

Patchy prescribed fire has variable effects on invasive predators and their native prey

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October 17, 2023

Abstract

In many parts of the world, climate change is increasing the likelihood of severe wildfire in protected areas, while planned burns are occurring more frequently in an attempt to manage risk. These fires shape animal communities by altering resource availability and species interactions, including between predators and prey. In Australia, there is particular concern that native prey species may experience elevated post-fire predation by introduced feral cats (*Felis catus*) and European red foxes (*Vulpes vulpes*). We tested how a prescribed fire, vegetation, and other habitat variables affected the activity of cats, foxes, and the native mammal community in southeastern Australia. We used camera traps to quantify mammal activity before and after a prescribed burn, and statistically tested how the fire interacted with key habitat variables to affect mammal activity. We found little evidence that the prescribed fire influenced the activity of cats and foxes and no evidence of an effect on macropod or small mammal (<800 g) activity. Medium-sized mammals (800–2,000 g) were negatively associated with prescribed fire extent. The lack of response of cats and foxes to the prescribed burn is a positive outcome from a fire management perspective. Nonetheless, we recommend future experiments use GPS trackers to record fine-scale movements of cats, foxes, and their native prey in temperate ecosystems immediately following prescribed fires the best inform effective management within protected areas.

Ecology and Evolution, Research Article

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Abstract

In many parts of the world, climate change is increasing the likelihood of severe wildfire in protected areas, while planned burns are occurring more frequently in an attempt to manage risk. These fires shape animal

communities by altering resource availability and species interactions, including between predators and prey. In Australia, there is particular concern that native prey species may experience elevated post-fire predation by introduced feral cats (*Felis catus*) and European red foxes (*Vulpes vulpes*). We tested how a prescribed fire, vegetation, and other habitat variables affected the activity of cats, foxes, and the native mammal community in southeastern Australia. We used camera traps to quantify mammal activity before and after a prescribed burn, and statistically tested how the fire interacted with key habitat variables to affect mammal activity. We found little evidence that the prescribed fire influenced the activity of cats and foxes and no evidence of an effect on macropod or small mammal (<800 g) activity. Medium-sized mammals (800–2,000 g) were negatively associated with prescribed fire extent. The lack of response of cats and foxes to the prescribed burn is a positive outcome from a fire management perspective. Nonetheless, we recommend future experiments use GPS trackers to record fine-scale movements of cats, foxes, and their native prey in temperate ecosystems immediately following prescribed fires the best inform effective management within protected areas.

Open Research Statement

The data that supports the findings of this study is permanently archived in OSF (https://osf.io/vgae8/?view_only=8f3be5d46dd0414186dce2616cc466c6) and will be made publicly available immediately following publication.

Introduction

Native terrestrial mammal species are experiencing rapid and significant declines across the globe (Di Marco *et al.* 2014; Woinarski *et al.* 2015; Brodie *et al.* 2021). In many cases, protected areas are providing the last population strongholds (Geldmann *et al.* 2013; Pacifici *et al.* 2020). However, altered fire regimes and invasive species, amongst other disturbances, continue to result in mammal decline even within protected areas (Lawes *et al.* 2015; McCain 2019; Rija *et al.* 2020; Tedeschi *et al.* 2022). Therefore, understanding which habitat attributes are important for mammal persistence and how disturbances, like invasive species and fire, affect mammal activity and habitat use is critical for developing effective management strategies to facilitate their persistence within protected areas (Driscoll *et al.* 2010; Maxwell *et al.* 2020).

Topography and vegetation productivity are important attributes influencing terrestrial mammal occurrence and diversity (Dorph *et al.* 2021). Topographic variation can create heterogeneous habitats varying in microclimate and resource availability, providing habitat for mammals with diverse niches (Dormann *et al.* 2010). Similarly, areas with high vegetation complexity and productivity offer more food and shelter than less productive areas and support larger and more diverse mammal communities (Sukma *et al.* 2019). Small mammals, in particular, favour these productive habitats due to food availability—such as invertebrates, seeds, and fungi—as well as shelter from terrestrial and aerial predators (Hanser *et al.* 2011; McCain *et al.* 2018; Swan *et al.* 2020).

Invasive mammalian predators, such as the feral cat (*Felis catus*), stoat (*Mustela erminea*), small Indian mongoose (*Urva auropunctata*), and European red fox (*Vulpes vulpes*) are major threats to native mammals globally (Doherty *et al.* 2016; GISD 2023). These species are highly adaptable and opportunistic, and can thrive across a range of landscapes, including within large remnant forests, along edges of fragmented forests, in agricultural and urban environments, and many other ecosystems (Nichols *et al.* 2019; Alexandre *et al.* 2020; Louppe *et al.* 2020). Activity of these predators can increase in response to prey abundance (Scroggie *et al.* 2018), anthropogenic features—like tracks and farms—that provide efficient movement and foraging opportunities in structurally complex environments like forests (May and Norton 1996; Colón 2020; Schwemmer *et al.* 2021), and time since fire (Nalliah *et al.* 2022; Doherty *et al.* 2023). Understanding how invasive predators respond to these factors can assist land managers in developing more targeted strategies to effectively mitigate their impacts (e.g., McGregor *et al.* 2020).

The response of mammals to fire is commonly driven by how fire alters their food and shelter resources

(Morris *et al.* 2011; Griffiths and Brook 2014; Lees *et al.* 2022), rather than direct mortality (Hale *et al.* 2021; Shaw *et al.* 2021). Some small mammals, like the Trowbridge’s shrew (*Sorex trowbridgii*) in North America, decline after fire in response to a loss of food or an increased predation risk (Greenberg *et al.* 2007; Culhane *et al.* 2022), while other more generalist species, like the cliff chipmunk (*Tamias dorsalis*), can be largely unaffected by fire (Morandini *et al.* 2023). The abundance of large herbivores, such as the red-flanked duiker (*Cephalophus rufilatus*) in Cameroon, can increase in recently burnt areas, as the regenerating vegetation is typically more palatable (Klop *et al.* 2007; Reid *et al.* 2023). Fire can also create preferable hunting habitat for meso- and apex predators, such as the coyote (*Canis latrans*) and Florida panther (*Puma concolor coryi*) in the U.S.A, which benefit from the increased exposure of their prey (Dees *et al.* 2001; Cherry *et al.* 2017).

Fire-driven changes in predator-prey interactions are especially likely to be detrimental to native fauna when they benefit invasive mammalian predators (Geary *et al.* 2020; Doherty *et al.* 2022). Fire can increase the activity of invasive predators, such as feral cats (hereafter ‘cat’) and European red foxes (hereafter ‘fox’), by removing vegetation which normally provides prey with refuge (McGregor *et al.* 2015; Leahy *et al.* 2016; Hradsky 2020; Miritis *et al.* 2023). Climate change is increasing the occurrence of fire in many parts of the world (Canadell *et al.*, 2021; van Oldenborgh *et al.*, 2020; Jones *et al.* 2022) and may facilitate range expansions for both cats and foxes (Aguilar *et al.* 2015; Elmhagen *et al.* 2017), thus increasing the likelihood of negative impacts on native fauna. This highlights the need for well-informed management strategies that account for the effects of fire, vegetation, and anthropogenic features on the activity of cats, foxes, and native mammals, so the effectiveness of protected areas for conservation can be optimised.

Australia serves as one of the most prominent global examples where the potential for the interaction between fire and invasive predators carries a great risk for native mammals (Doherty *et al.* 2023). Since European colonisation, many overlapping threats have contributed towards the decline of Australia’s mammal community (Woinarski *et al.* 2019a; Ashman *et al.* 2021; Legge *et al.* 2023). The cat and fox have played a particularly damaging role, contributing to the extinction of >25 mammal species and killing an estimated 556 million native mammals each year (Kearney *et al.* 2019; Woinarski *et al.* 2019b; Stobo-Wilson *et al.* 2022). Not all studies have found that cat and fox activity increases after fire (e.g., Hradsky *et al.* 2017b; Bliège Bird *et al.* 2018; Lothian *et al.* 2022), and a quantitative review found that—should this phenomenon be observed—it was most likely to occur shortly after fire (e.g., weeks to months; Doherty *et al.* 2023). This indicates that there may be a critical period immediately post-fire when prey is most vulnerable to an elevated risk of predation, although Doherty *et al.* (2023) emphasised that further studies that begin sampling shortly after fire (i.e., <1 month) are necessary to better understand the generality of this response.

In this study, we tested whether the activity of cats, foxes, and the native mammal community could be predicted by fire, vegetation, topography, and proximity to anthropogenic features within a high-value conservation reserve. We used camera traps to quantify mammal activity across 30 sites, both before and immediately after a prescribed burn at burnt and unburnt sites. We fitted generalised linear mixed models to test the following predictions:

1. Cats and foxes will be more active at sites burnt by the prescribed fire (McGregor *et al.* 2016b; Hradsky *et al.* 2017a), near anthropogenic features (Hradsky *et al.* 2017c; Schwemmer *et al.* 2021), and where mammalian prey activity is higher (Geary *et al.* 2022).
2. The macropod community (large herbivorous marsupials) will show increased activity in areas burnt by the prescribed fire, due to the availability of regenerating vegetation preferred for grazing (Klop *et al.* 2007; Reid *et al.* 2023).
3. The activity of the small mammal (<2 kg) community will be negatively influenced by the prescribed fire due to fewer resources and an increased predation risk and be positively influenced in riparian and highly productive areas (Lawes *et al.* 2015; Swan *et al.* 2015; Mariani *et al.* 2022).

Methods

Study area

Our study was conducted in the northeast Otway Ranges in Victoria, Australia (38°24'S, 144deg1'E). The 2,471-hectare study area comprises eucalypt woodlands, heathlands, and wet shrublands (Figure 1). This part of the Otway Ranges has a mean maximum temperature of 18.4degC and an average annual rainfall of 627 mm (BoM 2021). The dominant overstory vegetation includes messmate (*Eucalyptus obliqua*) and brown stringybark (*E. Baxteri*), with common mid-storey and ground cover species including the myrtle wattle (*Acacia myrtifolia*), prickly tea tree (*Leptospermum continentale*), and austral grass tree (*Xanthorrhoea australis*). The Traditional Owners of this land are the Wadawurrung People.

The region supports a diverse terrestrial mammal community which has suffered considerable decline in recent decades, including the near-threatened long-nosed potoroo (*Potorous tridactylus*), the vulnerable swamp antechinus (*Antechinus minimus maritimus*) and white-footed dunnart (*Sminthopsis leucopus*), and the endangered southern brown bandicoot (*Isodon obesulus*) (Wayne et al., 2017; Wilson & Aberton, 2006; Wilson et al., 2001; Wilson et al., 2017; Wilson & Garkaklis, 2020). Foxes and cats are the largest terrestrial predators in the region. Fox control, using baits containing 1080 poison (sodium fluoroacetate), is regularly undertaken by land managers, although the impact on fox occurrence is likely modest (Robley *et al.* 2019). There is no broadscale management of cats.

There are multiple townships in the region which experience significant seasonal increases in population during the summer months (ODBPC 2021), therefore the risk posed by wildfire to people and assets is considerable. Major wildfires burnt the study area in 1939 (Black Friday; 240,000 ha) and 1983 (Ash Wednesday; 40,000 ha). Prescribed fire is regularly applied to minimise this risk (Gazzard *et al.* 2020). Much of the area within our study site experienced 1–2 prescribed burns between 1988 and 2018 (DEECA 2020), and there were 110 prescribed fires (covering approximately 70,800 ha) planned for the region between 2021 to 2024 (ODBPC 2021).

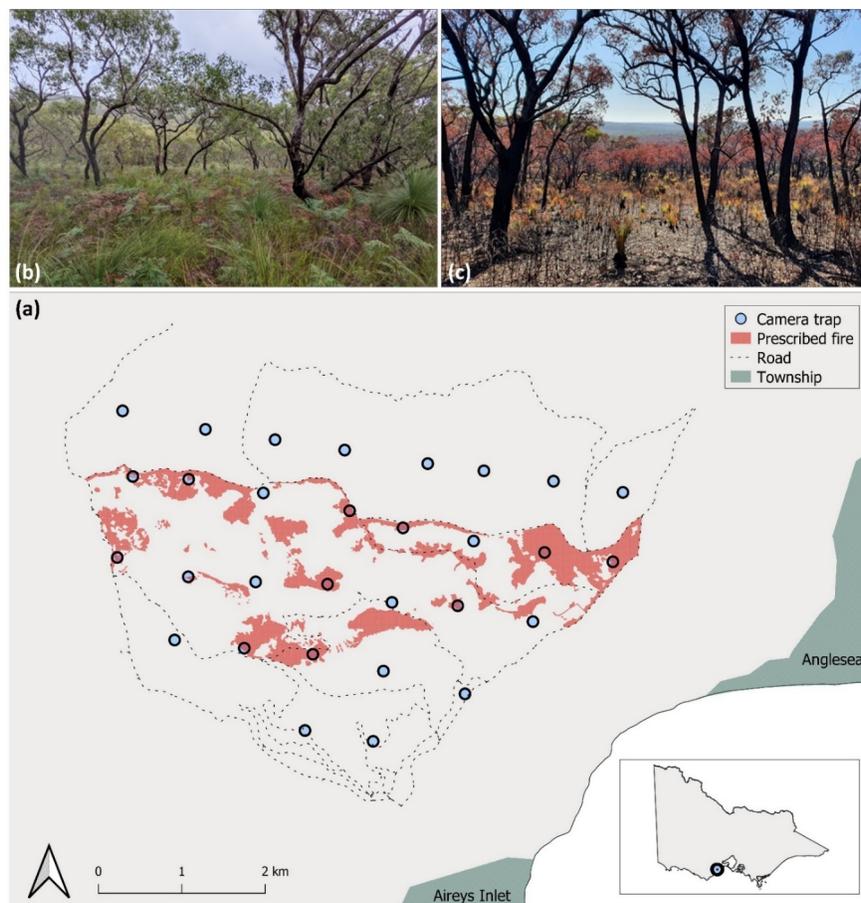


Figure 1. (a) A map of the study area in the north-eastern Otway Ranges, showing the placement of the camera trap (N=30) grid and the extent of the prescribed burn across the site and within the 100 m radius of each of the affected camera traps (N=12). The prescribed burn occurred in May 2019. (b) a photograph of one of the heathy woodland sites from the study area before the prescribed fire. (c) a photograph of the same heathy woodland site approximately four weeks after the prescribed fire.

Study design

Forest Fire Management Victoria conducted a prescribed burn within our study area in mid-May 2019. The fire affected 292 ha, of which 246 ha was forested and 46 ha was heathland (DEECA 2020). The majority of the fire (66%) burned at low-medium severity (DELWP, 2020), although severity was not quantified for heathland areas. We conducted five repeated mammal surveys using camera traps with infrared flash (Reconyx HF2X) across 30 sites (Figure 1) over a 12-month period. Surveys were conducted at six- and two months pre-fire and two weeks, three months, and six months post-fire, with each survey period being approximately two months in length (Appendix S1: Table A1). Using a Geographic Information System, we determined camera trap locations by positioning a 900 m grid over the study area and placing 30 survey points at grid intersections (ESRI 2014). During deployment, some camera traps were moved up to 150 m from grid points to account for access issues or to target nearby game trails or old vehicle/walking tracks, as feral cat and fox detectability is generally higher on trails compared to off trails (Geyle et al., 2020). We did not place cameras on public roads or heavily-used walking trails to reduce the risk of theft.

Of the 30 camera trap sites, 40% (12/30) were burnt during the prescribed burn (Appendix S1: Table A1: Figure 1), and the mean area burnt within a 100 m radius (i.e., Fire extent, Table 1) for these sites was 54%

(range 34–95%); highlighting the patchy burning style that is common of prescribed fires in our study region (e.g., Sitters *et al.* 2015; Hradsky *et al.* 2017a). The burnt and unburnt sites were not spaced far enough apart to be considered independent for all of our study species (i.e., they were within the feasible movement range of some species). Therefore, our study design would be more appropriately described as a quasi-BACI (before-after, control-impact) design, acknowledging this potential for spatial dependence between the sites.

At each site, cameras were attached to a tree at a height of approximately 40 cm facing a lure station two metres away. Each lure station was comprised of wadding soaked in tuna oil encased in a polyvinyl chloride (PVC) vent cowl. Lure stations were pegged securely into the ground, and vegetation in each camera’s line of sight was cleared to prevent false triggers and to ensure animals were clearly visible. Cameras were set to record three images per trigger at medium-high sensitivity, with no delay between trigger events.

Statistical analyses

Images were processed using CPW Photo Warehouses (Ivan and Newkirk 2016). Animals were identified to species level where possible, otherwise, they were categorised according to the finest taxonomic/functional group possible (e.g., ‘unknown small mammal species’). Each photo sequence was treated as a single point in time and a detection event was defined as images of the same species on the same camera that were separated by at least 60 minutes. Species detection matrices were created using the *camtrapR* package (Niedballa *et al.* 2016) in R version 4.2.2 (R Core Team 2022).

To test the influence of the fire, habitat, anthropogenic, and prey variables (Table 1) on mammal activity, we fitted generalised linear mixed models (GLMMs) to each species/group with sufficient data (Appendix S1: Table A2). There were many zeros (i.e., days in which a species was not detected) in the detection matrices due to long intervals between detection events. To account for this, we defined the response variable as the number of days a species was detected in each survey period relative to the number of days it was not detected. There were four species included in our analyses: the red fox, feral cat, swamp wallaby, and eastern grey kangaroo. To fit models and test our predictions on smaller mammals (<2,000 g), we pooled detections from small mammals (<800 g) and medium-sized mammals (800 – 2,000 g). The species comprising these two groups (see Appendix S1: Table A2) were recorded too infrequently to fit models to individual species, and many detections were not identifiable to species level. We conducted all model fitting and verification using the *glmmTMB* (Brooks *et al.* 2017), *MUMIn* (Barton 2022), and *DHARMA* (Hartig 2022) packages in program R version 4.2.2 (R Core Team 2022).

Before testing the covariates for each species/species group, we constructed models to test the effect of two possible detection covariates, namely camera placement (on or off trail) and age of lure (Table 1) on each response variable. Camera placement can influence the detectability of cats and foxes (Geyle *et al.*, 2020), while the age of a lure might impact mammal activity either through reduced potency over time or behavioural alterations (Frey *et al.* 2017; McHugh *et al.* 2019). While the five survey periods were similar in length (refer to Appendix S1: Table A1), there was inconsistency in the timing of lure replacement. Lures for surveys four and five were replaced part-way through the survey periods, unlike those in surveys one, two, and three, which were replaced at the beginning. These detection models incorporated the main effects of both camera placement and lure age, along with random effects of Survey period and Site, allowing us to account for repeat sampling over time and any camera-level variability. We assessed the output of these models and included camera placement and/or lure age as fixed effects in subsequent analyses if the 95% confidence intervals did not cross zero.

To test the effect of our remaining variables on mammal activity, we fitted binomial GLMMs containing three-way interactions between Treatment (CI), Before-After (BA) and each of the remaining non-detection covariates (Table 1). These models included a total of 14 variables: two Fire History variables, three variables relating to the 2019 Prescribed Fire, two Vegetation variables, one Topography variable, two variables representing proximity to Anthropogenic Features, and potentially one or both of the Detection variables if they influenced the activity of the species/group (Table 1). We included both the Large mammal

and Small mammal Prey Activity variables (Table 1) for the fox, and the Small mammal Prey Activity variable for the cat. We used the ‘dredge’ function from the MuMIn package for model selection. This function only allows a maximum of 31 variables in the global model, including interaction terms. Due to the complexity arising from fitting three-way interaction between BA, CI, and most of the aforementioned variables, we fitted two unique ‘sub-global’ models containing different sets of variables, each with <31 terms. We then used the ‘merge.model.selection’ to combine the two model selection tables per species/group and reranked the models by AICc. The selection criteria for well-supported models were based on a delta Akaike Information Criterion ($\Delta AICc$) of less than 2 (Burnham and Anderson 2004).

For the Fire extent variable, we fitted a simplified two-way interaction with BA. This is because all unburnt sites had a Fire extent of 0%, making it redundant to include the CI variable. We did not fit an interaction between BA or CI and Vegetation Type, Time Since Fire, or Fire Frequency, as this resulted in model convergence issues. Moderately and highly correlated variables (i.e., Pearson’s r [?]0.5) were not included in the same model, and we excluded NDVI and TPI (Pearson’s $r = 0.49$) from appearing in the same model because preliminary analyses showed that well-supported models containing both variables reported influential interactions that were not supported by the underlying data. We included the random effects of Site and Survey Period as per the initial detection models, and we scaled and centred each of the continuous variables prior to modelling. We limited the maximum number of variables per model to 10 to avoid issues associated with overfitting, which meant that only one three-way interaction could feature in any given model.

Table 1. Descriptions of the predictor variables included in our generalized linear mixed models of mammal activity in the eastern Otway Ranges, Victoria. The spatial data from the 2019 prescribed fire was sourced from DELWP (2020).

Variable (<i>abbr.</i>)	Description
Detection	Detection
Camera placement (CP)	Cameras were placed on trails (i.e. well-established gamepads or discontinuous trails).
Age of lure (AoL)	Mean (\bar{x}) number of days (per survey period) since lures were replaced. Lures were replaced every 14 days.
Fire History	Fire History
Time since fire (TSF)	Number of years since the site was last burnt by prescribed or wildfire (i.e. time since last fire).
Number of fires (NoF)	Number of fires (incl. prescribed and wildfire) that have affected each site.
2019 Prescribed Fire	2019 Prescribed Fire
Before-after (BA)	Before <i>cf.</i> after prescribed fire. Two surveys pre-fire, three surveys post-fire.
Treatment (CI)	Burnt <i>cf.</i> unburnt. 12/30 sites were burnt by the prescribed fire.
Fire extent (FireExt)	The percentage of burnt area at each site within a 100 m radius of the camera site.
Vegetation	
Vegetation type (VT)	One of four categories: lowland forest, heathy woodland, swampy riparian forest, and grassy woodland.
Normalized difference vegetation index (NDVI)	NDVI is a remotely sensed measure of vegetation productivity that is positive for green vegetation and negative for bare soil or snow.
Topography	
Topographic position index (TPI)	A measure of the relative height of each camera site (i.e., topographic ruggedness).
Anthropogenic Features	Anthropogenic Features
Distance nearest township (DNT)	The Euclidean distance (m) from each site to the nearest mapped township.
Distance nearest farm (DNF)	The Euclidean distance (m) from each site to the nearest mapped farm.
Prey Activity	
Small mammal (SM)	Detections of SM (<2 kg) and LM (>2 kg) per site, standardised for survey effort.
Large mammal (LM)	

Results

Detection summary

We recorded 4,476 mammal detections events, of which 132 (2.95%) were feral cats, 286 (6.39%) were red foxes, and 4,058 (90.66%) were native animals comprising 17 species (Table A1). The most frequently detected native species was the swamp wallaby (*Wallabia bicolor*) (3,231 detections, 72.19%), followed by the eastern grey kangaroo (*Macropus giganteus*) (290 detections, 6.48%), and bush rat (*Rattus fuscipes*) (93 detections, 2.08%; Table A1).

Predictors of invasive predator activity

There were six well-supported models for the feral cat (Appendix S2). Cat activity was higher on trails compared to off trails (β [95% CI] = 1.86 [1.37, 2.34]; 6/6 models), negatively associated with time since fire (-0.70 [-1.09, -0.30]; 6/6 models), and higher in swampy riparian woodland vegetation type (0.50 [0.01, 1.00], 2/6 models) (Figure 2). There were also two interactions present; cat activity was negatively associated with NDVI before the prescribed fire (-0.86 [-1.41, -0.32]; 6/6 models) and in unburnt areas (-0.71 [-1.39, -0.03]; 2/6 models) (Figure 2). There was no evidence that cat activity was influenced by prey activity.

There were eight well-supported models for the red fox (Appendix S2). Fox activity was higher on trails compared to off trails (1.24 [0.82, 1.67]; 8/8 models), higher after the prescribed fire (-0.50 [-0.90, -0.10]; 8/8 models), higher at treatment compared to control sites (0.57 [0.13, 1.02]; 8/8 models), and negatively associated with distance from farmland (-0.35 [-0.55, -0.15]; 5/8 models) (Figure 3). There was no evidence that fox activity was influenced by prey activity (Appendix S2).

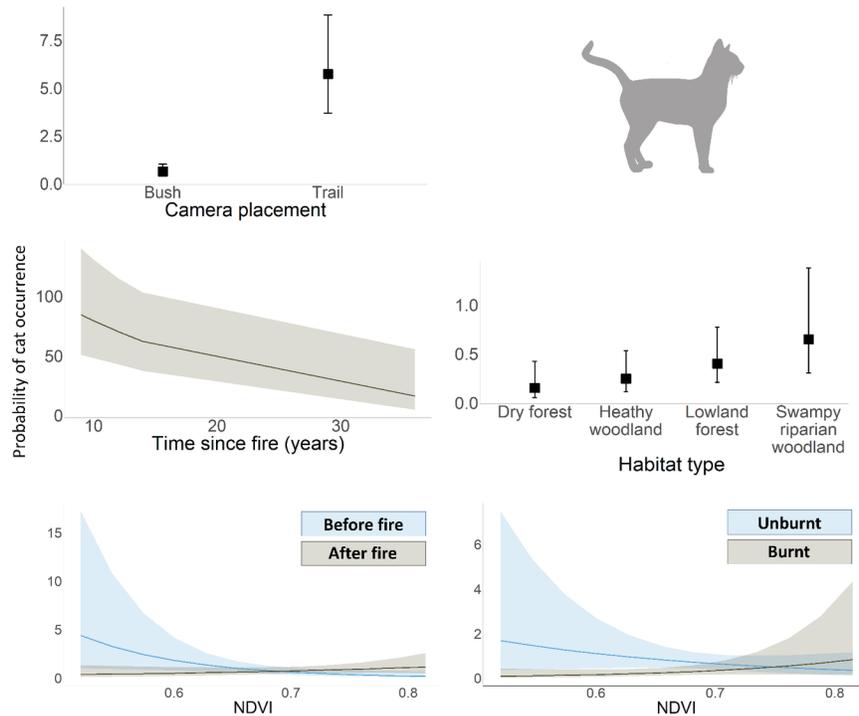


Figure 2. Plots of the GLMMs showing the influential effects of the two well-supported models ($\Delta AIC < 2$) on the activity of feral cats (*Felis catus*) in the eastern Otway Ranges, Victoria. Full model summaries are provided in Appendix S2 (separate document).

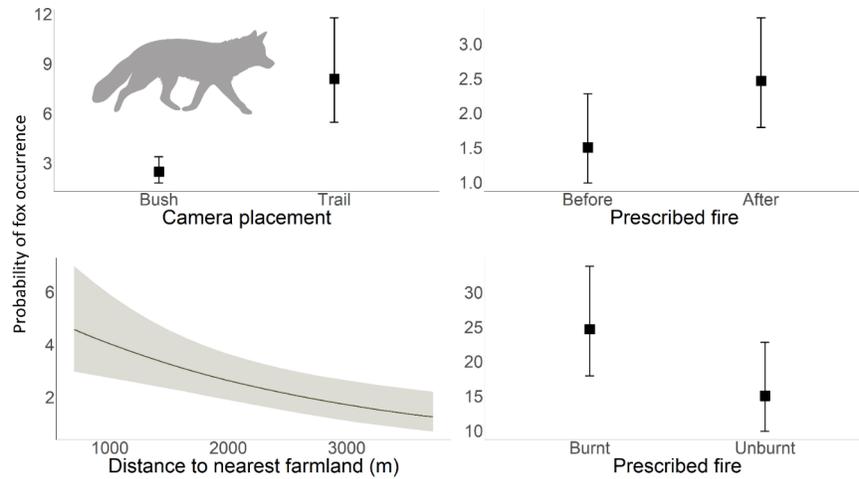


Figure 3. Plots of the GLMMs showing the influential effects from the two well-supported models ($\Delta AIC < 2$) on the activity of the European red fox (*Vulpes vulpes*) in the eastern Otway Ranges, Victoria. Full model summaries are provided in Appendix S2 (separate document).

Predictors of macropod activity

There were six well-supported models for the eastern grey kangaroo (Appendix S2). Kangaroo activity was higher on trails (1.09 [0.43, 1.74]; 6/6 models), positively associated with lure age (0.48 [0.34, 0.61]; 6/6 models), and negatively associated with both NDVI (-0.45 [-0.70, -0.21]; 6/6 models) and distance from farmland (-0.34 [-0.64, -0.04]; 5/6 models) (Figure 4). There was no evidence that kangaroo activity was influenced by the prescribed fire (Appendix S2). There were two well-supported models for the swamp wallaby, both of which indicated that activity declined with time since fire (-0.32 [-0.47, -0.16]) and was higher before the prescribed fire (0.42 [0.10, 0.74]) (Figure 4).

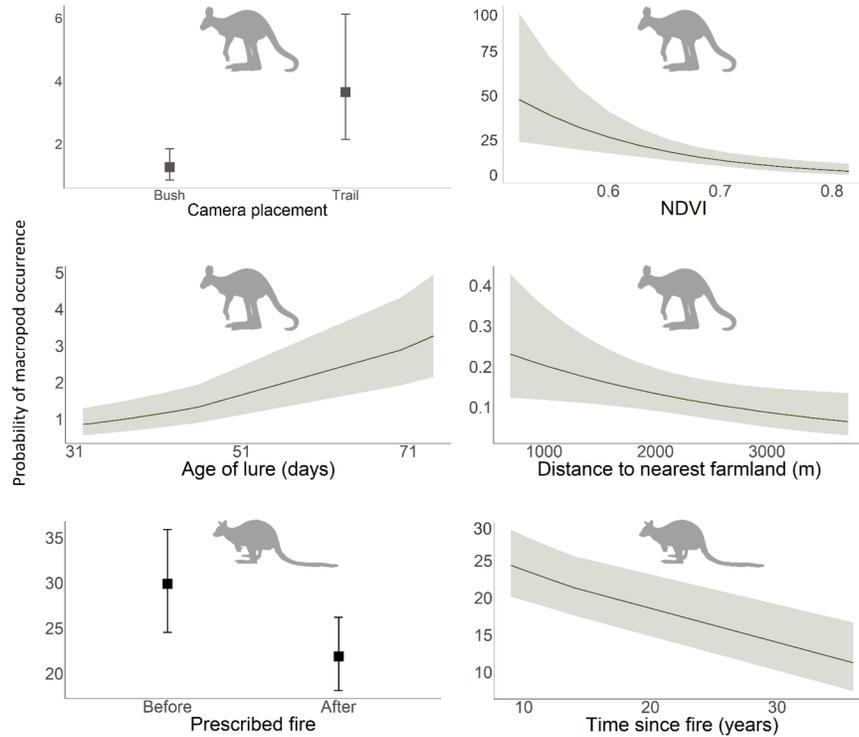


Figure 4. Plots of the GLMMs showing the influential effects from the single, well-supported models ($\Delta\text{AIC}<2$) for both the eastern grey kangaroo (*Macropus giganteus*) (top four) and the swamp wallaby (*Wallabia bicolor*) (bottom two) in the eastern Otway Ranges, Victoria. Full model summaries are provided in Appendix S2 (separate document).

Predictors of small and medium-sized mammal activity

There were four well-supported models for the medium-sized mammal group (Appendix S2). Activity was negatively associated with Fire extent (-1.17, [-1.92, -0.42]; 4/4 models) and NDVI before the prescribed fire (-1.42 [-2.11, -0.74]; 4/4 models) (Figure 5). Activity was also positively associated with the main effect of NDVI (0.55 [0.03, 1.06]; 2/4 models) (Figure 5). There were nine well-supported models for the small mammal group, however, none of these contained influential effects of the predictor variables. The null model was the second highest ranked model ($\Delta\text{AIC} = 0.32$).

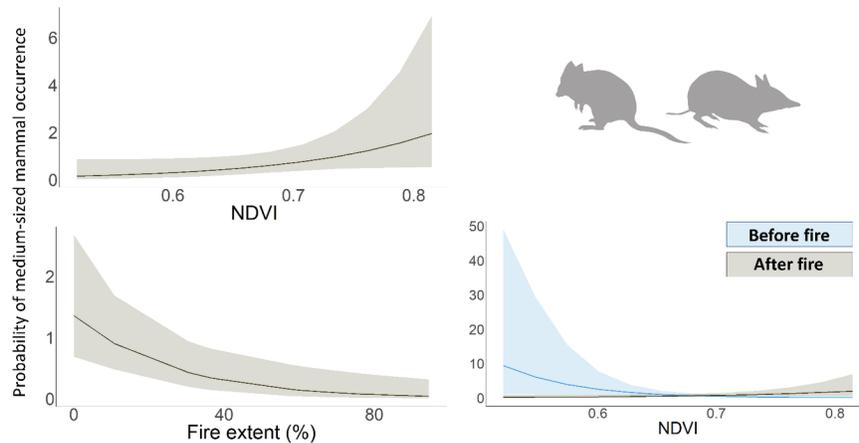


Figure 5. Plots of the GLMMs showing the influential effects from the single, well-supported models ($\Delta AIC < 2$) for the medium-sized mammals in the eastern Otway Ranges, Victoria. Full model summaries are provided in Appendix S2 (separate document).

Discussion

Cats and foxes

We predicted that cat and fox activity would be higher in areas burnt by the prescribed fire, however, we did not find any evidence in support of this. Whilst some studies have found strong evidence of cat or fox activity increasing after fire (McGregor *et al.* 2016a; Miritis *et al.* 2023), others have found a negative response (Bliege Bird *et al.* 2018; Lothian *et al.* 2022), no response (Hradsky *et al.* 2017c; Moore *et al.* 2018; Senior *et al.* 2022), or a context-dependent response. For instance, in the USA, swift foxes (*V. velox*), which are closely related to red foxes, only used burnt areas more frequently if their existing core home ranges were burnt (Thompson *et al.* 2008). Indeed, a recent analysis of existing evidence found that there was a high likelihood of neutral responses to fire being recorded for both cats and foxes in Australia (55% and 67%, respectively; Doherty *et al.* [2023]). One explanation for our result could be that the prescribed fire in this study was too mild to illicit an increase in cat or fox activity. A GPS study of feral cats in northern Australia found that, whilst cats strongly selected for areas recently burnt by severe fires, they did not select for areas recently burnt by mild fire—despite these areas having a high abundance of small mammal prey (McGregor *et al.* 2014). The authors suggested that cats did not benefit from mildly burnt areas due to unburnt patches likely providing refuge for prey, making hunting less profitable compared to severely burnt areas (McGregor *et al.* 2014).

While cats did not increase their activity following the prescribed fire, they were more active in areas with a shorter time since fire and lower NDVI—both indicators of simpler vegetation structure (Haslem *et al.* 2016). Cats also favoured swampy riparian woodlands, which is typically the most structurally complex vegetation type in our study area. The seemingly conflicting habitat complexity preferences may be explained by resource availability. Feral cats are capable of exploiting a diverse range of habitats, and it is generally considered that they prefer dense habitats for shelter—such as riparian woodlands—and more open habitats for hunting (Lozano *et al.* 2003; Doherty *et al.* 2015; Stobo-Wilson *et al.* 2020). Whilst foraging efficiency may theoretically be highest in recently burnt areas, these areas may be sub-optimal, and thus avoided, if prey availability is low (Pyke *et al.* 1977). The small mammal population in the eastern Otway Ranges has been declining for several decades and is now depauperate (Wayne *et al.*, 2017; Wilson & Aberton, 2006; Wilson *et al.*, 2001; Wilson *et al.*, 2017; Wilson & Garkaklis, 2020). While we did not find a relationship between fire and small mammal activity (discussed below under *Small and medium-sized mammals*), the most frequently detected small mammal species, the bush rat, almost completely avoids recently burnt areas (Lees *et al.* 2022). Further, during a separate, concurrent small mammal study in the eastern Otways, we found that detections of other small mammal species in burnt areas were very uncommon (Watchorn, unpublished data). These factors may partially explain why neither cats nor foxes increased their activity in burnt areas, and why cat activity was higher in relatively open areas that likely supported higher prey availability.

We did, however, find that fox activity increased across the study area after the fire, although due to the proximity of our control and treatment sites, we cannot be sure if the prescribed fire drove this change. Juvenile foxes typically disperse in winter (April to June in this region; Baker *et al.* 2001), and Hradsky *et al.* (2017) also observed an increase in fox activity at their control sites following a prescribed fire, which was thought to be driven by dispersing foxes. Spatially independent control sites would have better isolated the impact of the fire from other factors like seasonal fox dispersal, however, equipment limitations made such an approach unfeasible for this study.

We predicted that cat and fox activity would be higher near farms and towns due to increased resource

availability (Hradsky *et al.* 2017c). We found some support for this prediction, with foxes more active closer to farmland. Across their global range, red foxes, as well as other generalist mesopredators such as coyotes (*Canis latrans*) and golden jackals (*C. aureus*), use farmlands due to the availability of denning habitat, water and food (e.g., livestock, rodents, human food waste), as well as edge habitats which can support relatively diverse fauna communities and hunting opportunities (Gosselink *et al.* 2003; Šálek *et al.* 2014; Laux *et al.* 2022; Aikawa and Saito 2023). Indeed, we found that the eastern grey kangaroo, a common prey item of the red fox (Stobo-Wilson *et al.* 2022), was also more active near farmlands—likely due to the availability of pasture for grazing (Arnold *et al.* 1992; Maguire *et al.* 2006). In a GPS tracking study, Hradsky *et al.* (2017c) found that foxes in the Otway Ranges selected for farmland and forest-farmland interfaces at night, possibly due to livestock carcasses or prey availability. Collectively, these findings indicate that farm peripheries could provide effective fox baiting targets for land managers (Engeman and Linnell 1998; Carter and Luck 2013). Further high-resolution telemetry and resource mapping studies may provide further insight into the specific features foxes use (e.g., water dams, livestock carcasses etc.), which may further improve bait uptake in these areas.

Macropods

Fire stimulates a short-term increase in plant nutrients, such as nitrogen (N), increasing both the nutritional availability and palatability for herbivores (Eby *et al.* 2014). This, in turn, drives temporary increases in the abundance of large herbivores after fire—a phenomenon observed around the world (Klop *et al.* 2007; Raynor *et al.* 2015; Reid *et al.* 2023). As such, we expected eastern grey kangaroos and swamp wallabies to increase their activity in recently burnt areas. Swamp wallaby activity was higher in areas with a shorter time since fire, a result consistent with studies showing this species' preference for early successional vegetation and minimal short-term impacts of fire (Styger *et al.* 2011; Swan *et al.* 2021; Chard *et al.* 2022). However, we found no evidence that macropod activity increased at sites burnt by the prescribed fire or with Fire extent. Rather, swamp wallaby activity decreased following the prescribed burn. One explanation for this may be that the willingness of macropods to forage in recently burnt areas can vary with predator abundance. For example, Banks (2001) found that eastern grey kangaroos were more active in open areas where foxes had been removed, but spent more time near forest edges when foxes were present. Di Stefano *et al.* (2009) also found that swamp wallabies favour more structurally complex vegetation to increase obscurity from predators, whilst other large herbivores, such as the white-tailed deer and caribou (*Rangifer tarandus*) in North America, also reduce their use of open areas—despite an abundance of food in those areas—to reduce the risk of predation (Joly *et al.* 2003; Cherry *et al.* 2017).

Small and medium-sized mammals

The small and medium-sized mammals in our study area typically prefer dense vegetation, where food and denning resources are greater and the risk of predation is likely lower (Catling *et al.* 2001; Dexter *et al.* 2011). We therefore predicted that the activity of these groups will be positively associated with NDVI and decrease after the prescribed fire (White *et al.* 2022). In support of this prediction, medium-sized mammal activity decreased with Fire extent, a trend also seen with medium-sized prey in Europe (Sokos *et al.* 2016), North America (Zwolak and Foresman 2007), and elsewhere in Australia (Robley *et al.* 2023). Hradsky *et al.* (2017a) observed that fox consumption of medium-sized mammals, such as bandicoots, doubled after a patchy prescribed fire in the Otways, highlighting the increased vulnerability of these species to predation following fire, notwithstanding possible scavenging of carcasses.

Medium-sized mammals also showed a complex relationship with NDVI; while the main effect of NDVI was generally positive, activity was negatively associated with NDVI before the fire and slightly increased afterwards. This may suggest that these species increased their selection of microhabitat features associated with higher NDVI (e.g., gullies, sedges) following the fire (e.g., Swan *et al.* 2016; Fordyce *et al.* 2016; Lees *et al.* 2022). However, the high level of uncertainty with this interaction limits our ability to draw strong conclusions. Notably, while higher NDVI is typically associated with higher species richness for the mammals

comprising this species group (Youngentob *et al.* 2015b; Dorph *et al.* 2021; White *et al.* 2022), individually, these species have exhibited positive (Miritis *et al.* 2020; White *et al.* 2022), negative (Ralph 2021), and neutral (Youngentob *et al.* 2015b; Hale *et al.* 2016) responses to NDVI. These varied relationships are likely due to factors such as drought, fire history, and habitat type (Youngentob *et al.* 2015a; White *et al.* 2022). Nonetheless, our findings suggest that NDVI may be a useful means of identifying and conserving productive and structurally complex areas which may facilitate mammal occurrence and diversity in this landscape (Sukma *et al.* 2019; Rivarola 2022), especially following disturbances such as drought (White *et al.* 2022), plant pathogen spread (Casey 2022), or fire (Dorph *et al.* 2021).

None of the variables predicted the activity of small mammals, a finding at odds with previous studies on these species that identified relationships with NDVI (Hale *et al.* 2016; Chadwick *et al.* 2022) and changes in habitat use following fire (Swan *et al.* 2016; Fordyce *et al.* 2016; Lees *et al.* 2022). One reason for this discrepancy may be that our camera arrangement, in terms of both density and spatial extent, was insufficient to reliably detect discrete patterns of microhabitat use for these species, especially considering the depauperate state of the small mammal community (Wilson and Garkaklis 2020). The incorporation of fine-scale, site-level habitat information—such as understorey vegetation structure (e.g., Hradsky *et al.* 2017a; Lees *et al.* 2022)—may have further improved our ability to detect any potential response to fire or vegetation structure.

Conclusions

We found little evidence to support our predictions that cat, fox, and macropod activity would increase following the prescribed burn, or that small mammal (<800 g) activity would decrease. Medium-sized mammals were negatively associated with Fire extent, and other studies in the region have identified similar trends following patchy prescribed burns, along with increased consumption of these species by foxes (Hradsky *et al.* 2017a). This suggests that these species may be particularly vulnerable to fire and invasive predators in this region, and may benefit from preserving large unburnt refuges and from targeted post-fire interventions to reduce predation, such as the provision of artificial refuges (Watchorn *et al.* 2022).

Looking forward, there are several key research questions which should be prioritised to conserve fauna inside protected areas. The majority of evidence demonstrating increases in cat activity post-fire comes from Australia's tropical north (Doherty *et al.* 2023). It remains unclear whether cats or foxes temporarily adjust their core home range or move long distances to hunt in recently burnt areas in the temperate forests, woodlands, and other ecosystems of southern Australia. Whilst camera traps are useful, their appropriateness for answering this question is limited by their inherently patchy spatial coverage across the landscape, as well as the delay associated with deploying them immediately after prescribed fires, especially in temperate forests. To this end, we recommend future studies employ the BACI experimental framework with animal-borne GPS loggers (Le Pla *et al.* 2023). This will improve our understanding of the fine-scale movements and habitat use of cats, foxes, and native prey species immediately before and after prescribed fire (e.g., McGregor *et al.* 2014). Animal-borne video cameras could also provide valuable insight into cat and fox hunting success and prey selection (McGregor *et al.* 2015). These approaches, whilst challenging to implement, will allow for a more nuanced understanding of fine-scale responses to prescribed fire, thereby informing more effective management strategies within protected areas.

Acknowledgements

We proudly acknowledge the Wadawurrung People as the Traditional Owners of the land on which this study was conducted. This research was generously funded by the Hermon Slade Foundation, while D.J.W. was supported by a Deakin University Postgraduate Research Scholarship. T.S.D. was supported by an Alfred Deakin Postdoctoral Research Fellowship from Deakin University and a Discovery Early Career Researcher Award from the Australian Research Council (DE200100157). We thank staff from Parks Victoria, the Department of Energy, Environment and Climate Action, as well as Forest Fire Management Victoria for their assistance and support in planning this research. We are grateful to Dr. Harry Moore for his comments on earlier versions of this manuscript, and we deeply thank the numerous volunteers who assisted in the

field.

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