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Do reptile responses to habitat structure and time since fire depend on landscape structure?

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ABSTRACT

Land use changes, such as the development of agriculture and plantation forestry, and altered fire regimes, are major drivers of biodiversity loss worldwide, influencing the availability of suitable habitat for species. Reptiles are sensitive to both these processes as they are influenced by native vegetation extent and habitat structure. While much is known about the independent effects of fire and land use change on species distributions, few studies have investigated potential interactive effects; specifically, whether the influence of site-scale variables on reptiles depends on the properties of the surrounding landscape. We sampled reptiles at 107 sites in fire-prone heathy woodland, interspersed with plantation forestry and agriculture in south-west Victoria, Australia. We investigated the responses of seven reptile species to both site-scale variables (time since fire and several measures of habitat structure) and landscape-scale variables (extent of native vegetation and plantations and the presence of pasture within a 3.14 square km area) to 1) identify whether species' responses to fire and habitat depended on landscape structure, and 2) examine the relative influence of time since fire, habitat structure and landscape structure on reptile abundance. We predicted that responses to site-scale variables would vary with a key landscape structure variable: the amount of native vegetation cover. Further, we predicted that site-scale variables would be stronger predictors of species abundance than landscape-scale variables. Generalised linear models, accounting for imperfect detection, were used to estimate species responses to site and landscape-scale predictors. For two species (Amphibolurus muricatus and Liopholis whitii) there was evidence that their responses to site-scale variables depended on landscape structure. However, contrary to our first prediction, native vegetation cover was not the only landscape structure variable that influenced species' responses to site-scale variables. Three species (Acritoscincus duperreyi, A. muricatus, and Lerista bougainvillii) responded to both habitat structure and landscape structure variables, though the relative influence of the variables at the different scales was varied among the species. One species (Lampropholis guichenoti) responded to fire and habitat structure variables at the site-scale but did not respond to landscape structure. One species (Aprasia striolata) responded to landscape structure variables but not to site-scale variables. Our second prediction, that site-scale variables would be the strongest predictors of abundance, was true for two species, but overall, our results were varied, with species responding at both scales. Examining species' responses to drivers at multiple spatial scales is essential for conservation management, as even species with low dispersal capacity such as reptiles can respond to processes occurring at large spatial scales.

1. Introduction

Biodiversity decline is occurring worldwide as suitable habitat for many species becomes depleted. Major drivers of habitat loss include disturbances from altered fire regimes and changes to land use (Haddad et al., 2015; Kelly et al., 2020). While much is known about the independent effects of these processes on biodiversity, there is growing acknowledgement that they may also operate in combination, with the potential for interactive effects (Didham et al., 2007; Ewers and Didham, 2007; Geary et al., 2019; Driscoll et al., 2021). Understanding interactions between threatening processes is critical for conservation since some processes may have limited or no negative effects on

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Fig. 1. Location of the study area and survey sites near Casterton, southeast Australia. Black dots indicate location of sites in native vegetation. Growth stage categories after Cheal (2010): recent (0–3 yrs); early (4–10 yrs); mid (11–34 yrs); and late (35 + yrs). White areas indicate pasture and plantations. Inset A shows the layout of pitfall and funnel traps along each 200 m transect. Circles represent pitfall traps (spaced 40 m apart), and rectangles represent pairs of funnel traps (spaced 100 m apart).

biodiversity when acting alone, but acting synergistically can drive populations to extinction (Doherty et al., 2015; Paterson et al., 2021). Models that specifically incorporate interactions are an important tool that allow us to test predictions about the response of species to interacting drivers and improve ecological management in these systems (Didham et al., 2007).

Fire is a natural process shaping the diversity of species and ecosystems across the globe (Bowman et al., 2009; Kelly et al., 2020). Fire is also known to increase the impact of other processes, including the spread of weeds (Brown et al., 2016), grazing (Raffaele et al., 2011; Legge et al., 2019) and predation (Doherty et al., 2015; Hradsky, 2020; Nalliah et al., 2022). Interactions between fire and other processes are likely to become more common in many parts of the world as climate change increases the size and frequency of fires, and fire begins to occur in ecosystems where it was previously rare or absent (Kelly et al., 2020). As such, further research is necessary to improve our understanding of interactions between fire and other processes, and their implications for biodiversity, in order to develop effective conservation management strategies (Driscoll et al., 2010; Driscoll et al., 2021).

Globally, many landscapes are subject to change from land uses such as timber harvesting, agriculture, urbanization, and mining (Haddad et al., 2015; Potapov et al., 2017), with many regions influenced by multiple competing land uses (Gill and Williams, 1996; Triska et al., 2017). These activities result in altered landscape structure, defined as the composition and spatial configuration of different land use types (Bennett et al., 2006), and the influence of landscape structure on biodiversity is subject to substantial research (Fahrig, 2003; Bennett et al., 2006; Haddad et al., 2015). Fire (both prescribed fire and wildfire) often occurs in multi-use landscapes, and there is an extensive body of research investigating the response of plants and animals to fire metrics such as time since fire and fire frequency (Driscoll et al., 2010; He et al., 2019). However, the response of biodiversity to the interactive effects of fire and landscape structure remains a critical knowledge gap (Sitters and Di Stefano, 2020; Driscoll et al., 2021). Available research on animals indicates that species' responses to fire may depend on the structure of the surrounding landscape (e.g. Hossack et al., 2013; Delaney et al., 2021; Santos et al., 2022; Zylinski et al., 2022). For instance, Zylinski et al. (2022) showed that a particular fire age-class (mid-successional vegetation) only had a positive influence on the richness of native woodland mammals when the extent of cleared land in the surrounding landscape was high.

Of concern is the potential for negative synergistic interactions between fire and landscape structure where the interacting effects result in worse conservation outcomes compared to the sum of the individual influences (Brook et al., 2002). This may occur when habitat loss and other changes to landscapes that cause habitat degradation, such as replacing native vegetation with plantations or urban settlements, exacerbates the effects of fire on already threatened species (Santos et al., 2022). For example, the abundance of Blue Mountains water skinks (*Eulamprus leuraensis*) is negatively correlated with recent fire and fire frequency as well as proximity to urbanization, indicating that effects of inappropriate fire management may be especially heightened in urban areas (Gorissen et al., 2015; Gorissen et al., 2018).

Australia is considered a reptile hotspot and has a rich diversity of squamate reptiles (lizards and snakes) with almost 1,100 species, most of which are endemic (ABRS, 2023; Uetz, 2023). Despite this diversity, there is limited knowledge of the ecology, distributions, and population trends for most species (Tingley et al., 2019; Chapple et al., 2021; Senior et al., 2021), and few studies have explicitly focused on heathy woodland communities (but see Friend, 1993; Lindenmayer et al., 2008; Ensbey et al., 2023). As ectotherms, reptiles have fundamentally different traits and life history strategies from other vertebrates, and therefore may also be expected to respond differently to disturbances (Doherty et al., 2020; Van Dyke et al., 2021). Reptiles are expected to be vulnerable to both fire and landscape structure due to their relatively low dispersal ability, small home ranges, energy use, and thermoregulatory strategies (Böhm et al., 2013; Tingley et al., 2019; Doherty et al., 2020; Mulhall et al., 2022). Furthermore, many reptiles are closely associated with elements of habitat structure that may be affected by fire, such as leaf litter, canopy cover, and understorey cover (Caughley, 1985; Driscoll and Henderson, 2008; Elzer et al., 2013; Infante et al., 2021). As such, various species have been found to respond to aspects of the fire regime, including time since fire, although substantial variability in responses has also been detected, including many null responses (Driscoll and Henderson, 2008; Smith et al., 2013; Hu et al., 2016; Nimmo et al., 2013; Santos and Cheylan, 2013). It is possible that considering fire and landscape structure concurrently may improve the capacity to predict fire responses in a wider range of species.

Preferences for particular fire regimes have often been linked to reptile species traits, and therefore inappropriate fire management is predicted to threaten certain species in fire-prone areas (Fenner and Bull, 2007; Nimmo et al., 2013; Shine et al., 2016). Indeed, a recent review found that fire is a threat to 43% of Australian squamates of conservation concern (Santos et al., 2022). Habitat loss and modification has been found to have a primarily negative effect on reptile abundance (Doherty et al., 2020), with agriculture amongst the most common sources of threat in Australia (Tingley et al., 2019) and worldwide (Böhm et al., 2013; Cox et al., 2022). Selective loss of habitats in south-eastern Australia, including native woodlands and grasslands, has disproportionately impacted certain taxa, including fossorial reptiles (Brown et al., 2008).

We conducted a multi-scale study to assess the responses of reptile species to time since fire, habitat structure, and landscape structure in a fire-prone, fragmented landscape in southeastern Australia. The aims of our study were to: 1) identify whether species' responses to time since fire and habitat structure were influenced by the structure of the surrounding landscape, and 2) examine the relative influence of site-scale variables (i.e. time since fire and habitat structure) and landscape structure variables on reptile abundance. We predicted that species responses to site-scale variables would vary with a key landscape structure variable: the amount of native vegetation cover in the surrounding landscape. This is because native vegetation extent is likely to influence a range of processes, such as landscape connectivity, proximity to disturbance, and abiotic conditions, which are expected to influence species abundance (Wilson et al., 2016; Banks-Leite et al., 2020). Further, we predicted that site-scale variables would be stronger predictors of species than landscape-scale variables, owing to their reduced dispersal ability, small home range size and close association with habitat structure (Michael et al., 2016; Pinto et al., 2018).

2. Methods

2.1. Study area

The study was conducted in dry eucalypt woodlands across an area of ~320,000 ha in south-western Victoria, Australia (Fig. 1). The climate is mild with mean annual minimum and maximum temperatures of 8.3 °C and 20.1 °C respectively (Bureau of Meteorology, 2017). There is a rainfall gradient across the study area, with the mean annual rainfall ranging from 625 mm in the north to 735 mm in the south. Elevation above sea level ranges between 75 and 131 m.

This area was selected as an ideal location for studying the effects of both fire and landscape structure on reptiles as the native vegetation features a diverse fire history and is fragmented by agriculture and plantation forests. Native vegetation is primarily heathy woodland, which is characterised by a low canopy of desert stringybark (Eucalyptus arenacea) and brown stringybark (Eucalyptus baxterii), and a sparce understorey dominated by grass trees (Xanthorrhoea australis and Xanthorrhoea caespitosa), Banksia spp., Leptospermum spp., and a diverse range of heathy shrubs (Duff et al., 2013). Prescribed fire has been used as a tool for managing fuel loads and reducing bushfire risk to communities in the region since 1970 (Dess, 2016). Incidence of both prescribed fires and wildfires (including large wildfires in 1939 and 1983) have resulted in a range of post-fire growth stages (also known as age classes, seral stages or successional stages) in native vegetation patches. Fire severity has only been mapped routinely over the past decade, and was therefore not factored into this study. The area overlaps a major forestry region known as the 'Green Triangle'; plantation forests of pine (Pinus radiata) have been planted and harvested since the 1900s with eucalyptus (Eucalyptus globulus) plantations more recently established (URS Forestry, n.d.).

2.2. Survey design

We stratified native vegetation into four growth stage categories, representing major developmental stages in vegetation succession, following Cheal (2010): recently burnt (0–3 yrs); early successional (4–10 yrs); mid successional (11–34 yrs); and late successional (35 + yrs). We established 107 sites in the native vegetation using a restricted random protocol to sample the variability in both growth stages and landscape structure (Fig. 1). Sites were set up in loose clusters of five to increase survey efficiency. Potential sites were first identified in QGIS (version 2.18), followed by ground-truthing to ensure that patches of native vegetation were intact and had not experienced heavy disturbance (QGIS Development Team, 2016). Sites were positioned at between 50 and 200 m from roads to reduce edge effects and for ease of access, and at least 1 km apart to increase independence. Reptiles were surveyed at each site along a 200 m transect positioned at a random bearing.

2.3. Reptile survey protocol

Each 200 m transect consisted of six pitfall traps (20 L buckets buried level with the ground) and six funnel traps ($18 \times 18 \times 79$ cm), described in Thompson and Thompson (2007). The six pitfall traps were set along the transect at 40 m intervals, while the six funnel traps were set in pairs

Table 1

Site-scale, landscape-scale and interaction models used in abundance modelling of reptile species. There were 23 models in total.

Model type	Model
Site-scale variables	\sim site-scale variable
bare ground	
canopy cover	
coarse woody debris	
leaf litter	
time since last fire (TSF)	
Landscape-scale variables	\sim landscape-scale variable
native vegetation	
pasture	
plantation	
Interactions between site- and landscape-	\sim site-scale variable \times landscape-
scale variables	scale variable

at 100 m intervals. Drift fences, made from black polyethylene dampcourse, were installed to improve detection rates (Fig. 1, insert A). To reduce the risk of heat stress and predation to animals caught in the pitfall traps, a short length of PVC pipe, a piece of cardboard carton, and a handful of leaf litter were placed at the bottom of each bucket. To reduce heat stress in funnel traps, covers made from 90% shade cloth were pinned down across the top of the pairs of traps (Thompson and Thompson, 2009).

Trapping was conducted for five consecutive nights at each site over the spring and summer of 2017/2018 (Nov – Apr). To increase trapping efficiency, clusters of 5–7 sites were surveyed during each trapping period. Traps were checked in the morning and late afternoon, and captured animals were identified and released on site. All animals except venomous snakes were marked with a marker pen to identify any individuals that were recaptured within the five-day trapping period. These data were used to define the number of unique individuals counted per day over the five-day trapping period. In subsequent analysis (described below) the total count was used as the response variable and the detection history (daily count) used to estimate and account for imperfect detection.

2.4. Site-scale predictors

At each site we used six 10 \times 10 m plots spaced at 40 m intervals and centred on the pitfall traps (Fig. 1) to derive four habitat structure variables: leaf litter, bare ground, coarse woody debris, and canopy cover. Leaf litter was collected from two randomly selected points in each plot (12 samples per site) using a 0.1 m² fuel sampling ring. Samples were dried at 105° C for 48 h, and then their dry weights averaged to obtain the mean dry weight of the leaf litter at each site (Penman and York, 2010). Bare ground cover was visually estimated across a circular area with a two-metre radius from three random points within the plot. Canopy cover was calculated from the centre of the 10 m plot using photographs taken at ground level. To ensure only canopy cover was being captured in the photographs, any ground level vegetation was moved aside. Photographs were taken using a digital camera and analysed in Image J (Pérez and Pascau 2013) to provide a measure of percent canopy cover. Presence of logs > 5 cm in diameter and > 50cm long were counted within each quarter of the plot. Site-level values for each habitat structure variable were calculated as means of the plotlevel values. In addition to the habitat structure variables described above, we also measured the following: basal area, Xanthorrhoea cover, and under- and mid- storey cover at 0-50 cm, 50-100 cm, 100-150 cm, and 150 - 200 cm. However, as exploratory analysis showed that these variables were highly correlated with other variables (i.e. basal area) or generally less important predictors of reptile species in our study, they were not included in the final models.

We obtained a fire history map from the Victorian Department of Environment, Land, Water and Planning. Time since last fire (TSF) values, indicating the number of years since the last fire in 2017, were extracted for each of the 107 sites where reptiles were surveyed.

2.5. Landscape-scale predictors

A map of vegetation cover at a scale of 1:25,000 was downloaded from the Victorian Government's open data platform, www.data.vic.gov .au. To quantify the structure of the surrounding landscape, we calculated the area of native vegetation, pasture, and timber plantations within a 1 km radius of each site centred on the mid-point of the transect using ArcMap 10.5 (ESRI, 1995). We selected 1 km as the length of the radius as this was shown to capture the variability in our focal landscape variables. Further, previous research on other fauna in the study area indicated that species responded most strongly to landscape structure in landscapes with radii between 500 and 1500 m (Delaney et al., 2021) and the midpoint of this range seemed reasonable for our study. While it would be informative to model the response of reptiles to a range of spatial scales that was beyond the scope of our work. Due to the relatively small range in the area of pasture, these figures were converted to binary values to indicate the presence or absence of pasture within a 1 km radius of each site. While land uses other than native vegetation, pasture and plantation were present in the region these were all of a negligible area; so, for example, properties surrounded by pasture were mapped as pasture.

2.6. Detection covariates

Since reptile activity is known to be influenced by weather and season, we recorded temperature and rainfall at a subset of 55 sites spread through the study area for the period of trapping (Spence-Bailey et al., 2010). Rainfall, which was very infrequent, was measured using rain gauges as the presence or absence of rain, and temperature was measured with HOBO U23 Pro V2 data loggers (Onset Computer Corporation, Bourne, MA, USA) placed at the beginning of the transect. Calendar date was used to represent the time of year between spring and summer.

2.7. Statistical analysis

All statistical analysis was conducted in R (version 4.2.0, R Core Team, 2020). We applied a negative binomial *N*-mixture model (Royle, 2004) via the pcount function in the unmarked package (Fiske and Chandler, 2011) to model the relative abundance (number of unique individuals per site) of seven species (eastern three-lined skink (Acritoscincus duperreyi), jacky dragon (Amphibolurus muricatus), lined wormlizard (Aprasia striolata), garden skink (Lampropholis guichenoti), southeastern slider (Lerista bougainvillii), southern grass skink (Pseudemoia entrecasteauxii) and White's skink (Liopholis whitii)) as a function site and landscape-scale predictor variables while accounting for imperfect detection and overdispersion. Only species that were detected at 10 or more sites were included (Table A1, Appendix) as we judged this necessary for robust results given our intention of including two variables and their interaction in our models (see below). Further, if a species was detected in a particular region of the study area (such as the southern grass skink, which was detected only at the southern end of the study area) then the data used in modelling was confined to the region where the species was detected and neighbouring sites within 5 km, so as to exclude areas outside the species' distribution.

Models were developed in two stages. Firstly, we modelled the probability of detection (p) using calendar date, maximum temperature, and rainfall as potential detection covariates. We built detection models using each of the three variables and their additive combinations and included a null model in this set. For each species, we chose the detection model that had the lowest values of Akaike's Information Criterion (AIC) for subsequent analysis (Table A2, Appendix).

In the second stage, we estimated the relative abundance of our seven focal species as a function of our site- and landscape-scale

Table 2

Responses of reptile abundance to time since fire, habitat structure and landscape structure. Top-ranked models (Δ AIC < 2) and lower ranked ecologically important models for each species are displayed. Models are ranked by AIC. Number of parameters (nPars), R², parameter estimates with lower and upper confidence limits (LCL, UCL), and *P*-values are also displayed. Time since fire (TSF), coarse woody debris (CWD).

Model and terms	nPars	ΔΑΙC	R ²	Estimate	LCL	UCL	P-value
Eastern three-line skink							
Canopy cover \times Pasture	8	0.00	0.19				
Canopy cover				-0.44	-0.71	-0.25	0.000
Pasture				-0.27	-0.16	0.23	0.009
Canopy cover \times Pasture				-0.13	-0.10	0.31	0.249
Canopy cover	6	3.34	0.14				
Canopy cover				-0.45	-0.67	-0.23	< 0.001
Pasture	6	12.90	0.06				
Pasture	(14.00	0.04	-0.28	-0.49	-0.06	0.011
CWD	0	14.36	0.04	0.05	0.47	0.02	0.000
CWD Nativo vog	6	14.96	0.04	-0.25	-0.47	-0.03	0.028
Native veg.	0	14.80	0.04	0.22	0.01	0.45	0.026
hauve veg.				0.25	0.01	0.45	0.030
Jacky dragon							
Canopy cover \times Plantation	8	0.00	0.10				
Canopy cover				-0.14	-0.48	0.21	0.439
Plantation				-0.46	-0.89	-0.04	0.032
Canopy cover × Plantation				0.39	0.02	0.76	0.038
$TSF \times Pasture$	8	0.57	0.10				
TSF				-0.19	-0.59	0.22	0.370
Pasture				-0.14	-0.55	0.27	0.499
$TSF \times Pasture$				0.51	0.12	0.90	0.010
Bare ground	6	1.90	0.05				
Bare ground				0.30	0.03	0.57	0.027
Plantation	6	2.16	0.04				
Plantation				-0.37	-0.75	0.01	0.059
Lined worm-lizard	0	0.00	0.00				
Canopy cover × Plantation	8	0.00	0.22	0.64	1 50	0.00	0.145
Callopy cover Diantation				-0.64	-1.50	0.22	0.145
Capopy cover × Plantation				-0.08	-1.00	0.23	0.155
Native veg	6	0.20	0.12	-0.72	-2.01	0.17	0.077
Native veg	0	0.20	0.12	0.62	0.00	1.23	0.048
Canopy cover \times Native veg.	8	0.24	0.21	0102	0.00	1120	01010
Canopy cover	-			-0.80	-1.88	0.28	0.146
Native veg.				0.62	-0.20	1.44	0.138
Canopy cover \times Native veg.				0.88	-0.20	1.97	0.111
Plantation	6	0.33	0.12				
Plantation				-0.61	-0.96	0.13	0.064
$CWD \times Plantation$	8	0.95	0.20				
CWD				-0.83	-2.17	0.50	0.221
Plantation				-1.03	-2.34	0.27	0.122
$CWD \times Plantation$				-0.98	-2.53	0.56	0.213
Condon skink							
Capopy cover	6	0.00	0.07				
Canopy cover	0	0.00	0.07	0.35	0.10	0.59	0.005
TSF	6	4 26	0.03	0.55	0.10	0.59	0.005
TSF				0.23	-0.02	0.48	0.066
Bare ground	6	4.64	0.03				
Bare ground				-0.24	-0.51	0.03	0.079
Southeastern slider							
Bare ground \times Pasture	8	0.00	0.13				
Bare ground				0.22	0.04	0.39	0.014
Pasture				-0.29	-0.48	-0.09	0.004
Bare ground \times Pasture				-0.07	-0.24	0.11	0.464
Pasture	6	3.52	0.07				0.007
Pasture		0.00	0.04	-0.28	-0.48	-0.08	0.006
Native veg.	6	3.93	0.06	0.00	0.00	0.40	0.007
Native veg.	6	6.05	0.05	0.28	0.08	0.49	0.007
Plantation	0	0.05	0.05	-0.23	_0.44	-0.03	0.024
Bare ground	6	6 45	0.04	-0.25	-0.11	-0.05	0.024
Bare ground	0	0.10	0.01	0.20	0.02	0.39	0.028
Date Ground				0.20	0.02	0.09	0.020
White's skink							
CWD \times Native veg.	7	0.00	0.16				
CWD				-0.68	-1.52	0.15	0.109
Native veg.				1.14	0.12	2.16	0.029
						(. 1

(continued on next page)

Table	2	(continued)
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Model and terms	nPars	ΔΑΙC	R ²	Estimate	LCL	UCL	P-value
CWD \times Native veg.				1.34	0.47	2.21	0.003
Leaf litter \times Native veg.	7	3.66	0.12				
Leaf litter				-1.04	-1.92	-0.16	0.021
Native veg.				-0.43	-0.97	0.12	0.125
Leaf litter \times Native veg.				-0.75	-1.32	-0.18	0.010
Bare ground \times Pasture	7	4.95	0.11				
Bare ground				0.78	0.07	1.50	0.032
Pasture				-0.52	-1.35	0.31	0.217
Bare ground \times Pasture				0.69	-0.05	1.45	0.068
Bare ground	5	5.34	0.06				
Bare ground				0.65	0.05	1.24	0.034
Canopy cover \times Native veg.	7	5.52	0.10				
Canopy cover				-0.54	-1.20	0.13	0.113
Native veg.				0.43	-0.32	1.19	0.258
Canopy cover \times Native veg.				0.74	0.01	1.48	0.048
Canopy cover	5	5.79	0.05				
Canopy cover				-0.69	-1.38	0.00	0.051

predictors, including the best detection model derived in stage one. For each species we modelled their responses to 1) each of the five site-scale variables, 2) each of the three landscape-scale variables, and 3) 15 models representing the interaction between each site-scale variable and each landscape-scale variable (Table 1).

In both stage one and two variables were standardized prior to analysis. In stage two we checked for collinearity between each sitescale variable and each landscape-scale variable using the GGally package (Schloerke et al., 2021); the maximum Pearson's correlation between variables used in the same model was 0.37. In all models we used the default value of K, the upper bound of the summation over the possible values of abundance in the integrated likelihood (Royle, 2004), which is set to the maximum count for each species plus 100. Preliminary testing on datasets for each species showed that estimated parameters and AIC values changed very little when K was between 25 and 200. Finally, as our sites were clustered, we checked for positive spatial autocorrelation using of the residuals of the best model for each species. We used the ncf package to generate spline correlograms from 1000 permutations (Bjornstad, 2022) and did not detect positive spatial autocorrelation (Fig. A.1, Appendix).

2.8. Model comparison

The aim of the modelling was to 1) compare species responses to sitescale and landscape-scale variables and 2) determine if responses to sitescale variables depended on landscape-scale variables. To do this we performed model comparison for the full set of site-scale, landscapescale, and interaction models (i.e. 23 models in total) (Table 1) and used AIC to rank the models for each species. Lower AIC values, where Δ AIC > 2, indicate models with greater parsimony. We used a weight of evidence approach (Muff et al., 2022) to identify noteworthy relationships between response and predictor variables where *P*-values < 0.001, ~ 0.001 - 0.01, ~ 0.01 - 0.05 and ~ 0.05 - 0.10 were considered to provide very strong, strong, moderate and weak evidence of a relationship. R² was used to measure goodness of fit.

3. Results

We recorded 1208 individual reptiles from 17 species in five families (Table A1, Appendix). Around 85% of the reptiles captured during this study belonged to one of three skink species (eastern three-lined skink,

southeastern slider, garden skink). Jacky dragons, lined worm-lizard, southern grass skink and White's skink were less abundant but detected at \geq 10 sites and subjected to formal analysis. The remaining species (Austrelaps superbus, Chelodina longicollis, Ctenotus robustus, Drysdalia coronoides, Eulamprus tympanum, Morethia obscura, Notechis scutatus, Pseudonaja textilis, Tiliqua nigrolutea, Tiliqua rugosa) were detected at < 10 sites and were excluded from the analysis.

3.1. Responses to interactions between site- and landscape-scale variables

We found strong to moderate evidence that the responses of two species (jacky dragon and White's skink) to some site-scale variables depended on landscape structure. Abundance of jacky dragons increased with time since fire when pasture was present and decreased when pasture was absent (Table 2; Fig. 2f). Jacky dragons also responded differently to canopy cover depending on the amount of plantation cover, (Table 2; Fig. 2e). White's skink responded differently to coarse woody debris, leaf litter, and canopy cover, depending on the amount of native vegetation cover, although the uncertainty associated with the predicted responses was sometimes high (Table 2; Figs. 2r, s, v). Additionally, this species was found to respond differently to the percentage of bare ground depending on whether pasture was present or absent, although the uncertainty associated with the predicted response was also high (Table 2; Fig. 2t).

3.2. Responses to site-scale variables

Five out of the seven species responded to at least one site-scale habitat variable, and one species responded to time since fire. We found strong to moderate evidence for negative effects of canopy cover on the abundance of eastern three-lined skinks and White's skinks (Table 2; Figs. 2a, w), as well as a positive effect on the abundance of garden skinks (Table 2; Fig. 2k). We found evidence for positive effects of the percent of bare ground on the abundance of three species (jacky dragon, southeastern slider, White's skink) (Table 2; Figs. 2g, q, u), and negative effects on the abundance of one species (garden skink, Fig. 2m). There was moderate evidence of negative effects of coarse woody debris on the abundance of eastern three-lined skinks (Table 2; Fig. 2c). We found weak evidence of a positive effect of time since fire on the abundance of one species, the garden skink (Table 2; Fig. 2l).



Fig. 2. Relationships between species abundance and key site-scale variables and landscape-scale variables. Shading represents 95% confidence limits. Black lines represent site-scale variables and landscape-scale variables. Red and blue bars represent the absence and presence of pasture, respectively. Red and blue lines represent different amounts of cover in the surrounding landscape: 'low' refers 20% cover, 'high' refers 80% cover.

3.3. Responses to landscape-scale variables

Four species were found to respond to landscape-scale variables. We found strong to moderate evidence of positive effects of native vegetation cover on the abundance of three species (eastern three-lined skink, lined worm-lizard, and southern-eastern slider) (Table 2; Figs. 2d, i, o). We found evidence of an effect of pasture on two species (eastern threelined skink and southeastern slider) such that both species were found in higher abundance when pasture was absent in the surrounding landscape (Table 2; Figs. 2b, n). There was also moderate evidence of negative effects of plantation cover on the abundance of three species (Jacky dragon, lined worm-lizard, and southeastern slider) (Table 2; Figs. 2h, j, p).

3.4. Relative importance of site-scale and landscape-scale variables

Three of the seven species (eastern three-lined skink, jacky dragon, and southeastern slider) were found to respond to both site-scale and landscape-scale variables (Table 2). Two species (garden skink and White's skink) responded only to site-scale variables, while one species (lined worm-lizard) responded only to landscape-scale variables (Table 2). One species (southern grass skink) did not respond to any of the variables examined regardless of scale. Canopy cover was the best site-scale predictor of eastern three-lined skink abundance, and had a stronger effect than the amount of coarse woody debris at the site, or pasture and native vegetation in the surrounding landscape (Table 2). In contrast, landscape-scale variables were better predictors of south-eastern slider abundance: models of pasture and native vegetation cover ranked higher than and bare ground (Table 2). No one variable at either scale was found to be the best predictor of jacky dragons (Table 2).

4. Discussion

We investigated the responses of seven reptile species in a fire-prone, fragmented landscape in southwest Victoria to identify whether species' responses to site-scale variables depend on landscape structure, and to compare the relative influence of variables measured at the site and landscape scale. The responses of two species to site-scale variables depended on the structure of the surrounding landscape, however contrary to our first prediction, native vegetation cover was not the only landscape structure variable that influenced species' responses to site-scale variables – plantation cover and the presence of pasture were also influential. Our second prediction, that site-scale variables would be the strongest predictors of abundance, was true for two species, but overall our results were varied, and most species responded to variables measured at both the site and landscape scale.

4.1. Do reptile responses to site-scale variables depend on landscape structure?

Our results indicate that landscape structure may influence species' responses to site-scale variables in fire-prone landscapes. To our knowledge this is the first time that reptile responses to the characteristics of their local environments have been shown to be influenced by the characteristics of the surrounding landscape. Interactions between processes can have important implications for animal populations and their management in fire-prone landscapes but are often both poorly studied and difficult to predict (Delaney et al., 2021; Driscoll et al., 2021; Zylinski et al., 2022). Our findings provide initial insights into reptile responses to the interacting effects of processes operating at different spatial scales, as well as a basis for understanding geographically variable responses to fire that are sometimes observed (Nimmo et al., 2014).

Relationships between jacky dragon abundance and canopy cover and time since fire both appear to be influenced by landscape structure, indicating that landscape structure may impact habitat selection and post-fire recovery in this species. The differences in the responses to fire and canopy cover with changes in landscape structure may relate to the impacts of all these factors on thermoregulatory opportunities. Previous research has identified links between fire frequency, canopy cover and transmission of solar radiation and the thermal quality of habitat (Elzer et al., 2013). Indeed, removal of canopy cover in fire suppressed landscapes has been shown to improve habitat quality for some reptile species (Webb et al., 2005). Likewise, fragmentation can lead to greater temperatures and thermal variability in remnant vegetation as the ratio of edge-to-interior increases (Tuff et al., 2016). Furthermore, compared to native forests, pine plantations have a simpler vegetation structure, offer cooler temperatures, and receive less radiation (Mott et al., 2010) which is unlikely to represent suitable habitat for jacky dragons (Halstead and Schwanz, 2015). While we did not specifically measure fragmentation in this study, it seems likely that the variability in fire history, landscape structure, and degree of fragmentation in the study area creates a complex thermal environmental that could influence reptile abundance.

Other evidence suggests that jacky dragons may have some capacity to adapt to modified landscapes. Jacky dragons in urban remnants have been observed moving between three different habitat types to perform different behaviours: dense native vegetation and exotic grass were used for foraging and cover, while open areas of lawn were used to bask (Burgin et al., 2011). The relationship observed in our study may indicate a similar pattern of behaviour, such that in landscapes where pasture is present, jacky dragons seek shelter in dense unburnt vegetation and use the open pasture for basking. In landscapes where pasture is absent, more recently burnt vegetation may provide the right level of cover to afford jacky dragons with opportunities for both basking and shelter. Alternatively, higher abundance at recently burnt sites when pasture is absent may be indicative of an increase in dispersal by jacky dragons post-fire. In the closely related mallee tree dragon (Amphibolurus norrisi), recently burnt patches were associated with an increase in genetic diversity, possibly due to increased male dispersal (Smith et al., 2014).

Landscape structure variables (native vegetation cover and pasture) were also demonstrated to influence the response of White's skink to several site-scale variables (coarse woody debris, leaf litter, canopy cover, and bare ground). The abundance of White's skinks increased with both coarse woody debris and canopy cover when native vegetation cover was high; however, when native vegetation was low, abundance decreased slightly in response to coarse woody debris and canopy cover. This response pattern indicates that this species is influenced by local resources when native vegetation cover is high, but responds to other factors when native vegetation cover is low. The positive response to coarse woody debris appears to be consistent with what is already known about this species' nesting and burrowing behaviours. White's skinks often live in family groups in burrows and cervices beneath rocks

and logs, and the availability and aggregation of habitat can have consequences for sociality and development of offspring (Chapple, 2003; Botterill-James et al., 2016). While we are unable to provide definitive explanations for the other interactions observed, they nevertheless have important implications for the management of this species, and more research is required to understand the underlying mechanisms.

4.2. Influence of habitat structure and fire on species abundance

Our results support our expectation that site-scale variables (fire and habitat structure) are important predictors of reptile species abundance: more than half of the species in this study responded to multiple site-scale variables. Changes to habitat structure have a range of consequences for reptiles, including the availability of food and nest sites, opportunities for thermoregulation, and predation risk (Santos et al., 2008).

Our results demonstrate that canopy cover is a key predictor of the abundance of three skink species (eastern three-lined skink, garden skink, and White's skink). As aforementioned, changes in canopy cover have been shown to influence the thermal quality of habitat for reptiles (Webb et al., 2005; Elzer et al., 2013), and the variation in responses observed among these species are likely to reflect their different thermoregulatory requirements and strategies (Avery, 1979; Pike et al., 2011). For example, eastern three-lined skinks responded negatively to canopy cover, a result that appears consistent with other studies. Exposure to higher incubation temperatures appears to benefit this species by increasing hatching success and influencing phenotypes of hatchlings (Shine and Elphick, 2001; Amiel and Shine, 2012). In other parts of their range, eastern three-lined skinks have also been found to prefer low levels of vegetation cover (Jellinek et al., 2004) and select nest sites with lower levels of canopy cover that receive increased solar radiation (Shine et al., 2002). Indeed, although eastern three-lined skinks nest under logs and rocks, they have been shown to actively select nests in cleared patches of forest where there is a higher availability of warm nest sites over the surrounding forest where logs and rocks are more abundant (Shine et al., 2002). This potentially also explains the negative response of eastern three-links skinks to coarse woody debris observed in our study.

The area of bare ground was also found to be a key predictor of three species (jacky dragon, garden skink and southeastern slider). The preference for bare ground by southeastern sliders appears consistent with the hypothesis that burrowing reptiles are not dependent on understorey vegetation and therefore are able to exploit open areas produced by recent fire (Caughley, 1985). Burrowing appears to be an important strategy for reptiles and small mammals in fire-prone landscapes, as burrows provide shelter from the flame front during a fire event (Friend, 1993) and various studies have found support for a trend towards higher abundances of burrowing reptiles in recently burnt habitats (Caughley, 1985; Driscoll and Henderson, 2008; Smith et al., 2013). Though not explicitly measured in our study, southeastern sliders also appeared to be captured more commonly at sites with sandy substrates and were often observed burrowing into sand after being released (S. Mulhall pers. obs.). Like other Lerista species, southeastern sliders are known for their reduced limbs and elongated, snake-like bodies which are thought to be adapted for moving through 'fossorial or cluttered habitats' as they can fit through narrow gaps and their bodies experience less drag (Morinaga and Bergmann, 2020).

Time since fire was an important predictor of the abundance of one

species, the garden skink. Since fire influences the availability of resources over time, in some cases time since fire may be a useful surrogate for habitat structure variables, such as leaf litter and coarse woody debris (Swan et al., 2015). Nevertheless, fire-habitat relationships are often nonlinear (Haslem et al., 2011), and many studies indicate that time since fire is not necessarily a good predictor of fauna responses (e.g. Driscoll and Henderson, 2008; Nimmo et al., 2012; Swan et al., 2015). Our results for garden skinks, taken together with findings from other studies, suggest this species' response to fire may depend on a range of factors including vegetation type (Lindenmayer et al., 2008; Hu et al., 2016). This has also been demonstrated in a recent study of birds conducted in three different ecosystems (Rainsford et al., 2021). Although birds responded to habitat attributes related to time since fire, similar relationships between post-fire habitat found in one ecosystem were often not found in other ecosystems (Rainsford et al., 2021). While we detected a positive association between garden skink abundance and time since fire in the heathy woodland, investigation by Hu et al (2016) found garden skinks responded negatively to time since fire in eucalypt forest, but detected no response in Banksia woodland. Meanwhile another study across a broad range of forest types found no relationship between this species and any fire associated measures including fire history and severity, but reported positive effects of leaf litter and negative effects of rock cover (Lindenmayer et al., 2008).

4.3. Influence of landscape structure on species abundance

Landscape structure variables were important predictors of the abundance of four lizard species (eastern three-lined skink, jacky dragon, lined worm-lizard, and southeastern slider). Of the four species that responded to landscape structure, three responded positively to native vegetation cover in the surrounding landscape and all species responded negatively to one or both other land use types (i.e. plantation and pasture). Sites with a low proportion of native vegetation in the surrounding landscape are likely to experience greater edge effects, potentially leading to increased negative influences such as predation risk (Hansen et al., 2019) and fluctuations in microclimate (Tuff et al., 2016). Reductions in the extent of native vegetation are more likely to disadvantage specialist species which depend on resources available in native vegetation, compared to generalist species that are often demonstrated to maintain higher populations in modified landscapes (Ewers and Didham, 2007). Additionally, generalist reptiles may have different thermoregulatory strategies and physiological tolerances that allow them to adapt to extreme climates (Carvajal-Cogollo and Urbina-Cardona, 2015; Mortelliti et al., 2015). While we did not find an effect of landscape structure on garden skinks (a widely distributed generalist), previous research conducted in eucalypt forest fragmented by pine plantations found that garden skinks were more abundant at sites with low amounts of eucalypt cover in the landscape (Fischer et al., 2005).

The impact of low quality habitat or non-habitat on species' abundance is also likely to depend on characteristics of the cover and whether they are able to compensate for reductions in native vegetation by using resources in the pasture and/or plantation (Ewers and Didham, 2007). Interestingly, one study found no difference in the abundance of eastern three-lined skinks between urban remnants and continuous bushland, but did find a negative effect of exotic plant cover and a positive effect of native vegetation community composition (Jellinek et al., 2004). Thus, our findings could reflect this species' preference for native over exotic plants, rather than an aversion to non-habitat per se. Management of plantation and agricultural environments may also help to facilitate movement between habitat patches and reduce predation risk at habitat edges (Hansen et al., 2019). For example, retaining old logs may provide additional shelter within pine plantations (Fischer et al., 2005), while the presence of trees within areas of crops may allow animals to climb up and gain a vantage point to assist with navigation (Hansen et al., 2020). It should also be noted that although both pine and eucalypt plantations exist in our study area, the proportion of eucalypt plantation cover was not large enough to be analysed separately. Undoubtedly pine and eucalypt plantations have very different characteristics in terms of habitat structure and community composition, and seem likely to elicit different responses from fauna (Proença et al., 2010).

4.4. Relative importance of site-scale and landscape-scale variables

Overall, our results supported our hypothesis that site-scale variables would be stronger predictors of reptiles than landscape-scale variables. However, of the three species (eastern three-lined skink, jacky dragon, and southeastern slider) that responded to both site-scale and landscapescale variables, the relative influence of the variables at the different scales was mixed. These differences may be attributed to trait differences among these species. Fossorial and semi-fossorial reptiles, such as southeastern sliders, may be especially sensitive to disturbance of the soil and understorey vegetation associated with agricultural and timber harvesting practices (e.g. grazing, ploughing, timber removal), and therefore less likely to move through these landscapes (Wong et al., 2020). Agricultural modification has previously been attributed to the decline of other fossorial species, including the pink-tailed worm-lizard (Aprasia parapulchella) (Wong et al., 2020) and striped legless lizard (Delma impar) (Dorrough and Ash, 1999). In comparison, in our study the eastern three-line skink (a terrestrial species) responded more to canopy cover than to any of the landscape structure variables. Potentially, terrestrial species may be somewhat less sensitive to these practices as they lack the burrowing behaviours exhibited by pygopodids or Lerista and are therefore less likely to be affected by disturbances to soil.

4.5. Management implications

Our results show that even species with relatively low capacities for dispersal compared to other organisms may respond to factors at both the site and landscape-scales (Doherty et al., 2020). Further, the range of different responses to fire, habitat structure, and landscape structure exhibited within this assemblage provides support for the need for multiscale approaches to ecological management (Fischer et al., 2004; Pastro et al., 2013; Fraga-Ramirez et al., 2017; Delaney et al., 2021). Identifying species-habitat relationships at the site-scale may be especially important for the persistence of reptiles with temperaturedependent sex determination, such as the eastern three-lined skink and jacky dragon. Maintaining critical habitat features which influence microclimate may help species to ameliorate nest temperatures, providing a buffer from the effects of climate change (Telemeco et al., 2009). Meanwhile, understanding how less mobile species respond to landscape structure is particularly pressing, due to their decreased capacity for range expansions necessary to keep pace with climate change (Araújo et al., 2006). We measured landscape structure in a 1 km radius around each site, however in the future it would be valuable to consider alternative scales, both smaller and larger, to determine the scale at which species respond most strongly to landscape structure (Delaney et al., 2021).

Our study of interactions between fire and landscape structure also highlights the need to identify how and if threatening processes interact to influence species' persistence. Ecological fire management strategies aimed at promoting biodiversity may have unforeseen consequences if landscape structure is not accounted for (Lindenmayer et al., 2013; Delaney et al., 2021). Evidence from our study suggests that reptiles may respond differently to fire depending on the structure of the surrounding landscape. Consequently the specific strategies underlying conservationfocused fire management may need to be changed in different parts of the landscape (Zylinski et al., 2022).

CRediT authorship contribution statement

S.J. Mulhall: Conceptualization, Methodology, Formal analysis, Investigation, Visualization, Funding acquisition, Writing – original draft, Writing – review & editing. **J. Di Stefano:** Conceptualization, Investigation, Methodology, Supervision, Writing – review & editing. **A. Dorph:** Investigation, Methodology, Writing – review & editing. **M. Swan:** Investigation, Methodology, Writing – review & editing. **H. Sitters:** Conceptualization, Investigation, Methodology, Supervision, Funding acquisition, Writing – review & editing.

Declaration of Competing Interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

Data availability

Data will be made available on request.

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Image credits

Eastern three-lined skink (*Acritoscincus duperreyi*): Stephen Zozaya. Jacky dragon (*Amphibolurus muricatus*): Owen Lishmund. Lined worm-lizard (*Aprasia striolata*): Stephen Zozaya. Garden skink (*Lampropholis guichenoti*): Owen Lishmund. Southeastern slider (*Lerista bougainvillii*): Stephen Zozaya. White's skink (*Liopholis whitii*): Stephen Zozaya.

Appendix

Fig. A1



Fig. A1. Spline correlograms for top ranked models for eastern three-line skink (*A. duperreyi*), jacky dragon (*A. muricatus*), lined worm-lizard (*A. striolata*), garden skink (*L. guichenoti*), southeastern slider (*L. bougainvillii*), southern grass skink (*Pseudemoia entrecasteauxi*), and White's skink (*L. whitii*).





P. entrecasteauxi ~ TSF * plantation cover



Fig. A1. (continued).

Tables A1 and A2

Table A1

Total number of individuals of the 17 species in five families caught in heathy woodlands in southwestern Victoria between Spring 2017 and Autumn 2018.

Species name	Common name	n	Sites detected	
Agamidae				
Amphibolurus muricatus	Jacky dragon	44	35	
Chelidae				
Chelodina longicollis	Eastern long necked turtle	1	1	
Elapidae				
Austrelaps superbus	Lowlands copperhead	3	3	
Drysdalia coronoides	White-lipped snake	1	1	
Notechis scutatus	Tiger snake	4	4	
Pseudonaja textilis	Eastern brown snake	2	2	
Pygopodidae				
Aprasia striolata	Lined worm-lizard	25	14	
Scincidae				
Acritoscincus duperreyi	Eastern three-lined skink	438	81	
Ctenotus robustus	Robust ctenotus	3	2	
Eulamprus tympanum	Southern water skink	8	4	
Lampropholis guichenoti	Garden skink	303	72	
Lerista bougainvillii	Southeastern slider	276	64	
Liopholis whitii	White's skink	24	13	
Morethia obscura	Shrubland morethia skink	18	8	
Pseudemoia entrecasteauxi	Southern grass skink	39	18	
Tiliqua nigrolutea	Blotched blue-tongue lizard	1	1	
Tiliqua rugosa	Shingleback lizard	3	3	
Unidentified skink	n/a	14	9	
Unidentified snake	n/a	1	1	
Total		1208		

Table	A2
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Best models of detection for each reptile species, used in abundance models.

Species	Detection covariates
Eastern three-lined skink Jacky dragon Lined worm-lizard Garden skink Southeastern slider Southeargrass skink White's skink	 date + maximum temperature animum temperature rainfall

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