way during times of food scarcity in autumn and winter.

5.1.1.2 Praomys (Mastomys) natalensis

On grid P88 (fig. 10) and grid P89 (fig. 11) P. (M.) natalensis declined from 17 and 13 individuals per grid respectively in April 1967, through the winter of 1967 and summer of 1967/68 to a low in December 1967 on grid P88, and in April 1968 on grid P89, when only one animal was captured on each grid. Thereafter numbers remained low until the end of the study.

Praomys (M.) natalensis numbers on grid P50 (fig. 13) decreased from a peak (19 animals) in the beginning of December 1967, to nine in January and three in April 1968. It then remained at that low level until termination of the study.

On grid P46 the 1967/68 P. (M.) natalensis summer peak extended from December 1967 to February 1968 (fig. 17). The population decreased from 153 animals in May/June 1967 to 21 in November, then increased to 31 in December 1967, stayed at this level until February 1968 and thereafter, declined to two towards early June 1968. It remained at that low level until termination of the study.

The other species on both grids P50 and P46 did not decline during this period but in fact increased in numbers (see section 5.1.1.1 above, and 5.1.1.3 and 5.1.1.4 below).

5.1.1.3 Saccostomus campestris

While barely present on grids P88 (fig. 10) and P89 (fig. 11) from September to December 1967, S. campestris increased on both to a small peak (six animals) in February 1968. It disappeared from both grids prior to spraying in July 1968. On grid P88, which was sprayed, this species appeared again in July, just after spraying, but never more than one at a

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time, and on grid P89 (control) it did not appear until May 1969 (three animals).

A. S. campestris population peak varying from 10 to 17 animals was observed on grid P50 (fig. 14) from February to late May 1968, whereafter it declined to six just prior to spraying and to zero in November 1968. Thereafter the population increased to 11 in May 1969. This shows a relatively large increase in the number of S. campestris compared to P.(M.) natalensis during the period February to late May 1968 (see section 5.1.1.1; fig. 20). The total number of S. campestris captured on this grid exceeded that of P.(M.) natalensis during all the trapping periods from April 1968 until the end of the study in May 1969, except during July 1968 when they were equal (one each) and November 1968 when there were no S. campestris against three P.(M.) natalensis captured (table 6).

On grid P46 a S. campestris population (fig. 18) of 18 (10% of the animals present) was estimated for May 1967. During subsequent trapping periods, from September to December 1967, a low population (one animal) was observed. In January 1968 a sudden increase to 10 was observed. It thereafter increased further towards April/May (18 to 24 animals). After this peak it declined steadily to zero in November and did not reappear before April/May 1969, when 16 animals were estimated to be present. The total number of S. campestris captured on this grid exceeded that of P.(M.) natalensis from April 1968 to late July 1968, except during early June when one S. campestris was observed against two P.(M.) natalensis (table 7).

During a period of relatively low rodent numbers, S. campestris, seemed, therefore, to comprise the largest proportion of the population. A relative much higher S. campestris population was present on grid P46 during February to May 1968, and during April/May 1969 than during April/May 1967, when total numbers (all species) were much higher. Grid P50 was not trapped during March to April 1967. During February to May 1968 and during the same time in 1969 relatively high numbers of S. campestris prevailed.

5.1.1.4 Lemniscomys griselda

Lemniscomys griselda numbers on grid P88 (fig. 10) and grid P89 (fig. 11) stayed consistently low and no clear trend could be discerned.

On grid P50 the numbers (fig. 15) exceeded those of the other species from just prior to spraying until just afterwards (early June to late July 1968), when they fluctuated between seven and 14. During this time the population (63 animals) consisted of approximately 56% L. griselda, 29% S. campestris and 10% P. (M.) natalensis (fig. 20). Thereafter numbers of L. griselda declined sharply to zero in November 1968 and remained so until the termination of the study.

On grid P46 a L. griselda peak (nine animals) was observed during late May 1968 (fig. 19). At the time of spraying (2 July, 1968) on grid P50 and P88, the population on grid P46 had already declined to four and subsequently declined more slowly to zero in February 1969. Lemniscomys griselda was more abundant than P. (M.) natalensis and S. campestris from late May to late July 1968, comprising 39% of 75 rodents captured during that time, with P. (M.) natalensis comprising only 12% and S. campestris 37% (fig. 21). Therefore, from early June to late July L. griselda populations on grids P50 and P46 exceeded those of both P. (M.) natalensis and S. campestris.

5.1.1.5 Other species

Aethomys chrysophilus, Leggada minutoides, and Steatomys pratensis were very infrequently present on grid P88 (fig. 10; table 4). Grid P89 (fig. 11; table 5), also supported low numbers of these species. During May and September 1967, however, a relatively high number of L. minutoides (three to six animals) was present on this grid.

Leggada minutoides and S. pratensis appeared sporadically on grid P50 (fig. 15; table 6). One Otomys angoniensis was captured on this grid, but A. chrysophilus was never observed. Steatomys pratensis was never captured on grid P46 while L. minutoides seemed to be present more regularly here than on grid P50. Aethomys chrysophilus was recorded on grid P46 during February 1968 and April 1969, while T. brantsi was recorded from

this grid during February and May 1969 (table 7).

5.1.2 Effect of dieldrin coverspraying on rodent numbers

Grids P88 and P50 were sprayed with dieldrin on 2 July, 1968 while grids P89 and P46 were treated as controls.

The present study was conducted during times of below average rainfall and consequently poor habitat (see section 3). This resulted in low rodent populations just prior to and especially after the time of spraying, on both control and sprayed grids.

After the P.(M.) natalensis population declined in December 1967 (i.e., before spraying) on grid P88 (sprayed) and P89 (control), P.(M.) natalensis never again increased on these two grids to such a level as to supply either positive or negative evidence regarding the effect of spraying (figs. 10 and 11). On grid P46 (control) the population declined from its peak in December 1967 to zero in early July 1968 (the week of spraying), and thereafter stayed at a low level until the termination of the study (figs. 16 to 19). The number on grid P50 (sprayed), after its highest peak in October 1967, declined progressively to an extreme low just prior to spraying and thereafter showed no increase above this level. Again there is no evidence of a differential decline in numbers which could be ascribed to spraying (figs. 12 to 15).

This decline in P.(M.) natalensis numbers must therefore be ascribed to low rainfall and poor habitat as both sprayed and control grids declined to a similar extent.

On grid P88 (fig. 10) and grid P89 (fig. 11) Saccostomus campestris, after its peak in February 1968, decreased to zero just prior to spraying. It appeared again on grid P88 just after spraying in late July and thereafter stayed at an extremely low level. On the control grid P89, S. campestris did not appear again before May 1969. After a population peak in April 1968, the S. campestris population on grid P46 (control; fig. 18) decreased towards early July (the time of spraying). Thereafter it stayed low until a substantial increase occurred in May 1969. The population on grid P50 (sprayed; fig. 14) also showed a peak in April 1968, declined to a low in early

July (just after spraying), and thereafter stayed low until a similar increase as on grid P46 was observed in May 1969.

Lemniscomys griselda numbers on grids P88 (fig. 10) and P89 (fig. 11) stayed low and no clear trend was apparent. During late May 1968 a peak was observed on grid P46 (fig. 19). At the time of spraying the population had, however, already declined and thereafter declined still further to zero in February 1969. Grid P50 (sprayed; fig. 15) supported a high population from early June 1968 until after spraying in late July, whereafter it declined sharply to zero in November, not to increase again. Although L. griselda numbers on the sprayed grid P50 did not decline until after spraying, this was not evident on grid P46 (control), where a decline was already observed prior to spraying.

Low numbers of Leggada minutoides and Steatomys pratensis (figs. 11, 15, and 19) were captured throughout the study.

Although the numbers captured before and after spraying were too low for any clear-cut conclusions to be reached it seems from the present data that dieldrin coverspraying at the dosage applied had no visible influence on rodent population densities. The only possible exception is the suggestion that spraying might have influenced numbers of Lemniscomys griselda on grid P50.

5.2 Residue analysis

Dieldrin and photodieldrin residues (mean of three samples) found on the grass immediately after spraying and at 1, 2, 7, 21, 30, 42, 56, 90, 146, 189, 258 and 380 days after spraying are shown in table 12 (Wiese and Basson, unpublished data). These data correspond closely with those of Wiese, Basson, and van der Merwe (1970) for veld treated at the same dosage.

Immediately after spraying 15,08 ppm dieldrin were present on the grass and it thereafter declined to 4,34 ppm after seven days and 1,00 ppm after 30 days, while photodieldrin (photoisomerization product of dieldrin) increased from 0,12 ppm immediately after spraying to a peak of 8,37 ppm 14 days after spraying and thereafter declined to 1,4 ppm 90 days after spraying. No detectable amount of either dieldrin or photodieldrin was present 380 days after spraying.

Dieldrin and photodieldrin residues (in ppm) obtained from whole small mammal carcasses, are shown in table 13. The samples were obtained 10, 16, 20, and 60 days after spraying. As the rodent numbers were low, not all species were sampled on each occasion. Samples were obtained only from Saccostomus campestris, L. griselda and Crocidura hirta. Iemniscomys griselda carcasses (10, 20, and 60 days after spraying) and S. campestris (16 days after spraying) showed very low residues (< 1,0 ppm), while one shrew, C. hirta collected 60 days after spraying, showed 4,660 ppm dieldrin, and 0,206 ppm photodieldrin. This is an extremely high residue when compared with levels found in wethers at intervals of 30, 65, and 90 days after spraying, and in oxen 30 and 90 days after spraying (tables 14 and 15) during a similar experiment in the Lydenburg district (Wiese, Basson, and van der Merwe, 1970).

Unpublished data indicate that Tatera leucogaster males receiving 100 ppm dieldrin consistently in their diet lived up to 48 days after onset of exposure.

The present data, however, are too meagre for any meaningful conclusions to be reached.

5.3 Reproduction

5.3.1 Breeding season

The study covered two complete breeding seasons viz. 1967/68 and 1968/69, as well as the end (April/May) of the 1966/67 breeding season. Reproductive activity was observed only in P.(M.) natalensis, S. campestris, and L. griselda.

5.3.1.1 Praomys (Mastomys) natalensis

Breeding data for grids P88 and P89 were combined because of the small samples obtained from each (table 16). At the end of the 1966/67 breeding season (during April/May 1967), scrotal males were observed but no pregnant females. While there was reproductive activity in the 1967/68 season, extending from September 1967 to February 1968 (69% of 29 females pregnant and 62% of 34 males scrotal), there was none in the 1968/69 season.

The breeding activity observed on grid P50 (sprayed) is shown in table 17. This grid was not trapped until after the end of the 1966/67 breeding season. Fifty-two percent of 29 females and 73% of 41 males were in breeding condition during the period September 1967 to April 1968. During the next breeding season no pregnant females amongst three captured and only one scrotal male (collected in November 1968) of two captured, were observed.

Reproduction, especially amongst the females, was much lower on grid P46 (control) than on the other grids (table 18). Pregnant females were observed only during September and October 1967 (seven of 10 animals captured) while from September 1967 to early May 1968 65% of 110 males observed were scrotal. No pregnant P.(M.) natalensis females were observed on grids P46 and P50 during the 1968/69 season. Scrotal males were observed on both but in very low numbers (see above) (grid P46: one male observed during September 1968 not scrotal; one scrotal male of two observed in November 1968; and two scrotal males in February 1969).

When the data for the four grids are combined the observed breeding season for females was from September to February

and for males from September to April.

Brambell and Davis (1941) found breeding females throughout the year in Sierra Leone with the greatest proportion present during October to November (end of wet season/beginning of dry season; autumn in northern hemisphere). Chapman, Chapman, and Robertson (1959) observed pregnant females in Rukwa, Tanzania from February to November with a peak during April and May (end of wet season/beginning of dry season; autumn in southern hemisphere). Pirlot (1954) found breeding in Katanga also to be at its highest during the autumn months. In Uganda during the period June to July 1958, Southern and Hook (1963) found three of seven females collected either pregnant or lactating. Material from Uganda (Delany, 1964a) indicates no pregnant or lactating females during August to December 1961. The same was observed in 19 females during the period 13 July to 13 September 1963 (Delany 1964b). Delany and Neal (1966 and 1969) observed pregnant females in Uganda during May to July and during October to December, while males with high sperm rating were observed throughout the year. Coetzee (1965 and 1967), studying the breeding season of P. (M.) natalensis in the Roodepoort area near Johannesburg, reports breeding to be continuous through the spring and summer, reaching a peak in autumn (March to May; end of wet season/beginning of dry season). Thereafter no breeding was observed until July/August (end of winter) in spite of abundant food being present in nearby maize lands.

An autumn reproductive peak at the end of the rainy season was not observed in the present study. Poor rainfall during the study is suspected to be the cause (see section 5.3.1.4 below).

5.3.1.2 Saccostomus campestris

Ten of the 14 males observed on grids P88 and P89 during the 1967/68 season were scrotal (table 16). In April 1967 there were a few observations, which included less than 5% scrotal animals. The only pregnant female observed on these grids during the study was encountered in May 1969 when one of four females captured proved to be pregnant.

On grid P50 (sprayed; table 17) pregnant females were observed in October 1967 (one of two animals), February 1968 (one of four animals) and May 1969 (two of four animals). On grid P46 (control; table 18) no pregnant females were observed throughout the study. Scrotal males (68% of 25 animals observed) were present on grid P50 from August 1967 to early May 1968, and from August 1968 to May 1969 (94% of 16 animals observed). Scrotal males were present on grid P46 from October 1967 to June 1968 (50% of 52 observed), in September 1968 (one of one), and during April/May 1969 (70% of 20 animals observed).

When the breeding data from all four grids are combined, the observed breeding season for males was from late August to June while females had a breeding season extending from October to February

A pregnant female *S. campestris* was observed in Uganda during November (Delany & Neal, 1966).

5.3.1.3 Lemniscomys griselda

On grids P88 and P89 (table 16) scrotal males were observed only during April/May 1967 (three of three animals) and during October 1967 (one of one). The only pregnant females encountered were during February 1968 (two of three animals observed).

Grid P50 (sprayed; table 17) supported breeding males and females prior to spraying but not afterwards (males: September 1967, the only one captured being scrotal; February to May 1968, all four animals captured scrotal; females: September 1967, all four females captured pregnant; and January 1968, the only female captured pregnant). No pregnant females were observed on grid P46 (control) during the study (table 18) and scrotal males were encountered only before spraying, from September 1967 to February 1968 (53% of the 17 animals observed were scrotal).

When the data for the four grids are combined the observed breeding season for females was from September to February and for males from September to May.

The reproductive data obtained from the present study were too meagre to allow any conclusions concerning the effect of dieldrin cover^{5p} spraying on the reproductive activity of the animals present in the area.

5.3.1.4 Effect of rainfall on breeding

Because of the below average rainfall during the study period and the possible effect of this on the vegetation, the observed breeding seasons for the different species might be somewhat aberrant.

Reynolds (1960) reports two peaks of breeding in Merriam's Kangaroo rat, Dipodomys merriami, corresponding closely with the periods of new vegetation growth in spring and late summer. Bodenheimer and Sulman (1946) report that fresh vegetation has a stimulating effect upon breeding activity, and that the oestrous cycle of Microtus guentheri seems to be associated with a gonadotropic^h factor found in fresh green plant material which is responsible for increased ovulation.

Bothma (1969) found high temperature and a too low or too high rainfall the apparent limiting factor of the breeding season of cottontails, Sylvilagus floridanus, in South Texas. He found reproductive peaks to correspond to increased growth of vegetation in the spring and autumn.

Stodart and Myers (1966) report green vegetation to be of importance to the maintenance of reproduction in the Australian wild rabbit. The same phenomenon has been observed in North American rabbits (Ingles, 1941; Fitch, 1947; Mossman, 1955; Bothma, 1969).

Bothma (1969) reports the onset of the cottontail breeding season to be closely correlated with the initial^{av} break in drought. Newsome (1966) reports this reaction to rainfall in the red Kangaroo Megaleia rufus, while Poole (1960) and Myers and Poole (1962) report it in the Australian rabbit. This response was attributed to estrogens in the growing tips of sprouting vegetation. Therefore the gonadotropic factor mentioned by Bodenheimer and Sulman (1946) might be estrogen.

According to Measroch (1954) many animals from equatorial regions lack seasonal breeding periodicity. The results obtained by various workers (Brambell and Davis, 1941; Measroch, 1954; Pirlot, 1954; Allanson, 1958; Chapman et al., 1959; Delany, 1964a and 1964b; Coetzee, 1965 and 1967; Dieterlen, 1967; Delany and Neal, 1966 and 1969; and unpublished data), however, indicate that many species of small rodents have a restricted breeding season, in tropical and southern Africa corresponding more or less with the rainy season.

The appearance of green vegetation in the present study area was inhibited by the low rainfall prevailing during the period, and this might have resulted in reduced or delayed breeding activity.

During normal rainfall years on the study area, Praomys (M.) natalensis, S. campestris, and L. griselda breeding season is expected to be from the onset of good spring rains until after the end of autumn rains.

5.4 Movements

5.4.1 Maximum distance between captures

If animals are captured repeatedly, the maximum distance between captures (M) can be measured after the second, third,, n^{th} capture for each animal. If the number of captures is placed on the abscissa of a graph, and the average length of M (av. M) for a number of animals on the ordinate, a curve can be plotted to illustrate the manner in which av. M increases with successive captures. It can be assumed that individual animals have stable movement patterns if the curve becomes asymptotic, thus approaching the limits of their movements (Stickel, 1954). If, however, the curve continues to rise, these animals are progressively occupying new areas. The av. M curves of two populations will consistently differ if the one population has distinctly larger or smaller movement patterns (home ranges) than the other (Brant, 1962). Unusual movements are not excluded from estimates of av. M , as they are in Burt's (1943) concept of home range. If progressive occupation of new areas becomes evident, av. M will be of limited value, since it will include areas no longer in use (Brant, 1962). The same limitation is, however, evident for other areal methods of calculating home range.

Trap spacing also seems to influence av. M values. Brant (1962) found that differences in trap spacing resulted in significant differences in the values of av. M obtained.

The Mann Whitney U-test was used for comparing av. M between the different grids, species and sexes. Where two or more observations per animal were available the data were used for calculating av. M values.

The average maximum distance travelled by P. (M.) natalensis between captures after the 2nd, 3rd,, n^{th} captures is illustrated in fig. 22A and B (all grids combined, and grid P50), fig. 23A and B (grids P46, and P88+P89), and in table 19. Comparable data on S. campestris are illustrated in fig. 24A to D and table 20, on Lemniscomys griselda in fig. 25A to D and table 21, and on Leggada minutoides in table 22.

5.4.1.1 Praomys (Mastomys) natalensis

The av. M of males exceeded that of females significantly on all grids combined ($N_1 = 16$, $N_2 = 19$, $U_k = 92$, $U = 92$; $p < 0,05$), on grid P46 ($N_1 = 15$, $N_2 = 19$, $U_k = 75$, $U = 64$; $p < 0,02$), and on grid P50 ($N_1 = 10$, $N_2 = 11$, $U_k = 22$, $U = 12,5$; $p < 0,02$), but not on grids P88 + P89 ($N_1 = 13$, $N_2 = 15$, $U_k = 64$, $U = 82$), where no significant difference was observed ($p > 0,05$), but where female values tended to exceed those of males.

Male av. M values on the different grids did not differ significantly from one another. The female av. M for grids P88 + P89 exceeded that for grid P46 ($N_1 = 15$, $N_2 = 19$, $U_k = 55$, $U = 54$), and grid P50 ($N_1 = 10$, $N_2 = 15$, $U_k = 21$, $U = 17$) significantly ($p < 0,002$). The av. M values of sexes combined on grids P88 + P89 exceeded those for grid P46 ($N_1 = 18$, $N_2 = 19$, $U_k = 94$, $U = 79$; $p < 0,02$).

Grids P88 and P89, situated in the A. nigrescens community, consistently supported lower rodent numbers than did grids P46 and P50; av. M values on the former two tended to exceed those on the latter. This suggests that during low population levels animals cover larger areas, as is generally accepted.

Average M values of males (figs. 22 and 23; table 19) increased continuously while those of the females seem to reach an asymptote. It therefore seems that males progressively occupied new areas while females tended to occupy more fixed areas. On grids P88 + P89, where the small sample size makes a meaningful conclusion difficult, this seems not to have been the case.

5.4.1.2 Saccostomus campestris

Average M values of the two sexes did not differ significantly from one another on any of the grids, or on all grids combined. No significant differences in av. M, of sexes both separated and combined, were observed between any of the grids.

Average M of S. campestris males ($N_1 = 13$, $N_2 = 16$, $U_k = 51$, $U = 36,5$), and of sexes combined ($N_1 = 16$, $N_2 = 20$, $U_k = 87$, $U = 82,5$) on all grids combined were exceeded significantly ($p < 0,02$) by comparable values of P.(M.) natalensis. The av. M of Leggada minutoides also exceeded that of S. campestris significantly ($N_1 = 6$, $N_2 = 14$, $U_k = 6$, $U = 3$; $p < 0,002$).

Average M curves (fig. 24A-D; table 20) tended to reach a plateau, suggesting that the animals did not continually occupy new areas, but remained in more or less fixed areas.

5.4.1.3 Lemniscomys griselda

Average M values of males on grid P46 ($N_1 = 5$, $N_2 = 10$, $U_k = 6$, $U = 3$; $p < 0,02$) and on all grids combined ($N_1 = 12$, $N_2 = 14$, $U_k = 25$, $U = 24$; $p < 0,002$) exceeded those of females significantly.

The male av. M values for grid P46 ($N_1 = 5$, $N_2 = 11$, $U_k = 7$, $U = 5$) exceeded those for grid P50 significantly ($p < 0,02$).

Average M values of females did not differ significantly from each other on the different grids, nor ^{did} the values for the sexes combined on the different grids. The number of observations, however, was very small in most cases.

Average M of L. griselda (sexes both separated and combined) was significantly exceeded by that of P. (M.) natalensis (males: $N_1 = 14$, $N_2 = 16$, $U_k = 56$, $U = 53$, $p < 0,02$; females: $N_1 = 12$, $N_2 = 19$, $U = 40$, $U = 34$, $p < 0,002$; sexes combined: $N_1 = 20$, $N_2 = 22$, $Z = -3,711$, $p < 0,001$).

Average M values of S. campestris and L. griselda did not differ significantly. Leggada minutoides av. M values exceeded those of Lemniscomys griselda highly significantly ($Z = -3,669$, $p < 0,001$).

The av. M curves of both male and female L. griselda (fig. 25A to D; table 21) tended to form a plateau, suggesting a more or less fixed range.

5.4.1.4 Leggada minutoides

Leggada minutoides, in spite of its small size, exhibited a greater maximum distance between captures than did any of the other species studied.

The av. M values of Leggada minutoides (table 22) exceeded those of Lemniscomys griselda ($N_1 = 6$, $N_2 = 22$, $Z = -3,669$; $p < 0,001$) and S. campestris ($N_1 = 6$, $N_2 = 14$, $U_k = 6$, $U = 3$; $p < 0,002$), significantly and those of P. (M.) natalensis ($N_1 = 6$, $N_2 = 20$, $U_k = 27$, $U = 49$) non-significantly ($p > 0,05$).

5.5 Sizes and mass

5.5.1 Praomys (Mastomys) natalensis

5.5.1.1 Total length

Mean, standard deviation, and standard error of total length for each season (sexes both separated and combined) are illustrated in fig 26 (A-C), and given with range and sample size in table 23.

The highest mean total length (± 1 SE) was observed in the summer (males: $218,6 \pm 2,8$ mm; females: $206,9 \pm 3,6$ mm; both sexes: $213,2 \pm 2,3$ mm). The lowest for males ($181,2 \pm 7,8$ mm) and sexes combined ($181,5 \pm 5,4$ mm) was observed in autumn, while the lowest female mean total length was observed during winter ($176,7 \pm 7,8$ mm). The summer mean total length of males and females exceeded that for all the other seasons highly significantly ($p < 0,01$; table 24). Autumn was the only season in which the female mean ($181,8 \pm 7,8$ mm) exceeded that of the males ($181,2 \pm 7,8$ mm) ($t = 0,057$, $df = 52$), although not significantly. During spring and summer male means exceeded those of females significantly (spring: $t = 2,831$, $df = 168$, $p < 0,01$; summer: $t = 2,570$, $df = 133$, $p < 0,05$). Male mean total length for all seasons combined ($201,2 \pm 1,7$ mm) exceeded that of females ($192,2 \pm 2,2$ mm) highly significantly ($t = 3,242$, $df = 363$, $p < 0,01$; table 25; fig 27).

5.5.1.2 Head and body length

Summer mean head and body length of males ($111,4 \pm 2,0$ mm), females ($103,9 \pm 1,6$ mm), and sexes combined ($108,0 \pm 1,3$ mm) exceeded those for all other seasons highly significantly (fig. 28 A-C; tables 23 and 26). None of the other seasons differed significantly from one another in this. Autumn was the only season in which the female mean head and body length ($90,7 \pm 3,7$ mm) exceeded that of males ($90,6 \pm 3,8$ mm), although again not significantly ($t = 0,021$, $df = 52$). During spring and summer the male mean head and body length (spring: $93,3 \pm 0,9$ mm; summer: $111,4 \pm 2,0$ mm) exceeded that of the females (spring: $88,4 \pm 0,9$ mm; summer: $103,9 \pm 1,6$ mm) highly

significantly ($p < 0,01$; spring: $t = 3,879$, $df = 158$; summer: $t = 2,951$, $df = 133$). Male mean head and body length for all seasons combined ($99,5 \pm 1,0$ mm) exceeded that of females ($94,8 \pm 1,0$ mm) highly significantly ($t = 3,438$, $df = 363$, $p < 0,01$; table 25).

Delany and Neal (1966) found mean head and body length in Uganda to be 122,8 mm ($N = 57$; range: 90 mm to 154 mm) and female mean to be 125,1 mm ($N = 53$; range: 95 mm to 148 mm). Head and body length means of Uganda P.(M.) natalensis exceeded those of Pongola during all seasons by 12 mm to 32 mm in the case of males, and by 21 mm to 37 mm in the case of females.

In the Congo (Kivu lake area) P.(M.) natalensis head and body length was found to range between 105 mm and 150 mm (Dieterlen, 1967), while in the present study head and body length ranged from 59 mm to 126 mm ($\bar{x} = 97,4$ mm).

5.5.1.3 Tail length

Summer mean tail length of both sexes, separately and combined, was significantly higher than the mean for spring and autumn, while during the winter the tails of only females and sexes combined were found to be significantly shorter (fig. 29; tables 23 and 27). Males ($90,9 \pm 4,1$ mm) and sexes combined ($91,0 \pm 3,0$ mm) showed the lowest mean during autumn, while for females the mean was lowest during winter ($86,6 \pm 2,1$ mm). Autumn mean tail length of males and sexes combined was also significantly lower than the spring mean (males: $t = 2,302$, $df = 122$, $p < 0,05$); sexes combined: $t = 2,710$, $df = 212$, $p < 0,01$).

Female mean tail length ($91,1 \pm 4,3$ mm) exceeded that of the males ($90,9 \pm 4,1$ mm) only during autumn, although not significantly ($t = 0,025$, $df = 52$). During summer ($t = 2,173$, $df = 133$, $p < 0,05$) and winter ($t = 3,071$, $df = 14$, $p < 0,01$) male mean tail length exceeded that of the females significantly. Male mean tail length for seasons combined ($102,4 \pm 1,0$ mm) exceeded that of females ($97,7 \pm 1,3$ mm) highly significantly ($t = 2,917$, $df = 363$, $p < 0,01$; table 25).

Male mean tail length of P.(M.) natalensis in Uganda (Delany and Neal, 1966) was 112,3 mm (N= 57; range: 88 mm to 150 mm) and in females 114,0 mm (N=52; range: 95 mm to 135 mm). Uganda P.(M.) natalensis tail length means exceeded those of the present during all seasons by 3 mm to 21 mm in males and by 11 mm to 27 mm in females.

In the Kivu lake area (Congo), Dieterlen (1967) found tail length to range between 95 mm and 130 mm. He also observed that head and body length exceeded tail length by an average of 20 mm. In the present study tail length ranged from 40 mm to 150 mm ($\bar{x} = 100,3$ mm).

5.5.1.4 Body Mass

Summer mean mass of sexes combined ($38,3 \pm 0,9$ g), males ($41,8 \pm 1,2$ g), and females ($34,2 \pm 1,4$ g) was highly significantly greater than that observed during any other season (figs. 27 and 30; tables 23 and 28). The lowest mean mass of males ($23,4 \pm 2,6$ g) was observed in the autumn, and that of females ($19,8 \pm 2,5$ g), and sexes combined ($22,3 \pm 1,9$ g) in winter. Mean mass of females exceeded that of males only during autumn (males: $23,4 \pm 2,6$ g; females: $24,7 \pm 2,5$ g) but not significantly ($t= 0,358$, df 52). During spring ($t= 4,532$, df 158, $p < 0,01$) and summer ($t= 4,236$, df 133, $p < 0,01$) male mean body mass exceeded that of females highly significantly. Male mean body mass for all seasons combined ($32,5 \pm 0,6$ g) exceeded that of females ($27,9 \pm 0,7$ g) highly significantly ($t= 4,844$, df 363, $p < 0,01$; table 25).

Mean body mass of P.(M.) natalensis in Uganda according to Delany and Neal (1966) was 48,0 g (N= 32; range: 23 g to 70 g) in males, and 44,6 g (N=34; range: 20 g to 60 g) in females. In contrast with head and body length and tail length the mean mass was slightly higher than that of females. In Uganda material, body mass means exceeded those of the present by 6 g to 25 g in males and by 11 g to 25 g in females.

All parameters (total length, tail length, head and body length, and body mass) exhibited their highest mean values during the summer (in sexes both separated and combined). In males the lowest mean values were observed during the autumn, in the females during the winter, except for female mean head and body length which was lowest during spring. In all the parameters studied, the female mean values exceeded those of males slightly during the autumn, but never significantly. Male mean values for all seasons combined exceeded those of the females highly significantly, in all the parameters.

5.5.1.5 Body mass relationship between the Pongola and Roodepoort areas.

The mean monthly mass of specimens from Roodepoort having a mass of more than 10 g (Coetzee, 1967: table 10), were grouped by season and means, standard deviations, and standard errors calculated (table 29). The comparison below of these data with the results of the Pongola study, will be affected by the fact that some of the specimens from Pongola, taken in the summer and autumn, had a mass of less than 10 g.

The highest mean body mass in the Roodepoort area was observed during the summer (males: $38,1 \pm 3,9$ g; females: $33,4 \pm 2,0$ g; both sexes: $35,6 \pm 1,9$ g). In the Pongola area the same trend was observed (males: $41,8 \pm 1,2$ g; females: $34,2 \pm 1,4$ g; both sexes: $38,3 \pm 0,9$ g) (fig. 30; tables 23 and 29).

The Roodepoort summer male mean body mass exceeded that for autumn ($t= 4,329$, $df 565$, $p < 0,01$) and winter significantly ($t= 3,747$, $df 1197$, $p < 0,01$; table 30) but not that of spring ($t= 1,821$, $df 199$). The Pongola summer male mean body mass exceeded that for all other seasons highly significantly (table 28; section 5.5.1.4). The lowest mean mass of females and sexes combined in both Roodepoort and Pongola areas were observed during winter. In Roodepoort males, females, and sexes combined, the winter mean body mass differed significantly from means for all the other seasons (table 30), while in the Pongola data, winter mean body mass of males, females, and both sexes combined was exceeded significantly only by

the summer mean (table 28). The lowest mean body mass of males was observed during the autumn at both localities. In the Roodepoort area male mean body mass during all other seasons exceeded that for autumn highly significantly (table 30), while only the summer mean was significantly higher ($t= 6,480$, $df 98$, $p < 0,01$) than the autumn mean in the Pongola area (table 28).

At both localities autumn mean body mass of females exceeded that of males, but significantly only at Roodepoort ($t= 5,026$, $df 1167$, $p < 0,01$). Mean body mass of Roodepoort males exceeded that of females significantly during spring and winter while at Pongola, male mean mass exceeded that of females significantly during summer and spring (tables 25, 29, and 31). In contrast with Pongola material, Roodepoort male mean body mass for all seasons combined ($23,7 \pm 0,30$ g) did not differ from that of females ($23,7 \pm 0,2$ g; $t= 0,030$, $df 4097$, $p > 0,05$; tables 29 and 31).

Mean body mass of Roodepoort males, females and sexes combined during spring exceeded comparable Pongola values significantly, while for all seasons combined the Pongola mean body mass of males ($t= 13,414$, $df 2122$), females ($t= 5,590$, $df 2338$), and sexes combined ($t= 13,172$, $df 4462$) exceeded those for Roodepoort highly significantly ($p < 0,01$; table 32).

5.5.1.6 Relationship between head and body length and tail length

During summer and autumn, mean head and body length and mean tail length (table 23; figs. 28 and 29) were more or less equal regardless of sex (for t-values see table 33). During spring, however, mean tail length exceeded head and body length highly significantly (males: $t= 5,045$, $df 192$; females: $t= 4,695$, $df 124$; both sexes: $t= 6,761$, $df 318$; $p < 0,01$). No statistically significant difference was observed during winter. The seasonal ratio between mean head and body length and tail length did not deviate significantly from 1:1 (table 34). Mean tail length for all seasons combined exceeded mean head and body length (males: $t= 2,120$, $df 404$, $p < 0,05$; females: $t= 1,829$, $df 322$, $p > 0,05$; both sexes: $t= 2,750$, $df 728$, $p < 0,01$).

In contrast, Dieterlen (1967) found P.(M.) natalensis head and body length to exceed tail length in the Congo with an average of 20 mm. In Uganda, head and body length also tended to exceed tail length (Delany and Neal, 1966). When compared with data from Coetzee (1967: fig. 2) it seems that in Pongola material, animals with long tails were more frequent (fig. 31 A-D). Coetzee (1967) seldom found tail length to be longer than 110 mm, while this was common in Pongola specimens during all seasons except winter, when only a small sample was available. Animals with greater head and body length were more frequent in material from the Congo, Uganda, and Roodepoort (Transvaal) than in the present study. The Pongola material seldom included animals with head and body length exceeding 120 mm, while in the other areas this was frequently the case. The largest number of Pongola animals with head and body length above 120 mm was observed during the summer.

It seems, therefore, that P.(M.) natalensis from the Pongola area have relatively longer tails than do those from the Congo, Uganda and Transvaal, but that they are smaller in total length.

As Chapman et al. (1959) used the anus to tail tip method of measuring tail length, these lengths would be relatively shorter and head and body lengths relatively longer than the measurements obtained by the vertebral method. Therefore, no direct comparison between the present data and those of Chapman et al. (1959) is possible.

Coetzee (1967) states that the tails of very small and larger animals are relatively shorter than those of animals of intermediate size (weaned to subadults), of which a considerable number had tails longer than head and body length. He concluded that the tail undergoes a rapid elongation in the subadult stage, followed by a period of relatively slower growth in relation to head and body length.

The present data (fig. 31 A-D) show that most smaller animals (juveniles: with both tail length, and head and body length < 80 mm), had tails shorter than or equal to head and body length. In animals of intermediate size (subadults: both tail, and head and body length < 100 mm), tails were longer

than head and body length, except during the summer when they were more often shorter than head and body length in subadults and as frequently longer or shorter in adults. In the Pongola population, therefore, unlike the Roodepoort population, the rapid elongation of the tail in subadults was sustained (except possibly during summer), and not reversed by relative more rapid growth of the head and body length in adults.

5.5.2 Saccostomus campestris

The mean, standard deviation, and standard error of total length, head and body length, tail length, and body mass for each season (sexes both separated and combined) are illustrated in figs. 32 to 37 (A-D) and given with range and sample size in table 35.

The highest mean total length of both males ($182,8 \pm 4,8$ mm) and females ($172,8 \pm 5,9$ mm) was observed during the spring. Spring mean total length of males and sexes combined ($178,6 \pm 3,8$ mm) exceeded those for all other seasons highly significantly, while the female spring mean total length ($172,8 \pm 5,9$ mm) exceeded only the autumn mean ($159,1 \pm 1,9$ mm) significantly (table 36). The lowest mean of males ($153,1 \pm 3,9$ mm) was observed in summer, and was exceeded significantly by those for all other seasons except winter. In females ($159,1 \pm 1,9$ mm) the lowest mean was observed in the autumn, but was exceeded significantly only by the spring mean ($t = 2,207$, $df = 67$, $p < 0,05$). In both sexes a decrease in total length from spring to summer was observed. During summer ($t = 2,567$, $df = 60$, $p < 0,05$) and winter ($t = 0,079$, $df = 34$, $p > 0,05$) the female mean total length exceeded that of males, while the autumn male mean ($167,9 \pm 1,8$ mm) exceeded that of females ($159,1 \pm 1,9$ mm) highly significantly ($t = 3,393$, $df = 133$, $p < 0,01$). The male mean total length for all seasons combined was $164,7 \pm 1,5$ mm and the female mean was $162,3 \pm 1,4$ mm ($t = 1,149$, $df = 257$, $p > 0,05$; table 37).

The trend in mean head and body length during the different seasons was much the same as that for total length (table 38). Summer was the only season in which female mean head and body length ($114,2 \pm 1,5$ mm) exceeded that of males ($107,0 \pm 1,5$ mm).

2,9 mm), although not significantly ($t= 1,898$, $df\ 60$; table 37). Autumn was the only season in which the male mean ($114,5 \pm 1,3$ mm) exceeded the female mean ($109,4 \pm 1,4$ mm) highly significantly ($t= 2,714$, $df\ 133$, $p < 0,01$; table 37). The male mean head and body length for all seasons combined was $113,6 \pm 1,1$ mm and for females it was $111,8 \pm 1,0$ mm ($t= 1,194$, $df\ 257$, $p > 0,05$).

A male mean head and body length of 116,0 mm ($N= 4$; range: 94 mm to 130 mm) and female mean of 144,9 mm ($N= 7$; range: 127 mm to 157 mm) were observed in Uganda (Delany and Neal, 1966). These small sample sizes might have given aberrant values for the means.

The trend in mean tail length through the seasons of males and sexes combined, was the same as those of total length and head and body length (tables 35 and 39). Winter female mean tail length, however, was lower than that for autumn, in contrast with the other two parameters in which winter means were higher. During summer ($t= 3,282$, $df\ 60$, $p < 0,01$) and winter ($t= 0,671$, $df\ 34$, $p > 0,05$) female means exceeded those of males. Male mean tail length exceeded that of females highly significantly during the autumn ($t= 2,719$, $df\ 133$, $p < 0,01$; table 37). Male mean tail length for all seasons combined was $51,1 \pm 0,6$ mm and in females it was $50,4 \pm 0,5$ mm ($t= 0,814$, $df\ 257$, $p > 0,05$).

A male mean tail length of 45,3 mm ($N= 4$; range: 34 mm to 55 mm) and female mean of 53,9 mm ($N= 7$; range: 50 mm to 58 mm) were observed in Uganda (Delany and Neal, 1966). These means correspond closely with the means observed at Pongola for all seasons combined (males: 51,1 mm, range: 33 mm to 64 mm; females: 50,4 mm, range: 33mm to 62 mm).

The tail length of S. campestris is the only parameter observed by Delany and Neal (1966) which compares favourably with that from the present study. The head and body of Uganda specimens seems to be longer than that for the present study, therefore S. campestris specimens from Pongola seem to be smaller with relatively longer tails than those from Uganda which were obtained from a small sample. however, Pongola, mean body mass (males: $70,7 \pm 6,2$ g; females: $57,5 \pm 5,2$ g; both sexes: $65,1 \pm 4,3$ g) was

highest during spring. These spring means proved to be significantly higher than those for all other seasons, except that the female spring mean did not exceed the summer mean significantly (tables 35 and 40). The lowest mean body mass (males: $39,9 \pm 1,9$ g; females: $38,2 \pm 1,5$ g; both sexes: $39,0 \pm 1,2$ g) was observed during the winter. Female mean body mass ($46,3 \pm 2,7$ g) exceeded male mean mass ($40,4 \pm 2,5$ g) only during the summer ($t= 1,604$, df 60, $p > 0,05$). During autumn ($t= 3,915$, df 133, $p < 0,01$) male mean body mass exceeded that of females highly significantly. Male mean body mass ($47,2 \pm 1,2$ g) for all seasons combined exceeded that of females ($42,9 \pm 1,0$ g) highly significantly ($t= 2,796$, df 257, $p < 0,01$).

A ^m Male mean body mass of 29,0 g ($N= 2$; range: 24 g to 34 g) and a female mean of 65,2 g ($N= 6$; range: 41 g to 84 g) were observed in Uganda (Delany and Neal, 1966). The small male sample made comparison between Uganda and Pongola material difficult. Uganda S. campestris female mean body mass (65,2 g) clearly exceeded that from the study area (42,9 g) although the season(s) in which the sample was taken would considerably affect the mass.

All parameters studied showed their highest mean values during spring. In males and sexes combined lowest mean total length, head and body length, and tail length were observed during summer, while the lowest mean mass was observed during winter. Female mean total length and head and body length were lowest in autumn, while mean tail length and body mass were lowest in winter. Female mean body mass ($t= 1,604$, df 60, $p > 0,05$), total length ($t= 2,567$, df 60, $p < 0,05$), head and body length ($t= 1,898$, df 60, $p > 0,05$), and tail length ($t= 3,282$, df 60, $p < 0,01$) exceeded comparable values for males during summer. Female mean total length ($t= 0,079$, df 34, $p > 0,05$), and tail length ($t= 0,671$, df 34, $p > 0,05$) exceeded those of males during winter but not significantly. In all four parameters the male means exceeded those of females significantly during autumn.

Wrangham (1969), observing a S. campestris litter consisting of 4 animals from a female that conceived in the wild (Kafue National Park, Zambia) reports that at 18 days they

had the appearance of adults except for size (mass 11 g; total length 82 mm), although two animals had their eyes still closed. On the 19th day all four had their eyes open but were still suckling frequently. It can therefore be assumed that animals of this species would be weaned at an age of 19 to 25 days, and at a mass of 11g to 15 g.

5.5.3 Lemniscomys griselda

The highest male mean total length ($258,3 \pm 3,6$ mm) was found during the spring, while in females ($247,4 \pm 5,4$ mm) and sexes combined ($247,3 \pm 5,9$ mm) highest means were obtained in summer. For both males and sexes combined spring mean total length exceeded autumn and winter means significantly (figs. 38 and 39; tables 41 and 42). The female winter mean total length ($238,9 \pm 3,1$ mm) was more or less equal to the spring mean ($237,9 \pm 3,5$ mm) ($t= 0,215$, df 42, $p > 0,05$). Mean total length of males, females, and sexes combined was lowest during the autumn (males: $235,6 \pm 7,7$ mm; females: $231,5 \pm 5,7$ mm; sexes combined: $233,1 \pm 4,5$ mm). Female means exceeded those of the males (table 43) during the summer ($t= 0,014$, df 19) and winter ($t= 0,008$, df 46), although not significantly. Male spring mean total length ($258,3 \pm 3,6$ mm) exceeded that of females ($237,9 \pm 3,5$ mm) highly significantly ($t= 4,050$, df 27). The male mean total length for all seasons combined was $244,4 \pm 2,7$ mm and for females $239,0 \pm 2,0$ mm ($t= 1,603$, df 117, $p > 0,05$).

The highest male mean head and body length was found during the summer ($118,3 \pm 7,0$ mm) and the lowest during the autumn ($110,0 \pm 3,0$ mm) ($t= 1,086$, df 13, $p > 0,05$; figs. 40 and 41; tables 41 and 44). The highest female mean value was apparent during the summer ($116,9 \pm 2,5$ mm) and the lowest occurred during the spring ($108,7 \pm 1,4$ mm) ($t= 2,843$, df 29, $p < 0,01$). In sexes combined the highest mean head and body length was found during summer ($117,3 \pm 2,8$ mm) and the lowest during autumn ($109,8 \pm 1,9$ mm) ($t= 2,247$, df 40, $p < 0,05$). The winter mean head and body length of females ($113,2 \pm 1,7$ mm) exceeded that of males ($112,5 \pm 1,3$ mm), although not significantly ($t= 0,457$, df 46). Spring male mean head and body length ($117,2 \pm 1,7$ mm) exceeded that of females ($108,7 \pm 1,4$ mm) highly significantly ($t= 3,832$, df 27, $p < 0,01$; table 43).

The male mean head and body length for all seasons combined was $114,1 \pm 1,3$ mm and for females, $112,2 \pm 1,0$ mm ($t= 1,185$, df 117, $p > 0,05$).

The highest mean tail length of males ($141,1 \pm 2,3$ mm), females ($130,5 \pm 2,0$ mm), and sexes combined ($134,9 \pm 1,8$ mm) was observed in the spring, and the lowest in autumn (males: $125,6 \pm 4,8$ mm; females: $121,9 \pm 3,3$ mm; sexes combined: $123,3 \pm 2,7$ mm; figs. 40 and 42; table 41). The spring mean tail length of males, females, and sexes combined exceeded autumn and winter means significantly (table 45). Summer was the only season in which female mean tail length exceeded that of males, although not significantly ($t= 0,191$, df 19, $p > 0,05$; table 43). The spring male mean exceeded the female mean highly significantly ($t= 3,464$, df 27, $p < 0,01$). Male mean tail length for all seasons combined was $130,1 \pm 1,6$ mm and for females, $127,0 \pm 1,1$ mm ($t= 1,575$, df 117, $p > 0,05$).

The highest mean body mass of males ($59,8 \pm 3,1$ g) was found during spring and the lowest ($41,0 \pm 3,0$ g) in autumn ($t= 4,442$, df 18, $p < 0,01$). Sexes combined showed the same trend as the males. Spring mean body mass of both males and sexes combined exceeded the autumn and winter means highly significantly (figs. 38 and 43; tables 41 and 46). Summer mean body mass of sexes combined ($51,1 \pm 3,6$ g) exceeded the winter mean ($42,6 \pm 1,0$ g; $t= 2,259$, df 67, $p < 0,05$) significantly. The females, however, showed their highest mean mass ($49,8 \pm 3,9$ g) in summer and their lowest ($43,3 \pm 1,6$ g) during winter. No significant differences were observed between female body mass in the different seasons (table 46). Female mean body mass exceeded that of males during autumn ($t= 0,560$, df 19) and winter ($t= 0,728$, df 46), although not significantly. During spring the male mean body mass exceeded that of females highly significantly ($t= 3,300$, df 27 $p < 0,01$; table 43). The male mean body mass for all seasons combined was $47,9 \pm 1,5$ g and for females, $45,7 \pm 1,2$ g ($t= 1,158$, df 117, $p > 0,05$).

The highest mean values for all parameters studied were observed during spring or summer, and the lowest during

autumn or winter, except that the lowest female mean head and body length was recorded in spring. Although the female means of all parameters studied usually exceeded those of males during summer and/or winter, the differences were never significant. On the other hand spring male means always exceeded those of females highly significantly.

5.5.4 Leggada minutoides

Highest values for mean total length ($103,8 \pm 2,6$ mm), head and body length ($59,6 \pm 1,5$ mm), and tail length ($44,2 \pm 1,5$ mm) were observed during autumn, and in the case of mean body mass ($7,0 \pm 0,6$ g) in summer. The lowest values of mean total length ($93,9 \pm 1,4$ mm) and head and body length ($52,7 \pm 0,8$ mm) were observed in spring, and of tail length ($40,1 \pm 0,9$ mm), and body mass ($5,1 \pm 0,2$ g) in winter (table 47; figs. 44 to 46). For all seasons combined mean body mass was $6,0 \pm 0,2$ g, mean total length, $97,4 \pm 0,9$ mm, mean tail length, $41,3 \pm 0,5$ mm, and mean head and body length, $56,1 \pm 0,6$ mm. Autumn mean total length exceeded those of spring ($t= 3,331$, df 13, $p < 0,01$) and winter ($t= 2,536$, df 12, $p < 0,05$) significantly, while spring mean head and body length was exceeded highly significantly by those of summer ($t= 3,236$, df 15, $p < 0,01$) and autumn ($t= 4,454$, df 13, $p < 0,01$). Autumn mean tail length exceeded that of winter significantly ($t= 2,356$, df 12, $p < 0,05$). Winter mean body mass was significantly exceeded by those of summer ($t= 3,091$, df 14, $p < 0,01$) and autumn ($t= 2,719$, df 12, $p < 0,05$; tables 47 and 48).

Delany (1964a) found Uganda L. minutoides male mean head and body length to be 61,8 mm ($N= 6$; range: 47 mm to 76 mm) and that of females to be 63,0 mm ($N= 8$; range: 49 mm to 77 mm). This corresponded closely with that observed by Delany and Neal (1966) also from Uganda (males: $\bar{x} = 60,6$ mm, $N = 13$, range: 45 mm to 76 mm; females: $\bar{x} = 60,8$ mm, $N = 11$, range: 49 mm to 77 mm). Dieterlen (1967) found head and body length to range from 55 mm to 70 mm in the Congo while the tail length range observed was 45 mm to 60 mm. Delany and Neal (1966) report male mean tail length to be 43,8 mm ($N = 12$, range: 35 mm to 54 mm) and that of females 45,5 mm ($N = 11$, range: 35 mm to 63 mm). Mean mass of males observed was 6,4 g ($N = 7$, range: 4 g to 10 g) and that of females 5,9 g ($N = 9$, range: 2,5 g to 10 g).

Length of specimens from the Congo and Uganda seems to exceed that of the present study somewhat.

5.6 Population structure

5.6.1 Age classes

5.6.1.1 Praomys (Mastomys) natalensis

Coetzee (1967) assumes subadults to have a mass of 15 g to 25 g, adults above 25 g and designates mice of above 45 g as large adults. According to Dieterlen (1967) the juvenile stage ends when the animal reaches a mass of 10 to 20 g (25 days to 30 days old) and becomes adult when reaching a mass of more or less 40 g (70 days to 80 days old). The age classes of Coetzee (1967) are followed here.

The relative frequency of animals of different body mass during the four seasons (table 49; fig. 27) indicates that during spring (160 animals), all animals present in the population were subadults (47%), and adults (53%) of which 2% are designated as large adults. Males (97 animals) comprised 67% adults and 33% subadults. Three percent of the adult males were above 45 g in mass (large adults). In the females (63 animals) the opposite was apparent (32% adults, and 68% subadults). No large adult females were observed.

During summer most animals were adults (males: 94% of 73 animals; females: 86% of 62 animals; both sexes: 90%). Juveniles (4%) appeared in the population and a substantial decrease in subadults from 47% to 5% was observed, probably as a result of the growth of subadults of the previous season to adulthood. In contrast with spring no obvious difference in age-class proportions of the sexes was apparent. This season showed the highest number of large adults (26% of 135 animals; males: 34% of 73 animals; females: 18% of 62 animals).

From summer (135 animals) to autumn (54 animals) there was a relative increase in number of juveniles (4% to 31%) and subadults (5% to 24%) with a decrease in number of adults, including large adults (90% to 44%) and large adults (26% to 4%), indicating high mortality among the adults.

Far fewer observations (16 animals, comprising 18% juveniles; 43% subadults; 38% adults; 0% larger adults) during the winter made comparison more difficult, but indicated extensive mortality since the previous season.

Coetzee (1967) reports a comparatively high number of sub-

adults during late autumn and spring. In the present study relatively high numbers of subadults were observed during the spring and winter, although during winter the small sample available could have been a source of error.

Juveniles were recorded throughout the year except during spring, while Coetzee (1967) found no juveniles in winter (July to early August). In both studies juveniles were most frequent during autumn.

The summer population seemed to consist of two mass groups viz. one with a body mass below 11 g (three males and three females) and another with a body mass of above 19 g (> 23 g in 70 males; and > 19 g in 59 females).

Coetzee (1967) found two mass groups during the autumn, one with a mass of below 25 g, the other above 35 g. In the present study two autumn groups are also apparent although very indistinct (males: < 21 g, $N = 16$, and > 24 g, $N = 11$; females: < 21 g, $N = 13$, and > 26 g, $N = 14$). No size groups were observed in the spring material, while the winter sample was too small to allow any meaningful conclusions to be reached.

In late winter and spring (August to October), Coetzee (1967) found apparently young animals, judging from fecundity and moult, with exceptionally heavy molar tooth wear. He suggests either that two species of multimammate mice occurred in the Roodepoort area, or that there was a difference in tooth wear rate during certain times of the year.

A possible alternative explanation may be retarded growth and sexual maturation during the winter and early spring, before the first rain of the season and the appearance of green growth (see section 5.3.1.4).

It is possible that animals born just prior to the winter may reach subadult stage, remain constant in mass and size until after the first spring rains, and then within a few weeks develop to breeding adults. The animals can, therefore, be as old as four or five months, with teeth correspondingly worn, and still be a subadult, while animals born just after the first spring rains could become breeding adults within two to four months, at which time teeth would be rather less worn. In laboratory studies of *P. (M.) natalensis*, Johnston and Oliff (1954) report age at first litter to be 130 days, and Coetzee (1967), citing records from the animal house of the Medical Ecology Centre, reports a mean age at

first parturition of $94,1 \pm 19,18$ days with a range of 59 to 149 days. The youngest female to litter in a study by Meester (1960) was 77 days old.

5.6.1.2 Saccostomus campestris

Three mass classes are recognized, i.e. < 35 g, 35 to 50 g, and > 50 g. These classes are not necessarily assumed to represent a particular age group although they possibly correspond roughly to juvenile, subadult, and adult classes. The body mass distribution during the four seasons (table 50; fig. 36) allows the conclusion that the spring sample consisted mostly (77% of 26 animals) of larger animals (> 50 g). During summer the three mass classes were more or less equally represented ($N= 62$; < 35 g: 29%; 35 g to 50 g: 39%; > 50 g: 32%), while during autumn and winter, the intermediate size class (35 g to 50 g) comprised the largest proportion of the sample (autumn: 46% of 135 animals; winter: 58% of 36 animals). The relative number of smaller (< 35 g) and intermediate (35 g to 50 g) animals increased progressively from spring to winter, while the number of larger animals decreased.

5.6.1.3 Lemniscomys griselda

The relative frequency of animals of different body mass during the four seasons (fig. 38; table 51) allows the conclusion that smaller animals (< 30 g) occurred in low numbers, throughout (spring: 0% of 29 animals; summer: 10% of 21 animals; autumn: 10% of 21 animals; winter: 2% of 48 animals).

During spring (24% of 29 animals) and summer (19% of 21 animals), there were relatively fewer animals of intermediate size (30g to 45 g) than in autumn (62% of 21 animals) and winter (63% of 48 animals). During spring and summer, however, there was a higher number of larger animals (> 45 g; spring: 76%; summer: 71%; autumn: 29%; and winter 35%).

5.6.2 Sex ratios

5.6.2.1 Praomys (Mastomys) natalensis

The observed overall male ratio (male: female) for all the animals trapped and sexed during the study was 0,573 (table 52). The highest ratio was observed during spring (0,625) and the lowest during autumn (0,491). Overall ratio (Chi square= 8,024, $p < 0,01$) and that for spring ($X^2 = 10,500$, $p < 0,01$) showed a highly significant preponderance of males over females. The autumn ratio (0,491, $X^2 = 0,018$) does not depart significantly from a 1:1 ratio.

The ratio for each grid is shown in table 52. Grid P46 showed a male ratio of 0,600 which is significantly ($X^2 = 8,00$, $p < 0,01$)

different from a 1:1 ratio. Male ratios of 0,594 on grid P50 ($X^2 = 3,574$) and of 0,474 ($X^2 = 0,211$) on grids P88 and P89 combined, do not depart significantly from a 1:1 ratio.

This preponderance of males corresponds with the following: Meester (1960) who found a 0,521 male ratio (76 males: 70 females; $X^2 = 0,247$, $p > 0,05$) in the laboratory; Dieterlen (1967) who reports a male ratio of 0,611 ($N = 190$; $X^2 = 9,284$, $p < 0,01$) from the Congo (Kivu lake area), and found during January to May a ratio of 0,638 ($N = 58$; $X^2 = 4,414$, $p < 0,05$), during June to September 0,650 ($N = 83$; $X^2 = 7,530$, $p < 0,01$), and during October to December 0,470 ($N = 49$; $X^2 = 0,184$, $p > 0,05$); and de Wit (pers. comm.) who observed a male ratio of 0,544 (112 males: 94 females; $X^2 = 1,573$; $p > 0,05$) while live trapping at Roodeplaat Agricultural Station near Pretoria.

In contrast with these findings, Oliff (1953) found in a laboratory study that the number of females (2039) exceeded that of males (1889) significantly ($p < 0,05$) at birth (female ratio: 0,519; $X^2 = 5,728$) while after weaning they did not differ significantly (female ratio: 0,510; 2837 males: 2953 females; $X^2 = 2,324$; $p > 0,05$).

Coetzee (1965; 1967) also reports a female preponderance (0,532; 2219 males: 2520 females; $X^2 = 19,118$; $p < 0,001$). His material was obtained by capturing animals from excavated burrows. His monthly female ratios were as follows:

Jan.-Feb.	0,481	(41 males: 38 females;	$X^2 = 0,114$)
March	0,517	(112 males: 120 females;	$X^2 = 0,276$)
April	0,531	(246 males: 279 females;	$X^2 = 2,074$)
May	0,521	(367 males: 399 females;	$X^2 = 1,337$)
June	0,512	(467 males: 489 females;	$X^2 = 0,506$)
July	0,528	(399 males: 447 females;	$X^2 = 2,723$)
August	0,523	(325 males: 356 females;	$X^2 = 1,411$)
Sept.	0,608	(96 males: 149 females;	$X^2 = 11,465$; $p < 0,001$)
Oct.	0,583	(73 males: 102 females;	$X^2 = 4,806$; $p < 0,05$)
Nov.	0,623	(66 males: 109 females;	$X^2 = 10,566$; $p < 0,01$)
Dec.	0,542	(27 males: 32 females;	$X^2 = 0,424$)

When divided into seasons the following female ratios were apparent:

Spring	0,605	(235 males: 360 females;	$X^2 = 26,261$; $p < 0,001$)
Summer	0,507	(68 males: 70 females;	$X^2 = 0,029$)
Autumn	0,524	(725 males: 798 females;	$X^2 = 3,499$)
Winter	0,520	(1191 males: 1292 females;	$X^2 = 4,108$; $p < 0,05$)

These sex ratios indicate a seasonal fluctuation, with females being most abundant during spring (September to November).

Coetzee (1967) also reports unpublished data collected by Davis who, while kill trapping in Sierra Leone (1936 to 1937), encountered a female ratio of 0,514.

A 1:1 sex ratio can be expected according to Fisher's theory of the evolution of sex ratios (Myers and Krebs, 1971).

The sex ratio in a population can possibly^{be} affected by some of the following factors (Tanton, 1965; Smith, 1967; Myers and Krebs, 1971):

- 1) Secondary sex ratio (sex ratio of new born animals).
- 2) Differential survival.
- 3) Differential movement.
- 4) Differential trappability.
- 5) Differential growth (recruitment of males and females as juveniles, subadults, or adults will be affected by the growth rate of the two sexes).
- 6) Population size .
- 7) Population structure (relative frequency of males and females as juveniles, subadults, and adults).
- 8) Genotype (which might affect 1 to 7 above).
- 9) Season of the year.
- 10) Method of collecting data.

The method of collecting data differed widely in the different studies cited above. Oliff (1953) and Meester (1960) obtained data from laboratory colonies, Coetzee (1965; 1967) from excavated burrows, Dieterlen (1967) and Davis (Coetzee, 1967) from kill trapping, and de Wit from live trapping. Data from the present study were collected by means of live trapping alone.

Therefore, no significant preponderance of female P. (M.) natalensis has been found as yet, in either a live or kill trapping study, and judging from laboratory studies sex ratios appear to be equal at weaning, although females outnumber males significantly at birth.

The most conclusive data on sex ratios are expected from analysis of laboratory-reared animals, where most of the above-mentioned factors do not influence the number of each sex obtained.

If it is typical for P. (M.) natalensis that more females than males are born (secondary sex ratio; Oliff, 1953) but that sexes at the time of weaning appear to be equal (Oliff, 1953; Meester, 1960), it can be assumed that differential mortality caused the ratio to be 1:1 at weaning. This is probably caused by some

genetic factor.

Coetzee (1967), obtaining his material from excavating burrows, found a significantly higher number of females (0,532) in animals of all age classes. The ratios indicate a seasonal fluctuation, with females most abundant during spring (0,605) and least abundant during summer (0,507). Due to the method of collecting, the sex ratios obtained by Coetzee (1967) could not be attributed to differential movement, trappability, or growth. As his method of collecting excluded the use of traps, differential movement and trappability of the animals can be assumed to be eliminated. Smith (1967) reports that while equal Paromyscus polionotus numbers of both sexes were captured by hand from burrows, more males than females were captured in traps. As excavated burrows would yield all animals present, recruitment of males and females as juveniles, subadults, or adults at a differential rate (differential growth) are also assumed to be eliminated.

Therefore, according to the findings of Cliff (1953) and Meester (1960), Coetzee (1967) should have observed equal ratios. It is, however, possible that in his study area females did not exhibit a differential mortality rate after birth but sustained their preponderance, the extent of which was not consistent throughout his study.

Genotypically based differential survival and seasonally based population structure during different times of the year is the most probable explanation. Unweaned animals present in the sample however, might also have caused sex ratios to be in favour of females (secondary sex ratio).

Dieterlen (1967) found P. (M.) natalensis males exhibiting their largest preponderance during June to September (0,650) and during October to December the lowest (0,470). The male ratio appears to suggest a negative correlation with the peak breeding activities and therefore does not sustain the assumption that males move further during the breeding season and are therefore more liable to be captured. However, Dieterlen (1967) observed little P. (M.) natalensis breeding. All other species captured by Dieterlen (1967) included more males than females during October to December. If it is assumed that more females than males were born in the Congo, females experienced high mortality rates compared to males. This was, however, less apparent during October to December than during the rest of the year.

The female preponderance of 0,514 found by Davis in Sierra

Leone (Coetzee, 1967) is assumed to be not significant (sample size not known), while de Wit (pers. comm.) found a 0,544 male ratio in his live trapping study near Pretoria (112 males: 94 females; $X^2 = 1,573$, $p > 0,05$). A 1:1 ratio is, therefore, assumed.

In the present study the observed male ratio was 0,573 ($X^2 = 8,024$, $p < 0,01$). In contrast with the findings of Coetzee (1967) the most males were observed during spring (0,625; $X^2 = 10,500$, $p < 0,01$). The most females were present in autumn (male ratio: 0,491; $X^2 = 0,018$, $p > 0,05$).

If differences in sex ratio exist between the different age classes (Cliff, 1953), sex ratio will fluctuate from season to season as differential growth rate, population structure and survival rate differ from season to season. Therefore, during different stages of a population increase or decline, population size might indirectly be a factor causing sex ratios to differ during different times of the year. While Myers and Krebs (1971) found no evidence of this, the present data are to be inspected from this point of view in a further publication.

Home range size of a species might differ during different seasons and therefore might cause the sex ratio to differ from season to season. This was, however, not inspected in the present study.

Male P. (M.) natalensis home range size is shown in the present study to exceed that of females. Therefore, males would come in contact with more traps which might also have caused the observed ratio to deviate from 1:1 (differential movement). A further factor which could have caused the ratios to differ in a trapping situation, is that of differential trappability of the sexes (Smith, 1967; see above).

On grids P46 (0,600 male ratio; $p < 0,01$) and on grid P50 (0,594, $p > 0,05$), a higher number of males than females was observed while on grid P88+P89 (0,474) this was not the case. The latter, however, being the only grid on which male home range size did not exceed that of females but where the opposite was apparent, although not significantly

De Wit (pers. comm.) found male P. (M.) natalensis home range to have exceeded that of females ($p < 0,05$). He, however, found no significant deviation from a 1:1 ratio (0,544 male ratio). Larger male home range size than that of females might also have played a role in the high male ratio observed by Dieterlen (1967).

So it appears that differential movement might have been a significant factor causing sex ratios to have been in favour of males in the present study and possibly in other studies. Furthermore differential survival of the different sexes in the present study could have caused the number of males to have exceeded that of females. Further studies, however, are required to determine the factors causing sex ratios to differ from a 1:1 ratio.

5.6.2.2 Saccostomus campestris

The observed overall male ratio was 0,575 (table 53). The highest male ratio was observed during autumn (0,597) and the lowest during winter (0,487). The overall ratio ($X^2 = 5,873$; $p < 0,05$) and that for autumn ($X^2 = 5,045$; $p < 0,05$) showed a significant male preponderance.

The male ratio for each grid is shown in table 53. Grid P46 showed a male ratio of 0,620, which deviates significantly from a 1:1 ratio ($X^2 = 7,450$; $p < 0,01$). The autumn ratio on this grid (0,642) also deviates significantly ($X^2 = 6,531$; $p < 0,05$).

The overall male ratio of 0,541 ($X^2 = 0,653$) on grid P50 does not differ significantly from a 1:1 ratio. On grids P88+P89 the overall ratio was 0,500.

Saccostomus campestris male home range size did not exceed that of females according to the present method of expressing movement data, therefore differential movement could not have caused male numbers to exceed female numbers in the present study.

De Wit (pers. comm.) found a overall male ratio of 0,476 (10 males: 11 females).

Further data are needed for detailed analysis.

5.6.2.3 Lemniscomys griselda

The observed overall male ratio was 0,437 ($X^2 = 2,391$; $p > 0,05$) (table 54). The highest male ratio was observed in winter (0,484; $X^2 = 0,063$; $p > 0,05$) and the lowest during autumn (0,370; $X^2 = 1,815$; $p > 0,05$).

The male ratios for each grid and season are shown in table 54. Grid P46 showed a male ratio of 0,444 ($X^2 = 0,889$), grid P50 a ratio of 0,433 ($X^2 = 1,067$) and grids P88 and P89 combined a ratio of 0,421 ($X^2 = 0,474$). None of these represented a significant preponderance of females.

These female preponderances were observed in spite of the fact that male av. M (home range) exceeded that of females on all grids combined as well as on grid P46.

There appear to be fewer males than females, but the data are too meagre for further analysis.

De Wit (pers. comm.) found 0,500 male ratio (4 males: 4 females) at the Roodeplaat Agricultural Station near Pretoria.

5.6.2.4 Leggada minutoides

The observed male ratio was 0,500 (table 55). Due to the small sample observed the data were not separated by season.
(17 males : 24 females)

A male ratio of 0,415_h was observed at the Roodeplaat Agricultural Station near Pretoria (De Wit, pers. comm.) In contrast Dieterlen (1967) found a male ratio of 0,685 (N= 89; $X^2 = 12,236$, $p < 0,001$) in the Congo.

Further data are needed concerning the sex ratios of L. minutoides and the causative factors involved.

5.6.2.5 Steatomys pratensis

The observed male ratio was 0,857 (table 55). The sample was, however, too small for further analysis.

5.7 Behaviour

The following miscellaneous notes on the behaviour of the different species were accumulated in the course of the study.

5.7.1 Praomys (Mastomys) natalensis

Praomys (M.) natalensis was observed utilizing natural holes in the ground and termite mounds. Shortridge (1934), Veenstra (1958), and Delany and Neal (1966) report that this species uses the deserted burrows of other animals whenever possible. If forced to do so, it will also burrow, but only when the soil is either soft or cracked (Veenstra, 1958). According to the Delany and Neal (1966) animals of this species are good burrowers.

When transferred from the trap into a plastic bag animals were normally calm, in so far as that they did not jump about in the bag. When released at the trapping site, they would sit for a few seconds at the site of release and then unerringly move towards their holes without further delay. The speed of movement varied from one individual to the next.

They usually attempted to bite when handled unetherized, and did not seem to become tamer with repeated recaptures. When held by the nape and the base of the tail, a stream of air blown into the face caused them to respond with high-pitched squeaks. This was also observed by Veenstra (1958).

Measuring P. (M.) natalensis accurately when only half etherized or not etherized at all proved impossible, because stretching the animals to their maximum length resulted in rounding of their backs and kicking of their feet.

Veenstra (1958) reports P. (M.) natalensis to be nervous, quick to escape, conscious of danger, difficult to handle, and likely to bite without provocation.

Multiple captures of P. (M.) natalensis were observed twelve times on grid P46, but never on any of the other grids. Male/female and female/female multiple captures were each observed three times, while all-male multiple captures were found in six cases. In one of the male/female captures, the female had a mass of 45 g and the male 15 g. It could be that this

was a mother with one of her recently weaned young. In the other two cases of male/female multiple captures the mass of the two animals were comparable, eg. male no. 96 and female no. 97 had a mass of 22 and 23 g respectively, and both male no. 113 and female no. 112 had a mass of 12 g. In the latter case the animals could have been siblings at an age of more or less three weeks (Meester, 1960) ie. both just weaned.

In both all-female and all-male multiple captures the two animals captured were normally of more or less the same size and mass. A mass of 28 g was never exceeded, suggesting that juveniles and subadults were involved in these multiple captures. Animals in a multiple capture, therefore, might have been of the same litter.

All but two multiple captures were in the trapping period 30 May, 1967 to 3 June, 1967, the period of extremely high population densities on grid P46. The other two multiple captures (all-male) were in May 1968 and coincided with a relatively high population density prevailing at that time, although not as high as that of May/June 1967 (see section 5.1).

The mechanism of the Chauvancy live traps used in this study renders it impossible to catch more than one animal at a time if they do not enter the trap almost simultaneously. Multiple captures could, therefore, indicate any of the following, either separately or in interaction:

- 1) The mice were travelling together and therefore some sort of social relationship existed between them;
- 2) a high degree of competition for food and living space occurred; and
- 3) the mice might have arrived separately at the trap seconds after each other and entered together, as when one chasing the other.

The presence of live and unscarred animals together in the traps would indicate mutual tolerance.

Praomys (M.) natalensis and S. campestris were the only species of which more than one animal was caught at a time. It seems that P. (M.) natalensis is tolerant of other rodents, both of its own and other species. Veenstra (1958) remarks that mixed or unisexual groups can live together

without fighting and several families can live in one burrow. Shortridge (1934) reports that caged animals of this species are less quarrelsome than most other rodents.

Shortridge (1934), Roberts (1951), Delany and Neal (1966), and Delany and Kansiimerunanga (1970) report P. (M.) natalensis to be omnivorous, with insects comprising about 50% of the diet.

According to Veenstra (1958), when abundant food is available, P. (M.) natalensis is found in association with other rodents (Rattus, Tatera, Mus, and Rhabdomys) but when competition leads to food scarcity, P. (M.) natalensis gives way. According to Shortridge (1934) P. (M.) natalensis were driven away where Rattus or Mus musculus have established themselves. Delany and Neal (1966) also report that after Rattus rattus was introduced in Uganda, P. (M.) natalensis was driven from its domestic habitat (native huts). In the present study it was observed that during S. campestris and L. griselda peaks, P. (M.) natalensis numbers were low (see section 5.1).

5.7.3 Saccostomus campestris

Holes in termite mounds as well as other natural holes were used as home sites in the present study. Roberts (1951) and Walker (1964) report S. campestris to dig burrows of their own.

When a storeroom near the study area was demolished in November 1968, a female S. campestris was found nesting in a hollow in the sand under the floor, together with a large quantity of Balanites maughamii seeds which the animal had most probably been storing there for food. Seeds of three Acacia species, Acacia tortilis, A. nilotica and A. karroo, were found in the cheek pouches of S. campestris from time to time during the study. An animal of this species was also observed eating the fruit of Grewia monticola. Roberts (1951) reports S. campestris to feed on seeds, berries and termites.

These animals did not jump up and down when placed in a plastic bag after removal from the trap, but tried to run up against the side of the bag with characteristic, relatively

slow, movements. This behaviour was exhibited for minutes on end if the animal was not released or etherized before then. Calm individuals were, however, also observed.

Saccostomus campestris were normally slow to seek cover when released, and seemed to find difficulty in orienting themselves in relation to their home sites, judging from the amount of time spent and the detours travelled before reaching their holes.

These animals are known to be extremely docile (Davis, 1963b; Walker, 1964; and Joubert, 1967).

If handled, however, even while partly etherized, they would attempt to bite.

Intraspecific aggression is reported by Davis (1963b), Joubert (1967), and Coetzee (pers. comm.). Females in oestrous or pro-oestrous have been observed to rip open the scrotum of males or even kill them.

Because of its slow movements S. campestris was easy to catch in enclosed areas. They were, however, not easily handled because of their extremely loose skin and their habit of trying to turn around and bite the handler.

One multiple capture of S. campestris was observed on 3 June, 1967 on grid P46. This included two males, both having a mass of 20 g, on the same grid and in the same trapping period as the multiple catches of P. (M.) natalensis during the population high of May/June 1967. Here again, as in P. (M.) natalensis, the large population size and consequent shortage of food and living space probably played an important role.

5.7.3 Lemniscomys griselda

Natural holes in the ground were used as home sites. No burrowing was observed.

When released from the trap into a plastic bag, L. griselda would frantically attempt to jump from the bag, bouncing up and down in it.

When released at the trapping site after handling, animals of this species immediately sought cover, many so fast

that it was difficult to follow their movements clearly, so that they were easily lost from sight.

On the other hand, members of this species could be measured fairly accurately without being fully etherized, as they did not kick or round their backs as P. (M.) natalensis did. No attempt was ever made to bite when cautiously handled even when unetherized or only partly etherized.

Shortridge (1934) reports that all specimens from South West Africa were trapped in high grass near swamps or water-holes. In the present study this was not the case.

Lemniscomys griselda appears to feed mainly on vegetable matter and seeds (Shortridge, 1934).

5.7.4 Leggada minutoides

Attempts to bite the handler were observed. Animals of this species were twice observed taking refuge in scorpion (Cheloctonus jonesi) holes after release. However, several hundred scorpion holes dug up gave no evidence of Leggada minutoides inhabiting them. Delany (1964b) reports L. minutoides to be omnivorous.

6. Conclusion

Grids P88 and P89, adjoining each other in the A. nigrescens plant community, consistently supported a relatively much lower rodent population than did grids P46 and P50, situated in the A. tortilis community, although the A. nigrescens community usually had a better grass cover than did the A. tortilis community, especially during drier periods. During the rainy season the new growth in the A. tortilis community was better than that in the A. nigrescens community. Dead grass was always present in the latter but never in the former, suggesting undergrazing in the A. nigrescens community. This, together with the the vegetation type, probably had an influence on the rodent populations. However, further research is required to verify this. As the soil samples taken from the study area showed no clear-cut differences between the A. tortilis and A. nigrescens communities this factor is discarded as a cause of population differences.

Under the conditions which prevailed during the study, the A. tortilis community was preferred by P.(M.) natalensis, S. campestris, and Lemniscomys griselda. All the other species showed no clear preference for either of the two plant communities. Steatomys pratensis, however, seemed to appear more regularly in the A. nigrescens community (grids P88 and P89), and was never captured on grid P46 and only twice (one animal each time) during September and December 1967 on grid P50. The findings of Shortridge (1934), Veenstra (1958), and Delany and Neal (1966) regarding competition between P.(M.) natalensis and other species, sustain those of the present study. In spite of the fact, therefore, that P.(M.) natalensis is a very successful rodent, in terms of breeding success and distribution, the present data seem to favour the hypothesis that P.(M.) natalensis gives way during times of food scarcity such as autumn and winter. Whether this phenomenon will be found throughout the range of P.(M.) natalensis is impossible to say until further studies have been undertaken. The numbers of P.(M.) natalensis may, however, be affected by habitat and climate, depending on what the optimum environment is for this species.

The present study was conducted during times of below average rainfall and consequently poor habitat. This resulted in low rodent population numbers just prior to and especially after the time of spraying on both control and sprayed grids, which made it impossible to reach any finality concerning the influence of dieldrin spraying at a dosage of 83,0 g/ha.

Van Ark and Pretorius (1970), studying the effect of dieldrin coverspraying on night-flying insect populations in the same area, concluded that no significant differences could be found between populations before and after spraying. Wiese et al. (1969) report spraying at the same concentration as used in the present study to have had no adverse effects on exposed livestock. Wiese and Basson (1967) and Basson (1970a; 1970b; and 1971) found scorpions, Cheloc-tonus jonesi, millipedes, Alloporus spp., crowned guinea fowl, Numida meleagris, laughing dove, Stigmatopelia senegalensis, and cape sparrow, Passer melanurus not adversely affected at concentrations simulating that used in the field.

After spraying, Lemniscomys griselda and S. campestris showed very low dieldrin residues (< 1,0 ppm). One shrew, Crocidura hirta, collected 60 days after spraying, showed 4,660 ppm dieldrin, and 0,206 ppm photodieldrin. This is an extremely high level when compared with dieldrin levels found in wethers and oxen during a similar experiment in the Lydenburg district (Wiese et al., 1970). As shrews feed on insects and other invertebrate and vertebrate animals, they represent a higher level in the food chain than do more graminivorous rodents, and can therefore be expected to accumulate higher insecticide residues. The presence of a relatively high residue level in the insect-eating Crocidura hirta is an indication that these animals might possibly be adversely affected by spraying. However, whole carcass analyses of insect-eating birds from the same area after spraying did not produce clear evidence of higher residue levels (unpublished data). In any case, the sample was much too small for any meaningful conclusion, as it is known that residues in different animals treated alike may differ considerably (Wiese, pers. comm.).

There seems to be some suggestion that spraying might have influenced L. griselda numbers on grid P50, but the evidence for this is very tenuous, as the numbers captured were too low to allow a clear-cut conclusion to be reached. Furthermore it may be surmised that reproduction in the Pongola rodent population could have been affected by dieldrin coverspraying. Again, however, the reproduction data obtained were too meagre to allow any conclusions to be reached on this score.

It is concluded that dieldrin coverspraying at the dosage applied had no visible influence on rodent populations in the present study.

It has been recommended that spraying for harvester termites need not be done more than once every 10 years, and at the rate dieldrin and photodieldrin break down, as observed in the present study and in similar studies at Edenville in the Orange Free State, at Dendron in northern Transvaal (Wiese and Basson, unpublished data), and at Lydenburg in eastern Transvaal (Wiese et al., 1970), no accumulation of this pesticide under similar spraying conditions is expected in the environment.

In Praomys (Mastomys) natalensis average maximum distance between captures of males exceeded that of females significantly, suggesting that the area covered by males exceeded that of females significantly. Judging from the av. M curve of males which tended to increase continually while that of females tended to form a plateau, males progressively occupied new areas while females tended to occupy more fixed ranges.

Average M values and therefore ranges for the two sexes of S. campestris did not differ significantly from one another, and animals of both sexes stayed in more or less fixed areas, judging from av. M curves.

Average M values of Lemniscomys griselda males exceeded those of females significantly, suggesting a larger home range for males than for females. The animals also tended to stay in more or less fixed areas as shown by av. M curves.

Leggada minutoides, the smallest species studied, exhibited a greater av. M (both sexes combined) than did any of the other species, although not significantly greater than that of P. (M.) natalensis. This large home range is remarkable when the size of the animal is taken into account.

Praomys (Mastomys) natalensis home range size exceeded those of S. campestris (males and both sexes combined) and L. griselda (sexes both separated and combined) significantly, judging from av. M values; while the home ranges of S. campestris and L. griselda did not differ significantly from each other.

The relative frequency of P. (M.) natalensis of different body mass classes during the four seasons indicates that during spring most animals were subadults and adults, while large adults were present in very low numbers and juveniles were absent. During summer most animals captured were adults while few juveniles appeared in the population and a substantial decrease in subadults was observed. From summer to autumn there was a relative increase in number of juveniles and subadults with a decrease in number of adults and large adults, indicating high mortality among adults. Very few observations during winter made comparison difficult, but indicate extensive mortality in all age classes since the previous season. Coetzee (1967) concludes that a large number of mature animals died out at the end of the breeding season. He reports comparatively high numbers of subadults during late autumn and spring. In the present study relatively high numbers of subadults were observed during the winter and spring. Juveniles were recorded throughout the year except during spring, while Coetzee (1967) found no juveniles in winter (July to early August). In both studies juveniles were most frequent during autumn.

The Praomys (Mastomys) natalensis summer population seemed to consist of two mass groups viz. one with body mass below 11 g, and other with a mass of above 19 g. Coetzee (1967) found two mass groups during the autumn, one with a mass below 25 g, and the other above 35 g. In the present study two autumn groups were also apparent, although very indistinct (with mass < 21 g, and > 24 g). No size groups were observed in spring material, while the winter sample was too small to allow any distinction of mass groups. In late winter and spring (August to October), Coetzee (1967) found apparently young animals, judging from fecundity and moult, with exceptional^{ly} heavy molar tooth wear. He suggests either that

two species of multimammate mice occurred in the Roodepoort area, or that there was a difference in tooth wear rate during certain times of the year. A possible alternative explanation may be retarded growth and sexual maturation during winter and early spring, before the first rain of the season and the appearance of green growth. Perhaps animals born just prior to the winter may reach subadult stage, remain constant in mass and size until after the first spring rains, and then, within a few weeks, develop to breeding adults. An animal can, therefore, be as old as four to five months, with teeth correspondingly worn, and still be a subadult, while animals born just after the first spring rains could become breeding adults within two to four months, at which time teeth would still be rather less worn.

When the Praomys (Mastomys) natalensis breeding data for the four grids are combined the observed breeding season for females was from September to February and that for males from September to April.

Because of the below average rainfall during the study period and the possible effect of this on the vegetation and reproductive activity, the observed breeding season might be somewhat aberrant (Ingles, 1941; Bodenheimer and Sulman, 1946; Fitch, 1947; Mossman, 1955; Poole, 1960; Reynolds, 1960; Myers and Poole, 1962; Newsome, 1966; Stodart and Myers, 1966; Bothma, 1969).

An autumn reproductive peak at the end of the rainy season/beginning of the dry season (as observed by Brambell and Davis, 1941; Chapman et al., 1959; and Coetzee, 1965; 1967), was not observed in the present study. During normal rainfall years the breeding season of P. (M.) natalensis on the study area is expected to be from early spring to late autumn.

All Praomys (Mastomys) natalensis parameters studied (total length, tail length, head and body length, and body mass) exhibited their highest mean values during the summer (in sexes both separated and combined). This was also the season in which adults were most numerous. In males the lowest mean values were observed during autumn and in females during winter, except for female mean head and body length which was lowest during spring. In all the parame-

ters studied, the female mean values exceeded those of males slightly during the autumn, but never significantly. This might be attributed to pregnant females being present during this season. Male mean values for all seasons combined exceeded those of the females highly significantly, in all parameters, suggesting ^{that} ^{might} males to be larger than females.

In the Pongola population, unlike that of Roodepoort (Coetzee, 1967) the elongation of the tail observed in sub-adults was sustained (except possibly during summer), and not reversed by relatively more rapid growth of the head and body length.

The body mass distribution of Saccostomus campestris during the four seasons allows the conclusion that the spring sample consisted mostly of larger animals (> 50 g). During the summer the three mass classes were more or less equally represented, while during autumn and winter the intermediate group (35 g to 50 g) comprised the largest proportion of the sample. The relative number of smaller (< 35 g) and intermediate animals increased progressively from spring to winter, while the number of larger animals decreased towards winter.

Breeding data from all grids combined suggest a breeding season for males from late August to June, and from October to February for females. However, as for P. (M.) natalensis the low rainfall might have caused the breeding season to differ from the normal.

All Saccostomus campestris parameters studied showed their highest mean values during spring, the season in which most animals present were adults. In males, and sexes combined, lowest mean total length, head and body length, and tail length were observed during summer, while lowest mean mass was observed during winter. Female mean total length and head and body length were lowest in autumn, while mean tail length and body mass were lowest in winter. Female mean body mass, total length, head and body length, and tail length exceeded comparable values for males during summer. Female mean total length, and tail length exceeded those of males also during winter but not significantly. In all four parameters the male means exceeded those of females significantly during autumn.

Male mean mass for all seasons combined exceeded that of females significantly, suggesting males to be heavier than females.

The relative frequency of Lemniscomys griselda of different body mass during the four seasons indicates that smaller animals (< 30 g) occurred in low numbers during all seasons of the year. During spring and summer, there was a relatively much lower number of animals of intermediate size (30 g to 45 g) than in autumn, and winter. During spring and summer, however, there was a higher number of larger animals (> 45 g).

The highest mean values for Lemniscomys griselda parameters studied were observed during spring or summer (most adults present), and the lowest during autumn or winter, except that the lowest female mean head and body length was recorded in spring. Although the female means of all parameters studied usually exceeded those of males during summer and/or winter, differences were never significant. On the other hand spring male means always exceeded those of females highly significantly. The parameter means for all seasons combined, however, indicate that the two sexes on the study area did not differ from each other in size and mass.

The seasonal variation in the parameters studied is caused by the population structure differing from season to season, and therefore the size and mass of the animal.

Breeding data for all grids combined suggest a breeding season for females from September to February and that of males from September to May.

The sex structure of ^{the} Praomys (Mastomys) natalensis population proved to be a 0,573 ratio in favour of males with the highest male ratio occurring during spring (0,625) and the lowest ratio during autumn (0,491).

No significant P. (M.) natalensis female preponderance has been found as yet, in a live or kill trapping study (Dieterlen, 1967; De Wit, pers. comm; present study), and according to laboratory studies sex ratios appear to be equal at weaning, but the number of females exceeds that of males at birth (Oliff, 1953; Meester, 1960). While

sex ratios obtained from excavated burrows indicate females to exceed males significantly (Coetzee, 1965; 1967).

Home range size of P.(M.) natalensis males is shown in the present study to exceed that of females, with the result that males would come in contact with more traps which might also have caused sex ratios to differ from a 1:1 ratio in favour of males.

A male ratio of 0,575 was observed in the S. campestris population. The highest ratio was observed during autumn (0,597) and the lowest during winter (0,487). A male ratio of 0,476, was observed by de Wit (pers. comm.) for S. campestris. Male S. campestris home ranges do not exceed those of females according to the present method of expressing movement data, therefore home range size could not have caused male numbers to appear to exceed female numbers in the present study.

The L. griselda population indicates a 0,437 male ratio while the highest was observed in winter (0,484) and the lowest during autumn (0,370). De Wit (pers. comm.) reports a 0,500 male ratio. The female preponderance in the present study was observed in spite of the fact that male av. M (home range) exceeded that of females.

For Leggada minutoides a 0,500 male ratio and for S. pratensis a 0,857 ratio is illustrated, the latter representing a small sample. De Wit (pers. comm.) observed a 0,415 male ratio in L. minutoides, while Dieterlen (1967) found a male ratio of 0,685. Further studies are, however, needed for clear-cut conclusions concerning sex ratios of the animals captured in the present study.

7. Summary

Trapping of rodents was carried out in four grids situated in two main plant communities near Pongola, northern Zululand. Grids P46 and P50 are situated in an Acacia tortilis community and the other two grids, P88 and P89, in an Acacia nigrescens community. Grid P88 (16 times) was trapped from April 1967 and grid P50 (18 times) from August 1967, both through May 1969. Grids P46 (19 times) and P89 (16 times) were trapped from May 1967 through May 1969. Each grid (3,42 ha) was trapped for four successive nights during each trapping period for most of the trapping periods, with all 225 traps operating concurrently.

Grid P88 yielded 62 different animals comprising the following species: Praomys (Mastomys) natalensis (35), Lemniscomys griselda (5), Saccostomus campestris (14), Leggada minutoides (3), Steatomys pratensis (2), and Aethomys chrysophilus (3). Grid P89 yielded 91 different animals comprising the following species: P. (M.) natalensis (40), Lemniscomys griselda (14), Saccostomus campestris (15), Leggada minutoides (14), Steatomys pratensis (7), and A. chrysophilus (1). Grid P50 yielded 152 different animals comprising the following species: P. (M.) natalensis (52), Lemniscomys griselda (36), Saccostomus campestris (55), Leggada minutoides (7), Steatomys pratensis (1), and Otomys angoniensis (1). Grid P46 yielded 414 different animals comprising the following species: P. (M.) natalensis (254), Lemniscomys griselda (54), Saccostomus campestris (93), Leggada minutoides (8), A. chrysophilus (3), and Tatera brantsi (2).

The hypothesis that P. (M.) natalensis gives way during times of food scarcity (such as autumn and winter) is sustained by the present data.

Lemniscomys griselda carcasses (10, 20, and 60 days after spraying) and Saccostomus campestris (16 days after spraying) showed very low dieldrin residues ($\leq 1,0$ ppm). One shrew, Crocidura hirta, collected 60 days after spraying, showed

4,660 ppm dieldrin and 0,206 ppm photodieldrin.

The study was conducted during times of below average rainfall and consequently poor habitat. This resulted in low rodent numbers just prior to and especially after the time of spraying on both the control and sprayed grids, which made it difficult to reach meaningful conclusions concerning the influence of dieldrin spraying on the rodent populations and their reproduction. It is, however, concluded that dieldrin coverspraying at the dosage applied had no visible influence on rodent population densities and their reproduction.

Home ranges of P.(M.) natalensis males exceeded those of females significantly. Males progressively occupied new areas while females tended to occupy more fixed areas. Saccostomus campestris male and female home ranges did not differ significantly from one another. The size of male Lemniscomys griselda home range exceeded that of females significantly and both males and females tended to stay in more or less fixed areas. Leggada minutoides showed a significantly larger home range than did any of the other species. P.(M.) natalensis home range size exceeded that of S. campestris (males, and both sexes combined) and Lemniscomys griselda (sexes both separated and combined) significantly while home ranges of S. campestris and L. griselda did not differ significantly.

During spring most P.(M.) natalensis individuals present were subadults and adults, while large adults were present in very low numbers. No juveniles were observed during this season. During summer most animals were adults. A few juveniles appeared in the population and a substantial decrease in subadults was observed. From summer to autumn there was a relative increase in number of juveniles and subadults with a decrease in number of adults and large adults, indicating high mortality among adults. Very few observations during winter made comparison difficult, but indicate extensive mortality

since the previous season. The P. (M.) natalensis summer population seemed to consist of two mass groups viz. one with body mass below 11 g, and the other with a mass of above 19 g. Two autumn groups were also apparent although very indistinct (with mass < 21 g, and > 24 g). When P. (M.) natalensis breeding data for the four grids are combined the observed breeding season for females was from September to February, and that for males from September to April.

All P. (M.) natalensis parameters studied (total length, tail length, head and body length, and body mass) exhibited their highest mean values during the summer (sexes both separated and combined). In males the lowest mean values were observed during the autumn and in females during the winter, except for female mean head and body length which was lowest during spring. In all parameters studied the female mean values exceeded those of males slightly during the autumn, but never significantly. Male mean values for all seasons combined exceeded those of females highly significantly, in all parameters.

The S. campestris spring sample consisted mostly of larger animals (> 50 g). During the summer the three mass classes were more or less equally represented, while during autumn and winter the intermediate class (35 g to 50 g) comprised the largest proportion of the sample. The relative number of smaller (< 35 g) and intermediate animals increased progressively from spring to winter, while the number of larger animals decreased towards winter.

When data for the four grids are combined the observed breeding season ^{of} for females was from October to February, and that of males from late August to June.

All S. campestris parameters studied showed their highest mean values during spring, the season in which most animals present were adults. In males and sexes combined lowest mean total length, head and body length, and tail length were observed during summer, while the lowest mean mass was observed during winter. Female mean total length and head and body length were lowest in autumn, while mean

tail length and body mass were lowest in winter. Female mean body mass, total length, head and body length, and tail length exceeded comparable values for males during summer. Female mean total length, and tail length exceeded those of males also during winter but not significantly. In all four parameters the male means exceeded those of females significantly during autumn.

The relative frequency of Lemniscomys griselda body mass indicates that smaller animals (<30 g) occurred in low numbers during all seasons of the year. There were relatively fewer animals of intermediate size (30 g to 45 g) during spring and summer than during autumn and winter. During spring and summer, however, there was a higher number of larger animals (>45 g). When data for the four grids are combined the observed breeding season for females was from September to February, while males exhibited a season extending from September to May.

The sex structure of the P. (M.) natalensis population proved to be a 0,573 ratio in favour of males with the highest male ratio during spring (0,625) and the lowest ratio during autumn (0,491). In S. campestris the overall ratio was 0,575 in favour of males. The highest male ratio was observed in autumn (0,597) and the lowest during winter (0,487). The L. griselda population illustrates a 0,437 male ratio while the highest male ratio was observed in winter (0,484) and the lowest during autumn (0,370). A male ratio of 0,500 for Leggada minutoides and 0,857 for Steatomys pratensis was found.

Notes on behaviour in general indicate P. (M.) natalensis utilizing natural holes in the ground or termite mounds. Burrowing was not observed in any of the species. They usually attempted to bite when handled unetherized, and did not seem to become tamer with repeated recaptures. When held by the nape and the base of the tail, a stream of air blown into the face caused them to respond with high pitched squeaks. Measuring the animals accurately when only half etherized proved to be impossible. Multiple

captures of P. (M.) natalensis were observed 12 times, usually during periods of high population densities.

Saccostomus campestris utilized holes in termite mounds as well as other natural holes for home sites. Feeding habits for this species included seeds of Acacia tortilis, A. nilotica, A. karroo, Balanites maughamii and fruit of Grewia monticola. These animals were normally slow to seek cover after release, and seemed to find difficulty in orientating themselves in relation to their home sites, judging from the amount of time spent and the detours travelled before reaching their holes. If handled even while partly etherized they would attempt to bite. One multiple capture was observed during a population high.

Lemniscomys griselda also used natural holes as home sites. These animals sought cover after release so fast that it was difficult to follow their movements. Members of this species could be measured fairly accurately without being fully etherized, as they did not kick or round their backs as P. (M.) natalensis did. No attempt to bite was made when cautiously handled, even when unetherized or only partly so.

Leggada minutoides attempted to bite the handler. Animals of this species were twice observed taking refuge in scorpion (Cheloctonus jonesi) holes after release. Several hundred scorpion holes dug up, however, gave no evidence of L. minutoides inhabiting them.

Samevatting

Knaagdiere is op vier persele in twee plantgemeenskappe naby Pongola in noord Zululand gevang. Persele P46 en P50 is in 'n Acacia tortilis gemeenskap geleë en die ander twee, P88 and P89, in 'n Acacia nigrescens gemeenskap. Op perseel P88 (16 keer) is vanaf April 1967 en op perseel P50 (18 keer) vanaf Augustus 1967, albei tot Mei 1969 knaagdiere gevang. Op persele P46 (19 keer) en P89 (16 keer) is vanaf Mei 1967 tot Mei 1969 knaagdiere gevang. Op elke perseel (3,42 hektaar) is vir vier agtereenvolgende nagte gedurende elke vangperiode, met 225 valle gevang.

Op perseel P88 is 62 verskillende knaagdiere gevang bestaande uit: Praomys (Mastomys) natalensis (35), Lemniscomys griselda (5), Saccostomus campestris (14), Leggada minutoides (3), Steatomys pratensis (2) en Aethomys chrysophilus (3). Op perseel P89 is 91 verskillende diere gevang bestaande uit die volgende: P. (Mastomys) natalensis (40), Lemniscomys griselda (14), Saccostomus campestris (15), Leggada minutoides (14), Steatomys pratensis (7) en A. chrysophilus (1). Op perseel P50 is 152 verskillende diere gevang: P. (M.) natalensis (52), Lemniscomys griselda (36), Saccostomus campestris (55), Leggada minutoides (7), Steatomys pratensis (1) en Otomys angoniensis (1). Op perseel P46 is 414 verskillende diere gevang bestaande uit die volgende: P. (M.) natalensis (254), Lemniscomys griselda (54), Saccostomus campestris (93), Leggada minutoides (8), A. chrysophilus (3) en Tatera brantsi (2).

Die hipotese dat P. (M.) natalensis gedurende 'n periode van voedselskaarste deur ander spesies uitgedruk word, word deur die huidige studie ondersteun.

Lemniscomys griselda karkasse (10, 20 and 60 dae na bespuiting) en Saccostomus campestris (16 dae na bespuiting) het lae dieldrin raste getoon ($< 1,0$ dpm). 'n Skeerbekkie, Crocidura hirta, wat 60 dae na bespuiting versamel is het 4,660 dpm dieldrin en 0,206 dpm fotodiieldrin getoon.

Die studie is uitgevoer gedurende 'n periode van lae reënval en gevolglik 'n swak habitat. Dit het veroorsaak dat die aantal knaagdiere net voor en veral na bespuiting, beide

op kontrole en bespuite persele baie laag was. Dit bemoeilik 'n betekenisvolle gevolgtrekking aangaande die invloed van dieldrin bespuiting op knaagdierpopulasies. Die gevolgtrekking kan egter gemaak word dat dielarin dekbespuiting teen die konsentrasie wat gebruik is, geen sigbare invloed gehad het op knaagdierpopulasies en hul voortplanting nie.

Die loopgebiede van P. (M.) natalensis mannetjies was betekenisvol groter as die van die wyfies. Die mannetjies het ook geneig om voortdurend nuwe gebiede te betrek terwyl die wyfies geneig het om permanente areas te bewoon. Die loopgebiede van Saccostomus campestris mannetjies en wyfies het nie betekenisvol van mekaar verskil nie. Die grootte van die loopgebied van Lemniscomys griselda mannetjies was betekenisvol groter as die van wyfies terwyl beide geslagte geneig het om in 'n min of meer vaste gebiede te bly. Loggada minutoides het 'n betekenisvolle groter loopgebied as enige van die ander spesies behalwe P. (M.) natalensis. Die loopgebied van P. (M.) natalensis was betekenisvol groter as die van Saccostomus campestris (mannetjies en geslagte saam) en die van Lemniscomys griselda (geslagte saam en apart), terwyl die loopgebiede van S. campestris en L. griselda nie betekenisvol verskil het nie.

Gedurende lente was die meeste P. (M.) natalensis individue teenwoordig, half-volwassenes en volwassenes, terwyl groter volwassenes in baie lae getalle teenwoordig was. Geen onvolwassenes is waargeneem in hierdie seisoen nie. Gedurende somer was meeste diere volwassenes. Daar was 'n paar onvolwassenes in die populasie en 'n toename in halfvolwassenes. Daar was 'n relatiewe toename in die getal onvolwassenes en half-volwassenes vanaf somer tot herfs, met 'n vermindering in die aantal volwassenes en groot volwassenes, wat 'n hoë mortaliteit onder volwassenes aandui. Die min waarnemings gedurende winter maak 'n vergelyking moeilik, maar dit dui op aansienlike mortaliteit sedert die vorige seisoen. Dit blyk dat die P. (M.) natalensis somer populasie uit twee massa groepe bestaan het nl., een met 'n massa van minder as 11 g en die ander met 'n massa van meer as 19 g. Twee herfs groepe is ook waargeneem alhoewel minder opvallend (massa < 21 g, en > 24 g). Wanneer die voort-

plantingsgegevens vir die vier persele van P. (M.) natalensis gekombineer word, het die voortplantingseisoen van wyfies vanaf September tot Februarie en die van mannetjies van September tot April gestrek.

Alle P. (M.) natalensis parameters wat bestudeer is (totale lengte, stertlengte, kop- en liggaamslengte en liggaamsmassa) het die hoogste gemiddelde waardes gedurende somer getoon (geslagte saam en apart). Vir mannetjies is die laagste gemiddeldes gedurende herfs waargeneem en vir wyfies gedurende winter, behalwe die gemiddelde kop- en liggaamslengte van wyfies wat laagste was in die lente. In alle parameters wat bestudeer is, het die gemiddelde waardes van wyfies die van mannetjies effens oorskry gedurende herfs, maar nooit betekenisvol nie. Gemiddelde waardes van mannetjies vir alle seisoene saam het die van die wyfies in alle parameters hoogs betekenisvol oorskry.

Die lente steekproef van S. campestris het meestal uit groter diere bestaan (> 50 g). Gedurende die somer was die drie massa klasse min of meer eweredig verteenwoordig, terwyl die middelklas (35 g tot 50 g) die grootste gedeelte van die diere uitgemaak het gedurende herfs en winter. Die relatiewe aantal kleiner (≤ 35 g) en middelklas diere het progressief vermeerder vanaf lente tot winter, terwyl die aantal groter diere verminder het gedurende die tyd. Wanneer die gegewens van die vier persele gekombineer word, blyk die voortplantingseisoen van wyfies van Oktober tot Februarie te wees, terwyl die van mannetjies dui op 'n seisoen wat gestrek het van laat Augustus tot Junie.

Al die S. campestris parameters wat bestudeer is, het hulle hoogste gemiddelde gedurende die lente getoon, die seisoen waarin die meeste volwasse diere opgemerk is. Die laagste gemiddelde totale lengte, kop- en liggaamslengte en stertlengte van die mannetjies en geslagte saam is gedurende die somer waargeneem, terwyl die laagste gemiddelde massa gedurende die winter waargeneem is. Die laagste gemiddelde totale lengte en kop- en liggaamslengte van wyfies is waargeneem in die herfs, terwyl die gemiddeld van die

stertlengte en liggaamsmassa die hoogste in die winter was. Die gemiddelde liggamsmassa, totale lengte, kop- en liggaamslengte en stertlengte van die wyfies het ooreenstemmende waardes van mannetjies oorskry gedurende somer. Die gemiddelde totale lengte en stertlengte van wyfies het ook die van mannetjies oorskry gedurende die winter maar nie betekenisvol nie. In al vier die parameters het die gemiddeld van mannetjies die van die wyfies betekenisvol oorskry gedurende die herfs.

Die relatiewe frekwensie van die liggaamsmassa van Lemniscomys griselda dui aan dat kleiner diere (< 30 g) in klein getalle voorgekom het dwarsdeur die jaar. Daar was relatief minder diere van die middelklas (30 g tot 45 g) gedurende lente en somer as gedurende herfs en winter. Gedurende lente en somer egter was daar 'n groter getal groter diere (> 45 g). Wanneer voortplantingsgegewens vir die vier persele gekombineer word, blyk die voortplantingseisoen van die wyfies van September tot Februarie te wees en die van die mannetjies van September tot Mei.

Die geslagstruktuur van die P. (M.) natalensis populasie het uit 'n verhouding van 0,573 mannetjies bestaan. Gedurende lente was dit die hoogste (0,625) en gedurende die herfs (0,491) die laagste. Die mannetjie-wyfie verhouding van S. campestris was 0,575 ten gunste van die mannetjies, terwyl die hoogste mannetjie verhouding in die herfs (0,597) en die laagste gedurende winter (0,487) gevind is. Die L. griselda populasie het 'n verhouding van 0,437 mannetjies getoon, met die hoogste gedurende winter (0,484) en die laagste gedurende herfs (0,370). Leggada minutoides het 'n mannetjie verhouding van 0,500 getoon en Steatomys pratensis 'n 0,857 verhouding.

Gegewens aangaande die algemene gedrag van P. (M.) natalensis dui daarop dat hulle natuurlike gate in die grond asook termiethope as blyplek gebruik. Daar is nooit waargeneem dat hulle self grawe nie. Hulle het gewoonlik probeer byt gedurende hantering indien hulle nie aan die slaap gemaak is met eter nie. P. (M.) natalensis het nie makker geword met herhaaldelike hervangste nie. Wanneer 'n individu van die spesies in die hand gehou is en 'n stroom lug in sy

gesig geblaas is, is daar met 'n hoë frekwensie piep geluid, gereageer. Om die diere akkuraat te meet wanneer hulle slegs half aan die slaap was het geblyk onmoontlik te wees. Veelvuldige vangste (die vang van meer as een dier tergelykertyd in 'n val) van P. (M.) natalensis is 12 keer gevind, gewoonlik gedurende periodes van hoë populasië digtheid.

Saccostomus campestris het ook natuurlike gate in die grond, asook termiethope vir neste gebruik. Voedselsoorte het sade van die volgende plante ingesluit: Acacia karroc, A. tortilis, A. nilotica en Balanites maughamii, terwyl die vrug van Grewia monticola ook gevreet is. Die diere was gewoonlik stadig om hulle neste op te soek na vrylating. Wanneer hulle gehanteer is sonder dat hulle aan die slaap gemaak is, het hulle probeer byt. Een veelvuldige vangs gedurende 'n populasië piek is opgemerk.

Lemniscomys griselda het ook natuurlike gate in die grond as neste gebruik. Die diere het geweldig vinnig skuiling gesoek nadat hulle vrygelaat is. Individue van die spesies is redelik maklik gemeet wanneer hulle slegs half aan die slaap was. Geen poging om te byt is waargeneem wanneer hulle versigtig^g hanteer is nie.

Leggada minutoides het probeer byt gedurende hantering. Daar is twee keer opgemerk dat hulle skuiling soek in skerpioengate (Cheloctonus jonesi) nadat hulle vrygelaat is. Die opgrawe van 'n paar honderd skerpioengate het egter geen bewys gelewer dat hulle dit wel bewoon nie.

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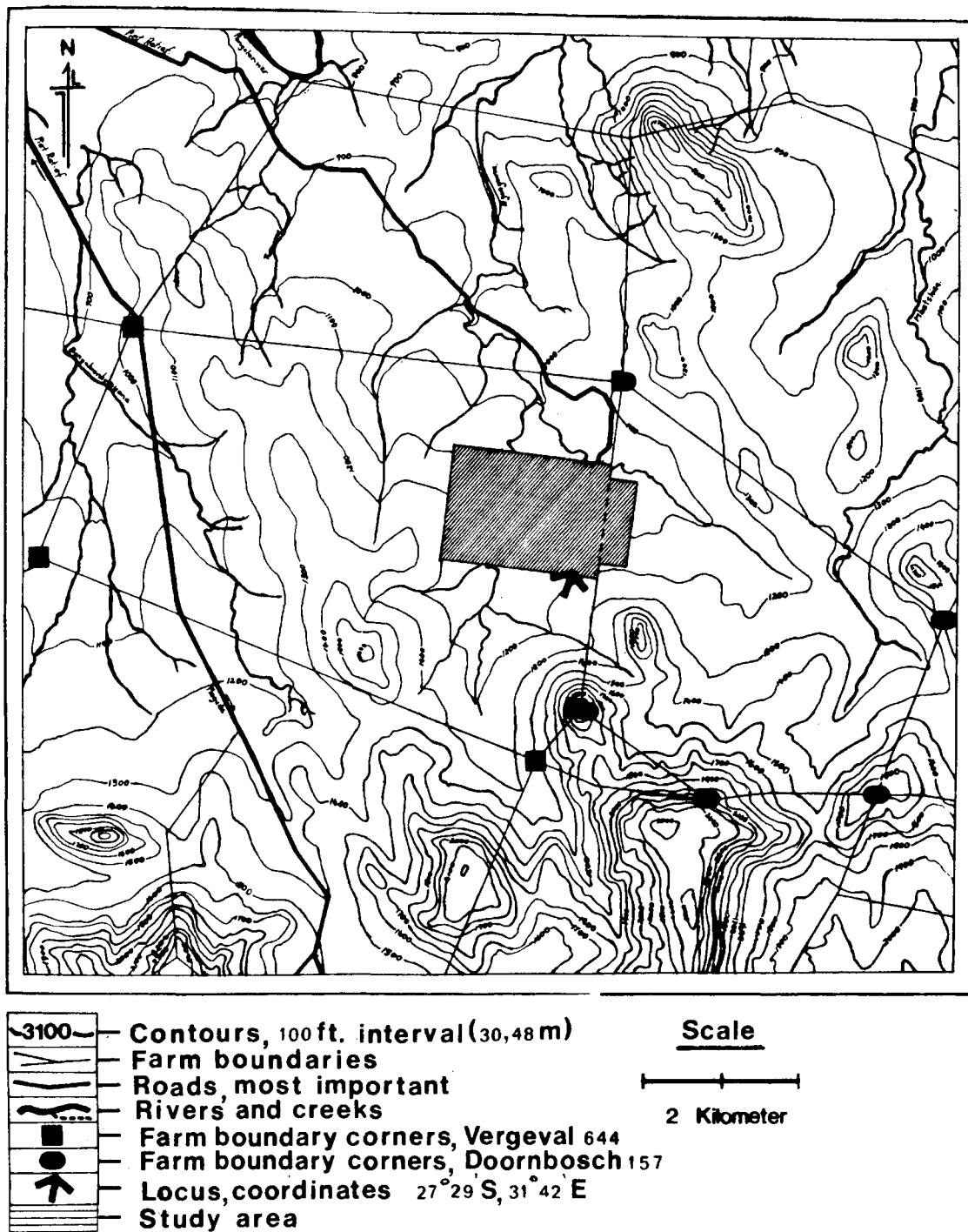


Fig. 1: General topography of the study area and surroundings.

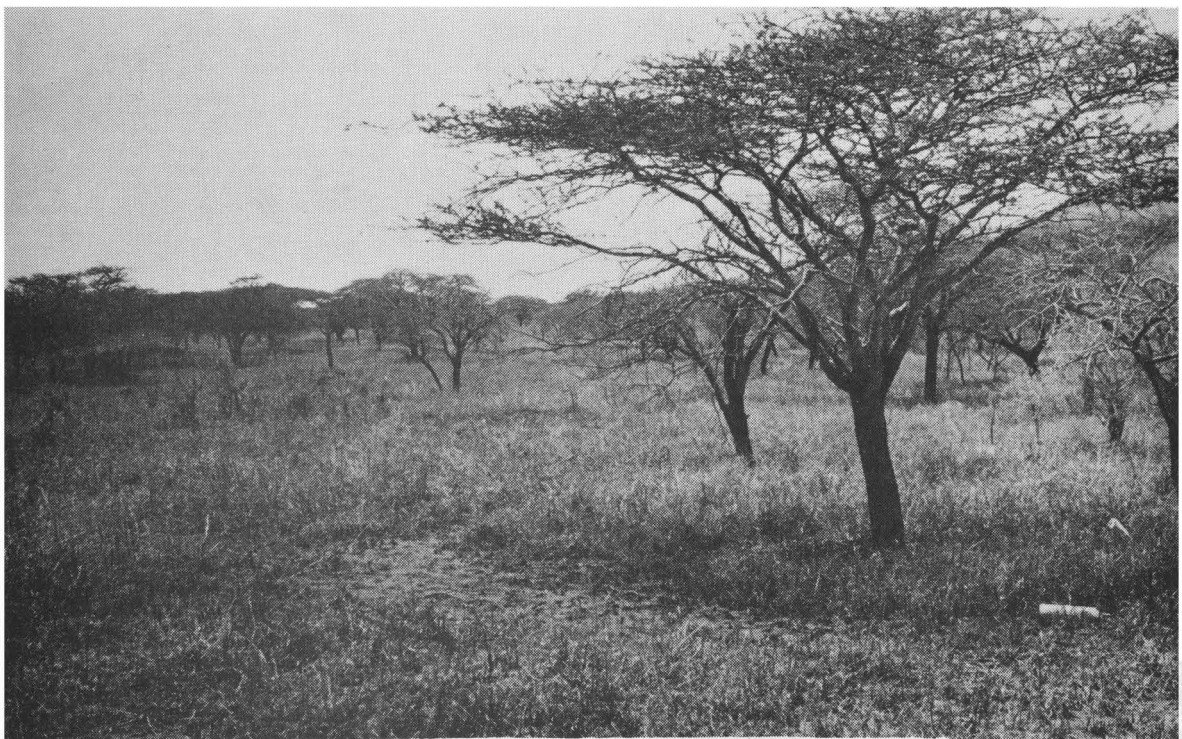


Fig. 5: The general topography and habitat of grid P50. The photos were taken in November 1968.



Fig. 6a: The general topography and habitat of grids P88 and P89. The photos were taken in November 1968.

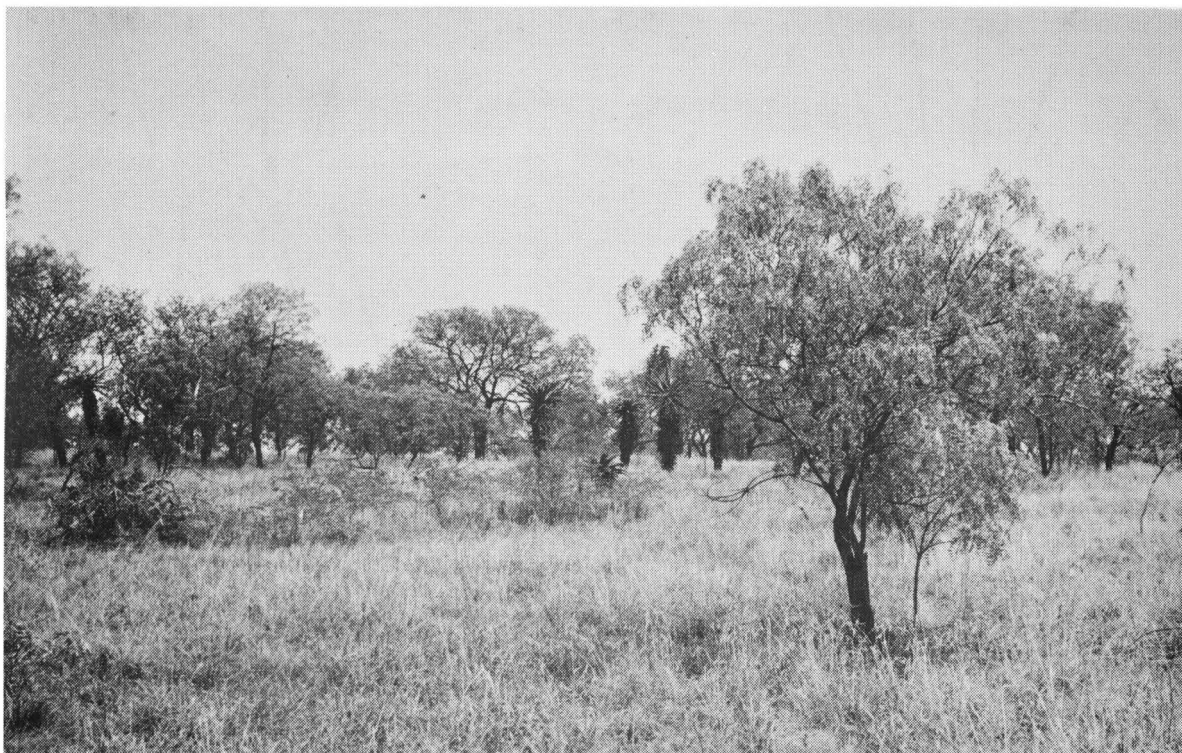


Fig. 6b: The general topography and habitat of grids P88 and P89. The photos were taken in November 1968.

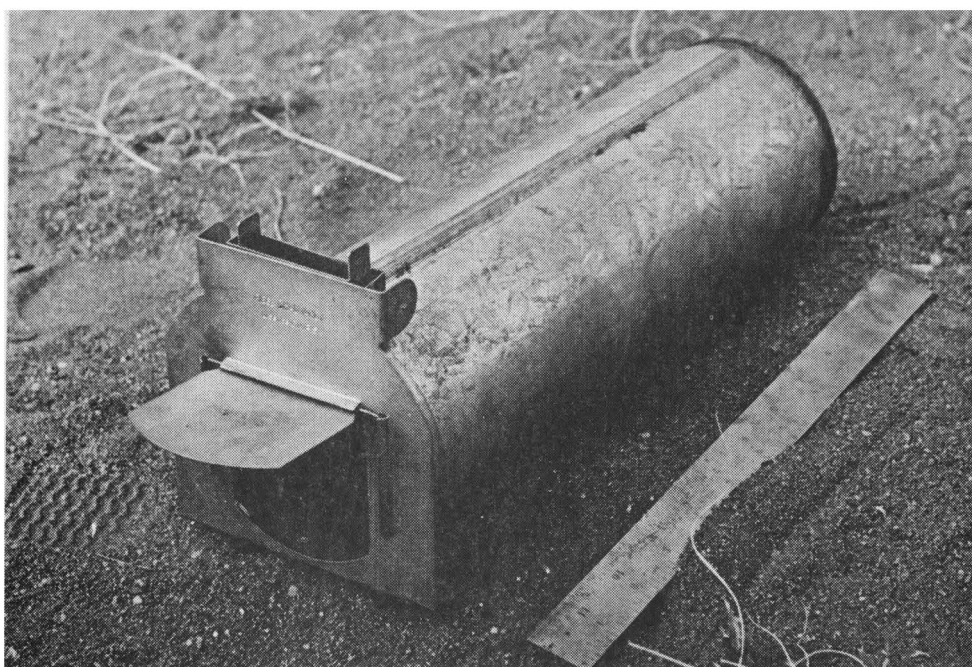


Fig. 7: A Chauvancy live trap, as used in the present study.

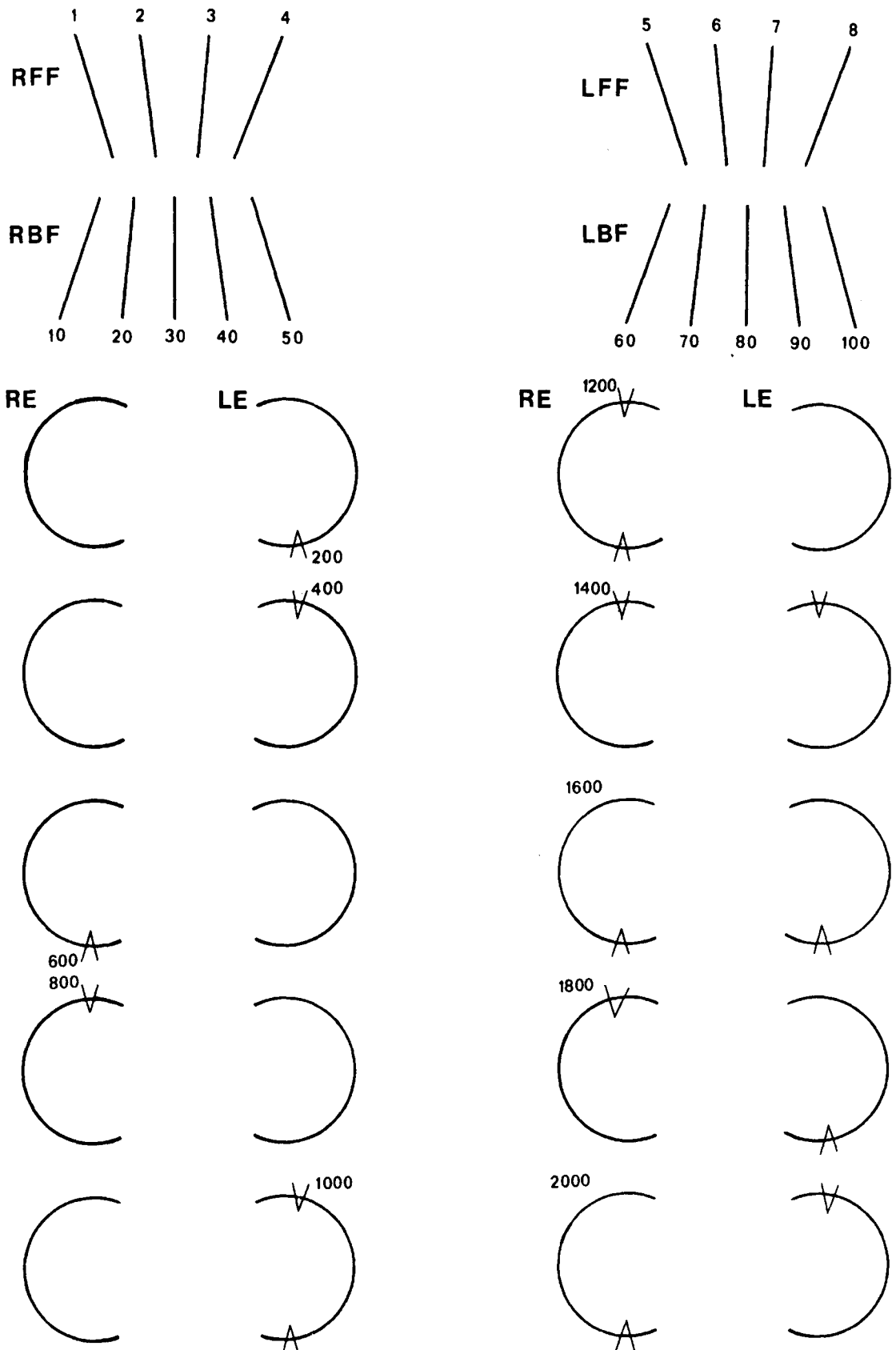


Fig. 8: Toe and ear-clipping combinations used for identifying individual animals (RFF =right front foot; RBF = right back foot; LFF = left front foot; LBF = left back foot; RE = right ear; LE = left ear).

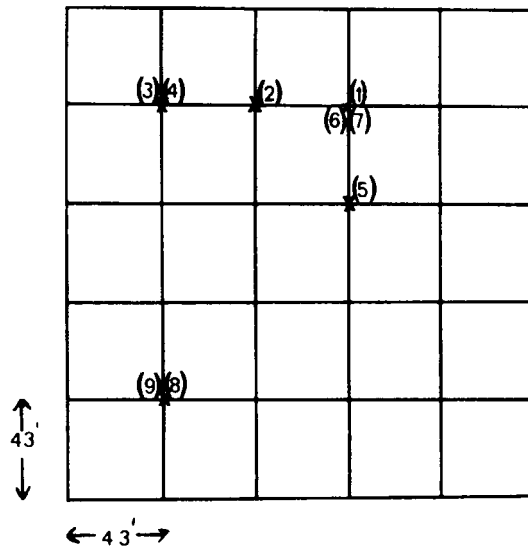


Fig. 9 Example of the method used for calculating the maximum distance between captures (M) after the 2nd, 3rd, 9th capture. Numbers 1 to 9 indicate position of capture at the different times of capture (43 ft = 13,1 m).

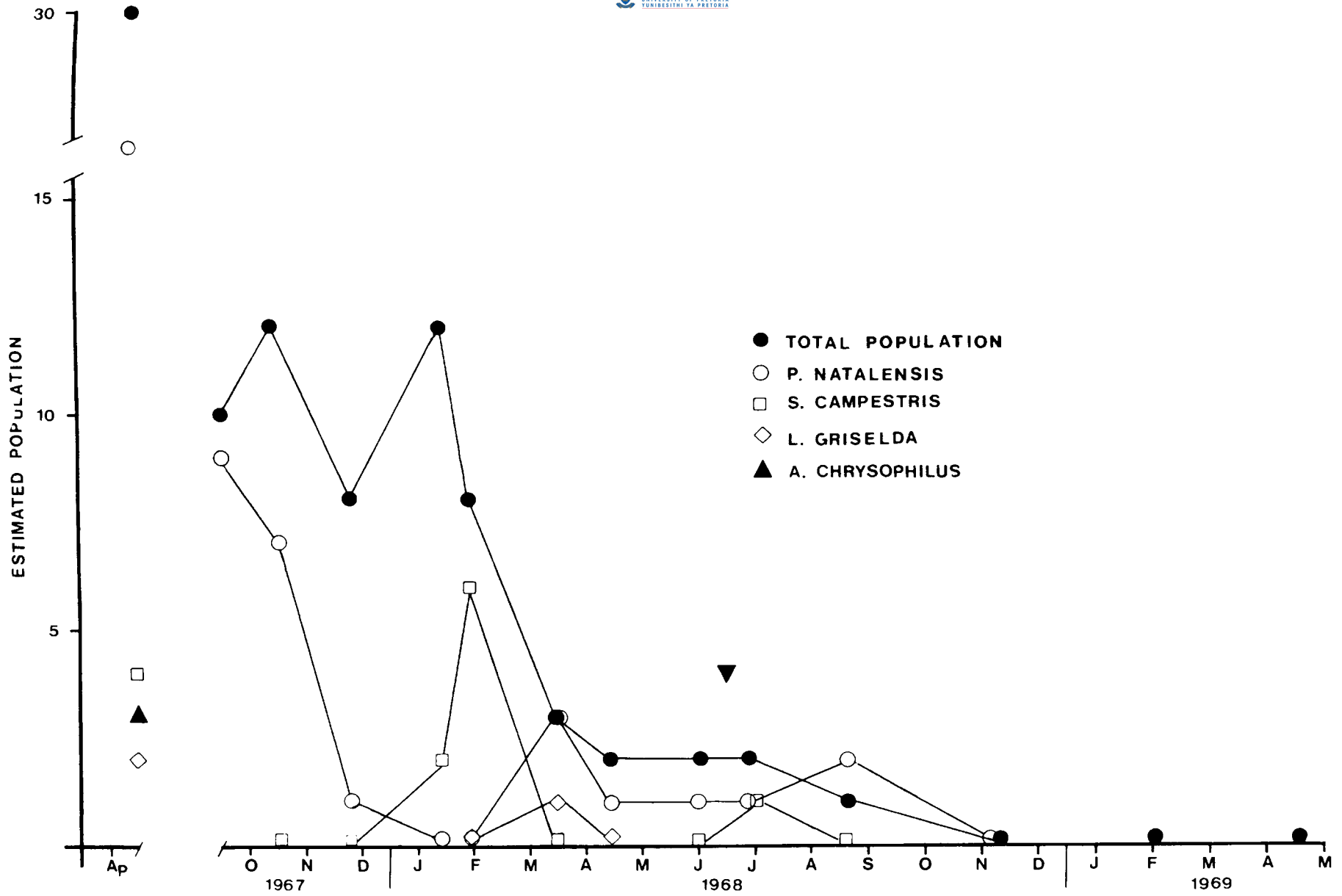


Fig. 10: The estimated total, *Praomys (Mastomys) natalensis*, *Saccostomus campestris*, *Lemniscomys griselda*, and *Aethomys chrysophilus* populations on grid P88. Time of spraying is indicated by an inverted triangle (2-7-68).

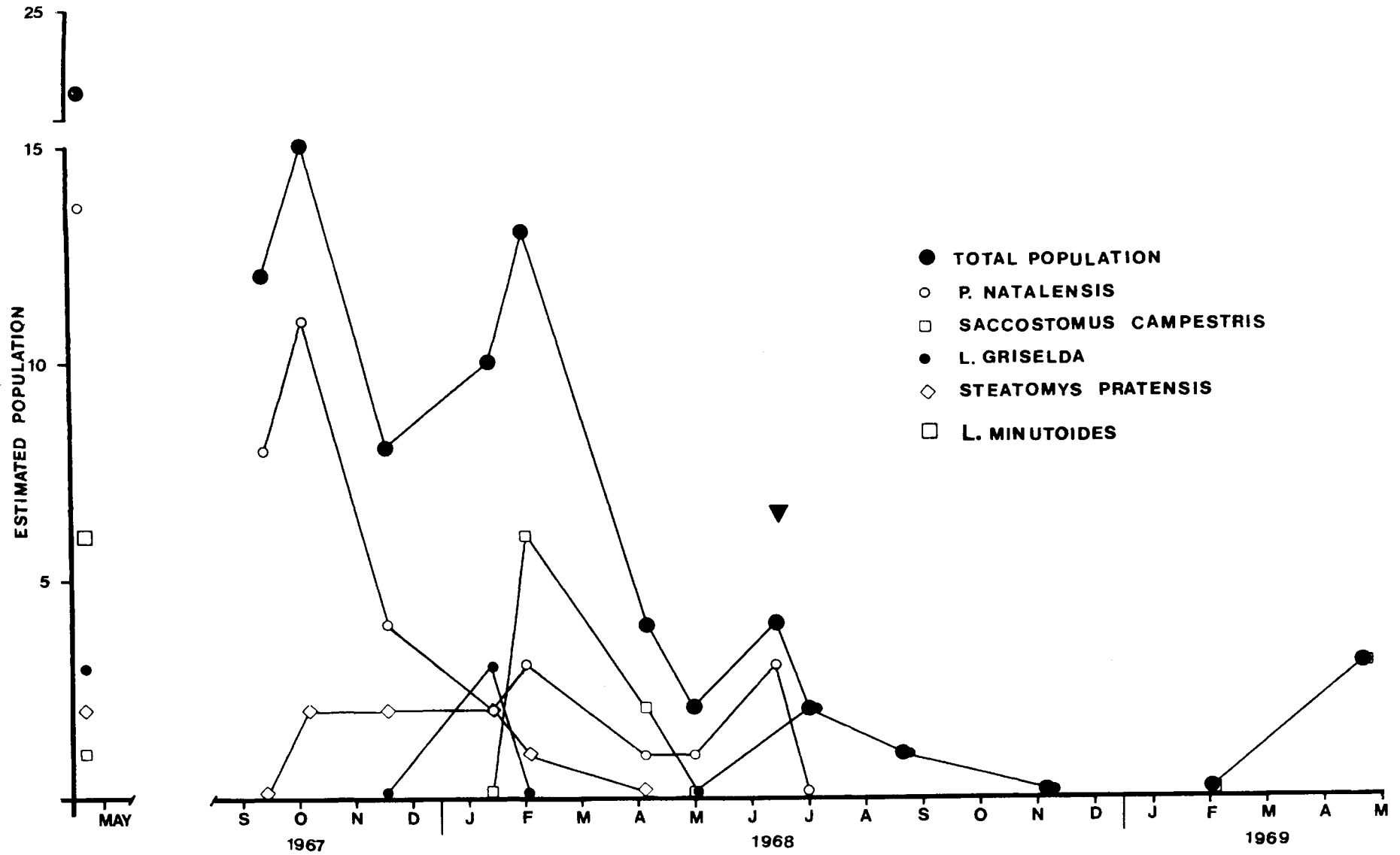


Fig. 11: The estimated total, *Praomys (Mastomys) natalensis*, *Saccostomus campestris*, *Leiomys griselda*, *Steatomys pratensis*, and *Leggada minutoides* populations on grid P89. The time of spraying on grids P50 and P88 is indicated by an inverted triangle.

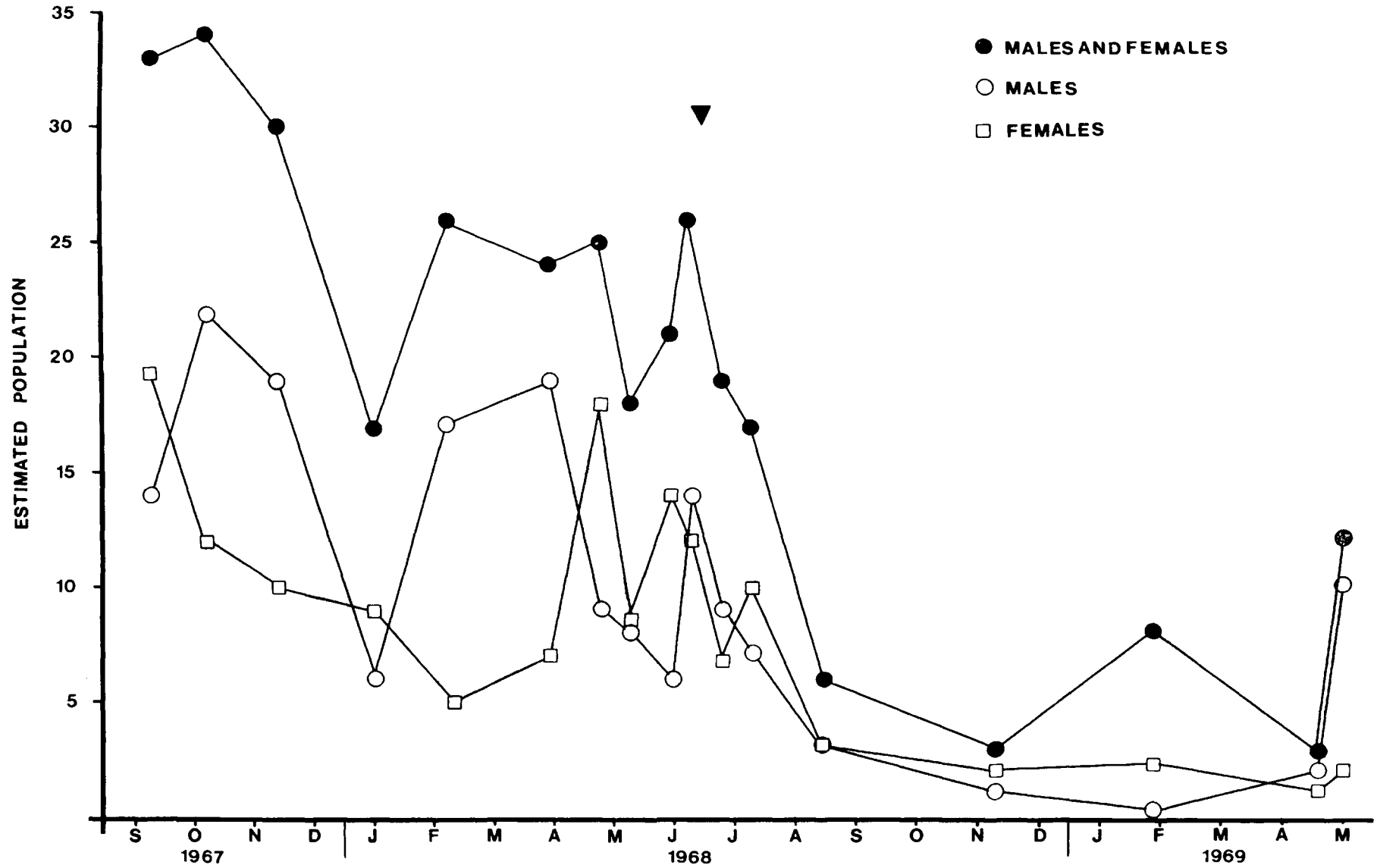


Fig. 12: The estimated total rodent population (with sexes both separate and combined) on grid P50. Time of spraying indicated by an inverted triangle.

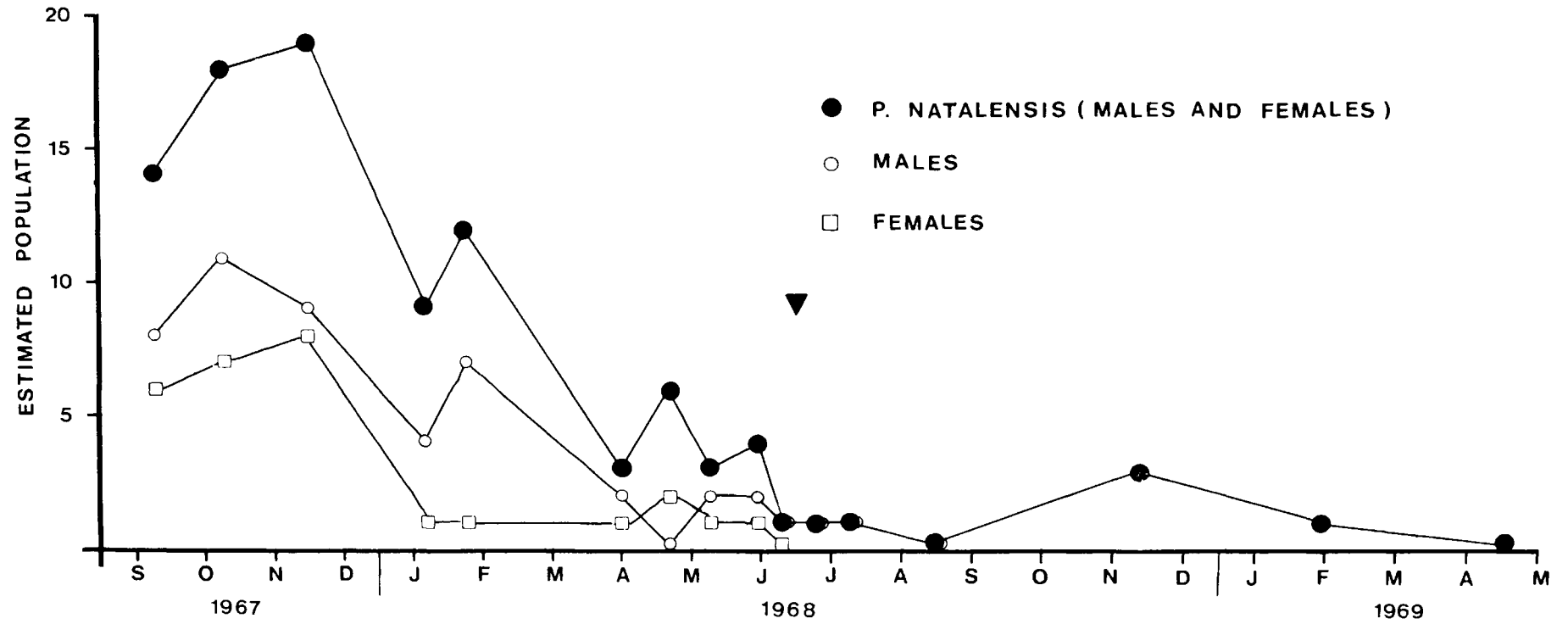


Fig. 13: The estimated population of *Praomys (Mastomys) natalensis* on grid P50. Time of spraying indicated by an inverted triangle.

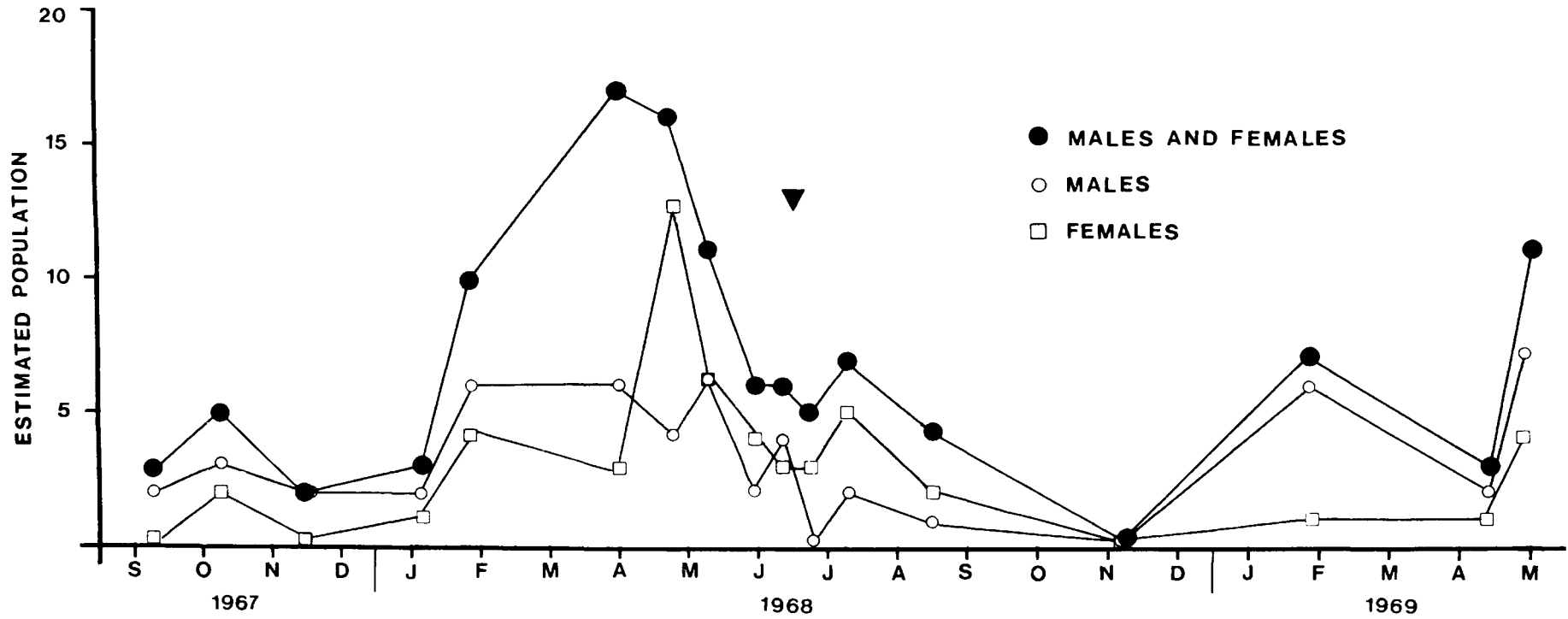


Fig. 14: The estimated population of *Saccostomus campestris* on grid P50 (with sexes both separate and combined). Time of spraying indicated by an inverted triangle.

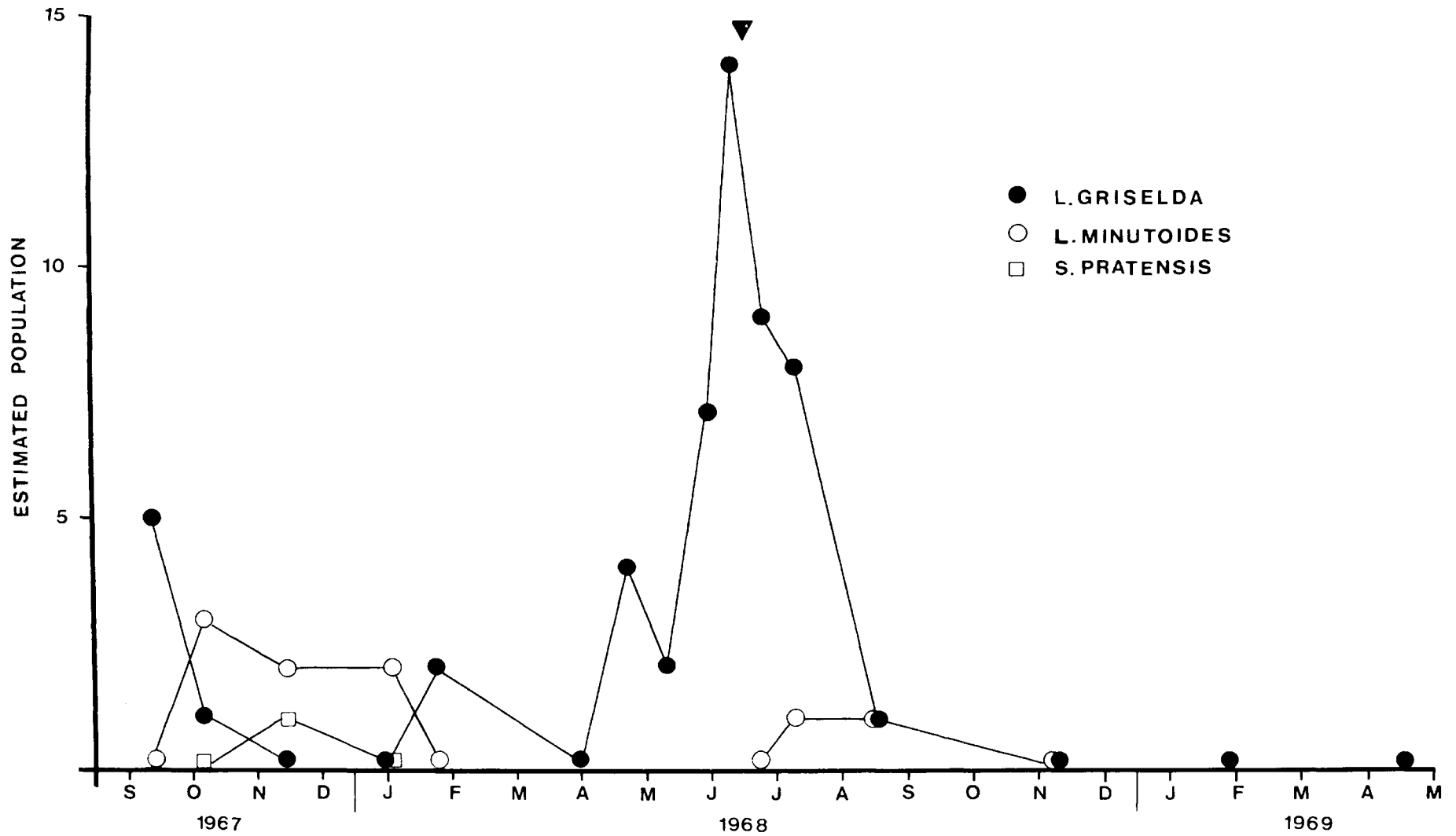


Fig. 15: The estimated population of Lemniscomys griselda, Leggada minutoides, and Steatomys pratensis on grid P50. Time of spraying indicated by an inverted triangle.

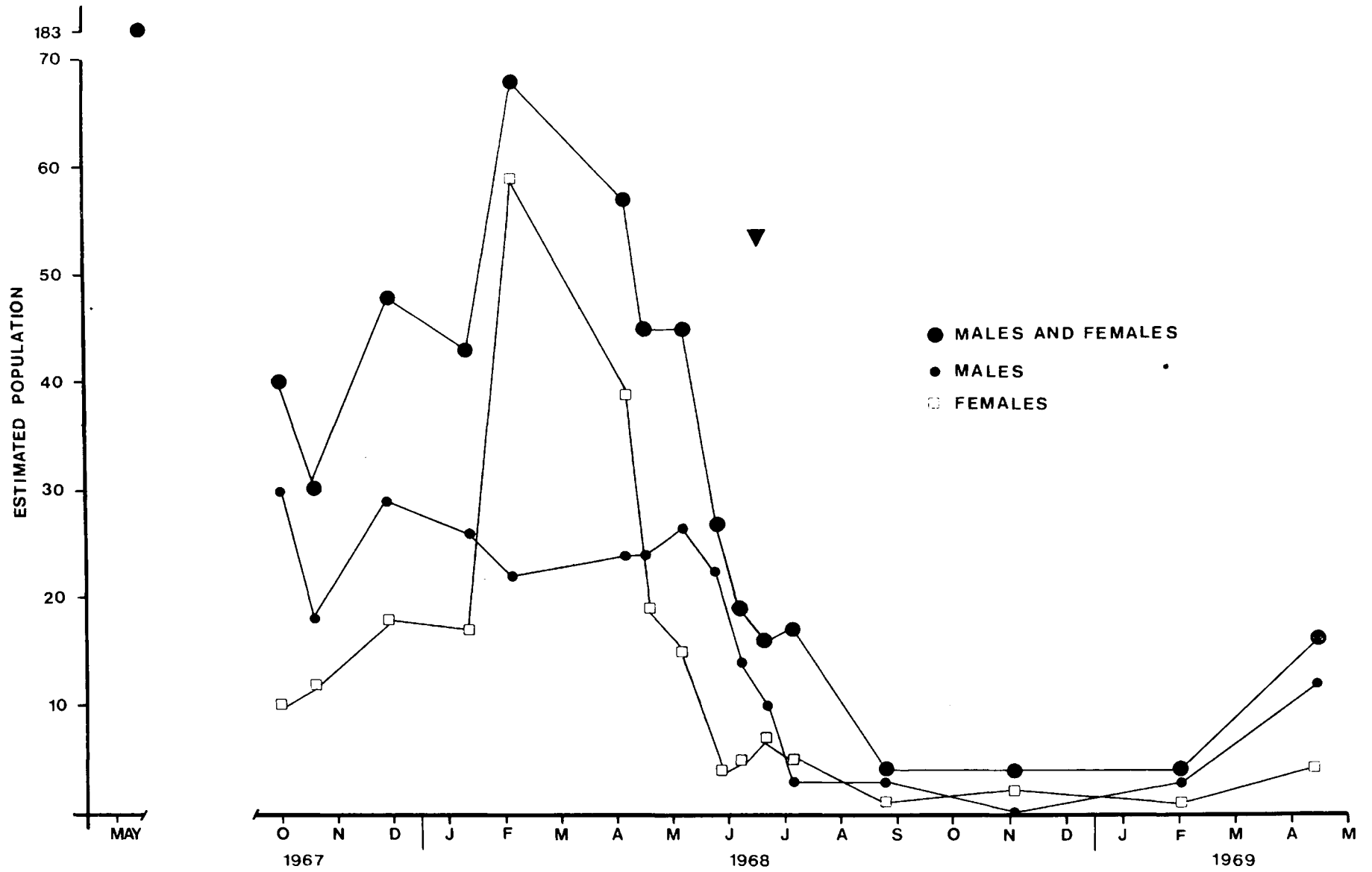


Fig. 16: The estimated total population on grid P46 (with sexes both separate and combined). Time of spraying on grids P50 and P88 is indicated by an inverted triangle.

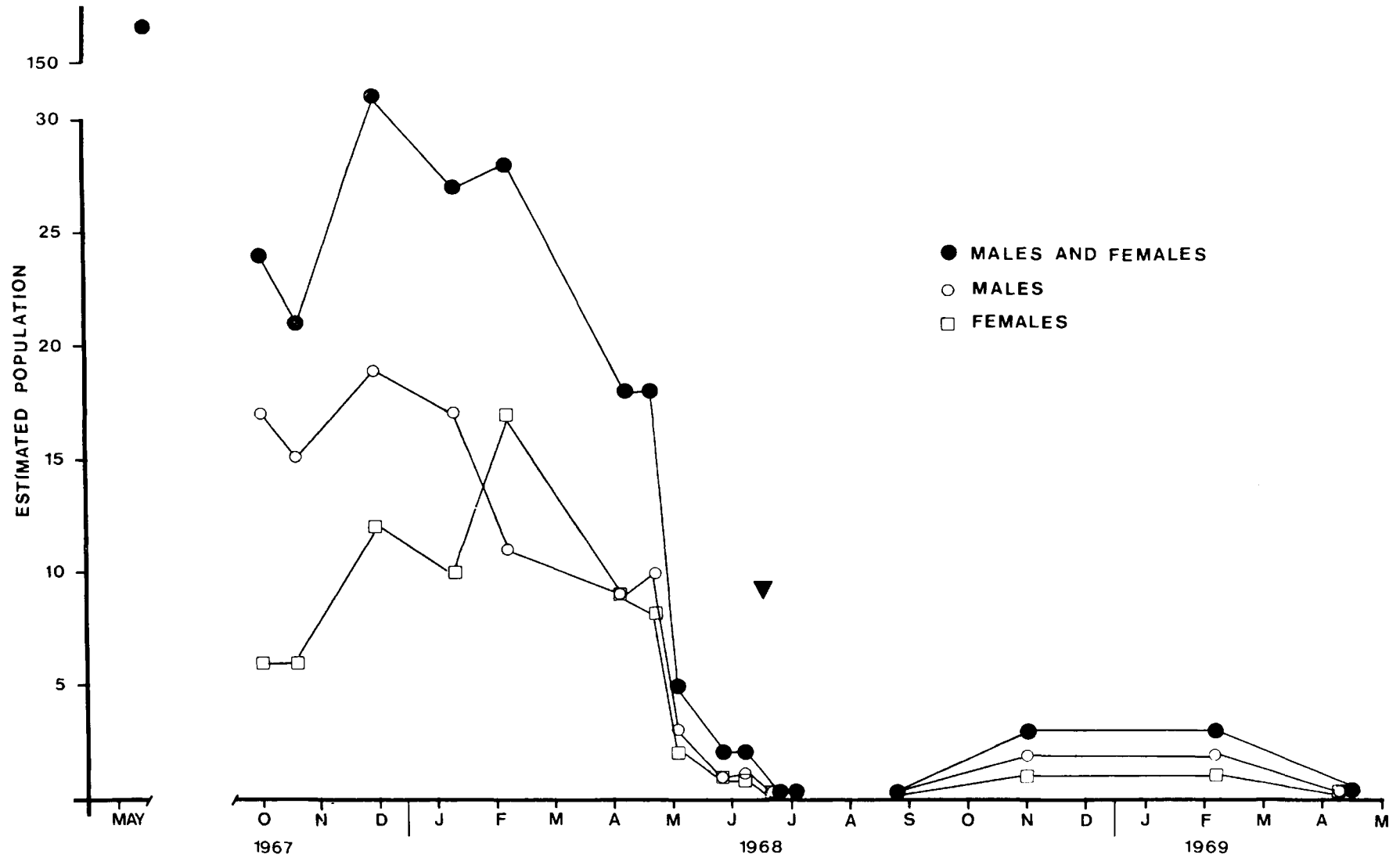


Fig. 17: The estimated *Praomys (Mastomys) natalensis* population on grid P46 (with sexes both separate and combined). Time of spraying on grids P50 and P88 is indicated by an inverted triangle.

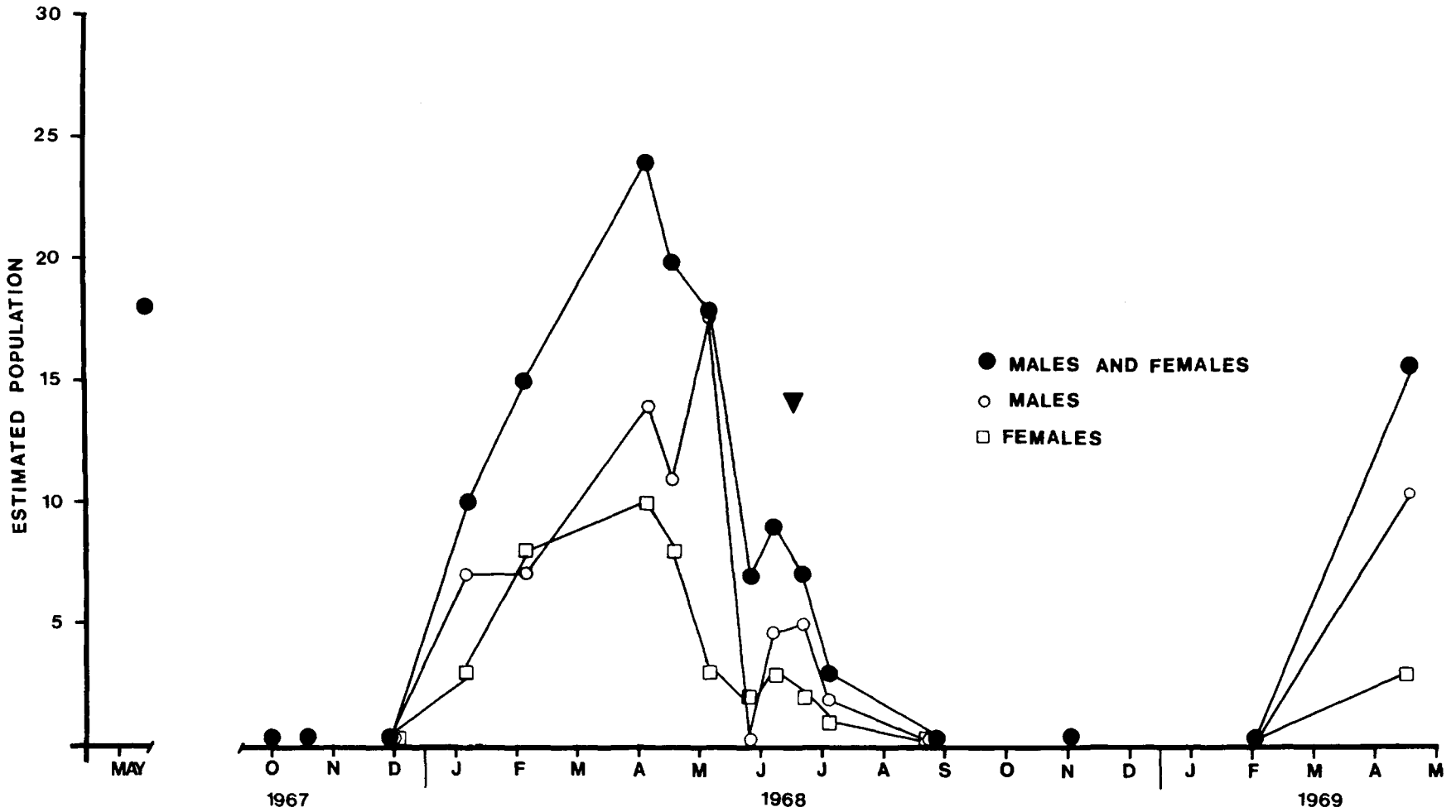


Fig. 18: The estimated *Saccostomus campestris* population on grid P46 (with sexes both separate and combined). Time of spraying on grids P50 and P88 is indicated by inverted triangle.

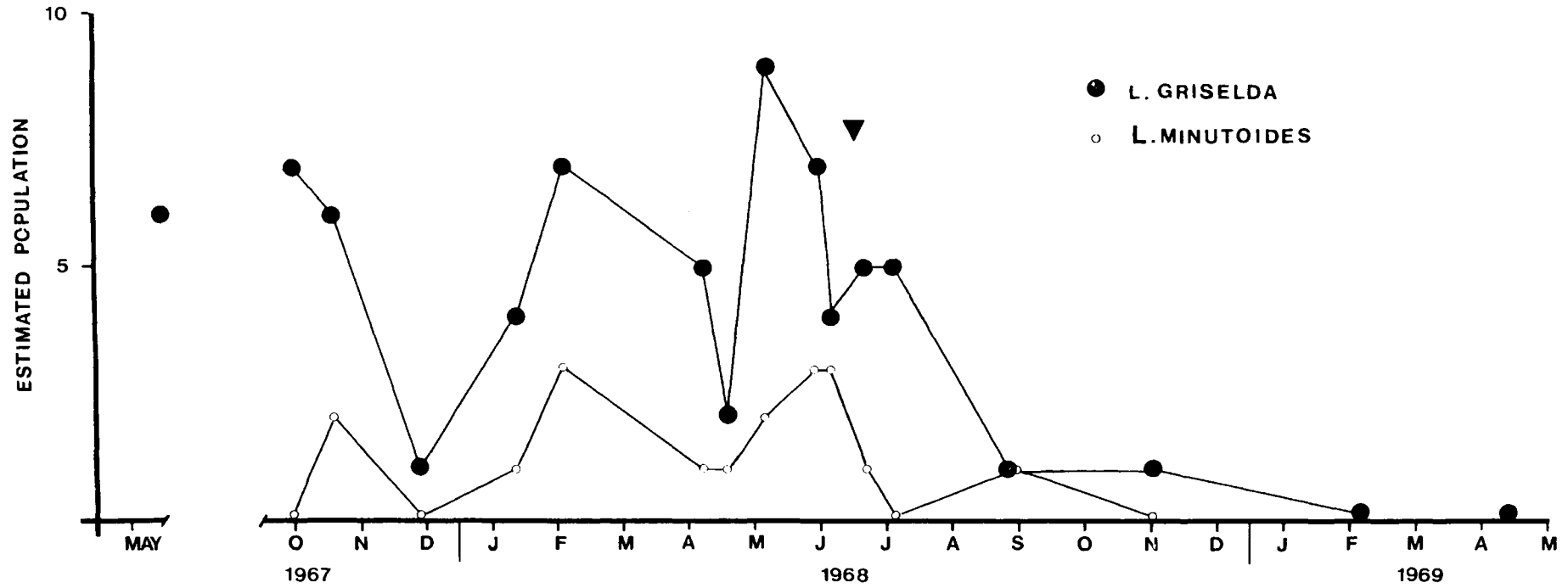


Fig. 19: The estimated population of Lemniscomys griselda and Leggada minutoides on grid P46. Time of spraying on grids P50 and P88 is indicated by an inverted triangle.

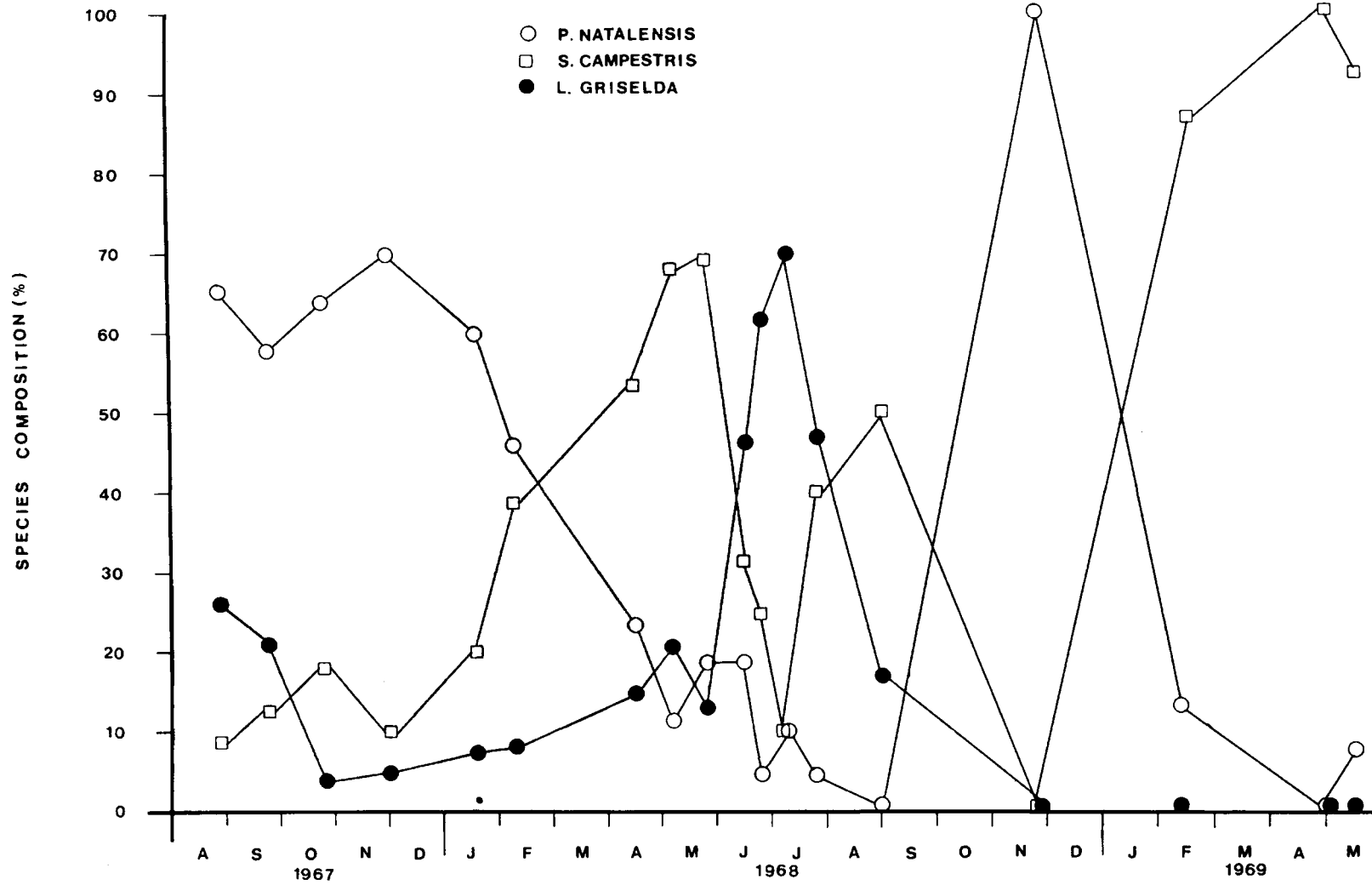


Fig. 20: Species composition (percentage) on grid P50 for each trapping period from August 1967 to May 1969.

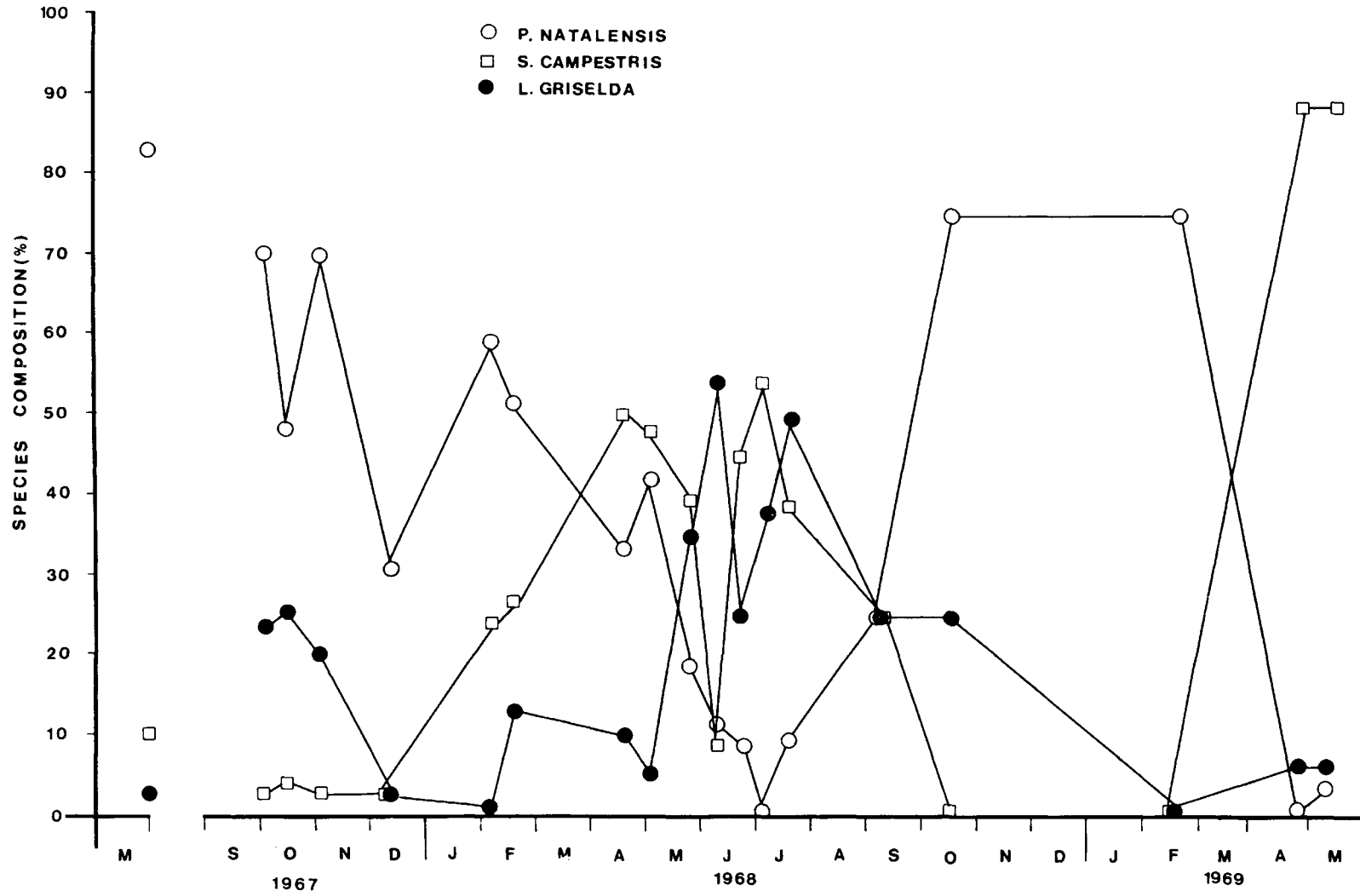


Fig. 21: Species composition (percentage) on grid P46 for each trapping period from May 1967 to May 1969.

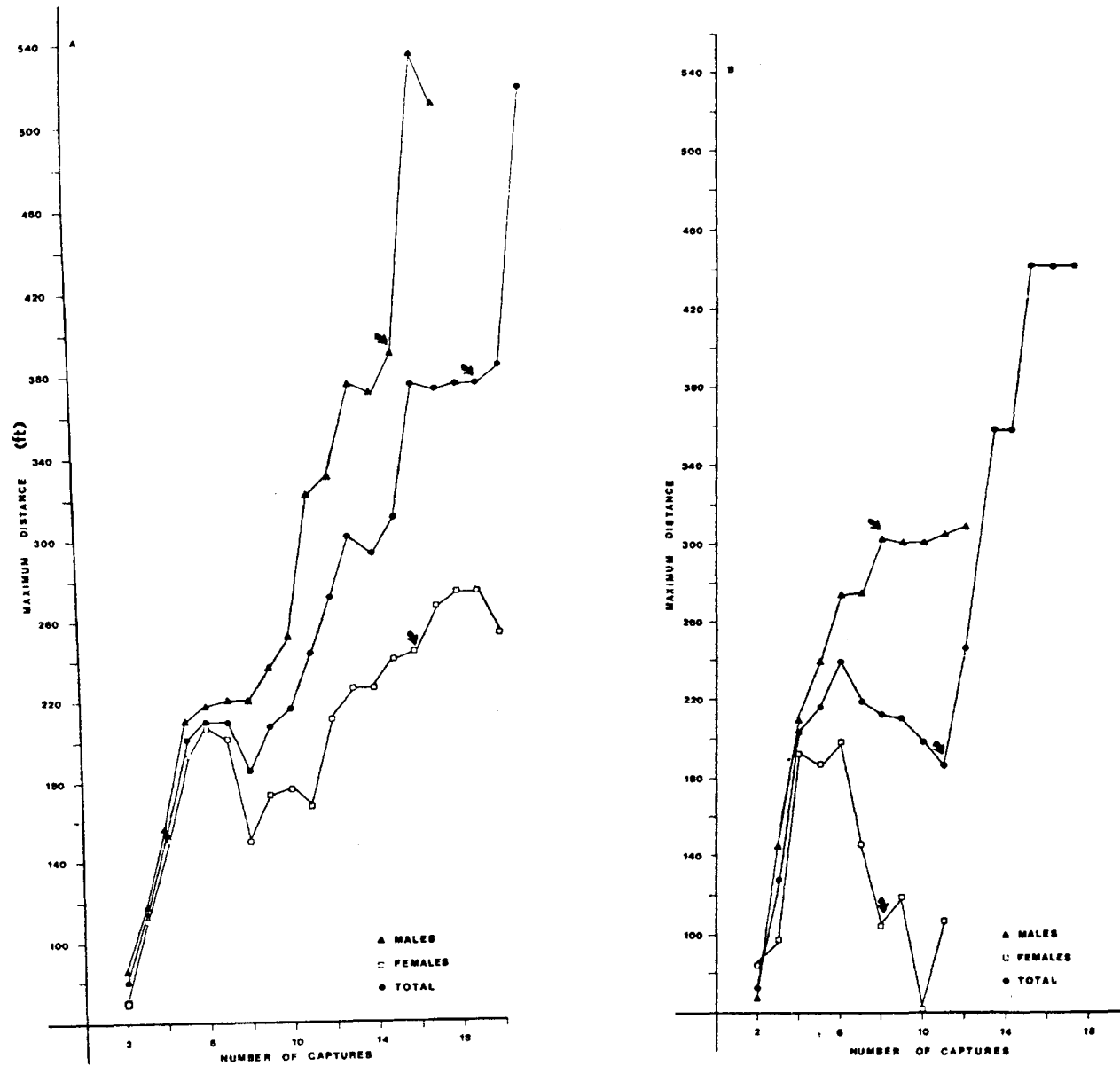


Fig. 22: Average maximum distance (ft) between points of capture (av. M) for *Pracomys (Mastomys) natalensis* (A = all grids combined; B = grid P50). Arrows indicate the point beyond which the number of animals per capture was less than five (100 ft = 30,48 m).

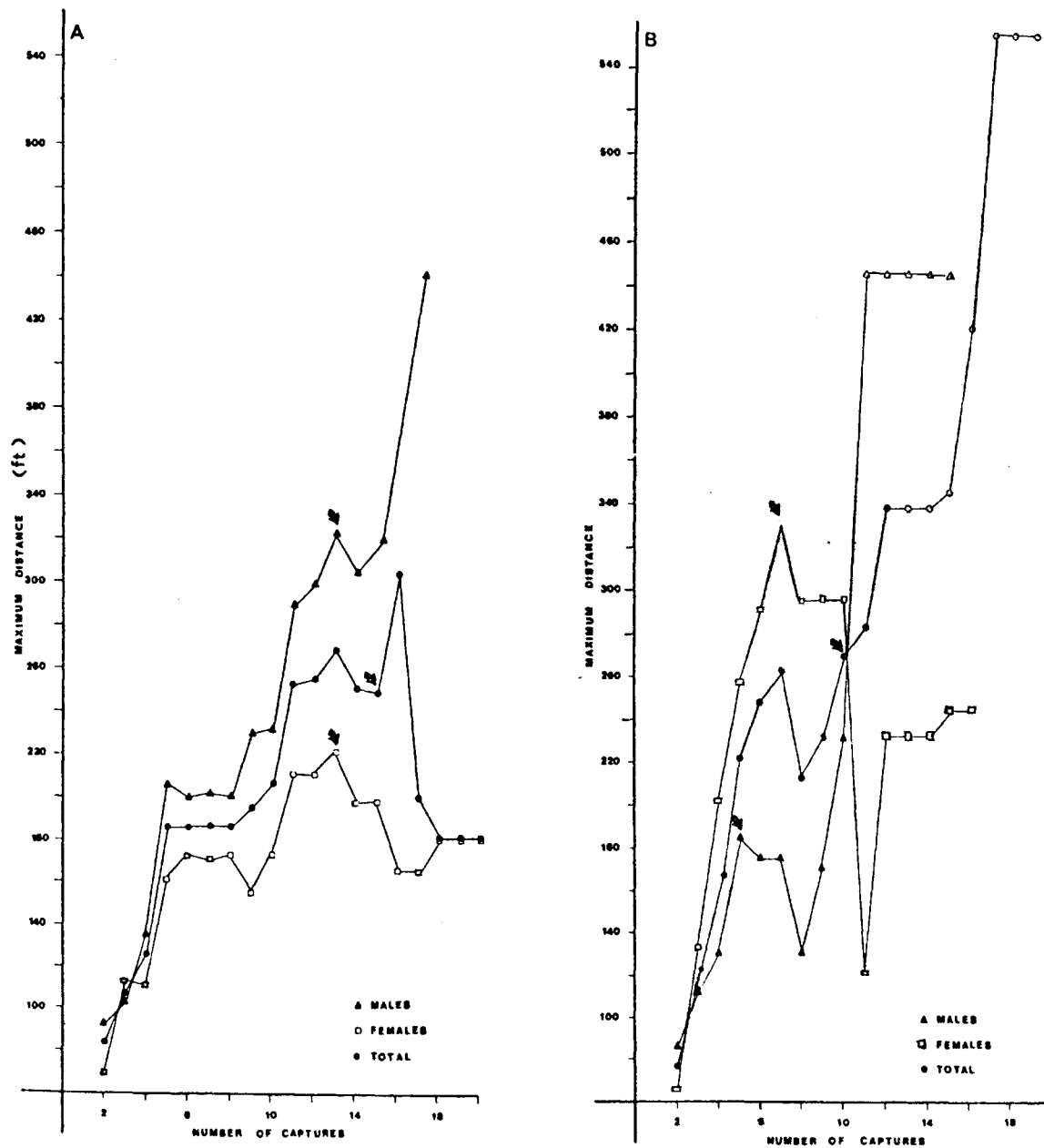


Fig. 23: Average maximum distance (ft) between points of capture (av. M) for *Praomys (Mastomys) natalensis* (A = grid P46; B = grid P88 + P89). Arrows indicate the point beyond which the number of animals per capture was less than five (100 ft = 30,48 m).

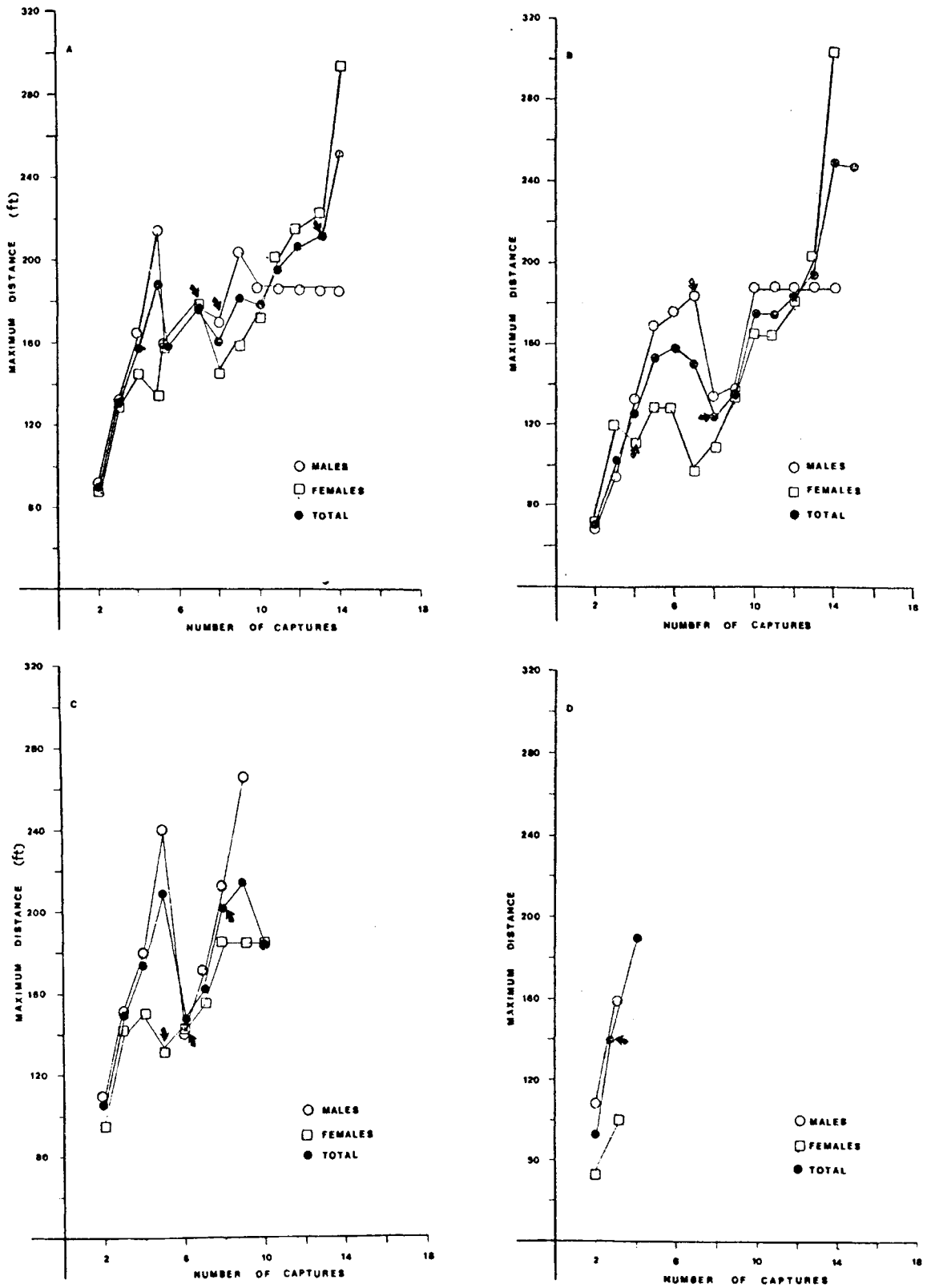


Fig. 24: Average maximum distance (ft) between points of capture (av. M) for *Saccostomus campestris* (A = all grids combined; B = grid P50; C = grid P46; D = grid P88 + P89). Arrows indicate the point beyond which the number of animals per capture was less than five (100 ft = 30,48 m).

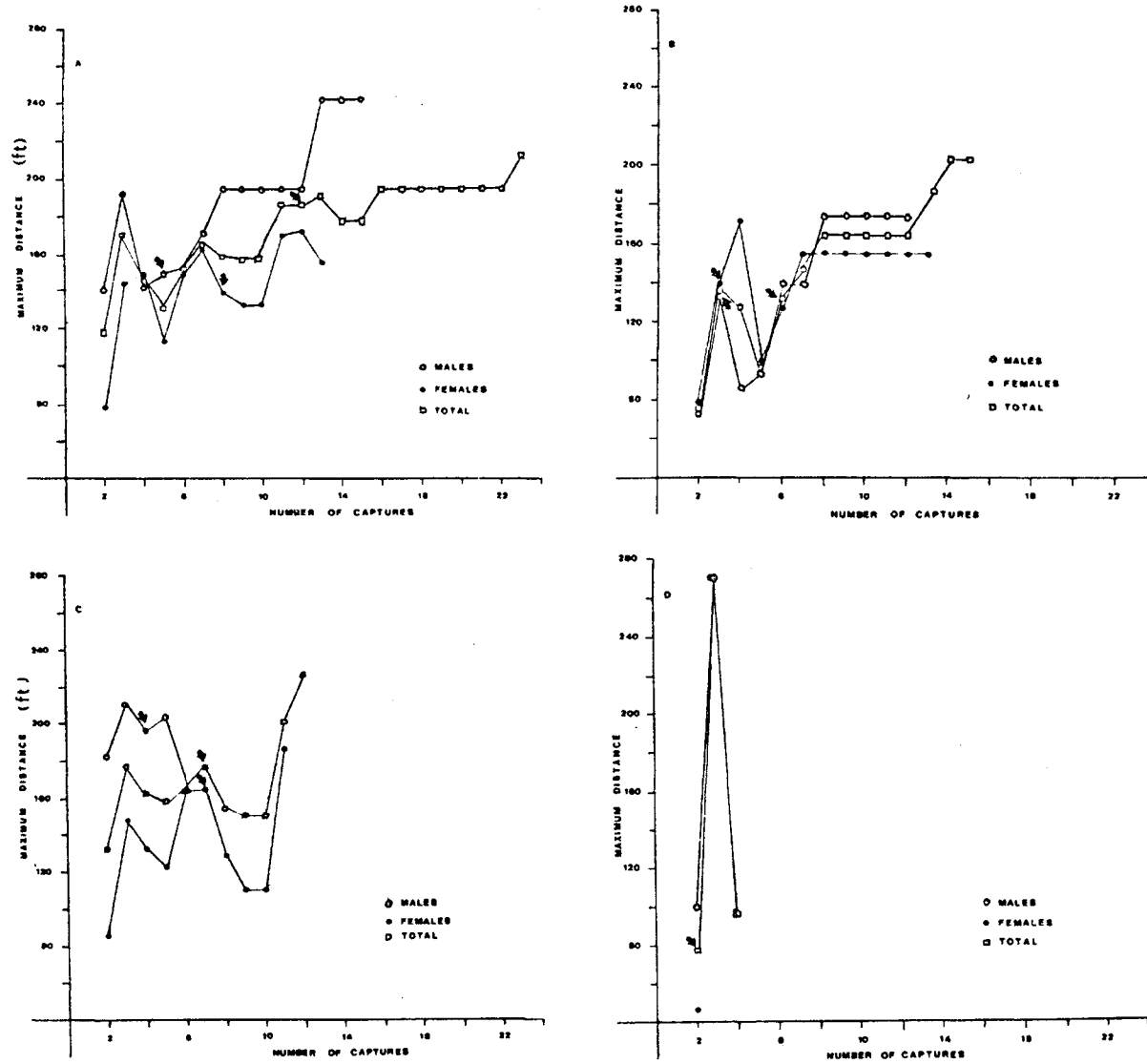


Fig. 25: Average maximum distance between points of capture (av. M) for *Lemniscomys griselda* (A = all grids combined; B = grid P50; C = grid P46; D = grid P88 + P89). Arrows indicate the point beyond which the number of animals per capture was less than five (100 ft = 30,48 m).

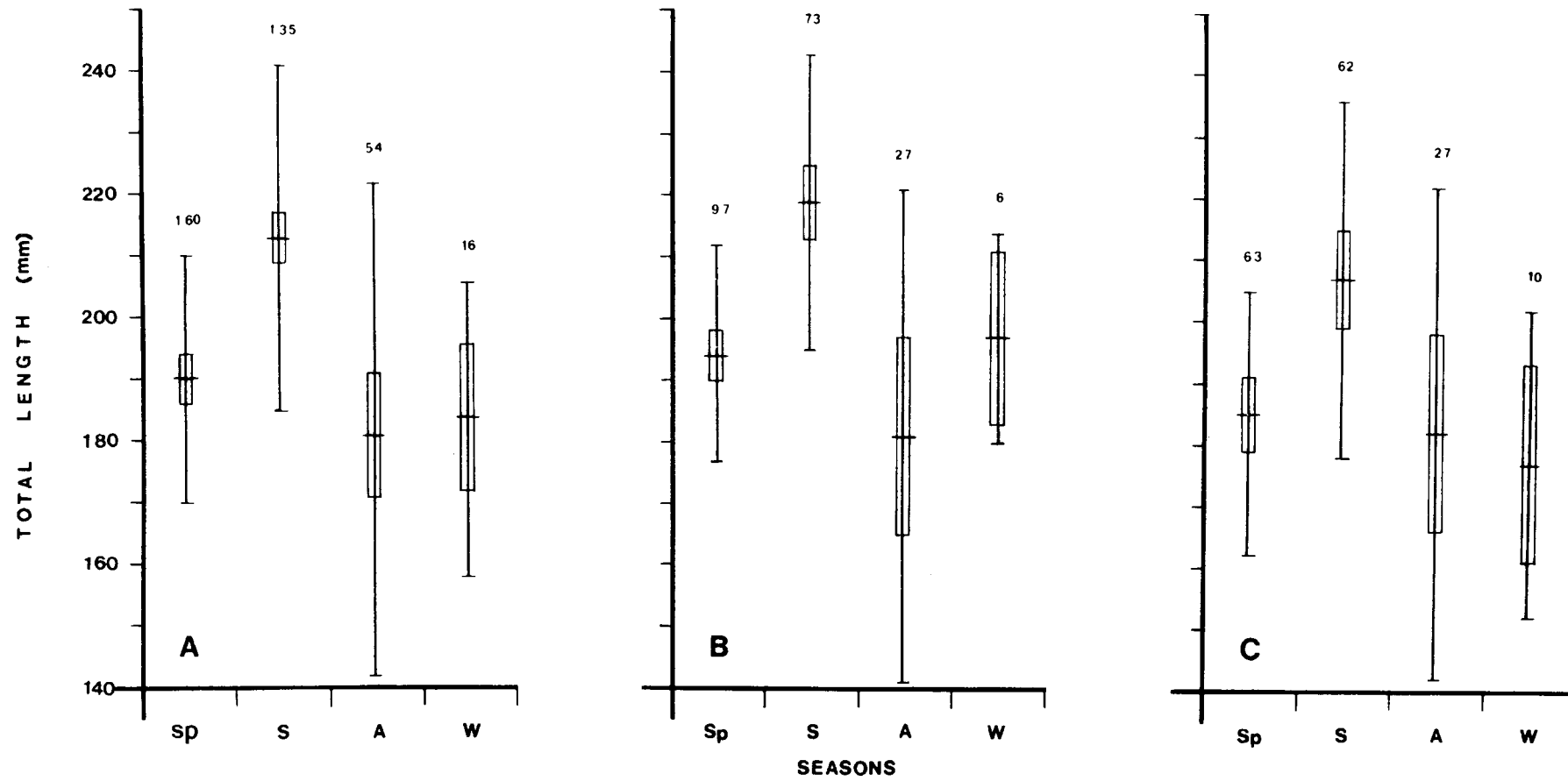


Fig. 26: Seasonal mean total length of *Praomys (Mastomys) natalensis* observed on the study area. A = both sexes; B = males; C = females; horizontal line = arithmetic mean; vertical line = mean \pm one standard deviation; open bar = mean \pm two standard errors. The sample size for each season is indicated above each vertical line.

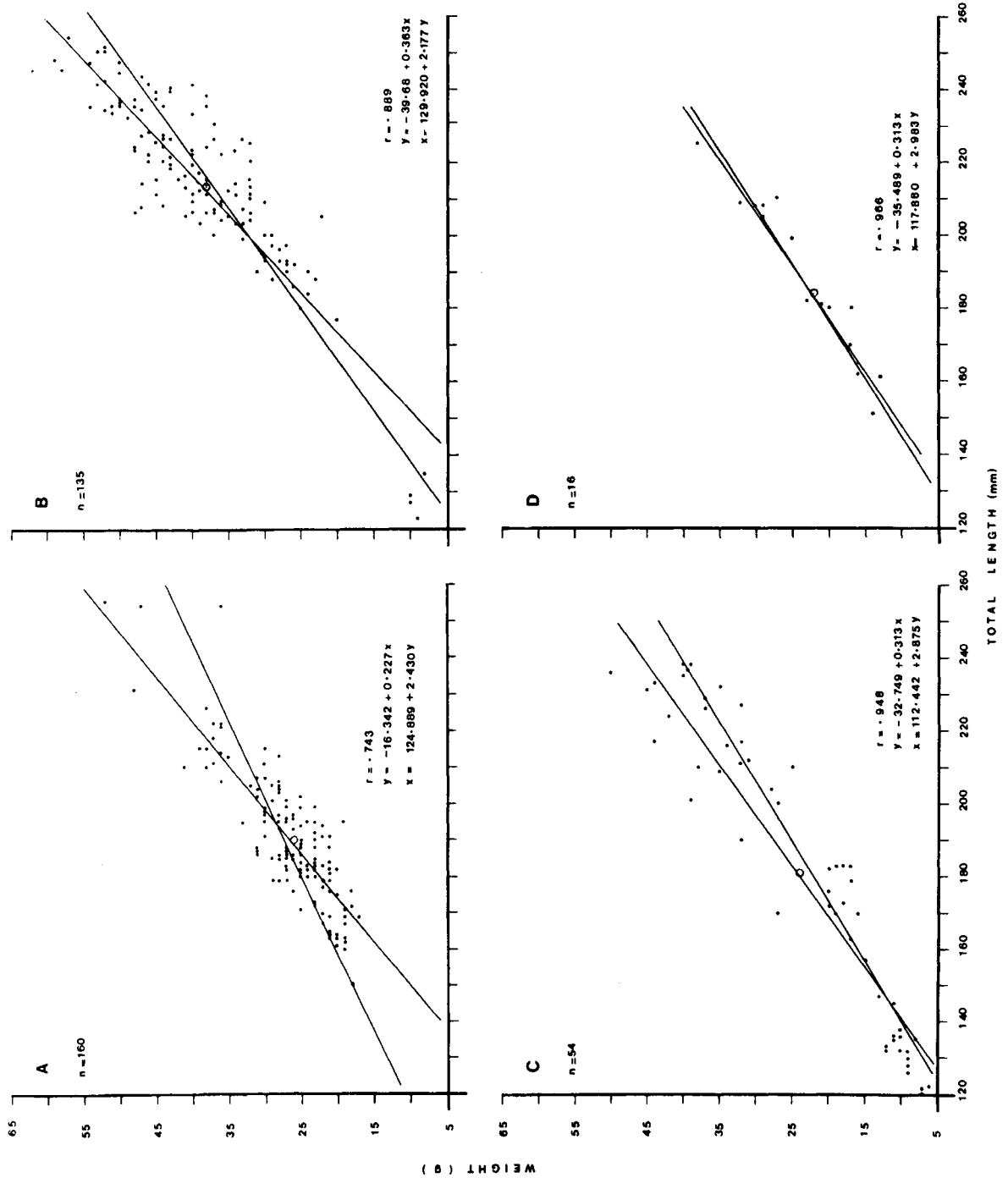


Fig. 27: Body mass (= weight in figure) of *Praomys (Mastomys) natalensis* on the study area, plotted seasonally against total length. Regression lines, equations and correlation coefficients (r) of the relationships for both sexes combined are indicated. (A = spring; B = summer; C = autumn; D = winter; O = mean of parameter). Two summer (female) measurements of below 120 mm were not plotted.

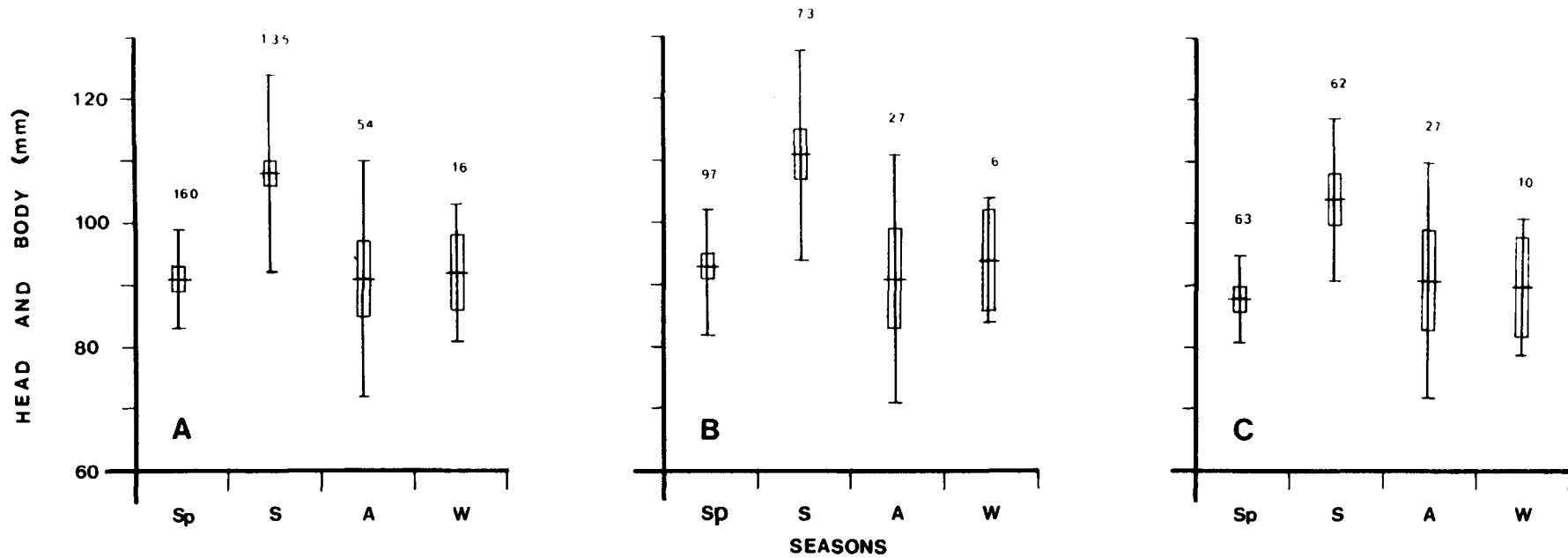


Fig. 28: Seasonal mean head and body length of *Praomys (Mastomys) natalensis* observed on the study area. A = both sexes; B = males; C = females; horizontal line = arithmetic mean; vertical line = mean \pm one standard deviation; open bar = mean \pm two standard errors. The sample size for each season is indicated above each vertical line.

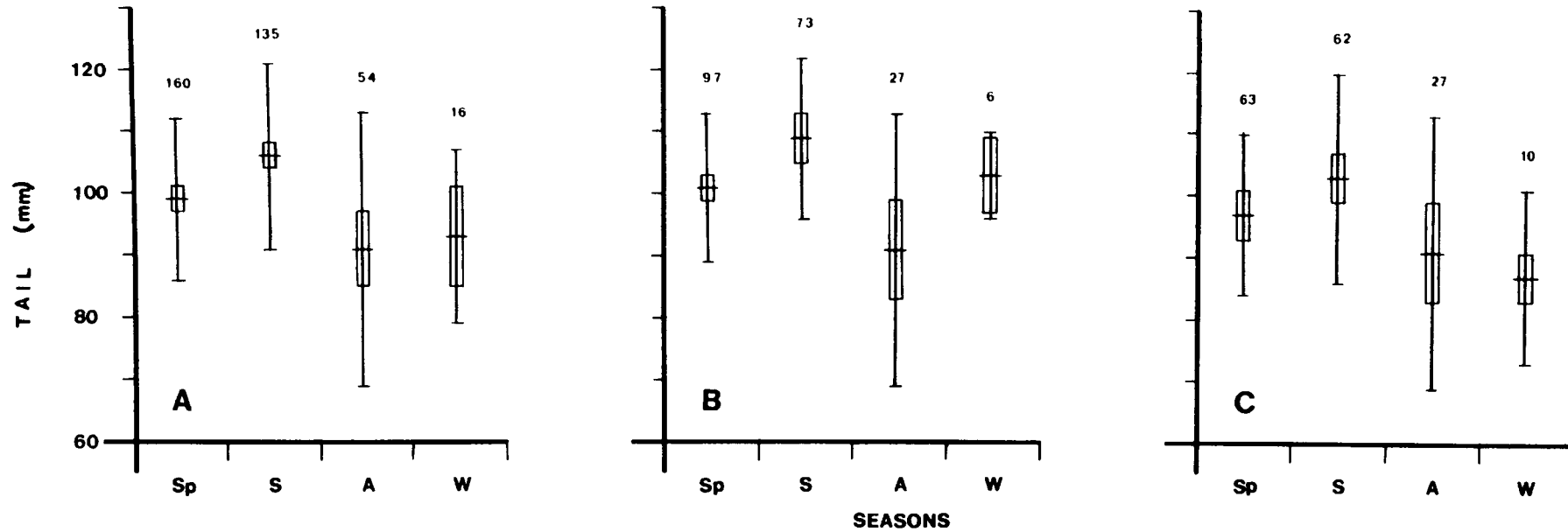


Fig. 29: Seasonal mean tail length of *Praomys (Mastomys) natalensis* observed on the study area. A = both sexes; B = males; C = females; horizontal line = arithmetic mean; vertical line = mean \pm one standard deviation; open bar = mean \pm two standard errors. The sample size for each season is indicated above each vertical line.

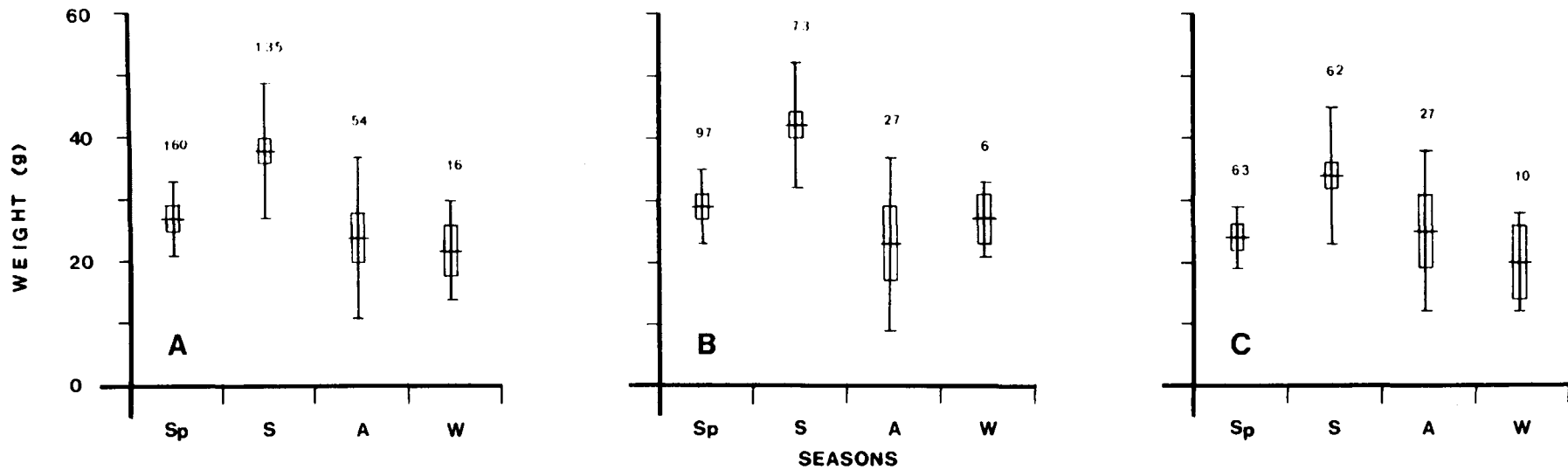


Fig. 30: Seasonal mean body mass (= weight in figure) of *Praomys (Mastomys) natalensis* observed on the study area. A = both sexes; B = males; C = females; horizontal line = arithmetic mean; vertical line = mean \pm one standard deviation; open bar = mean \pm two standard errors. The sample size for each season is indicated above each vertical line.

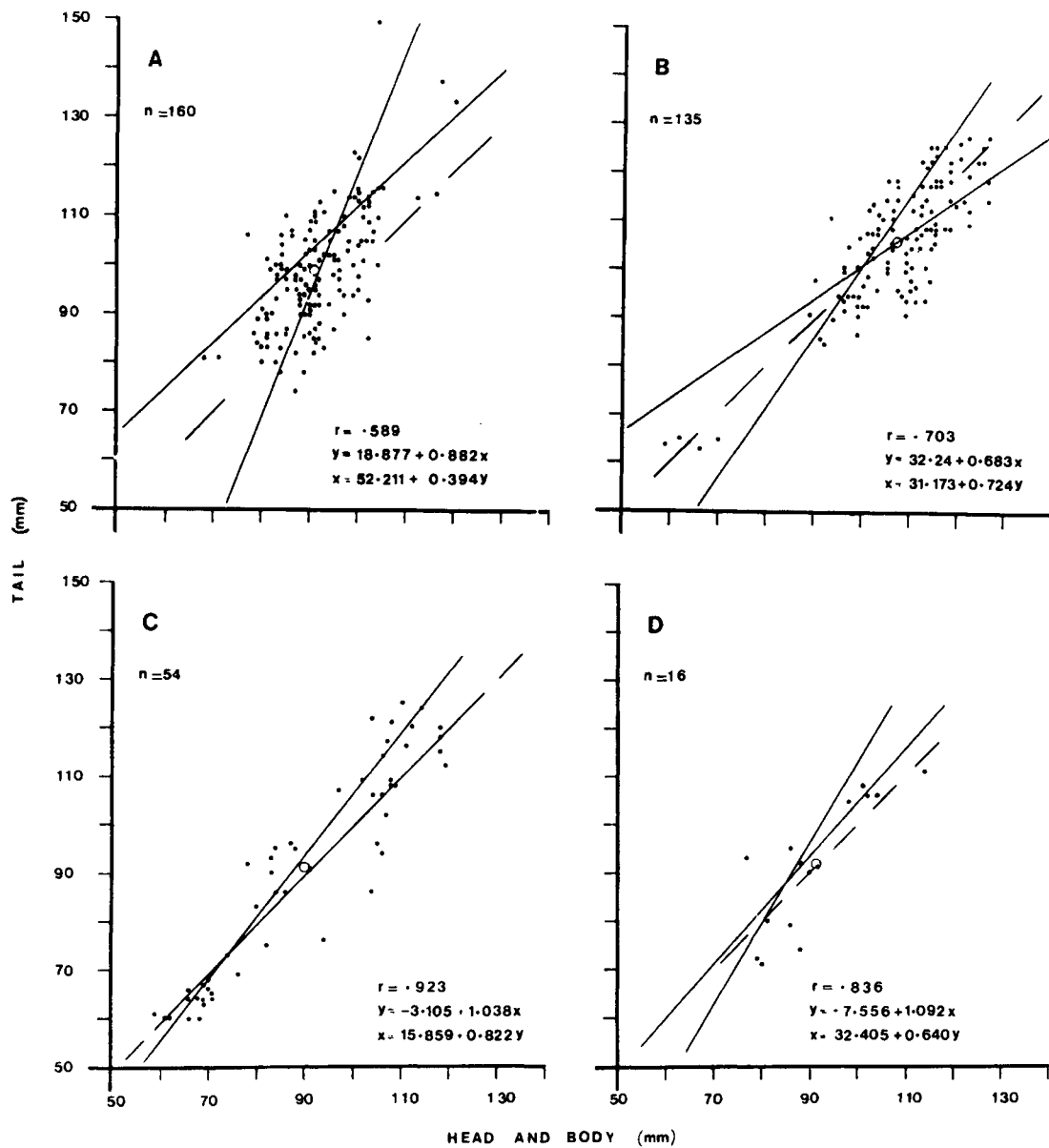


Fig. 31: Tail length of *Pracomys (Mastomys) natalensis* on the study area, plotted seasonally against head and body length. Regression lines, equations and correlation coefficients (r) of the relationships for both sexes combined are indicated. (A = spring; B = summer; C = autumn; D = winter; O = mean of parameters). Broken lines indicate the point where tail length = head and body length.

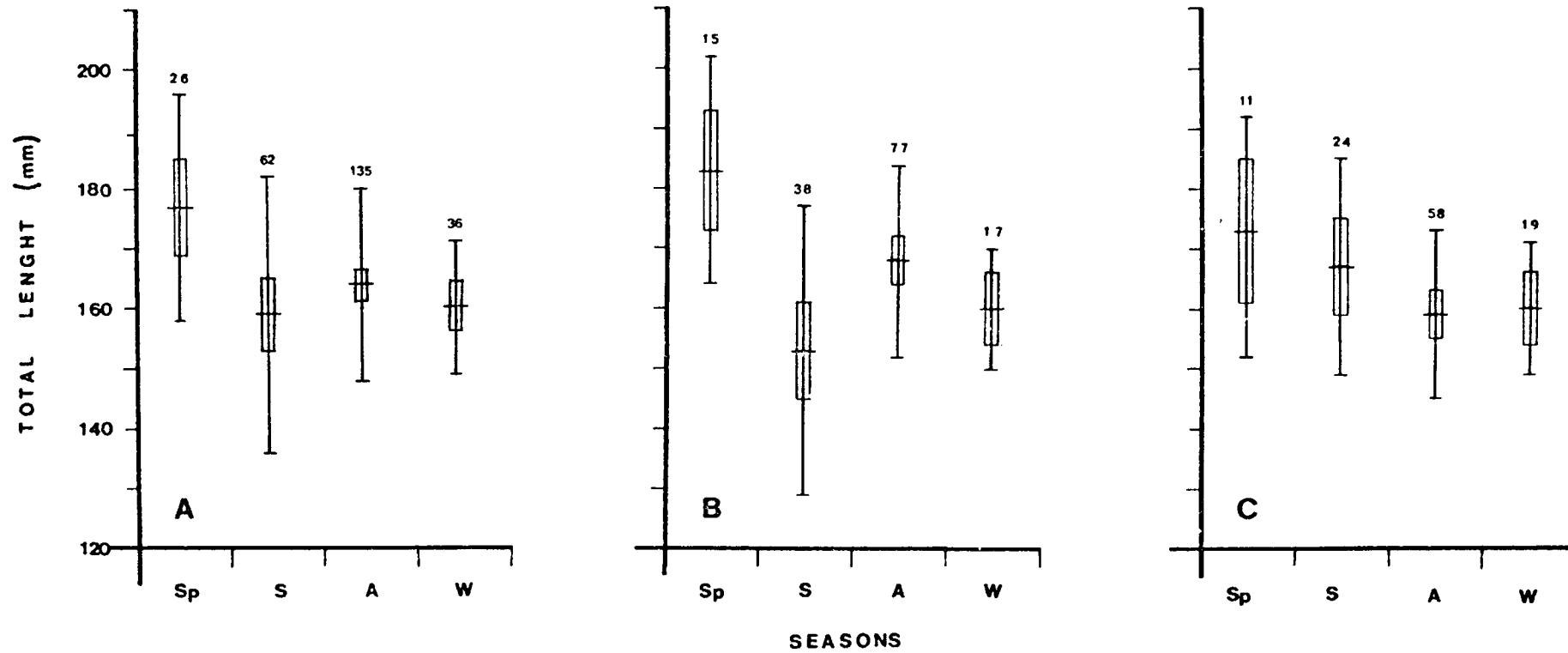


Fig. 32: Seasonal mean total length of *Saccostomus campestris* observed on the study area. A = both sexes; B = males; C = females; horizontal line = arithmetic mean; vertical line = mean \pm one standard deviation; open bar = mean \pm two standard errors. The sample size for each season is indicated above each vertical line.

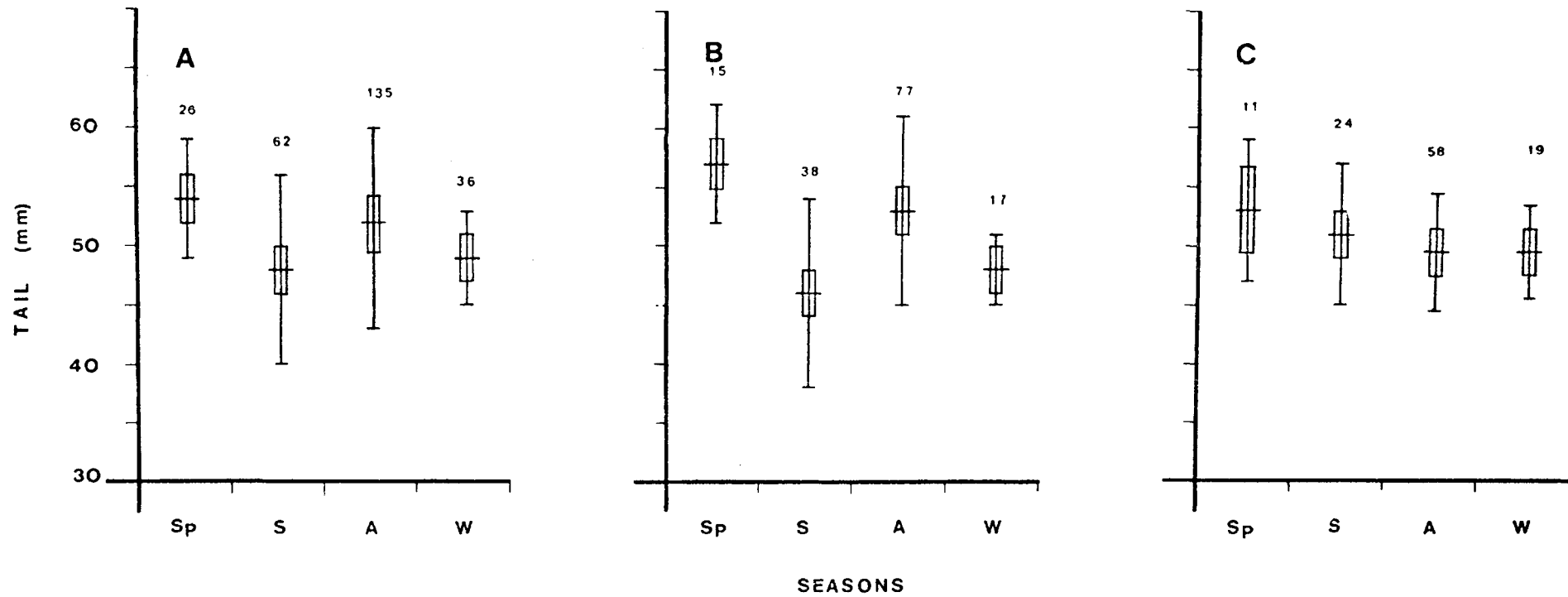


Fig. 33: Seasonal mean tail length of *Saccostomus campestris* observed on the study area. A = both sexes; B = males; C = females; horizontal line = arithmetic mean; vertical line = mean \pm one standard deviation; open bar = mean \pm two standard errors. The sample size for each season is indicated above each vertical line.

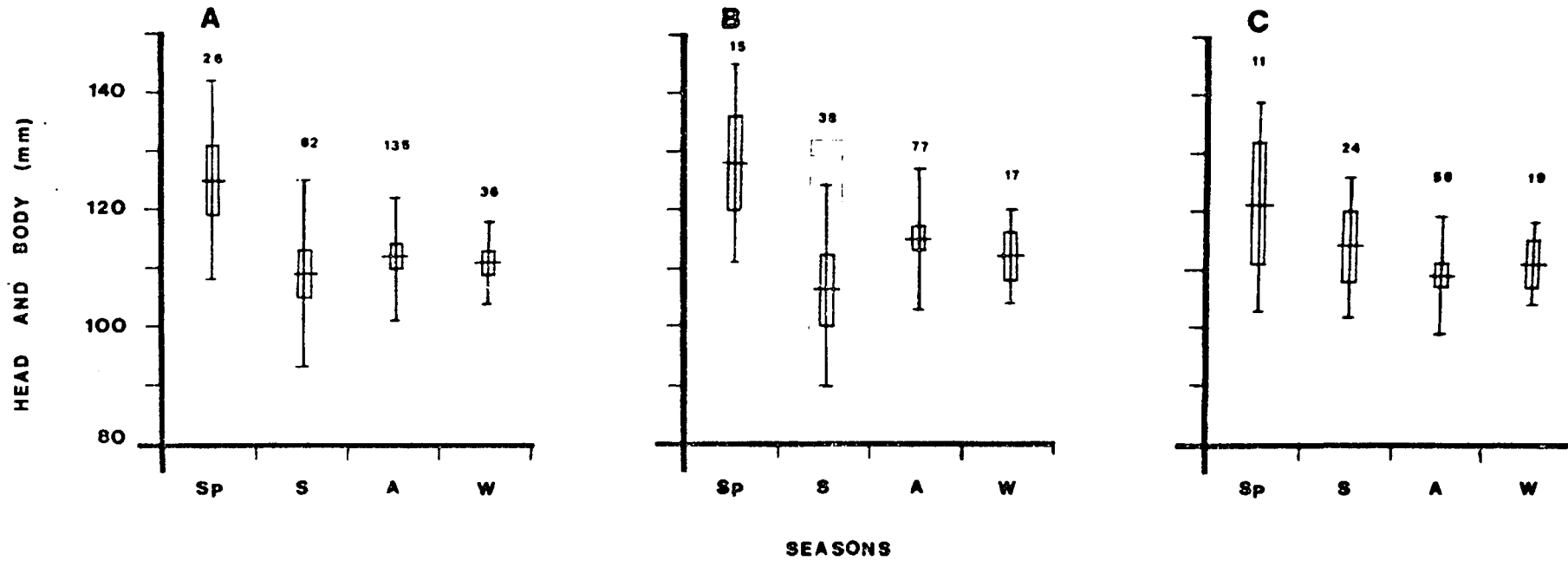


Fig. 34: Seasonal mean head and body length of *Saccostomus campestris* observed on the study area. A = both sexes; B = males; C = females; horizontal line = arithmetic mean; vertical line = mean \pm one standard deviation; open bar = mean \pm two standard errors. The sample size for each season is indicated above each vertical line.

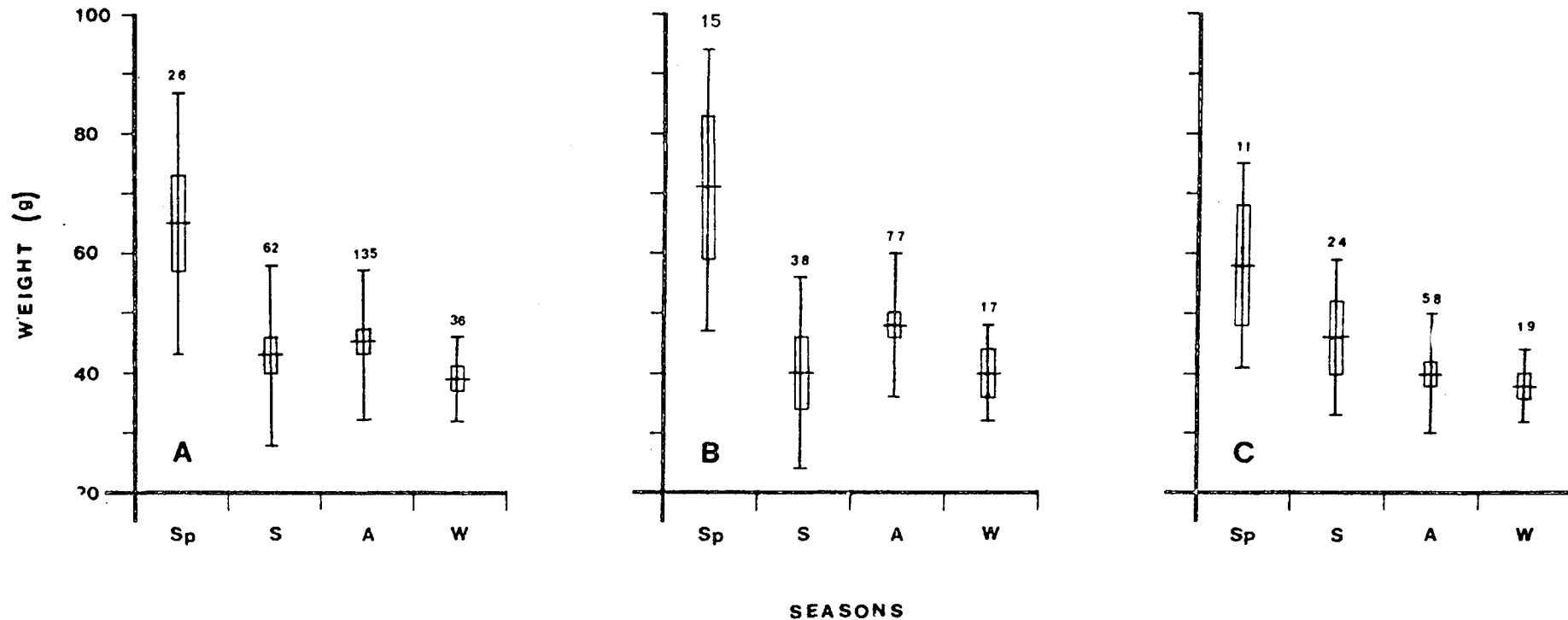


Fig. 35: Seasonal mean body mass (= weight in figure) of *Saccostomus campestris* observed on the study area. A = both sexes; B = males; C = females; horizontal line = arithmetic mean; vertical line = mean \pm one standard deviation; open bar = mean \pm two standard errors. The sample size for each season is indicated above each vertical line.

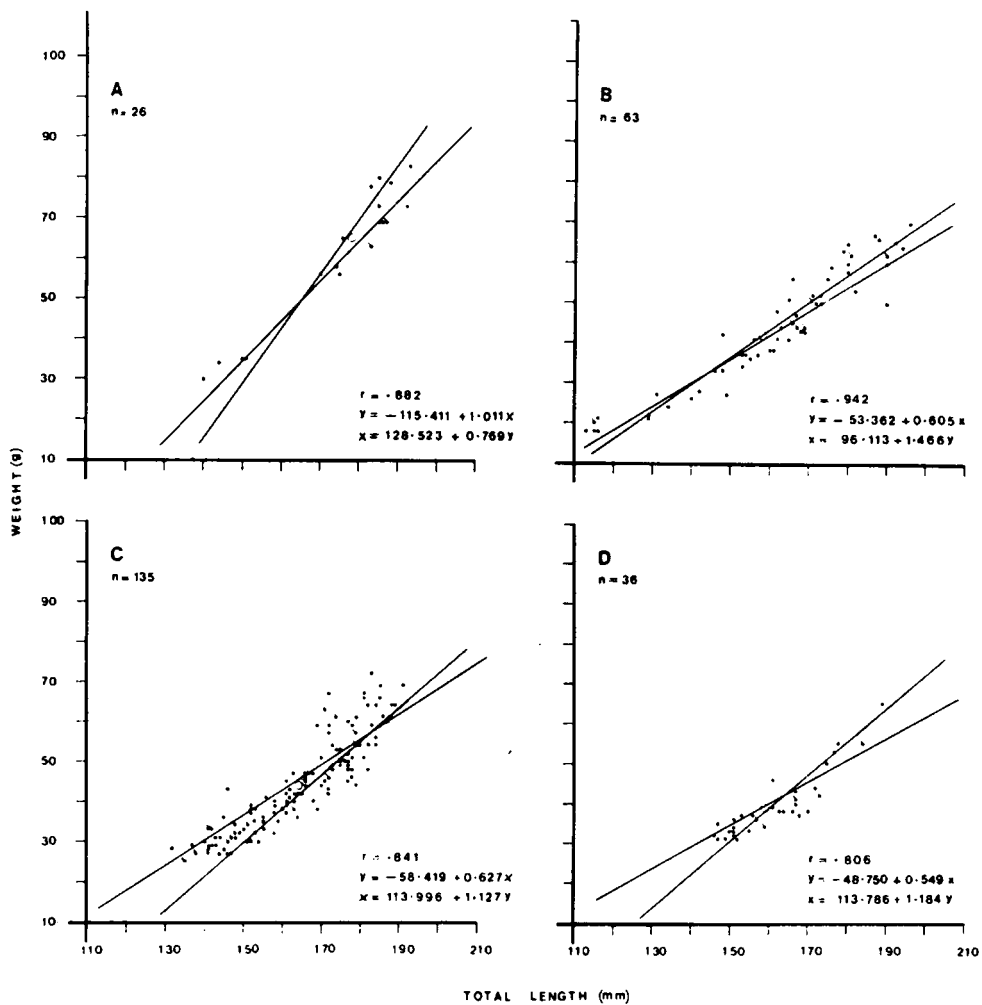


Fig. 36: Body mass (= weight in figure) of *Saccostomus campestris* on the study area, plotted seasonally against total length. Regression lines, equations and correlation coefficients (r) of the relationships for sexes combined are indicated (A = spring; B = summer; C = autumn; D = winter; O = mean of parameters; ● = males; ▲ = females).

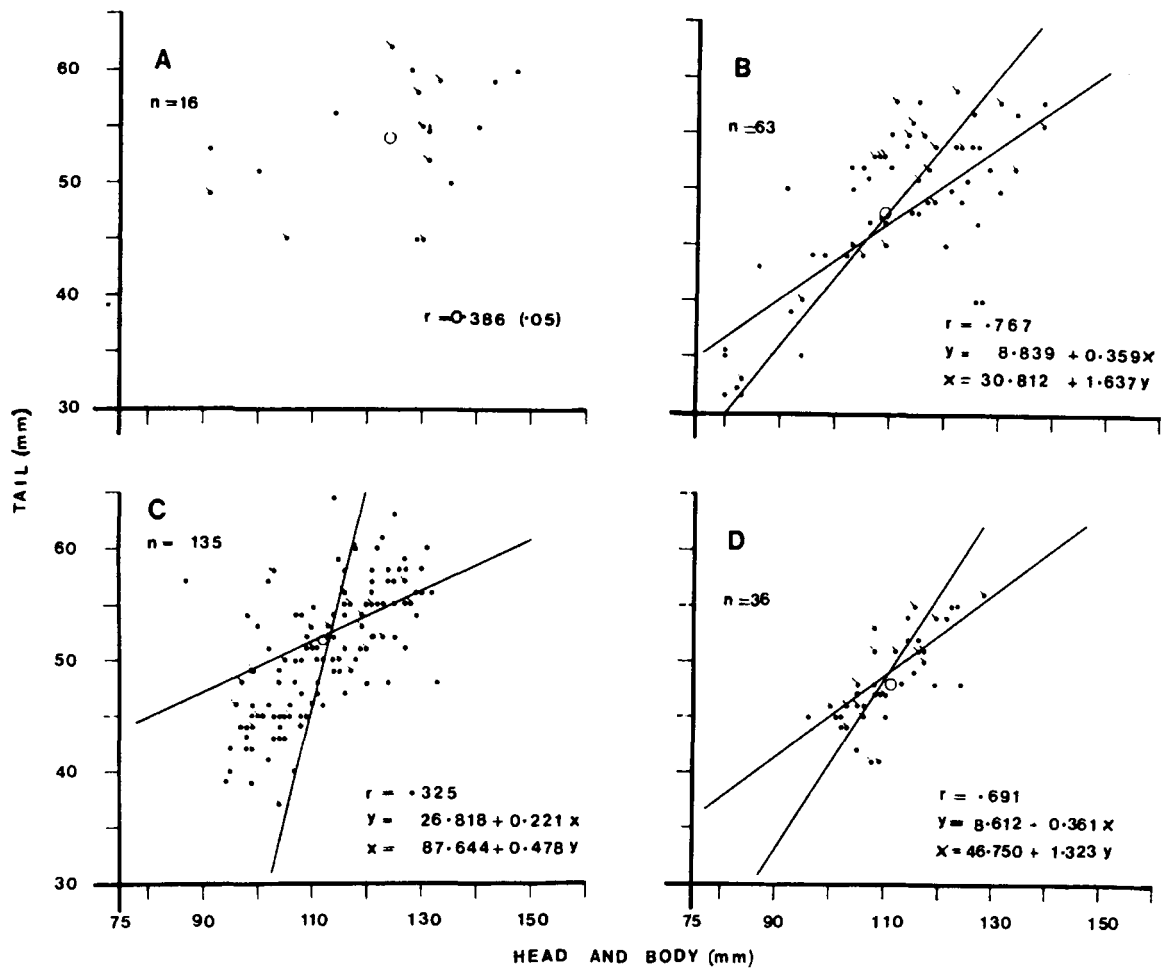


Fig. 37: Tail length of *Saccostomus campestris* on the study area, plotted seasonally against head and body length. Regression lines, equations and correlation coefficient (r) of the relationships for sexes combined are indicated (A = spring; B = summer; C = autumn; D = winter; O = mean of parameters; ● = males; ▲ = females).

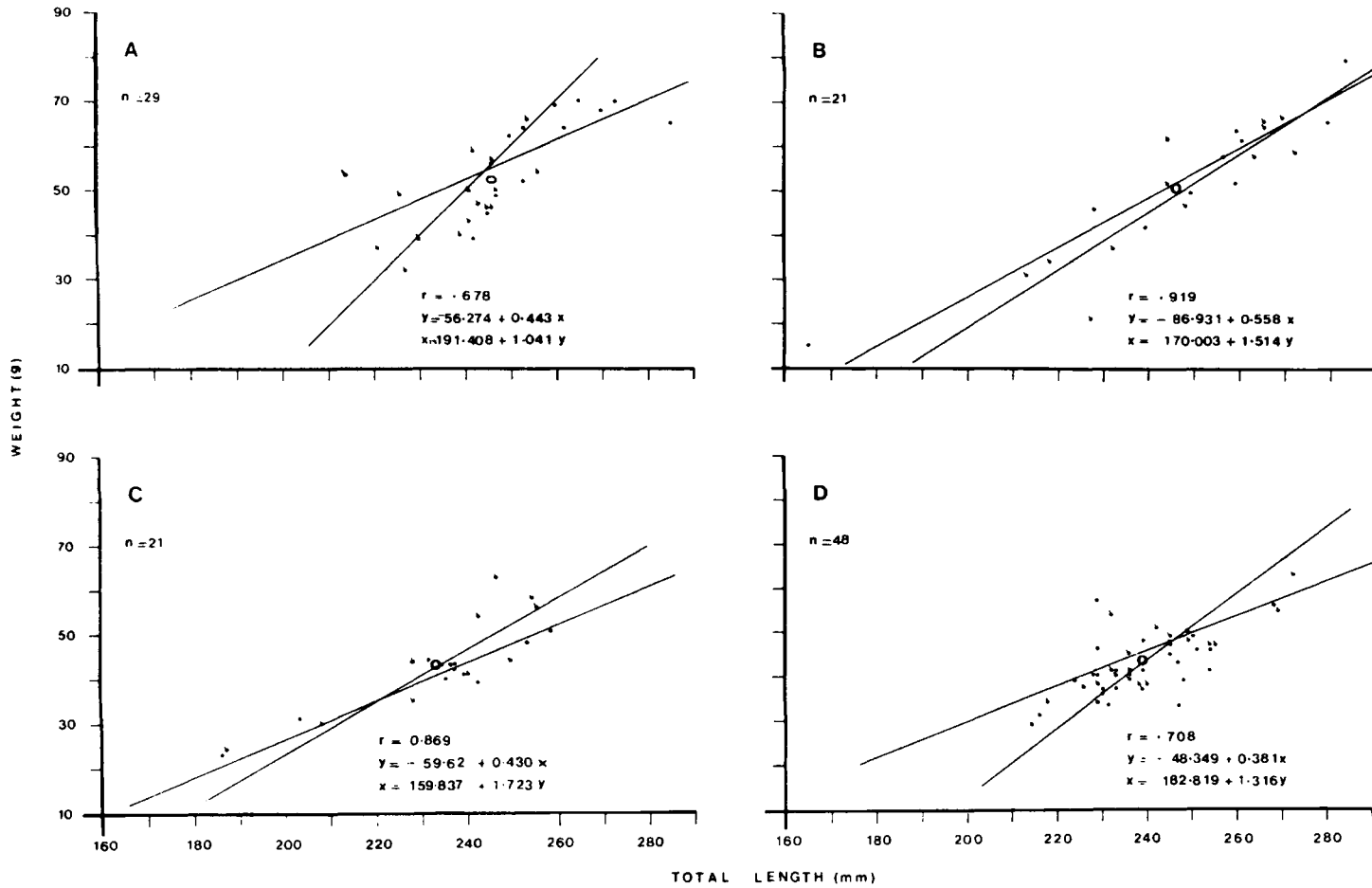


Fig. 38: Body mass (= weight in figure) of *Lemniscomys griselda* on the study area, plotted seasonally against total length. Regression lines, equations and correlation coefficients (r) of the relationships for sexes combined are indicated (A = spring; B = summer; C = autumn; D = winter; O = mean of parameters; ● = males; ♀ = females).

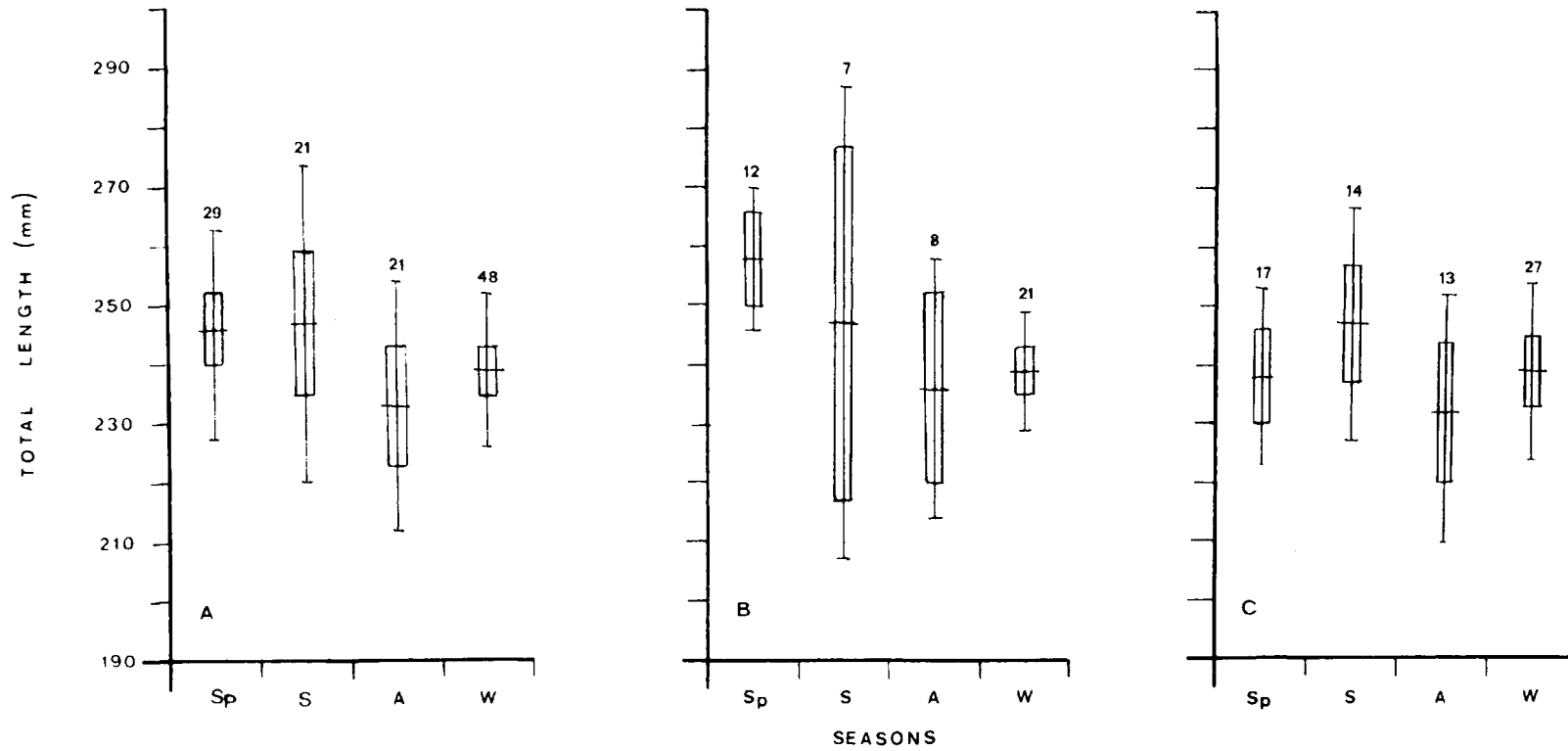


Fig. 39: Seasonal mean total length of *Lemniscomys griselda* observed on the study area. A = both sexes; B = males; C = females; horizontal line = arithmetic mean; vertical line = mean \pm one standard deviation; open bar = mean \pm two standard errors. The sample size for each season are indicated above each vertical line.

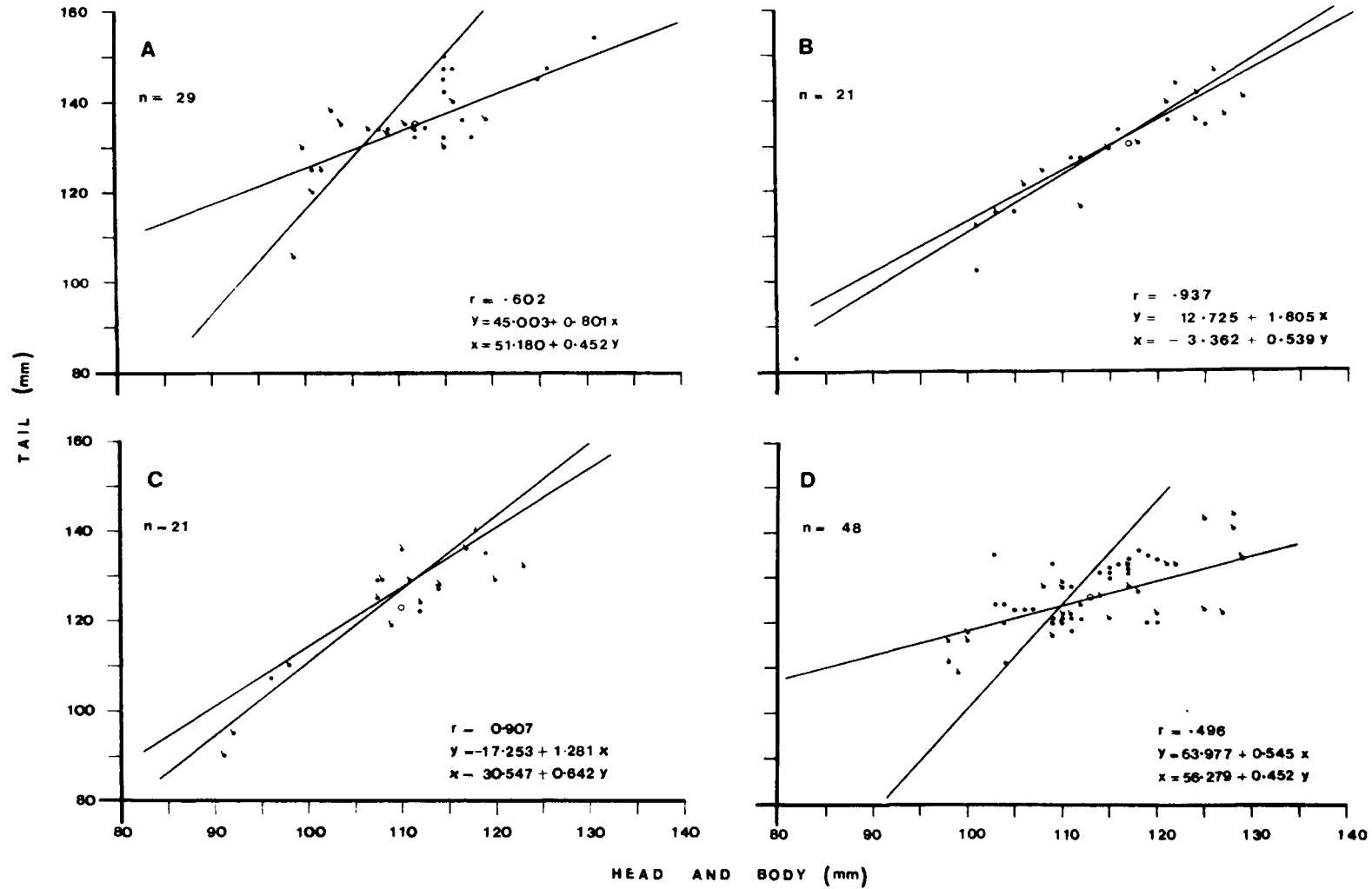


Fig. 40: Tail length of *Lemniscomys griselda* on the study area, plotted seasonally against head and body length. Regression lines, equations and correlation coefficients (r) of the relationships for sexes combined are indicated (A = spring; B = summer; C = autumn; D = winter; O = mean of parameters; ● = males; ● = females).

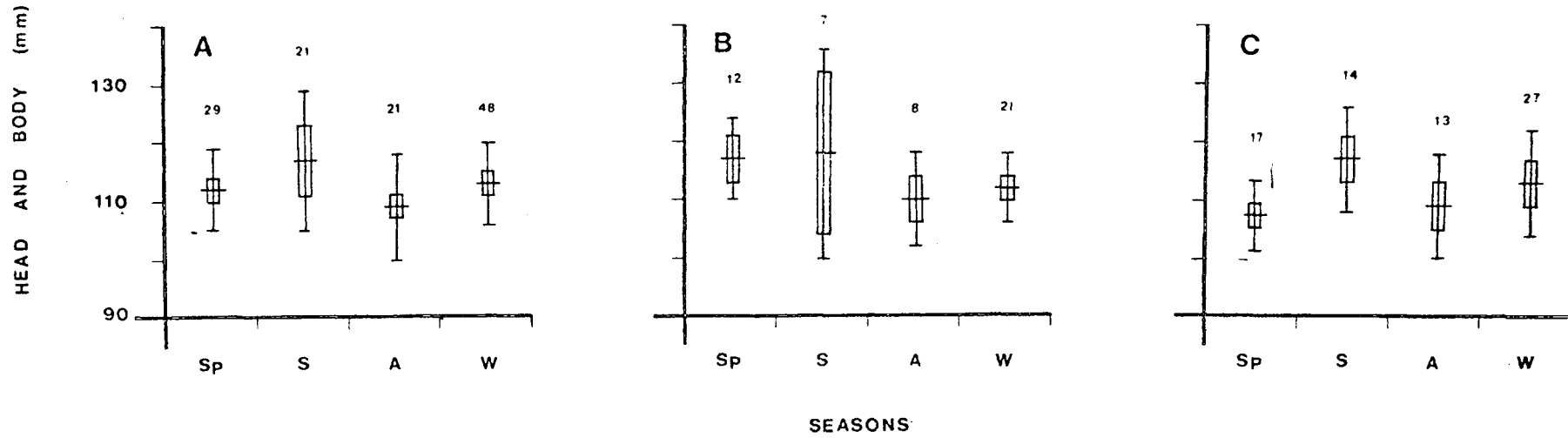


Fig. 41: Seasonal mean head and body length of Lemniscomys griselda observed on the study area. A = both sexes; B = males; C = females; horizontal line = arithmetic mean; vertical line = mean \pm one standard deviation; open bar = mean \pm two standard errors. The sample size for each season are indicated above each vertical line.

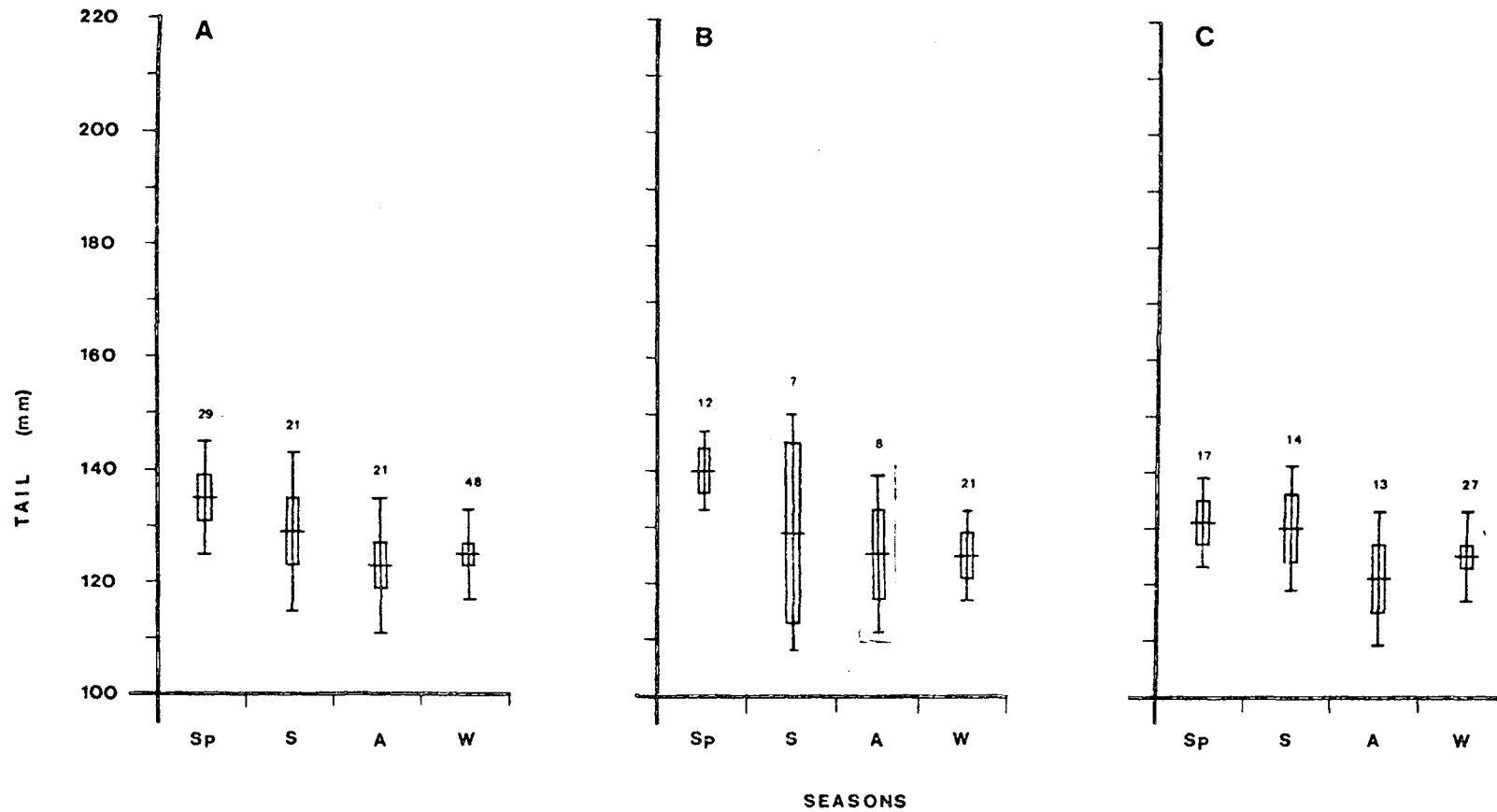


Fig. 42: Seasonal mean tail length of *Lemniscomys griselda* observed on the study area. A = both sexes; B = males; C = females; horizontal line = arithmetic mean; vertical line = mean \pm one standard deviation; open bar = mean \pm two standard errors. The sample size for each season are indicated above each vertical line.

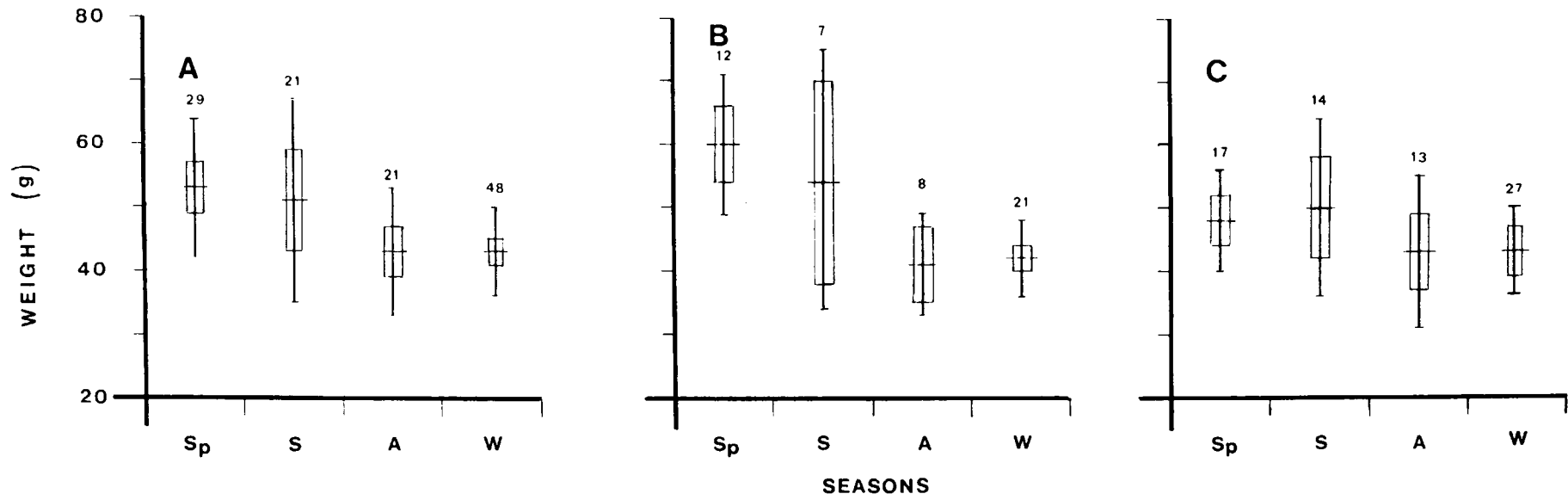


Fig. 43: Seasonal mean body mass (= weight in figure) of *Lemniscomys griselda* observed on the study area. A = both sexes; B = males; C = females; horizontal line = arithmetic mean; vertical line = mean \pm one standard deviation; open bar = mean \pm two standard errors. The sample size for each season are indicated above each vertical line.

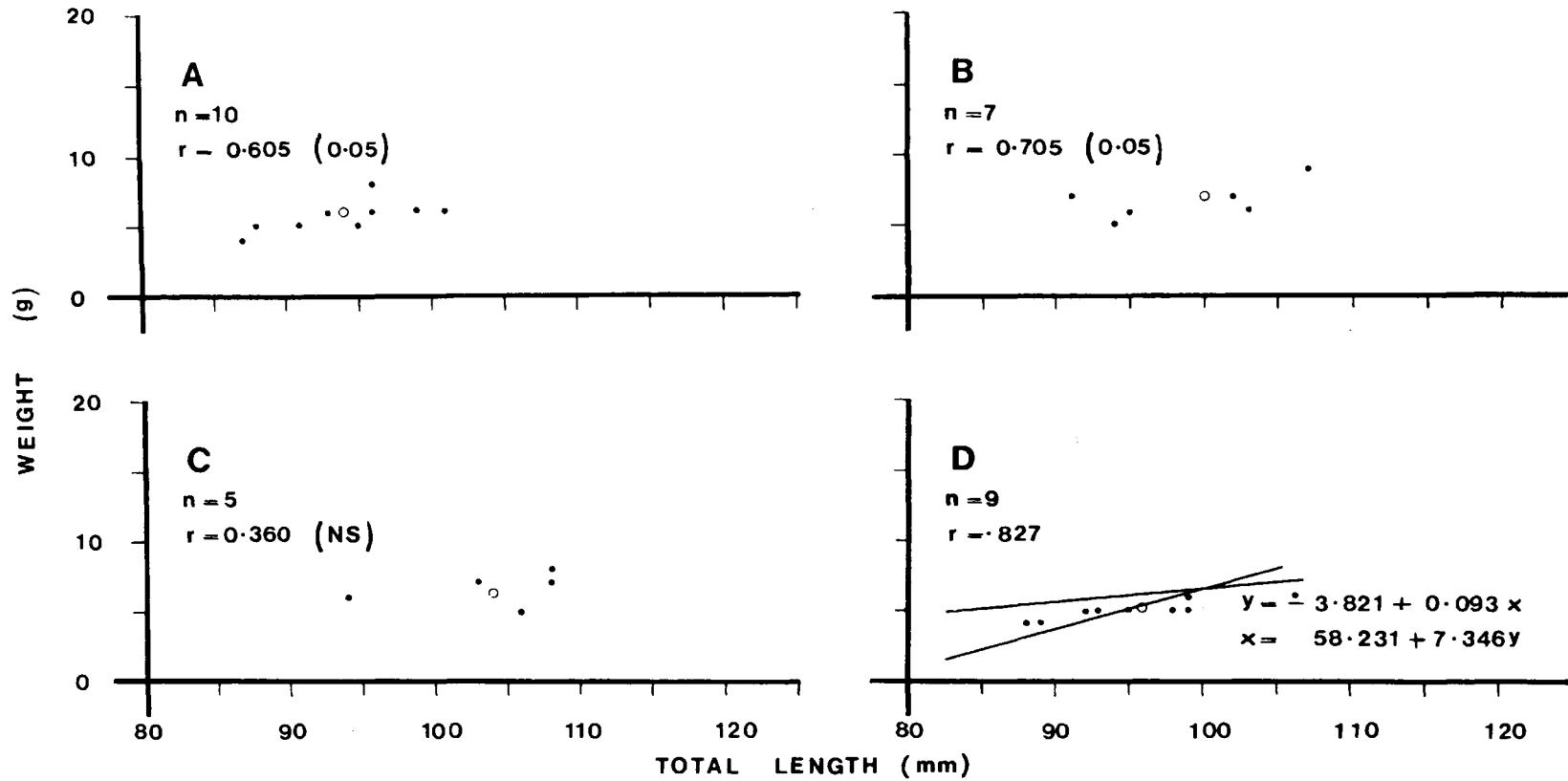


Fig. 44: Body mass (= weight in figure) of *Leggada minutoides* on the study area, plotted seasonally against total length. Regression lines, equations, and correlation coefficients (r) of the relationships for sexes combined are indicated (A = spring; B = summer; C = autumn; D = winter; O = mean of parameters).

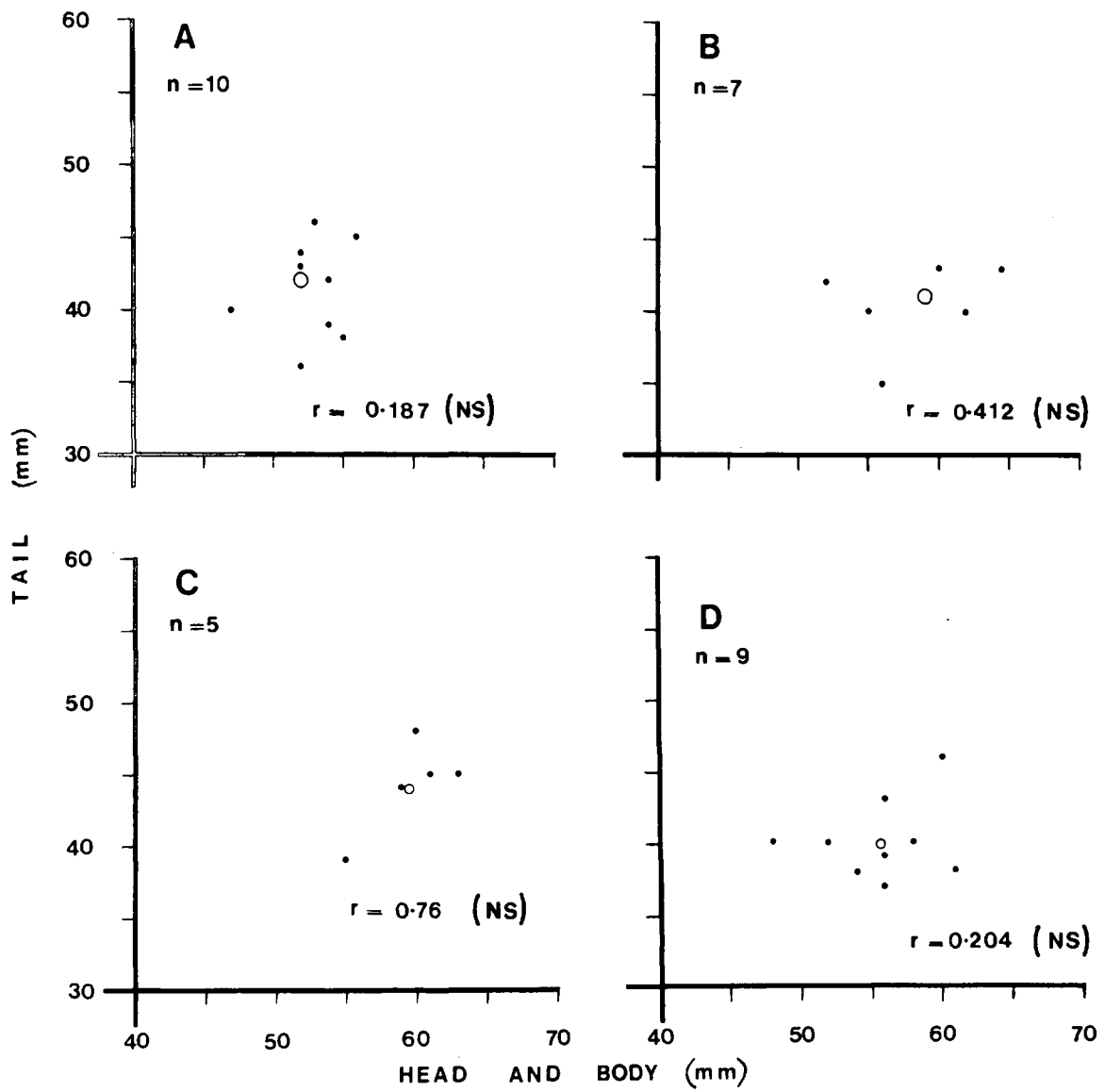


Fig. 45: Tail length of *Leggada minutoides* on the study area, plotted seasonally against head and body length. Regression lines, equations, and correlation coefficients (r) of the relationships for sexes combined are indicated (A = springs; B = summer; C = autumn; D = winter; O = mean of parameters).

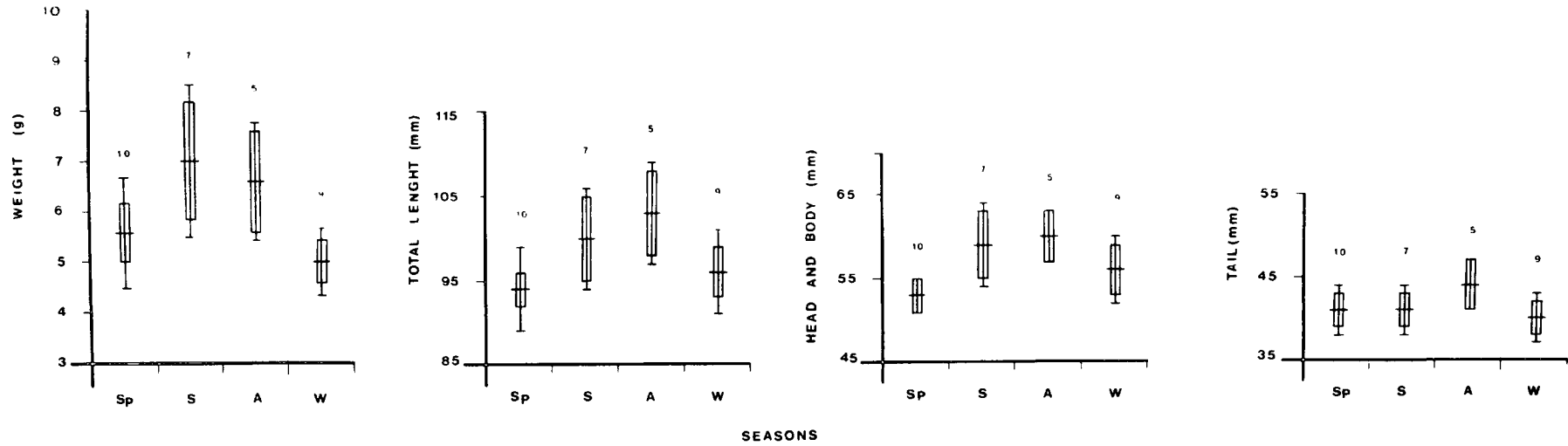


Fig. 46: Seasonal mean total length, tail length, head and body length, and body mass (= weight in figure) of *Leggada minutoides* (both sexes) observed on the study area. Horizontal line = arithmetic mean; vertical lines = mean \pm one standard deviation; open bar = mean \pm two standard errors. The sample size for each season is indicated above each vertical line.

Table 1 The highest monthly maximum, mean maximum, lowest minimum, mean minimum, and the monthly mean temperatures in degrees centigrade recorded on the study area between October 1966 and May 1969.

Year	Month	Highest max. (°C)	Mean max. (°C)	Lowest min. (°C)	Mean min. (°C)	Mean Temp. (°C)
1966	Oct.	32,2	28,4	10,7	14,8	19,8
	Nov.	34,8	29,6	14,5	16,6	22,5
	Dec.	33,2	29,3	15,2	17,7	22,7
1967	Jan.	34,0	26,7	14,5	17,6	22,5
	Feb.	34,8	29,7	16,6	18,6	23,5
	March	30,5	26,6	12,9	16,6	20,9
	April	31,6	28,2	11,1	13,2	19,8
	May	27,0	23,5	3,8	6,3	14,1
	June	27,7	23,8	0,8	4,2	13,2
	July	26,8	22,2	-0,1	2,8	12,1
	Aug.	31,3	25,1	2,0	6,2	15,5
	Sept.	33,0	28,1	5,9	11,7	19,1
	Oct.	34,8	28,1	14,1	16,9	23,9
	Nov.	34,5	28,6	15,8	18,1	24,8
	Dec.	32,6	31,9	15,6	18,4	23,6
1968	Jan.	36,6	30,6	17,6	20,3	25,2
	Feb.	35,6	31,9	17,6	19,9	24,1
	March	30,6	27,1	16,8	18,6	23,9
	April	32,1	26,4	12,4	15,5	20,4
	May	30,2	26,2	8,8	11,8	18,3
	June	26,0	23,3	1,1	4,1	13,1
	July	30,6	25,9	2,6	5,4	15,0
	Aug.	31,6	25,8	3,9	9,2	18,1
	Sept.	34,2	26,8	9,2	13,0	19,5
	Oct.	36,1	28,3	11,1	14,1	20,4
	Nov.	35,3	27,0	12,3	17,4	20,4
	Dec.	38,9	33,6	17,9	19,8	25,7
1969	Jan.	40,5	33,6	18,0	19,7	25,9
	Feb.	38,3	33,9	18,7	21,4	26,3
	March	32,8	28,1	16,8	17,9	23,8
	April	30,8	26,4	13,0	15,3	19,4
	May	28,2	24,2	9,0	11,7	17,1

Table 2 The highest maximum, mean maximum, lowest minimum, mean minimum, and mean relative humidity recorded on the study area between October 1966 and May 1969.

Year	Month	Highest max. (%)	Mean max. (%)	Lowest min. (%)	Mean min. (%)	Mean Rel. hum. (%)
1966	Oct.	96,3	89,5	31,3	46,2	68,6
	Nov.	96,0	90,3	33,2	44,6	66,9
	Dec.	96,2	93,7	37,2	49,9	72,9
1967	Jan.	96,7	92,7	36,5	48,5	72,8
	Feb.	96,2	94,7	35,5	49,7	74,5
	March	97,7	96,2	44,0	56,5	80,6
	April	98,0	96,1	32,7	43,8	72,4
	May	97,5	95,8	26,0	38,0	70,8
	June	97,0	95,0	21,3	33,3	66,2
	July	96,7	93,4	21,2	32,9	63,9
	Aug.	96,2	91,8	21,7	33,2	62,8
	Sept.	94,0	89,8	21,0	31,2	61,3
	Oct.	92,2	88,2	23,0	40,1	65,3
	Nov.	96,4	72,7	32,4	45,9	69,4
	Dec.	99,2	95,0	35,4	45,3	70,3
1968	Jan.	100,0	95,6	33,7	45,6	71,5
	Feb.	99,2	94,5	35,4	46,3	72,3
	March	98,2	95,5	40,5	48,6	74,3
	April	98,2	93,8	28,5	41,0	68,8
	May	99,0	94,8	24,2	35,2	67,0
	June	99,0	90,5	20,7	28,9	58,0
	July	97,7	93,4	21,7	30,9	62,1
	Aug.	99,2	94,8	25,2	41,5	68,4
	Sept.	95,2	89,9	23,4	41,6	65,2
	Oct.	98,0	90,2	26,4	43,3	67,1
	Nov.	97,0	93,8	30,5	45,4	69,7
	Dec.	96,0	88,6	25,7	36,8	63,4
1969	Jan.	95,0	88,9	28,7	41,8	65,3
	Feb.	93,0	87,2	30,0	41,7	64,4
	March	95,0	92,3	39,0	54,1	72,2
	April	95,0	92,8	37,5	49,1	69,4
	May	95,0	93,0	42,0	43,8	70,6

Table 3 Monthly rainfall (in mm) on the study area between September 1967 and May 1969, and at Pongola Gorge (27°26'S,32°4'E), between January 1966 and May 1969.

Year	Month	Study area	Pongola Gorge
1966	Jan.	-	251,5
	Feb.	-	83,2
	March	-	19,5
	April	-	18,7
	May	-	21,6
	June	-	8,2
	July	-	0,0
	Aug.	-	17,7
	Sept.	-	5,5
	Oct.	-	15,5
	Nov.	-	60,8
	Dec.	-	55,2
	Total	-	563,4
1967	Jan.	-	86,1
	Feb.	-	204,8
	March	-	28,6
	April	-	76,4
	May	-	30,5
	June	-	1,4
	July	-	9,8
	Aug.	-	1,9
	Sept.	18,3	19,3
	Oct.	37,7	49,5
	Nov.	99,1	98,0
	Dec.	26,5	8,9
	Total	-	615,2
1968	Jan.	82,1	26,6
	Feb.	67,9	87,8
	March	40,1	105,6
	April	36,0	13,2
	May	1,7	3,0
	June	0,5	3,2
	July	0,0	23,2
	Aug.	16,9	14,4
	Sept.	2,9	1,2
	Oct.	24,3	28,4
	Nov.	45,1	52,0
	Dec.	9,9	44,5
	Total	327,4	403,1
1969	Jan.	69,8	73,7
	Feb.	12,7	22,9
	March	156,6	135,1
	April	59,0	76,9
	May	44,7	47,7
	Total	342,8	356,3

Table 4 The number of animals of each species and sex captured for the first time, and the total number captured during each trapping period from April 1967 to May 1969 in grid P88 on the study area near Pongola in northern Zululand. The % of the total population comprised by each species for each trapping period is indicated (M = males; F = females; T = both sexes).

Trapping period	Total population						<u>Praomys (M.) natalensis</u>					<u>Lemniscomys griselda</u>					<u>Saccostomus campestris</u>					<u>Leggada minutoides</u>					<u>Steatomys pratensis</u>					<u>Aethomys chrysophilus</u>																							
	First capt.			Total capt.			First capt.			Total capt.		First capt.		Total capt.			First capt.		Total capt.			First capt.		Total capt.			First capt.		Total capt.																										
	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	%	M	F	T	M	F	T	%	M	F	T	M	F	T	%	M	F	T	M	F	T	%	M	F	T	M	F	T	%														
26. 4.67- 1. 5.67	-	-	26	-	-	26	-	-	17	-	-	17	65	-	-	2	-	-	2	8	-	-	3	-	-	3	12	-	-	1	-	-	1	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	-	-	3	-	-	3	12
12. 9.67-15. 9.67	4	3	7	4	3	7	3	2	5	3	2	5	71	1	0	1	1	0	1	14	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	1	1	14	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1.10.67- 4.10.67	3	3	6	5	4	9	3	3	6	5	4	9	100	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0				
29.10.67- 1.11.67	1	4	5	5	6	11	1	1	2	4	3	7	64	0	1	1	0	1	1	9	0	1	1	0	1	1	9	0	1	1	0	1	1	9	0	0	0	1	0	1	9	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0			
6.12.67- 9.12.67	0	1	1	1	2	3	0	0	0	1	0	1	33	0	1	1	0	1	1	33	0	0	0	0	1	1	33	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0				
27. 1.68-30. 1.68	2	1	3	2	2	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	2	50	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	2	2	0	2	50	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0			
13. 2.68-16. 2.68	4	1	5	5	4	9	0	1	1	0	1	1	11	0	0	0	1	1	2	22	3	1	4	4	2	6	67	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0				
26. 4.68-29. 4.68	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	100	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0				
26. 5.68-29. 5.68	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	1	100	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0				
16. 6.68-18. 6.68	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	1	100	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0				
11. 7.68-13. 7.68	0	1	1	0	2	2	0	0	0	0	1	1	50	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	1	1	50	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0				
3. 9.68- 6. 9.68	0	1	1	0	2	2	0	1	1	0	2	2	100	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0				
19.11.68-22.11.68	0	1	1	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	1	1	100	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0				
15. 2.69-17. 2.69	0	1	1	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	1	1	100	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0				
4. 5.69- 6. 5.69	0	1	1	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	1	1	100	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0				
7. 5.69- 9. 5.69	1	0	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	0	1	100	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0				

Table 5 The number of animals of each species and sex captured for the first time, and the total number captured during each trapping period from May 1967 to May 1969 in grid P89 on the study area. The percentage of the total population comprised by each species for each trapping period is indicated (M = males; F = females; T = both sexes).

Trapping period	Total Population			<u>Praomys (M.) natalensis</u>				<u>Lemniscomys griselda</u>				<u>Saccostomus campestris</u>				<u>Leggada minutoides</u>				<u>Steatomys pratensis</u>				<u>Aethomys chrysophilus</u>																									
	First capt.			Total capt.			First capt.			Total capt.			First capt.			Total capt.			First capt.			Total capt.			First capt.			Total capt.																					
	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T													
4. 5.67- 8. 5.67	-	-	25	-	-	25	-	-	13	-	-	13	52	-	-	3	-	-	3	12	-	-	1	-	-	1	4	-	-	6	-	-	6	24	-	-	2	-	-	2	8	-	-	-	-	-	-		
6. 9.67- 9. 9.67	9	11	20	9	11	20	6	6	12	6	6	12	60	1	1	2	1	1	2	10	0	0	0	0	0	4	4	0	4	4	20	2	0	2	2	0	2	10	0	0	0	0	0	0	0				
27. 9.67-30. 9.67	6	2	8	8	5	13	3	1	4	4	4	8	62	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	2	0	2	15	2	1	3	2	1	3	23	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
25.10.67-28.10.67	6	3	9	9	6	15	4	2	6	6	5	11	73	1	1	2	1	1	2	13	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	2	0	2	13	0	0	0	0	0	0	0					
2.12.67- 5.12.67	0	0	0	4	2	6	0	0	0	2	2	4	67	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	2	33	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
27. 1.68-30. 1.68	2	4	6	5	5	10	0	0	0	1	1	2	20	1	1	2	1	2	3	30	2	1	3	2	1	3	30	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	2	30	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
13. 2.68-16. 2.68	4	5	9	5	7	12	1	0	1	2	1	3	25	0	2	2	0	2	2	17	3	2	5	3	3	6	50	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	1	1	8	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
22. 4.68-25. 4.68	3	1	4	3	1	4	1	0	1	1	0	1	25	0	1	1	0	1	1	25	2	0	2	2	0	2	50	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
14. 5.68-17. 5.68	0	2	2	0	2	2	0	1	1	0	1	1	50	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	1	1	50	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
27. 6.68-30. 6.68	1	2	3	1	3	4	0	2	2	0	3	3	75	1	0	1	1	0	1	25	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
14. 7.68-17. 7.68	0	1	1	1	1	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	1	2	100	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
3. 9.68- 6. 9.68	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
19.11.68-22.11.68	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
15. 2.69-17. 2.69	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
4. 5.69- 6. 5.69	1	1	2	1	1	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	1	1	50	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	0	1	50	0	0	0	0
7. 5.69- 9. 5.69	1	1	2	1	2	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	2	1	2	3	100	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

Table 6 The number of animals of each species and sex captured for the first time, and the total number captured during each trapping period from August 1967 to May 1969 in grid P50 on the study area. The percentage of the total population comprised by each species for each trapping period is indicated (M = males; F = females; T = both sexes).

Trapping period	Total Population			<u>Praomys (M.) natalensis</u>					<u>Lemniscomys griselda</u>					<u>Saccostomus campestris</u>					<u>Leggada minutoides</u>					<u>Steatomys pratensis</u>					<u>Otomys angnoniensis</u>																													
	First capt.			Total capt.			First capt.			Total capt.			First capt.			Total capt.			First capt.			Total capt.			First capt.			Total capt.			First capt.			Total capt.																								
	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T																
26.8.67-29.8.67	16	7	23	16	7	23	10	5	15	10	5	15	65	4	2	6	4	2	6	26	2	0	2	2	0	2	9	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0							
23.9.67-26.9.67	7	9	16	11	12	23	5	3	8	8	6	14	60	1	4	5	1	4	5	21	1	1	2	2	1	3	13	0	1	1	0	1	1	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0						
21.10.67-24.10.67	8	5	13	16	12	28	5	3	8	11	7	18	64	0	0	0	0	1	1	4	1	1	2	3	2	5	18	1	1	2	1	2	3	11	1	0	1	1	0	1	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0					
28.11.67-1.12.67	8	4	12	13	7	20	6	2	8	9	5	14	70	0	1	1	0	1	1	5	2	0	2	2	0	2	10	0	1	1	1	1	2	10	0	0	0	1	0	1	5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0		
17.1.68-20.1.68	1	4	5	6	9	15	0	1	1	4	5	9	60	0	1	1	0	1	1	7	1	2	3	1	2	3	20	0	0	0	1	1	2	13	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0			
6.2.68 - 9.2.68	11	6	17	16	10	26	4	1	5	7	5	12	46	0	1	1	1	1	2	8	6	4	10	6	4	10	38	1	0	1	2	0	2	8	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0			
14.4.68-17.4.68	6	2	8	8	4	12	1	0	1	2	1	3	25	1	1	2	1	1	2	17	4	1	5	5	2	7	58	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0				
4.5.68 - 7.5.68	3	8	11	6	13	19	0	1	1	0	2	2	11	1	2	3	2	2	4	21	2	5	7	4	9	13	68	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0				
22.5.68-25.5.68	2	1	3	8	8	16	1	0	1	2	1	3	19	0	1	1	0	2	2	13	1	0	1	6	5	11	69	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0				
12.6.68-15.6.68	2	5	7	6	9	15	0	0	0	2	1	3	20	2	5	7	2	5	7	47	0	0	0	2	3	5	33	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0				
23.6.68-26.6.68	7	2	9	12	9	21	0	0	0	1	0	1	5	6	2	8	8	5	13	62	0	0	0	2	3	5	24	1	0	1	1	1	2	10	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0			
7.7.68 -10.7.68	0	1	1	5	5	10	0	0	0	1	0	1	10	0	0	0	4	3	7	70	0	0	0	0	1	1	10	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	1	1	10	1	1	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10
21.7.68-24.7.68	1	2	3	7	10	17	0	0	0	1	0	1	6	1	0	1	3	5	8	48	0	2	2	2	5	7	41	0	0	0	1	0	1	6	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0			
30.8.68- 2.9.68	1	0	1	3	3	6	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	17	0	0	0	1	2	3	50	1	0	1	2	0	2	33	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0				
23.11.68-26.11.68	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	100	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0				
11.2.69-14.2.69	6	1	7	6	2	8	0	0	0	0	1	1	13	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	6	1	7	6	1	7	88	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0				
30.4.69- 3.5.69	2	1	3	2	1	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	1	3	2	1	3	100	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0				
14.5.69-17.5.69	6	4	10	8	4	12	1	0	1	1	0	1	8	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	5	4	9	7	4	11	92	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0							

Table 7 The number of animals of each species and sex captured for the first time, and the total number captured during each trapping period from May 1967 to May 1969 in grid P46 on the study area. The percentage of the total population comprised by each species for each trapping period is indicated.

Trapping Period	Total Population			<u>P. (M.) natalensis</u>			<u>Lemniscomys griselda</u>			<u>Saccostomus campestris</u>			<u>Leggada minutoides</u>			<u>Aethomys chrysophilus</u>			<u>Tatera brantsi</u>																							
	First capture			Total capture			First capture			Total capture			First capture			Total capture			First capture			Total capture																				
	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T												
30. 5.67 - 3. 6.67	-	-	177	-	-	177	-	-	153	-	-	153	86	-	-	6	-	-	6	3	-	-	18	-	-	18	10	-	-	0	-	-	0	0	-	-	0	0	-	-	0	0
19. 9.67 - 22. 9.67	22	8	30	22	8	30	17	4	21	17	4	21	70	4	3	7	4	3	7	23	0	1	1	0	1	1	3	1	0	1	1	0	1	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
14.10.67 - 17.10.67	6	6	12	18	10	28	2	4	6	13	6	19	68	2	2	4	3	4	7	25	1	0	1	1	0	1	4	1	0	1	1	0	1	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
2.11.67 - 5.11.67	8	5	13	19	11	30	5	2	7	15	6	21	70	3	1	4	4	2	6	20	0	1	1	0	1	1	3	0	1	1	0	2	2	7	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
10.12.67 - 13.12.67	13	6	19	21	12	33	12	6	18	19	12	31	94	0	0	0	1	0	1	3	1	0	1	1	0	1	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
23. 1.68 - 26. 1.68	19	6	25	27	15	42	10	2	12	17	10	27	64	2	1	3	3	1	4	10	7	3	10	7	3	10	24	0	0	0	0	1	1	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
17. 2.68 - 20. 2.68	11	19	30	23	33	56	2	7	9	11	17	28	50	2	4	6	2	5	7	13	6	5	11	7	8	15	27	0	2	2	2	2	4	7	1	1	2	4	0	0	0	0
18. 4.68 - 21. 4.68	18	20	38	24	24	48	8	7	15	9	9	18	38	1	3	4	1	4	5	10	9	10	19	14	10	24	50	0	0	0	0	1	1	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
30. 4.68 - 3. 5.68	9	7	16	22	18	40	3	4	7	9	9	18	45	2	0	2	2	0	2	5	4	3	7	11	8	19	48	0	0	0	0	1	1	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
18. 5.68 - 21. 5.68	5	5	10	15	11	26	0	0	0	3	2	5	19	3	5	8	4	5	9	35	1	0	1	7	3	10	38	1	0	1	1	1	2	8	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
8. 6.68 - 11. 6.68	4	1	5	8	5	13	0	0	0	1	1	2	15	3	1	4	5	2	7	54	0	0	0	0	1	1	8	1	0	1	2	1	3	23	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
19. 6.68 - 22. 6.68	2	2	4	9	7	16	0	0	0	1	1	2	13	1	1	2	1	3	4	25	0	1	1	4	3	7	44	1	0	1	3	0	3	19	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
3. 7.68 - 6. 7.68	1	3	4	7	6	13	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	2	1	4	5	38	1	1	2	5	2	7	54	0	0	0	1	0	1	8	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
17. 7.68 - 20. 7.68	2	0	2	3	4	7	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	3	4	57	0	0	0	2	1	3	43	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
7. 9.68 - 10. 9.68	2	0	2	3	1	4	1	0	1	1	0	1	25	0	0	0	0	1	1	25	1	0	1	1	0	1	25	0	0	0	1	0	1	25	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
15.11.68 - 18.11.68	2	1	3	2	2	4	2	1	3	2	1	3	75	0	0	0	0	1	1	25	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
18. 2.69 - 21. 2.69	1	0	1	3	1	4	0	0	0	2	1	3	75	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	125	0	0	0	0
26. 4.69 - 29. 4.69	11	5	16	11	5	16	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	1	1	6	11	3	14	11	3	14	88	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	16	0	0	0	0
10. 5.69 - 13. 5.69	4	3	7	9	8	17	0	1	1	0	1	1	6	0	0	0	0	1	1	6	4	1	5	9	5	14	82	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	1	16	

Table 8 Results of chemical analyses of eight soil samples on an oven-dry basis taken from the four study grids. Values are indicated as percentages (The locations on the study area where the soil samples were taken are indicated in fig. 3).

Grids	P50		P46				P88 and P89	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Position of soil samples								
Depth in cm	0-10	0-10	0-10	0-10	0-10	0-10	0-10	0-10
pH	5,7	6,0	6,5	6,2	5,6	5,9	6,3	6,6
Resistance in ohms at 15.5°C	810	810	380	420	590	590	449	370
CaCO ₃	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,0
Phosphorus (as P)	0,0007	0,0010	0,0012	0,0007	0,0015	0,0010	0,0014	0,0010
Sodium (Na)	0,006	0,005	0,007	0,006	0,009	0,012	0,006	0,007
Potassium (K)	0,034	0,029	0,036	0,047	0,041	0,060	0,019	0,038
Calcium (Ca)	0,075	0,136	0,279	0,225	0,110	0,152	0,320	0,272
Magnesium (Mg)	0,030	0,047	0,071	0,068	0,056	0,073	0,046	0,086
Carbon (C)	1,24	1,69	2,16	2,26	1,62	2,20	2,39	2,12
Nitrogen (N)	0,14	0,17	0,26	0,24	0,21	0,25	0,27	0,20
C : N ratio	8,86	9,94	8,31	9,42	7,71	8,80	8,85	10,60
Incandescence loss	5,65	6,67	7,18	7,83	5,99	7,35	7,37	12,27
Humus	2,15	2,82	3,74	3,91	2,80	3,81	4,03	3,67
Org. Mat.	2,36	3,11	4,11	4,30	3,08	4,19	4,44	4,03

Table 9 Analyses of eight soil samples taken from the four study grids. Water soluble cations and anions in 1 part soil + 5 parts water extract, as milliequivalents per 100 gram soil on an oven-dry basis (The locations on the study area where the soil samples were taken are indicated in fig. 3).

Grids	P50		P46				P88 and P89	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Position of soil samples								
Depth in cm	0-10	0-10	0-10	0-10	0-10	0-10	0-10	0-10
Cations Na ⁺	0,12	0,11	0,15	0,17	0,16	0,20	0,12	0,13
K ⁺	0,09	0,09	0,12	0,18	0,13	0,19	0,04	0,09
Ca ²⁺	0,08	0,14	0,37	0,26	0,14	0,17	0,40	0,33
Mg ²⁺	0,02	0,00	0,04	0,07	0,00	0,00	0,04	0,09
Sum of cations	0,31	0,34	0,68	0,68	0,43	0,56	0,60	0,64
Anions Cl ⁻	0,10	0,05	0,08	0,05	0,05	0,08	0,05	0,05
SO ₄ ²⁺	0,05	0,00	0,00	0,05	0,10	0,00	0,16	0,16
CO ₃ ²⁻	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00
HCO ₃ ⁻	0,10	0,21	0,27	0,27	0,16	0,16	0,27	0,31
NO ₃ ⁻	0,10	0,07	0,29	0,32	0,18	0,24	0,22	0,19
Sum of anions	0,35	0,33	0,64	0,69	0,49	0,48	0,70	0,71

Table 10 Analyses of eight soil samples taken from the four study grids. Percentage particle size (in mm) calculated on an oven-dry basis (The locations on the study area where the soil samples were taken are indicated in fig. 3).

Grids	P50		P46				P88 and P89	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Position of soil samples								
Depth in cms	0-10	0-10	0-10	0-10	0-10	0-10	0-10	0-10
Colour (dry)	Brown Red	Brown Red	Dark Brown	Dark Brown	Brown Red	Red Brown	Black	Black
Stone > 2 (% particle size in mm)	0,5	1,2	1,1	0,9	0,7	0,7	0,0	3,8
Course sand (% particle size in mm) 2.0 - 0.5	9,6	9,6	6,5	6,4	8,0	6,6	7,7	5,8
Medium sand (% particle size in mm) 0.5 - 0.2	14,9	12,4	9,1	8,6	10,3	9,1	13,8	9,3
Fine sand (% particle size in mm) 0.20 - 0.02	28,3	26,4	22,5	21,3	24,1	21,4	30,1	30,9
Silt (% particle size in mm) 0.02 - 0.002	3,7	8,2	9,9	8,7	12,3	15,6	6,5	4,5
Clay (% particle size in mm) < 0.002	40,5	40,9	51,4	52,6	45,6	45,2	36,7	51,3
Total	97,5	98,7	100,5	98,5	101,0	98,6	94,8	105,6

Table 11 Trees, shrubs and grasses recorded from the study grids.
 Presence of a particular species in a grid is denoted as x.

	Grids		
	P46	P50	P88 & P89
Trees and shrubs			
<i>Acacia tortilis</i>	x	x	
<i>A. karroo</i>	x	x	
<i>A. nilotica</i>	x	x	x
<i>A. nigrescens</i>		x	x
<i>A. senegal</i>		x	x
<i>Aloe marlothi</i>	x	x	x
<i>Boscia albitrunca</i>	x		
<i>Azima tetracantha</i>	x		
<i>Nuxia congesta</i>	x	x	
<i>Ziziphus mucronata</i>		x	x
<i>Maytenus senegalensis</i>		x	x
<i>M. heterophylla</i>		x	x
<i>Dichrostachys cinera</i>		x	
<i>Spirostachys africana</i>		x	
<i>Ormocarpum tricocarpum</i>			x
<i>Bolusanthus speciosus</i>			x
<i>Grewia</i> spp.			x
<i>Sclerocarya birrea</i>			x
<i>Commiphora pyrecanthoides</i>			x
Grasses			
<i>Panicum maximum</i>	x	x	x
<i>P. deustum</i>	x	x	x
<i>Sporobolus smutsii</i>	x	x	x
<i>Bothriocloa insculpta</i>	x	x	x
<i>Urocloa mosambicus</i>	x	x	
<i>Chloris virgata</i>	x	x	
<i>Digitaria</i> spp.		x	x
<i>Eragrostis superba</i>		x	x
<i>Aristida congesta</i>		x	x
<i>Cenchrus ciliaris</i>		x	x
<i>Diplachne eleusine</i>			x
<i>Fingerhutia</i> spp.			x
<i>Cymbopogon excavatus</i>			x
<i>Heteropogon contortus</i>			x
<i>Rhynchelytrum repens</i>			x
<i>Themeda triandra</i>			x

Table 12 Dieldrin and photodieldrin residues (in ppm) on the veld at increasing intervals after treatment (mean of three replicates) on the study area (From Wiese and Basson, unpublished data).

Days	Dieldrin	Photodieldrin
0	15,08 ± 1,14	0,12 ± 0,01
1	10,61 ± 1,24	1,67 ± 0,02
2	9,29 ± 1,09	4,05 ± 0,52
7	4,34 ± 0,17	7,3 ± 0,40
14	1,97 ± 0,37	8,37 ± 0,73
21	1,65 ± 0,45	6,65 ± 0,50
30	1,00 ± 0,30	4,57 ± 0,60
42	0,46 ± 0,17	4,26 ± 0,02
56	0,38 ± 0,15	3,20 ± 0,03
90	0,11 ± 0,02	1,40 ± 0,03
146	0,08 ± 0,02	0,67 ± 0,03
189	0,02 ± 0,02	0,35 ± 0,04
258	0,01 ± 0,01	0,20 ± 0,08
380	< 0,01	< 0,01

Table 13 Dieldrin and photodieldrin residues (in ppm) in carcasses of rodents exposed to treated habitat on the study area at increasing intervals after treatment. Sample sizes are shown in brackets.

Time elapsed between dieldrin application and sampling (days)	Pesticide	<u>L. griselda</u>	<u>S. campestris</u>	<u>C. hirta</u>
10	Dieldrin Photodieldrin	0,010(5) 0,000	- -	- -
16	Dieldrin Photodieldrin	- -	0,015(2) 0,000	- -
20	Dieldrin Photodieldrin	0,054(6) 0,000	- -	- -
60	Dieldrin Photodieldrin	0,102(3) 0,000	- -	4,660(1) 0,206

Table 14 Dieldrin and photodieldrin residues (in ppm) in tissues of wethers exposed to treated grazing at increasing intervals after treatment (mean of two replicates) in the Lydenburg district (From Wiese ^{et al.} ~~and Basson~~, 1970).

Time elapsed between dieldrin application and sampling(days)	Pesticide	Wethers		
		Muscle	Liver	Fat
14	Dieldrin	0,645	3,800	13,000
	Photodieldrin	0,090	0,215	1,500
30	Dieldrin	0,640	2,655	8,115
	Photodieldrin	0,065	0,435	1,115
65	Dieldrin	0,435	0,870	7,000
	Photodieldrin	0,020	0,040	0,140
90	Dieldrin	0,110	0,325	0,965
	Photodieldrin	0,003	0,004	0,080

Table 15 Dieldrin and photodieldrin residues (in ppm) in tissues of oxen exposed to treated grazing after 30 and 90 days intervals (mean of two replicates) in the Lydenburg district (From Wiese ^{et al.} ~~and Basson~~, 1970).

Time elapsed between dieldrin application and sampling(days)	Pesticide	Oxen		
		Muscle	Liver	Fat
30	Dieldrin	0,265	1,700	6,700
	Photodieldrin	0,013	0,060	0,295
90	Dieldrin	0,148	1,087	4,800
	Photodieldrin	<0,002	0,018	0,044

Table 16 Percentages pregnant females (P) and scrotal males (S) of Praomys (Mastomys) natalensis, Saccostomus campestris, and Lemniscomys griselda observed on grids P88 and P89 from September 1967 to May 1969. (M = males; F = females).

Trapping Period	<u>P. natalensis</u>				<u>S. campestris</u>				<u>L. griselda</u>			
	No. F	% P	No. M	% S	No. F	% P	No. M	% S	No. F	% P	No. M	% S
6. 9.67 - 15. 9.67	8	25	9	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	2	0
27. 9.67 - 4.10.67	8	100	9	100	0	0	2	50	0	0	0	0
25.10.67 - 1.11.67	8	75	10	60	1	0	0	0	2	0	1	100
2.12.67 - 9.12.67	2	100	3	100	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
27. 1.68 - 30. 1.68	1	100	1	100	2	0	3	100	2	0	1	0
13. 2.68 - 16. 2.68	2	50	2	100	5	0	7	71	3	67	1	0
22. 4.68 - 29. 4.68	2	0	2	0	0	0	2	50	1	0	0	0
14. 5.68 - 29. 5.68	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
16. 6.68 - 30. 6.68	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0
11. 7.68 - 17. 7.68	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	1	0
3. 9.68 - 6. 9.68	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0
19.11.68 - 22.11.68	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
15. 2.69 - 17. 2.69	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
4. 5.69 - 9. 5.69	0	0	0	0	4	25	2	100	0	0	0	0

Table 17 Percentage of pregnant females (P) and scrotal males (S) of Praomys (Mastomys) natalensis, Saccostomus campestris, and Lemniscomys griselda observed on grid P50 from August 1967 to May 1969. (M = males; F = females).

Trapping Period	<u>P. natalensis</u>				<u>S. campestris</u>				<u>L. griselda</u>			
	No. F	% P	No. M	% S	No. F	% P	No. M	% S	No. F	% P	No. M	% S
26. 8.67 - 29. 8.67	5	0	10	0	0	0	2	100	2	0	4	0
23. 9.67 - 26. 9.67	6	67	8	38	1	0	2	100	4	100	1	100
21.10.67 - 24.10.67	7	29	11	64	2	50	3	100	1	0	0	0
28.11.67 - 1.12.67	5	60	9	89	0	0	2	100	1	0	0	0
17. 1.68 - 20. 1.68	5	60	4	75	2	0	1	100	1	100	0	0
6. 2.68 - 9. 2.68	5	60	7	100	4	25	6	83	1	0	1	100
14. 4.68 - 17. 4.68	1	0	2	100	2	0	5	20	1	0	1	100
4. 5.68 - 7. 5.68	2	0	0	0	9	0	4	25	2	0	2	100
22. 5.68 - 25. 5.68	1	0	2	0	5	0	6	0	2	0	0	0
12. 6.68 - 15. 6.68	1	0	2	0	3	0	2	0	5	0	2	0
23. 6.68 - 26. 6.68	0	0	1	0	3	0	2	0	5	0	8	0
7. 7.68 - 10. 7.68	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	3	0	4	0
21. 7.68 - 24. 7.68	0	0	1	0	5	0	2	0	5	0	3	0
30. 8.68 - 2. 9.68	0	0	0	0	2	0	1	100	1	0	0	0
23.11.68 - 26.11.68	2	0	1	100	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
11. 2.69 - 14. 2.69	1	0	0	0	1	0	6	100	0	0	0	0
30. 4.69 - 3. 5.69	0	0	0	0	1	0	2	100	0	0	0	0
14. 5.69 - 19. 5.69	0	0	1	0	4	50	7	86	0	0	0	0

Table 18 Percentage of pregnant females (P) and scrotal males (S) of Pracmys (Mastomys) natalensis, Saccostomus campestris, and Lemniscomys griselda observed on grid P46 from September 1967 to May 1969 (M= males; F = females).

	<u>P. natalensis</u>				<u>S. campestris</u>				<u>L. griselda</u>			
	No. F	% P	No. M	% S	No. F	% P	No. M	% S	No. F	% P	No. M	% S
19. 9.67 - 22. 9.67	4	75	17	36	1	0	0	0	3	0	4	25
14.10.67 - 17.10.67	6	67	13	62	0	0	1	100	4	0	3	0
2.11.67 - 5.11.67	6	0	15	80	1	0	0	0	2	0	4	75
10.12.67 - 13.12.67	12	0	19	100	0	0	1	100	0	0	1	100
23. 1.68 - 26. 1.68	10	0	17	71	3	0	7	57	1	0	3	67
17. 2.68 - 20. 2.68	17	0	11	91	8	0	7	43	5	0	2	100
18. 4.68 - 21. 4.68	9	0	9	33	10	0	14	44	4	0	1	0
30. 4.68 - 3. 5.68	9	0	9	22	8	0	11	91	0	0	2	0
18. 5.68 - 21. 5.68	2	0	3	0	3	0	7	0	5	0	4	0
8. 6.68 - 11. 6.68	1	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	2	0	5	0
19. 6.68 - 22. 6.68	1	0	1	0	3	0	4	25	3	0	1	0
3. 7.68 - 6. 7.68	0	0	0	0	2	0	5	0	4	0	1	0
17. 7.68 - 20. 7.68	0	0	0	0	1	0	2	0	3	0	1	0
7. 9.68 - 10. 9.68	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	100	1	0	0	0
15.11.68 - 18.11.68	1	0	2	50	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
18. 2.69 - 21. 2.69	1	0	2	100	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
26. 4.69 - 29. 4.69	0	0	0	0	3	0	11	55	1	0	0	0
10. 5.69 - 13. 5.69	1	0	0	0	5	0	9	89	1	0	0	0

Table 19 Average maximum distance (in feet) between points of capture (av. M) for Praomys (Mastomys) natalensis on grids P46, P50, and P88 & P89. n indicates the number of observations after each capture (100 ft = 30,48 m).

Frequency of captures	Grid P46						Grid P50						Grids P89 & P88						All grids					
	Males		Females		Total		Males		Females		Total		Males		Females		Total		Males		Females		Total	
	n	av.M	n	av.M	n	av.M	n	av.M	n	av.M	n	av.M	n	av.M	n	av.M	n	av.M	n	av.M	n	av.M	n	av.M
2	53	93	33	69	86	84	27	67	12	84	39	72	14	86	13	65	27	76	94	85	58	71	152	80
3	42	103	24	113	66	107	20	145	11	97	31	128	14	112	10	133	24	116 116	76	116	45	112	121	147 147
4	28	136	21	111	49	126	15	209	8	192	23	203	12	131	10	203	22	164	55	156	39	151	94	154
5	20	205	16	161	36	186	9	239	7	187	16	216	7	185	7	258	14	222	36	210	30	190	66	200
6	16	199	15	172	31	186	8	274	7	199	15	239	4	176	6	291	10	284 284	28	217	28	204	56	211
7	12	200	12	172	24	186	8	274	6	145	14	219	4	176	5	332	9	263	24	220	23	199	47	209
8	12	200	12	172	24	186	6	302	5	104	11	212	3	130	3	296	6	213	21	220	20	149	41	185
9	9	230	8	155	17	195	4	300	4	119	8	210	3	169	3	296	6	232	16	236	15	174	31	206
10	8	231	6	173	14	206	4	300	3	61	7	198	2	232	3	296	5	270	14	251	12	176	26	216
11	7	290	6	211	13	253	2	304	3	107	5	186	2	446	2	121	4	283	11	321	11	166	22	243
12	6	300	6	211	12	255	2	308	1	122	3	246	2	446	2	233	4	339	10	331	9	205	19	271
13	5	323	5	221	10	272	1	486	1	232	2	359	2	446	2	233	4	339	8	374	8	225	16	300
14	4	305	4	198	8	252	1	486	1	232	2	359	2	446	2	233	4	339	7	371	7	225	14	292
15	3	320	4	198	7	250	1	486	1	396	2	441	2	446	2	245	4	346	6	390	7	240	13	309
16	2	442	2	166	4	304	1	486	1	396	2	441	1	775	2	245	3	422	4	536	5	244	9	374
17	1	272	2	166	3	201	1	486	1	396	2	441	1	775	1	336	2	556	3	511	4	266	7	371
18			2	180	2	180			1	396	1	396	1	775	1	336	2	556	1	775	4	273	5	373
19			2	180	2	180			1	396	1	396	1	775	1	336	2	556	1	775	4	273	5	373
20			2	180	2	180			1	396	1	396	1	775			1	775	1	775	3	252	4	383
21			1	262	1	262							1	775			1	775	1	775	1	262	2	519
22													1	775			1	775	1	775			1	775
23													1	775			1	775	1	775			1	775

Table 20 Average maximum distance (in feet) between points of capture (av.M) for Saccostomus campestris, on grids P46, P50, and P88 & P89. n indicates the number of observations after each capture (100 ft = 30,48 m).

Frequency of captures	Grid P46						Grid P50						Grids P89 & P88						All Grids					
	Males		Females		Total		Males		Females		Total		Males		Females		Total		Males		Females		Total	
	n	av.M	n	av.M	n	av.M	n	av.M	n	av.M	n	av.M	n	av.M	n	av.M	n	av.M	n	av.M	n	av.M	n	av.M
2	26	111	16	96	42	106	21	67	11	75	32	70	5	109	4	74	9	93	52	93	31	86	83	90
3	23	152	13	141	36	149	17	94	8	119	25	102	3	159	2	99	5	135	43	132	23	130	66	131
4	19	180	8	156	27	173	10	132	5	112	15	125	1	177	1	192	2	185	30	164	14	143	44	157
5	13	239	5	132	18	209	7	168	4	127	11	153			1	192	1	192	20	214	10	136	30	188
6	8	140	3	143	11	141	7	175	4	127	11	157			1	327	1	327	15	156	8	158	23	157
7	4	170	3	155	7	163	5	182	3	98	8	150			1	327	1	327	9	176	7	177	16	176
8	3	212	2	184	5	201	3	134	2	109	5	124							6	171	4	146	10	161
9	2	264	2	184	4	224	2	140	2	138	4	139							4	202	4	161	8	182
10			2	184	2	184	2	187	2	164	4	175							2	187	4	174	6	178
11			1	272	1	272	2	187	2	164	4	175							2	187	3	200	5	195
12			1	272	1	272	2	187	2	182	4	185							2	187	3	212	5	202
13			1	272	1	272	2	187	2	204	4	195							2	187	3	227	5	211
14			1	272	1	272	2	187	2	304	4	250							2	187	3	293	5	251
15			1	272	1	272	1	304	1	192	2	248							1	304	2	232	3	256
16			1	272	1	272	1	304			1	304							1	304	1	272	2	288
17			1	272	1	272	1	304			1	304							1	304	1	272	2	288
18							1	304			1	304							1	304			1	304

Table 21 Average maximum distance (in feet) between points of capture (av.M) for *Lemniscomys griselda* on grids P46, P50, and P88 & P89. n indicates the number of observations after each capture (100 ft = 30,48 m).

Frequency of captures	Grid P46						Grid P50						Grids P89 & P88						All Grids					
	Males		Females		Total		Males		Females		Total		Males		Females		Total		Males		Females		Total	
	n	av.M	n	av.M	n	av.M	n	av.M	n	av.M	n	av.M	n	av.M	n	av.M	n	av.M	n	av.M	n	av.M	n	av.M
2	16	182	17	85	33	132	7	73	10	77	17	75	4	100	3	46	7	77	27	141	30	78	57	118
3	11	210	12	148	23	177	7	133	6	136	13	134	3	272	3	272	21	193	18	144	39	170		
4	6	196	7	132	13	162	4	86	4	171	8	128	2	96	2	96	12	143	11	146	23	144		
5	4	203	5	122	9	158	3	95	3	98	6	96	1	96	1	96	8	149	8	113	16	131		
6	2	164	5	164	7	164	2	139	3	127	5	132					4	151	8	150	12	150		
7	1	232	5	164	6	176	2	139	2	155	4	147					3	170	7	162	10	164		
8	1	232	3	128	4	154	2	174	2	155	4	164					3	193	5	139	8	159		
9	1	232	2	109	3	150	2	174	2	155	4	164					3	193	4	132	7	158		
10	1	232	2	109	3	150	2	174	2	155	4	164					3	193	4	132	7	158		
11	1	232	2	185	3	200	2	174	2	155	4	164					3	193	4	169	7	185 ¹⁷⁹		
12	1	232	1	219	2	225	2	174	2	155	4	164					3	193	3	171	6	185 ¹⁸²		
13	1	232			1	232	1	251	2	155	3	187					2	241	2	155	4	190		
14	1	232			1	232	1	251	1	155	2	203					2	241	1	155	3	177		
15	1	232			1	232	1	251	1	155	2	203					2	241	1	155	3	177		
16	1	232			1	232			1	155	1	155					1	232	1	155	2	194		
17	1	232			1	232			1	155	1	155					1	232	1	155	2	194		
18	1	232			1	232			1	155	1	155					1	232	1	155	2	194		
19	1	232			1	232			1	155	1	155					1	232	1	155	2	194		
20	1	232			1	232			1	155	1	155					1	232	1	155	2	194		
21	1	232			1	232			1	155	1	155					1	232	1	155	2	194		
22	1	232			1	232			1	155	1	155					1	232	1	155	2	194		
23	1	232			1	232			1	192	1	192					1	232	1	192	2	212		
24									1	192	1	192							1	192	1	192		
25									1	192	1	192							1	192	1	192		
26									1	192	1	192							1	192	1	192		

Table 22 Average maximum distance (in feet) between points of capture (av.M) for Leggada minutoides (sexes combined) on all grids combined (100 ft = 30,48 m).

Frequency of captures	n	av.M
2	7	196
3	6	285
4	5	333
5	3	330
6	3	330
7	2	359
8	1	262

Table 23 *Praomys (Mastomys) natalensis* seasonal mean total head and body length, tail length and body mass of male, female, and sexes combined on the study area.

Season	MALES					FEMALES					TOTAL				
	\bar{X}	SD	SE	range	n	\bar{X}	SD	SE	range	n	\bar{X}	SD	SE	range	n
BODY MASS (g)															
Spring	28,515	6,134	0,623	17-52	97	24,444	5,139	0,647	17-38	63	26,913	6,083	0,481	17-52	160
Summer	41,753	9,786	1,145	8-62	73	34,177	10,817	1,383	6-57	62	38,274	10,912	0,939	6-62	135
Autumn	23,370	13,485	2,593	7-52	27	24,667	13,121	2,523	6-44	27	24,019	13,195	1,782	6-52	54
Winter	26,333	5,922	2,417	17-32	6	19,800	7,772	2,459	13-38	10	22,250	7,655	1,914	13-38	16
Total	32,527	8,734	0,613	7-62	203	27,920	9,256	0,727	6-57	162	30,483	9,368	0,490	6-62	365
TOTAL LENGTH (mm)															
Spring	193,887	18,377	1,866	169-255	97	184,730	20,967	2,646	148-254	63	190,281	19,887	1,572	148-255	160
Summer	218,644	23,906	2,798	123-250	73	206,855	28,615	3,634	102-254	62	213,230	26,732	2,301	102-254	135
Autumn	181,185	40,359	7,761	121-238	27	181,815	40,414	7,771	122-238	27	181,500	40,005	5,442	121-238	54
Winter	196,833	16,940	6,914	170-209	6	176,700	24,522	7,760	151-225	10	184,250	23,618	5,905	151-225	16
Total	201,187	24,103	1,692	121-255	203	192,216	27,873	2,190	102-254	162	197,206	26,303	1,377	102-255	365
TAIL LENGTH (mm)															
Spring	100,876	12,127	1,231	85-138	97	97,206	12,987	1,636	74-150	63	99,431	12,562	0,993	74-150	160
Summer	108,603	13,103	1,534	64-128	73	102,935	16,610	2,111	40-128	62	106,000	15,029	1,293	40-128	135
Autumn	90,925	21,535	4,141	60-121	27	91,074	22,202	4,269	60-125	27	91,000	21,664	2,948	60-125	54
Winter	102,500	6,656	2,717	93-108	6	86,600	13,938	2,107	71-111	10	92,563	13,947	3,486	71-111	16
Total	102,379	13,852	0,972	60-138	203	97,722	16,123	1,267	40-150	162	100,312	15,114	0,791	40-150	365
HEAD AND BODY LENGTH (mm)															
Spring	93,289	8,504	0,863	68-120	97	88,381	7,343	0,925	71-104	63	91,356	8,395	0,664	68-120	160
Summer	111,411	16,667	1,951	59-126	73	103,887	12,925	1,642	60-126	62	107,956	15,475	1,332	59-126	135
Autumn	90,630	19,879	3,821	61-119	27	90,741	19,050	3,663	59-118	27	90,685	19,284	2,523	59-119	54
Winter	94,333	10,444	4,263	77-102	6	90,100	11,050	3,496	79-114	10	91,688	10,682	2,671	77-114	16
Total	99,483	13,673	0,960	59-126	203	94,815	12,227	0,961	59-126	162	97,411	13,334	0,698	59-126	365

Table 24 Values of t and degrees of freedom (d f) for a comparison of total length between samples of P. (M.) natalensis observed during different seasons on the study area (x - significant, $p < 0.05$; xx - highly significant, $p < 0.01$).

	Values of t					
	Males	d f	Females	d f	Total	d f
Spring - Summer	7,3616 ^{xx}	168	4,9247 ^{xx}	123	8,2358 ^{xx}	293
Spring - Autumn	1,5901	122	0,3549	88	1,5497	212
Spring - Winter	0,4113	101	0,9802	71	0,9870	174
Summer - Autumn	4,5374 ^{xx}	98	2,9168 ^{xx}	87	5,3688 ^{xx}	187
Summer - Winter	2,9236 ^{xx}	77	3,5212 ^{xx}	70	4,5732 ^{xx}	149
Autumn - Winter	1,5047	31	0,4657	35	0,3424	68

Table 25 Values of t and degrees of freedom (d f) for comparison of P. (M.) natalensis male and female mean body mass, total length, tail length, and head and body length, on the study area (x - significant, $p < 0.05$; xx - highly significant, $p < 0.01$).

Season	Values of t							
	Body mass	d f	Total length	d f	Tail length	d f	Head and Body length	d f
Spring	4,5319 ^{xx}	158	2,8314 ^{xx}	158	1,7923	158	3,8786 ^{xx}	158
Summer	4,2357 ^{xx}	133	2,5704 ^x	133	2,1733 ^x	133	2,9513 ^{xx}	133
Autumn	0,3582	52	0,0573	52	0,0250	52	0,0209	52
Winter	1,8950	14	1,9377	14	3,0708 ^{xx}	14	0,7679	14
Total	4,8439 ^{xx}	363	3,2420 ^{xx}	363	2,9165 ^{xx}	363	3,4379 ^{xx}	363

Table 26 Values of t and degrees of freedom (d f) for a comparison of head and body length between samples of P. (M.) natalensis observed during different seasons on the study area (x - significant, $p < 0,05$; xx - highly significant, $p < 0,01$).

	Values of t					
	Males	d f	Females	d f	Total	d f
Spring - Summer	8,4952 ^{xx}	168	8,2295 ^{xx}	123	11,1559 ^{xx}	293
Spring - Autumn	0,6780	122	0,6242	88	0,2479	212
Spring - Winter	0,2400	101	0,4756	71	0,1207	174
Summer - Autumn	4,8392 ^{xx}	98	3,2728 ^{xx}	87	5,8689 ^{xx}	187
Summer - Winter	3,6424 ^{xx}	77	3,5712 ^{xx}	70	5,4514 ^{xx}	149
Autumn - Winter	0,6464	31	0,1266	35	0,2679	68

Table 27 Values of t and degrees of freedom (d f) for a comparison of tail length between samples of P. (M.) natalensis observed during different seasons on the study area (x - significant, $p < 0,05$; xx - highly significant, $p < 0,01$).

	Values of t					
	Males	d f	Females	d f	Total	d f
Spring - Summer	3,9289 ^{xx}	168	2,1460 ^x	123	4,0283 ^{xx}	293
Spring - Autumn	2,3017 ^x	122	1,3402	88	2,7102 ^{xx}	212
Spring - Winter	0,5444	101	2,2559 ^x	71	1,8944	174
Summer - Autumn	4,0005 ^{xx}	98	2,4891 ^x	87	4,6594 ^{xx}	187
Summer - Winter	1,9560	77	3,3430 ^{xx}	70	3,6132 ^{xx}	149
Autumn - Winter	2,3357 ^x	31	0,7288	35	0,3423	68

Table 28 Values of t and degrees of freedom (d f) for a comparison of body mass between samples of P. (M.) natalensis observed during different seasons on the study area (x - significant, $p < 0.05$; xx - highly significant, $p < 0.01$).

	Values of t					
	Males	d f	Females	d f	Total	d f
Spring - Summer	10,1542 ^{xx}	168	6,4092 ^{xx}	123	10,7677 ^{xx}	293
Spring - Autumn	1,9278	122	0,0855	88	1,5569	212
Spring - Winter	0,8740	101	1,8273	71	2,3632 ^x	174
Summer - Autumn	6,4804 ^{xx}	98	3,3083 ^{xx}	87	7,0350 ^{xx}	187
Summer - Winter	5,7641 ^{xx}	77	5,1064 ^{xx}	70	7,5170 ^{xx}	149
Autumn - Winter	0,8354	31	1,3812	35	0,6741	68

Table 29 Seasonal Praomys (Mastomys) natalensis body mass in the study and Roodepoort areas (Roodepoort data from Coetzee, 1967: Table 10).

Season	PONGOLA				ROODEPOORT			
	\bar{X}	SD	SE	n	\bar{X}	SD	SE	n
MALES								
Spring	28,515	6,134	0,623	97	30,790	12,816	0,961	178
Summer	41,753	9,786	1,145	73	38,085	18,651	3,889	23
Autumn	23,370	13,485	2,593	27	21,104	11,808	0,506	544
Winter	26,333	5,922	2,417	6	23,485	7,954	0,231	1176
Total	32,527	8,734	0,613	203	23,670	10,760	0,245	1921
FEMALES								
Spring	24,444	5,139	0,647	63	27,972	10,498	0,655	257
Summer	34,177	10,817	1,383	62	33,385	12,792	1,998	41
Autumn	24,667	13,121	2,523	27	24,829	13,533	0,541	625
Winter	19,800	7,772	2,459	10	21,883	7,727	0,218	1255
Total	27,920	9,256	0,727	162	23,660	10,660	0,299	2178
TOTAL								
Spring	26,913	6,083	0,481	160	29,110	10,967	0,526	435
Summer	38,274	10,912	0,939	135	35,628	14,954	1,869	64
Autumn	24,019	13,195	1,782	54	23,099	12,904	0,377	1169
Winter	22,250	7,655	1,914	16	22,648	8,050	0,163	2431
Total	30,483	9,368	0,490	365	23,660	10,710	0,167	4099

Table 30 Values of t and degrees of freedom (d f) for a comparison of body mass between seasons in samples of P. (M.) natalensis in the Roodepoort area, Transvaal highveld. (Calculated from Coetzee, 1967; x - significant, $p < 0,05$; xx - highly significant, $p < 0,01$).

	Values of t					
	Males	d f	Females	d f	Total	d f
Spring - Summer	1,8206	199	2,5748 ^x	296	3,3567 ^{xx}	497
Spring - Autumn	8,9206 ^{xx}	720	3,6998 ^{xx}	880	9,2877 ^{xx}	1602
Spring - Winter	7,3922 ^{xx}	1352	8,8221 ^{xx}	1510	11,7363 ^{xx}	2864
Summer - Autumn	4,3294 ^{xx}	565	4,1337 ^{xx}	664	6,9179 ^{xx}	1231
Summer - Winter	3,7470 ^{xx}	1197	5,7235 ^{xx}	1294	4,9009 ^{xx}	2493
Autumn - Winter	4,2762 ^{xx}	1718	5,0480 ^{xx}	1878	1,0968	3598

Table 31 Values of t and degrees of freedom (d f) for comparison of Roodepoort P. (M.) natalensis male and female mean body mass (x - significant, $p < 0.05$; xx - highly significant, $p < 0.01$; calculated from Coetzee, 1967).

Seasons	Values of t	d f
	Body mass	
Spring	2,4241 ^x	433
Summer	1,0744	62
Autumn	5,0263 ^{xx}	1167
Winter	5,0314 ^{xx}	2429
Total	0,0298	4097

Table 32 Values of t and degrees of freedom (d f) for a comparison of P. (M.) natalensis body mass from Roodepoort, and the study area for each season (x - significant, $p < 0,05$; xx - highly significant, $p < 0,01$).

Season	Values of t					
	Males	d f	Females	d f	Total	d f
Spring	1,9872 ^x	273	3,8315 ^{xx}	318	3,0831 ^{xx}	593
Summer	0,9053	94	0,3267	101	1,2649	197
Autumn	0,8570	569	0,0627	650	0,5014	1221
Winter	1,1726	1180	0,8442	1263	0,2072	2445
Total	13,4136 ^{xx}	2122	5,5898 ^{xx}	2338	13,1718 ^{xx}	4462

Table 33 Values of t and degrees of freedom (d f) for a comparison of P. (M.) natalensis head and body length and tail length observed during different seasons on the study area (x - significant, $p < 0,05$; xx - highly significant, $p < 0,01$).

Season	Values of t					
	Males	d f	Females	d f	Both Sexes	d f
Spring	5,0452 ^{xx}	192	4,6951 ^{xx}	124	6,7607 ^{xx}	318
Summer	1,1317	144	0,3562	122	1,0535	268
Autumn	0,0523	52	0,0591	52	0,0798	106
Winter	1,6153	10	0,6223	18	0,1992	30
Total	2,1201 ^x	404	1,8286	322	2,7500 ^{xx}	728

Table 34 χ^2 test for significance of deviation from 1:1 ratio between head and body length and tail length of P. (M.) natalensis from the study area during different seasons.

	Males	Females	Both Sexes
Season	χ^2	χ^2	χ^2
Spring	0,2898	0,4172	0,3354
Summer	0,0356	0,0048	0,0186
Autumn	0,0004	0,0008	0,0005
Winter	0,3416	0,0735	0,0034
Total	0,0416	0,0438	0,0427

Table 35 *Saccostomus campestris* seasonal mean total length,  body length, tail length and body mass of male, female, and sexes combined on the study area.

Season	MALES					FEMALES					TOTAL				
	\bar{X}	SD	SE	range	n	\bar{X}	SD	SE	range	n	\bar{X}	SD	SE	range	n
BODY MASS (g)															
Spring	70,667	24,088	6,225	34-106	15	57,455	17,276	5,203	30-73	11	65,077	22,105	4,333	30-106	26
Summer	40,368	15,555	2,524	18-70	38	46,250	13,034	2,661	20-66	24	42,619	14,764	1,875	18-70	62
Autumn	47,675	12,137	1,383	28-72	77	40,241	9,907	1,298	25-63	58	44,481	11,787	1,016	25-72	135
Winter	39,882	7,999	1,941	31-56	17	38,211	6,373	1,462	31-55	19	39,000	7,131	1,188	31-56	36
Total	47,231	14,165	1,168	18-106	147	42,875	10,912	1,031	20-66	112	45,341	13,340	0,829	18-106	259
TOTAL LENGTH (mm)															
Spring	182,800	18,475	4,773	144-207	15	172,818	19,712	5,937	140-192	11	178,577	19,284	3,782	140-207	26
Summer	153,079	24,198	3,928	113-196	38	167,041	18,442	3,763	116-194	24	158,587	22,977	2,919	113-196	62
Autumn	167,922	15,795	1,801	131-191	77	159,052	14,443	1,895	135-184	58	164,111	15,800	1,361	131-191	135
Winter	159,824	10,345	2,519	145-178	17	160,105	10,878	2,494	146-184	19	159,972	10,479	1,746	145-192	36
Total	164,667	17,964	1,482	113-207	147	162,295	15,225	1,439	116-194	112	163,666	17,476	1,086	113-207	259
TAIL LENGTH (mm)															
Spring	56,667	4,952	1,270	45-60	15	53,273	5,764	1,730	45-62	11	54,077	5,245	1,020	45-62	26
Summer	45,947	7,519	1,220	33-58	38	51,720	6,208	1,267	33-59	24	48,238	7,534	0,957	33-59	62
Autumn	53,090	8,633	0,984	41-64	77	49,690	5,880	0,772	37-60	58	51,630	7,735	0,665	37-64	135
Winter	48,353	3,481	0,844	42-55	17	49,211	4,184	0,956	41-56	19	48,806	3,838	0,636	41-56	36
Total	51,061	7,537	0,622	33-64	147	50,396	5,619	0,531	33-62	112	50,671	7,011	0,436	33-64	259
HEAD AND BODY LENGTH (mm)															
Spring	128,133	16,638	4,260	91-147	15	120,363	16,415	4,940	91-133	11	124,850	16,677	3,270	91-147	26
Summer	106,974	17,814	2,891	80-138	38	114,208	12,177	2,485	83-138	24	109,778	16,091	2,040	80-138	62
Autumn	114,532	11,607	1,323	74-133	77	109,362	10,442	1,378	95-128	58	112,311	11,375	0,980	74-133	135
Winter	111,471	7,803	1,891	96-124	17	111,211	7,130	1,636	101-128	19	111,333	7,348	1,225	96-138	36
Total	113,612	13,556	1,118	74-147	147	111,795	10,919	1,032	83-138	112	112,827	12,755	0,793	74-147	259

Table 36 Values of t and degrees of freedom (d f) for a comparison of total length between samples of Saccostomus campestris observed during different seasons on the study area (x - significant, $p < 0,05$; xx - highly significant, $p < 0,01$).

	Values of t					
	Males	d f	Females	d f	Total	d f
Spring - Summer	4,8810 ^{xx}	51	0,8212	33	4,1848 ^{xx}	86
Spring - Autumn	2,9181 ^{xx}	90	2,2066 ^x	67	3,5995 ^{xx}	159
Spring - Winter	4,2629 ^{xx}	30	1,9722	28	4,4662 ^{xx}	60
Summer - Autumn	3,4372 ^{xx}	113	1,8953	80	1,7159	195
Summer - Winter	1,4478	53	1,5357	41	0,4073	96
Autumn - Winter	2,6225 ^x	92	0,3359	75	1,8700	169

Table 37 Values of t and degrees of freedom (d f) for a comparison between Saccostomus campestris male and female mass, total length, tail length, and head and body length on the study area (x - significant, $p < 0,05$; xx - highly significant, $p < 0,01$).

	Values of t							
	Mass	d f	Total Length	d f	Tail Length	d f	Head and Body Length	d f
Spring	1,6286	24	1,3098	24	1,5731	24	1,1856	24
Summer	1,6041	60	2,5672 ^x	60	3,2824 ^{xx}	60	1,8978	60
Autumn	3,9153 ^{xx}	133	3,3925 ^{xx}	133	2,7189 ^{xx}	133	2,7138 ^{xx}	133
Winter	0,6879	34	0,0794	34	0,6712	34	0,1039	34
Total	2,7955 ^{xx}	257	1,1490	257	0,8136	257	1,1944	257

Table 38 Values of t and degrees of freedom (d f) for a comparison of head and body length between samples of S. campestris observed during different seasons on the study area (x - significant, $p < 0,05$; xx - highly significant, $p < 0,01$).

	Values of t					
	Males	d f	Females	d f	Total	d f
Spring - Summer	4,0868 ^{xx}	51	1,1113	33	3,9082 ^{xx}	86
Spring - Autumn	3,0259 ^{xx}	90	2,1421 ^x	67	3,6728 ^{xx}	159
Spring - Winter	3,5494 ^{xx}	30	1,7557	28	3,8705 ^{xx}	60
Summer - Autumn	2,3782 ^x	113	1,7072	80	1,1179	195
Summer - Winter	1,3019	53	1,0072	41	0,6527	96
Autumn - Winter	1,3257	92	0,8663	75	0,6238	169

Table 39 Values of t and degrees of freedom (d f) for a comparison of tail length between samples of S. campestris observed during different seasons on the study area (x - significant, $p < 0,05$; xx - highly significant, $p < 0,01$).

	Values of t					
	Males	d f	Females	d f	Total	d f
Spring - Summer	6,0668 ^{xx}	51	0,7221	33	4,1565 ^{xx}	86
Spring - Autumn	2,2173 ^x	90	1,8842	67	1,9972	159
Spring - Winter	5,4265 ^{xx}	30	2,0460 ^x	28	4,3515 ^{xx}	60
Summer - Autumn	4,5584 ^{xx}	113	1,3681	80	2,9101 ^{xx}	195
Summer - Winter	1,6219	53	1,5783	41	0,4935	96
Autumn - Winter	3,6540 ^{xx}	92	0,3889	75	3,0589 ^{xx}	169

Table 40 Values of t and degrees of freedom (d f) for a comparison of body mass between samples of S. campestris observed during different seasons on the study area (x - significant, $p < 0,05$; xx - highly significant, $p < 0,01$).

	Values of t					
	Males	d f	Females	d f	Total	d f
Spring - Summer	4,5143 ^{xx}	51	1,9157	33	4,7548 ^{xx}	86
Spring - Autumn	3,6086 ^{xx}	90	3,2063 ^{xx}	67	4,6260 ^{xx}	159
Spring - Winter	4,8975 ^{xx}	30	3,5570 ^{xx}	28	5,8012 ^{xx}	60
Summer - Autumn	2,5394 ^x	113	2,0290 ^x	80	0,8734	195
Summer - Winter	0,1527	53	2,6481 ^x	41	1,6303	96
Autumn - Winter	3,2708 ^{xx}	92	1,0374	75	3,5078 ^{xx}	169

Table 41 *Lemniscomys griselda* seasonal mean total length, body length, tail length and body mass of males, females, and sexes combined on the study area.

Season	MALES					FEMALES					TOTAL				
	\bar{X}	SD	SE	range	n	\bar{X}	SD	SE	range	n	\bar{X}	SD	SE	range	n
BODY MASS (g)															
Spring	59,833	10,564	3,053	39-70	12	47,706	8,454	2,052	32-66	17	52,724	11,029	2,046	32-70	29
Summer	53,571	20,880	7,877	15-80	7	49,786	14,460	3,866	21-65	14	51,048	16,433	3,588	15-80	21
Autumn	41,000	8,332	2,955	23-51	8	43,462	11,752	3,260	24-63	13	42,524	10,424	2,290	23-63	21
Winter	41,762	5,924	1,293	33-57	21	43,259	8,305	1,600	29-63	27	42,604	7,325	1,015	29-63	48
Total	47,875	10,346	1,493	15-80	48	45,648	10,221	1,213	21-66	71	46,546	10,697	0,981	15-80	119
TOTAL LENGTH (mm)															
Spring	258,250	12,367	3,570	242-285	12	237,882	14,607	3,454	215-256	17	246,310	16,918	3,138	215-285	29
Summer	247,143	39,448	14,886	165-283	7	247,357	20,224	5,408	213-272	14	247,286	29,069	5,910	165-283	21
Autumn	235,625	21,738	7,681	186-258	8	231,538	20,723	5,740	187-255	13	233,095	20,669	4,542	186-258	21
Winter	238,857	10,219	2,231	228-254	21	238,888	15,962	3,060	214-272	27	238,875	13,616	1,888	214-272	48
Total	244,375	18,689	2,698	165-285	48	238,963	17,117	2,031	187-272	71	241,149	18,905	1,733	165-285	119
TAIL LENGTH (mm)															
Spring	141,083	7,971	2,300	132-154	12	130,529	8,232	1,990	105-140	17	134,890	9,570	1,770	105-154	29
Summer	128,857	21,279	8,050	83-147	7	130,500	11,257	3,009	112-146	14	129,952	14,793	3,260	83-147	21
Autumn	125,625	13,522	4,781	95-140	8	121,923	11,968	3,319	95-136	13	123,333	12,383	2,702	95-140	21
Winter	125,906	8,179	1,785	118-136	21	125,296	8,389	1,613	109-144	27	125,563	8,215	1,139	103-144	48
Total	130,084	11,330	1,635	83-154	48	126,952	9,472	1,124	95-146	71	128,217	10,568	0,969	83-154	119
HEAD AND BODY LENGTH (mm)															
Spring	117,167	5,906	1,700	109-131	12	108,647	5,884	1,420	100-119	17	112,174	7,192	1,330	100-131	29
Summer	118,286	18,590	7,015	82-140	7	116,857	9,396	2,512	101-127	14	117,333	12,710	2,775	82-140	21
Autumn	110,000	8,435	2,982	91-118	8	109,615	9,305	2,580	92-123	13	109,762	8,769	1,913	92-123	21
Winter	112,476	5,980	1,305	103-120	21	113,231	8,559	1,645	98-128	27	113,042	7,483	1,037	98-128	48
Total	114,083	8,837	1,276	82-140	48	112,186	8,146	0,967	92-127	71	113,009	8,660	0,794	82-140	119

Table 42 Values of t and degrees of freedom (d f) for a comparison of total length between samples of L. griselda observed during different seasons on the study area (x - significant, $p < 0,05$; xx - highly significant, $p < 0,01$).

	Values of t					
	Males	d f	Females	d f	Total	d f
Spring - Summer	0,7245	17	1,3949	29	0,1379	48
Spring - Autumn	2,6699 ^x	18	0,9396	28	2,4042 ^x	48
Spring - Winter	4,6073 ^{xx}	31	0,2145	42	2,0064 ^x	75
Summer - Autumn	0,6866	13	2,0051	25	1,8232	40
Summer - Winter	0,5496	26	1,3622	39	1,2666	67
Autumn - Winter	0,4039	27	1,1278	38	1,1748	67

Table 43 Values of t and degrees of freedom (d f) for a comparison of male and female body mass, total length, tail, and head and body length from the study area (x - significant, $p < 0,05$; xx - highly significant, $p < 0,01$).

Season	Values of t				
	Mass	Total Length	Tail Length	Head and Body Length	d f
Spring	3,3001 ^{xx}	4,0497 ^{xx}	3,4644 ^{xx}	3,8321 ^{xx}	27
Summer	0,4307	0,0135	0,1913	0,1915	19
Autumn	0,5604	0,4259	0,6361	0,0976	19
Winter	0,7283	0,0082	0,2535	0,4569	46
Total	1,1575	1,6027	1,5753	1,1853	117

Table 44 Values of t and degrees of freedom (d f) for a comparison of head and body length between samples of L. griselda observed during different seasons on the study area (x - significant, $p < 0,05$; xx - highly significant, $p < 0,01$).

	Values of t					
	Males	d f	Females	d f	Total	d f
Spring - Summer	0,1548	17	2,8425 ^{xx}	29	1,6759	48
Spring - Autumn	2,0864	18	0,3282	28	1,0336	48
Spring - Winter	2,1850 ^x	31	2,1033 ^x	42	0,5054	75
Summer - Autumn	1,0855	13	2,0112	25	2,2469 ^x	40
Summer - Winter	0,8130	26	1,2074	39	1,4417	67
Autumn - Winter	0,7606	27	1,1811	38	1,4927	67

Table 45 Values of t and degrees of freedom (d f) for a comparison of tail length between samples of L. griselda observed during different seasons on the study area (x - significant, $p < 0,05$; xx - highly significant, $p < 0,01$).

	Values of t					
	Males	d f	Females	d f	Total	d f
Spring - Summer	1,4615	17	0,0080	29	1,3401	48
Spring - Autumn	2,9135 ^{xx}	18	2,2218 ^x	28	3,5735 ^{xx}	48
Spring - Winter	5,2119 ^{xx}	31	2,0381 ^x	42	4,3660 ^{xx}	75
Summer - Autumn	0,3454	13	1,9146	25	1,5723	40
Summer - Winter	0,3582	26	1,5242	39	1,2763	67
Autumn - Winter	0,0551	27	0,9138	38	0,7557	67

Table 46 Values of t and degrees of freedom (d f) for a comparison of body mass between samples of L. griselda observed during different seasons on the study area (x - significant, $p < 0,05$; xx - highly significant, $p < 0,01$).

	Values of t					
	Males	d f	Females	d f	Total	d f
Spring - Summer	0,7401	17	0,4755	29	0,4059	48
Spring - Autumn	4,4417 ^{xx}	18	1,1016	28	3,3325 ^{xx}	48
Spring - Winter	5,4559 ^{xx}	31	1,7106	42	4,3908 ^{xx}	75
Summer - Autumn	1,4923	13	1,2509	25	2,0073	40
Summer - Winter	1,4767	26	1,5607	39	2,2587 ^x	67
Autumn - Winter	0,2369	27	0,0559	38	0,0319	67

Table 47 Leiggada minutoides seasonal mean total length, head and body length, tail length, and body mass of sexes combined on the study area.

Season	Body Mass (g)					Total Length (mm)				
	\bar{X}	SD	SE	range	n	\bar{X}	SD	SE	range	n
Spring	5,700	1,059	0,335	4-8	10	93,900	4,458	1,410	87-101	10
Summer	7,000	1,528	0,577	5-9	7	99,857	6,492	2,449	91-107	7
Autumn	6,600	1,140	0,509	5-8	5	103,800	5,850	2,610	94-108	5
Winter	5,111	0,601	0,200	4-6	9	95,778	5,333	1,778	88-106	9
Total	5,968	1,036	0,186	4-9	31	97,387	5,162	0,925	87-108	31

Season	Tail Length (mm)					Head and Body Length (mm)				
	\bar{X}	SD	SE	range	n	\bar{X}	SD	SE	range	n
Spring	41,200	3,293	1,030	36-46	10	52,700	2,45	0,770	47-56	10
Summer	40,857	2,911	1,098	35-43	7	59,000	4,726	1,780	52-64	7
Autumn	44,200	3,270	1,450	39-48	5	59,600	3,000	1,467	55-63	5
Winter	40,111	2,803	0,934	37-46	9	55,667	4,000	1,300	48-61	9
Total	41,290	2,910	0,521	35-48	31	56,097	3,426	0,615	47-64	31

Table 48 Values of t and degrees of freedom (d f) for a comparison of total length, head and body length, tail length, and body mass between samples of Leggada minutoides (sexes combined) observed during different seasons on the study area (x - significant, xx - highly significant).

	Values of t				
	Body Mass	Total Length	Tail Length	Head and Body Length	d f
Spring - Summer	1,9473	2,1051	0,2264	3,2357 ^{xx}	15
Spring - Autumn	1,4754	3,3313 ^{xx}	1,6711	4,4539 ^{xx}	13
Spring - Winter	1,5095	0,8278	0,7784	1,9240	17
Summer - Autumn	0,5193	1,0993	1,8268	0,2686	10
Summer - Winter	3,0906 ^{xx}	1,3462	0,5168	1,4953	14
Autumn - Winter	2,7186 ^x	2,5362 ^x	2,3564 ^x	2,0793	12

Table 49 Seasonal frequency per mass class in P. (M.) natalensis males, females, and sexes combined, from the study area (M = males; F = females).

Mass classes	Spring						Summer						Autumn						Winter					
	M	%	F	%	M+F	%	M	%	F	%	M+F	%	M	%	F	%	M+F	%	M	%	F	%	M+F	%
< 15 (g)	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	4	3	4	6	4	8	30	9	33	17	31	0	0	3	30	3	18
15-25 (g)	32	33	43	68	75	47	1	1	6	10	7	5	9	33	4	15	13	24	2	33	5	50	7	43
26-45 (g)	62	64	20	32	82	51	44	60	42	68	86	64	8	30	14	52	22	40	4	67	2	20	6	38
> 45 (g)	3	3	0	0	3	2	25	34	11	18	36	26	2	7	0	0	2	4	0	0	0	0	0	0
Total	97		63		160		73		62		135		27		27		54		6		10		16	

Table 50 Seasonal frequency per mass class in S. campestris, males, females, and sexes combined, from the study area.

Mass classes	Spring						Summer						Autumn						Winter					
	M	%	F	%	M+F	%	M	%	F	%	M+F	%	M	%	F	%	M+F	%	M	%	F	%	M+F	%
< 35 (g)	1	7	2	18	3	12	14	37	4	17	18	29	13	17	19	33	32	24	5	29	6	32	11	31
35-50 (g)	2	13	1	9	3	12	12	32	12	50	24	39	32	42	30	52	62	46	9	53	12	63	21	58
> 50 (g)	12	80	8	73	20	77	12	32	8	33	20	32	32	42	9	16	41	30	3	18	1	5	4	11
Total	15		11		26		38		24		62		77		58		135		17		19		36	

Table 51 Seasonal frequency per mass class in Lemniscomys griselda males, females, and sexes combined, observed on the study area (M = males; F = females).

Mass classes	Spring						Summer						Autumn						Winter					
	M	%	F	%	M+F	%	M	%	F	%	M+F	%	M	%	F	%	M+F	%	M	%	F	%	M+F	%
< 30 g	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	14	1	7	2	10	1	13	1	8	2	10	0	0	1	4	1	2
30-45 g	1	8	6	35	7	24	1	14	3	21	4	19	5	63	8	62	13	62	15	72	15	56	30	63
> 45 g	11	92	11	65	22	76	5	71	10	71	15	71	2	25	4	31	6	29	6	29	11	41	17	35
Total	12		17		29		7		14		21		8		13		21		21		27		48	

Table 52 Praomys (Mastomys) natalensis sex ratios for each season and grid during the period August 1967 to May 1969 on the study area. χ^2 values for testing a 1:1 ratio are indicated (x = $p < 0,05$; xx = $p < 0,01$; xxx = $p < 0,001$; M = male; F = female).

Season	Grid P46			Grid P 50			Grids P88 & P89			Total		
	M:F	M ratio	χ^2	M:F	M ratio	χ^2	M:F	M ratio	χ^2	M:F	M ratio	χ^2
Spring	48:17	,739	14,785 ^{xxx}	29:20	,592	1,653	28:26	,519	0,074	105:63	,625	10,500 ^{xx}
Summer	49:40	,551	0,910	11:11	,500	0,000	6:5	,546	-	66:56	,541	0,820
Autumn	21:21	,500	0,000	5:4	,556	-	2:4	,333	-	28:29	,491	0,018
Winter	2:2	,500	-	15:6	,714	3,857 ^x	0:5	-	-	17:13	,567	0,533
Total	120:80	,600	8,000 ^{xx}	60:41	,594	3,574	36:40	,474	0,211	216:161	,573	8,024 ^{xx}

Table 53 Saccostomus campestris sex ratios for each season and grid during the period August 1967 to May 1969. X^2 values for testing a 1:1 ratio are indicated (x = $p < 0,05$; xx = $p < 0,01$; xxx = $p < 0,001$; M = male; F = female).

Season	Grid P46			Grid P50			Grids P88 & P89			Total		
	M:F	M ratio	X^2	M:F	M ratio	X^2	M:F	M ratio	X^2	M:F	M ratio	X^2
Spring	2:2	0,500	-	8:5	0,615	-	2:2	0,500	-	12:9	0,571	0,429
Summer	15:11	0,577	0,615	13:7	0,650	1,800	10:9	0,526	0,053	38:27	0,585	1,862
Autumn	52:29	0,642	6,531 ^x	24:21	0,533	0,200	4:4	0,500	-	80:54	0,597	5,045 ^x
Winter	11:7	0,611	0,889	8:12	0,400	0,800	0:1	-	-	19:20	0,487	0,026
Total	80:49	0,620	7,450 ^{xx}	53:45	0,541	0,653	16:16	0,500	0,00	149:110	0,575	5,873 ^x

Table 54 Lemniscomys griselda sex ratios for each season and grid during the period August 1967 to May 1969. The X^2 values for testing a 1:1 ratio are indicated (x = $p < 0,05$; xx = $p < 0,01$; xxx = $p < 0,001$; M = male; F = female).

Season	Grid P46			Grid P50			Grids P88 & P89			Total		
	M:F	M ratio	X^2	M:F	M ratio	X^2	M:F	M ratio	X^2	M:F	M ratio	X^2
Spring	11:11	0,500	0,000	1:7	0,125	-	4:3	0,571	-	16:21	0,432	0,676
Summer	6:6	0,500	-	1:2	0,333	-	2:6	0,250	-	9:14	0,391	1,087
Autumn	7:11	0,389	0,889	3:5	0,375	-	0:1	-	-	10:17	0,370	1,815
Winter	8:12	0,400	0,800	21:20	0,512	0,024	2:1	0,667	-	31:33	0,484	0,063
Total	32:40	0,444	0,889	26:34	0,433	1,067	8:11	0,421	0,474	66:85	0,437	2,391

Table 55 Leggada minutoides and Steatomys pratensis sex ratios during the period August 1967 to May 1969. χ^2 value for testing a 1:1 ratio in the case of L. minutoides is indicated (M = male; F = female).

<u>Leggada minutoides</u>		
M:F	M ratio	χ^2
23:23	0,500	0,00
<u>Steatomys pratensis</u>		
12:2	0,857	-