FIRE REGIMES AND FAUNA IN MONTANE FORESTS IN THE NORTHERN AUSTRALIAN ALPS.

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MRes. Thesis

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Declaration

I wish to acknowledge the following assistance in the research detailed in this report:

Principal supervisor, David Nipperess assisted in the conceptualising this project, experimental design and statistical analyses.

Julian Seddon, technical supervisor helped with conceptualising the project, statistical analyses, experimental design and field work.

Both also contributed by commenting on drafts of this report. I am very grateful for their input and guidance.

All other research described in this report is my own original work.

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Title page (journal format).

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Anthony Corrigan, Julian Seddon and David Nipperess

Summary

- The management of conservation lands in fire prone landscapes across the globe has set up a tension between the conservation of biodiversity and protection of human life and property. Compounding this tension is a lack of knowledge around fauna specific impacts potentially linked to fire management activities such as prescribed burning.
- 2. To determine if fire frequency and prior fire intensity had an influence on mammal assemblages, wet sclerophyll forests across gradients of these explanatory variables, were surveyed for mammals using camera traps. Univariate and multivariate analysis were applied to investigate relationships between mammal faunal phylogenetic diversity, functional diversity and habitat variable.
- 3. Species data were analysed to determine the relative phylogenetic diversity and functional diversity of fauna across the fire variable gradients at the site scale and the regional (beta) scale.
- 4. While the impact of increased fire severity appeared to reduce the occurrence of some taxa, functional diversity was maintained at the scales examined.
- 5. Policy implications. The findings of this study indicate that the phylogenetic measures and functional diversity measures can be applied to better understand mammal fauna community dynamics in relation to the impacts deterministic and stochastic fire events. In turn, fire management can be better informed to ensure biodiversity assets are maximised across ecological communities,

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Introduction.

In fire prone landscapes across the world, land managers have applied various treatments to vegetation to minimise the risk of the spread of wildfire that may impact humans and their built assets (Gill & Stephens 2009). The use of prescribed fire for this purpose in areas managed for biodiversity conservation creates a tension between management approaches that on the one hand aim to maximise biodiversity outcomes and on the other primarily aim to provide for the protection of life and property (E.g. Keith, Williams and Woinarski (2002); DellaSala *et al.* (2004); Gill and Stephens (2009); Driscoll *et al.* (2010a); Driscoll *et al.* (2010b)).

The impact of fire management activities on the specific habitat needs of fauna has not been adequately researched and further work is needed (Clarke 2008). Two elements of fire regime (sensu Gill 1975), fire frequency and fire intensity have been shown to influence vegetation structure and hence fauna habitat (Haslem *et al.* 2011; Collins *et al.* 2012). In this study, two variables are used to synthesise an environmental gradient where classes of fire severity (the loss or change in organic matter in a system through the impact of fire intensity – see Keeley 2009) and fire frequency, defined here as the number of fires since the year 1900. Two important elements of Gill's (1975) fire regime, time since fire and seasonality have not been included. Time since fire across the non-long unburned sites is taken to be 13 years as all those sites were impacted by the January 2003 Canberra bushfires, while the long unburned sites have no recorded fire history since 1900. The potential confounding effects of the contrast in time since fire between in burned and unburned sites will be discussed later. Seasonality data for the impacted sites is standardised to summer and unknown for the long unburned.

Fire, fauna and habitat

Several authors have raised the point that there is insufficient knowledge and research relating to fire management and fauna (Clarke 2008; MacHunter, Menkhorst & Loyn 2009; Driscoll *et al.* 2010b; Haslem *et al.* 2011). In recent years research in this area can be divided into general (Gill 1975)studies examining the impact of fire across faunal groups (E.g. Bradstock *et al.* 2005; Pryke & Samways 2012), the effect of fire on broad taxonomic groups (E.g. Lindenmayer *et al.* 2008; Westgate, Driscoll & Lindenmayer 2012; Sitters *et al.* 2014) and species specific studies aimed at understanding the interaction of fire and the ecology of individual species (E.g.Driscoll & Roberts 1997; Baker *et al.* 2010; Tuft, Crowther & McArthur 2012). In order to provide sufficient information for land managers to consider biodiversity conservation when planning fire management activities, an understanding of the needs of species and communities across

ecological and management scales is required (Gill 2008; Driscoll *et al.* 2010b; Giljohann *et al.* 2015).

Driscoll *et al.* (2010b) highlight three broad categories where knowledge is lacking in relation to the potential for inappropriate fire regimes to cause population extinctions: (1) developing a mechanistic understanding of species responses to fire regimes; (2) knowledge of how the spatial and temporal arrangement of fire regimes into fire mosaics influences the biota; and (3) understanding interactions of fire regimes with other processes that can either modify the response of species to particular fire regimes, or modify the regimes directly. The first category was considered for plants by Keith, Williams and Woinarski (2002), who recognised that monitoring at the species scale would be difficult and a framework that elucidated a smaller number of informative components was required. Such frameworks have been developed for plants (Kenny et al. 2004; Cheal 2010) although issues with their applicability are acknowledged (Kenny 2013). Cheal (2010) for example provides descriptive data for the habitat values on a community by community basis for each successional stage of those vegetation communities found throughout Victoria. However Clarke (2008) argues strongly that while no less important for conservation, plants and plant communities can be poor surrogates for the needs of fauna in relation to fire management. Categories 2 and 3 of Driscoll et al. (2010b) logically follow from the first. Without the mechanistic understanding on a species by species level, species within populations and across their range, the broader interactions between elements of fire regimes and those interactions with other ecological forces cannot be determined. To this end the fire ecology of individual species needs to be investigated, especially where entities are of conservation concern. The broader context however also requires ongoing attention and studies that focus on the most appropriate methods (E.g. Whelan et al. 2002; Giljohann et al. 2015) and those that find broad relationships across taxa (E.g. Haslem et al. 2011; Collins et al. 2012) should be conducted concurrently with those focussed at the community or species level.

At the site scale (as well as at greater scales), a fire regime that provides for a greater diversity of habitat elements should provide for greater phylogenetic diversity and functional diversity than those of less diverse habitat elements. An increase in fire frequency in wetter eucalyptus communities has been shown to alter vegetation structure by promoting the growth of mid storey shrub species (particularly Fabaceae) and reducing over storey canopy cover (Gill 1975 and references therein). Increasing fire severity similarly influences forest structure by reducing canopy and promoting shrub growth(Gill 1975). At low levels of fire severity it was anticipated that habitat complexity was greatest due to the patchy nature of combustion and uneven impact on vertical plant structures. This would have promoted a mosaic of habitat features at the site scale.

In relation to the measures employed in this study, it was hypothesised that lower to intermediate levels of disturbance, would provide for the greatest heterogeneity in habitat. This in turn provided for greater opportunities for fauna and hence a prospect for greater phylogenetic diversity. Similarly from a functional perspective, greater habitat variation and complexity should provide for a greater number of species resulting in greater redundancy in ecosystem functional roles. It could be expected that more specialised species (those with one or few Key Functional Roles) would be more abundant in areas of low to moderate disturbance. Communities with multiple species performing similar ecological functions are likely to be more resilient to disturbance than those with single or few entities performing functions (Carmona et al. 2016)

The aim of this study is to make use of functional and biodiversity measures to quantify the impacts of fire regime through an improved understanding of the impacts on faunal diversity, faunal community resilience and fauna habitat. These data can then be synthesised to better inform the management of faunal resources in the montane forests of the ACT through greater understanding of the application of prescribed fire.

The use of phylogenetic diversity as a measure for biodiversity assessments.

The use of phylogenetic diversity (PD) as a biodiversity measure was first proposed by Vane-Wright, Humphries and Williams (1991) as a practical method to assess the relative merits of potential land conservation units constrained within resourcing limits. These authors recognised that the approach they were advocating was limited by its inability to discriminate between the relative values of taxa at different taxonomic levels. Faith (1992) showed that by summing lengths of relative paths in a cladogram, a measure of the relative diversity of each cladistic feature could be quantified. Faith further demonstrated the flexibility of the application of PD to taxonomic levels higher and lower than species. Petchey and Gaston (2002) extended the approach to functional data represented in a dendrogram, exemplifying functional relationships. A broad array of methodology surrounding PD has developed recently, with for example, an entire edition of *Ecology* dedicated to the matter see (Cavender-Bares, Ackerly & Kozak 2012) and associated papers for details). The value of the PD approach for incorporating evolutionary history into biodiversity conservation and monitoring was the subject of a more recent paper by Faith (2013). He draws together a set of measures including resemblance in PD (Nipperess, Faith & Barton 2010), complementarity, endemism and Hill and Valley numbers (Chao, Chiu & Jost 2010) to calculate expected PD that can then be meaningfully applied to answer questions around conservation priorities. This feature of PD analysis can integrate biodiversity measures with extinction probabilities and account for phylogenetic evenness or rareness from datasets. Faith (2013) concludes the usefulness of PD as primary interpretation of data is only limited in its application by the imagination.

The acceptance of PD as a biodiversity measure was reviewed by Winter, Devictor and Schweiger (2013) who concluded that the measure had potential to be informative in reserve selection provided it was employed with a suite of other diversity measures, for example species richness and functional diversity. They also claimed that the application of PD was ambiguous due to the broad array of approaches available and the lack of clarity in the choice of these approaches by authors.

A further criticism to the approach of using PD as a community measure was its correlation with species richness and the similar trend of these measures to increase with sampling effort (Rodrigues, Brooks & Gaston 2005). In fact, these authors conclude that species richness is a reasonable surrogate for PD and, at least for reserve selection purposes, makes PD redundant. However, the employment of rarefaction to PD calculation (Nipperess & Matsen 2013; Chao *et al.* 2015; Nipperess 2016b) overcomes the problem of autocorrelation with species richness by precisely modelling the relationship of PD with sample size and provides a framework for the measurement of phylogenetic evenness, phylogenetic dispersion and other measures as outlined above. This extension of PD (ΔPD), represents the initial slope of the rarefaction curve and provides an index of PD that can be applied across a range of entropic scales - alpha, beta and gamma (see Jost 2006). Specifically, for the purposes of this study, a measure of phylogenetic dispersion, independent of species richness, is defined as the initial slope of a rarefaction curve describing the relationship between species richness and PD (figure 1).

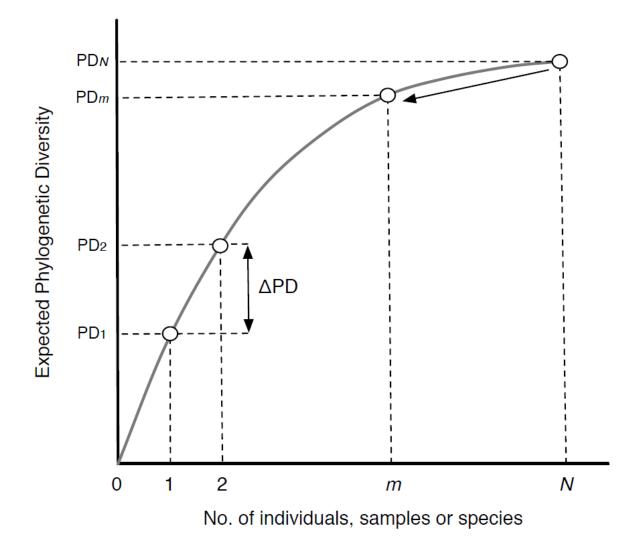


Figure 1. Phylogenetic Diversity (PD) and sampling depth. The x-axis shows the level of sampling, measured in accumulation units (individuals, samples or species) and the y-axis is expected PD. Δ PD is the expected increase in PD the randomly drawn first and second sampling units, PD₁ and PD₂. PD_N is the PD for the complete data set (N), while PD_m the expected PD of the subset m, that has been rarefied (unidirectional arrow) through a process of randomised subsampling (reproduced from Nipperess 2016b).

The refined use of PD as described above can be applied to provide information relevant for the conservation of biodiversity and the management of fire in two ways. Firstly by understanding the relative phylogenetic structures in various successional stages within and across ecological communities, complementarity and rarness of these structures can be quantified (E.g.McNeely *et al.* 1990; Lean & Maclaurin 2016) and management actions taken to ensure they have representation within any management unit (Kraft & Ackerly 2010; Nipperess, Faith & Barton 2010; Rosauer *et al.* 2014; Yan *et al.* 2016). Secondly by understand how a disturbance gradient (in this case using fire variables) impact on phylogenetic structure, the relative robustness and resilience of communities can be determined in relation to their loss of biodiversity along that gradient. This approach has been used in a number of studies (Helmus *et al.* 2010; Flynn *et al.* 2011; Nipperess *et al.* 2012; Qian & Zhang 2016). For example Kraft and Ackerly 2010, found that

phylogenetic measures relating to community structure varied at the plot and site scale in relation to habitat filtering in Amazon rain forest communities. Such habitat filtering of phylogenies has also been demonstrated at larger scales for example Yan *et al.* (2016) concluded in their study conducted across mainland china amongst terrestrial vertebrates environmental filtering along with speciation was impotant for determining species assemblages.

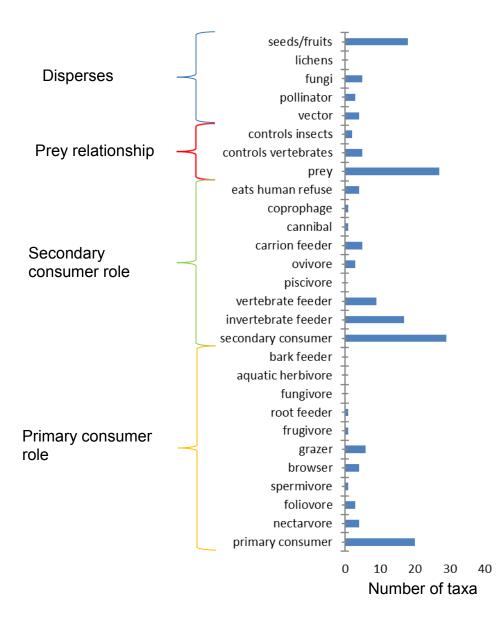
Functional diversity

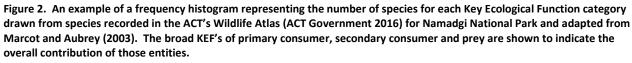
Laureto, Cianciaruso and Samia (2015) reviewed the background of functional diversity (FD) and its usefulness as a concept for explaining species - habitat relationships as well as its utilisation in the evaluation of community responses to environmental gradients and perturbations. Since the early 1970's, trait based approaches have been used to investigate the impacts of environmental perturbation and species influences on ecosystem function (Hooper *et al.* 2002). This has been particularly true for plants where broad relationships have been established between plant traits and global environmental gradients (E.g. Reich, Walters & Ellsworth 1997; Deil 2005; Kattge *et al.* 2011). Petchey and Gaston (2002) proposed a methodology for calculating FD in a similar manner to that described for PD by Faith (1992) by summing the branch lengths of a dendrogram produced by cluster analysis on functional characters of component species. That approach has been utilised in this study but has been extended to create a an index of functional dispersion (ΔFD) in the manner described for phylogenetic dispersion (ΔPD) by Nipperess (2016b).

Function is often considered analogous to traits or sets of traits that may infer functional characters (E.g. Carmona *et al.* 2016), however, as many have pointed out, (E.g. Bolnick *et al.* 2011; Auger & Shipley 2013; Jackson, Peltzer & Wardle 2013) there are issues surrounding intra specific trait variability that need to be resolved. The importance of intra specific trait variation also varies according to alpha, beta and gamma scales (Loreau *et al.* 2001; Chalmandrier *et al.* 2015). Carmona *et al.* (2016) have proposed a solution that is scale independent and have developed a group of functions they term "trait probability densities" and a framework that can be used to provide inputs into traditional FD indices such as richness, evenness and divergence. While more sophisticated than previous methodology, this approach is reliant (as are previous methods) on forming a strong link between traits and ecosystem function. Although this link may seem intuitive, a broad range of morphological, behavioural and physiological traits may be needed to adequately describe the functional role of a species in its environment (Nock, Vogt & Beisner 2001). The number and type of traits to be considered varies with scale, the organism or community of interest and type of interaction in question (Poos, Walker & Jackson 2009).

Rather than focussing at the trait level, Marcot and Vander Heyden (2001) developed Key Ecological Functions (KEF), a role based framework that can be constructed from the known life histories of species within a community. The "key" ecological function of a species is its main ecological role or roles within the community. The advantage of this approach is its ease of application – the links between the measures and actual function are explicit, and measures are meaningful in an ecosystem management context.

Marcot and Vander Heyden (2001) developed such a hierarchical framework of ecological functions for the Pacific north west of the United States. These functions included trophic relationships, nutrient cycling roles, organismal relationships, vertebrate disease vector and reservoir roles, soil relationships, wood structure relationships, water relationships and vegetation structural relationships. For the purposes of this study, a subset of these roles and relationships was constructed and these were assigned to mammal species by consulting published accounts of life history or other ecological data (see supplementary material). The subset represents a set of roles that represent energy and nutrient transfer through the mammal fauna of the ecosystem as well as ecosystem engineering functions. The KEF's chosen for this study were depicted against each of the species recorded in the ACT's wildlife atlas (ACT Government 2016) figure 2.





As vegetation plays and important role in the provision of habitat and resources for fauna, the impact of fire on the structure of the vegetation was considered to be an important variable for this study. The impact of fire on fauna habitat has been recently demonstrated in south eastern Australia (Nimmo *et al.* 2014; Swan *et al.* 2015). In particular, Swan *et al.* (2015) demonstrated that the impact of fire on habitat elements such as litter and shrub cover varied with vegetation type.

Study

This study was conducted within Tidbinbilla Nature Reserve (TNR) and Namadgi National Park (NNP) in the Australian Capital Territory that is located within the south east of Australian. These conservation reserves form part of Australian Alps National Parks System that encompasses the Australian Alps bioregion of Victoria, NSW and the ACT.

To better inform fire management in NNP and TNR and other conservation lands in the ACT the Environment and Planning Directorate undertakes monitoring and research into fire related activities of the ACT Parks and Conservation Service.

This study forms a component of a larger research framework (Mulvaney *et al.* 2014) being undertaken by the Conservation Research unit (CR), Environment and Planning Directorate of the ACT Government that seeks to provide an understanding of the influences of fire management activities on the biodiversity values of protected areas in the ACT. This information is then used to inform management decisions including the development of strategic fire management plans that prescribe a spatial and temporal mosaic of fuel reduction burning on conservation land. The research and monitoring efforts of CR were primarily focussed on providing data around the minimum tolerable fire interval for vegetation across forest communities until recent years (Kitchin 2008). As mentioned previously, several authors have commented that the needs of fauna had not been adequately considered by land managers when designing and implementing fire fuel management programs. ACT Government ecologists recognised this knowledge gap and have implemented the current research framework with the goal of integrating fauna requirements (Corrigan *et al.* 2015) with the requirements of other ecological assets for fire management.

The research framework has identified several priority forest communities in the conservation lands of the ACT, including tall, wet sclerophyll forests, snowgum woodlands, alpine bogs and mires and dry sclerophyll forests. Tall wet forest communities were chosen as the subject of this study as they represented a smaller proportion of the total area of the forests of interest, providing the opportunity to test the approaches detailed here. The findings of this study will inform the design of future studies in other, more widespread forest communities.

To test the hypothesis that fire severity (sensu Keeley 2009) and fire frequency (Gill 1975) shape vegetation structure and hence habitat for fauna, this study examined the phylogenetic structure of bird and mammal fauna across a pyrodiversity gradient in wet sclerophyll forests conservation

managed lands in the Australian Capital Territory (ACT). The relationship between community functional response and pyrodiversity were also studied, making use of an approach developed for studying mammal fauna population dynamics in the north west conifer forests of North America (Marcot & Vander Heyden 2001; Marcot & Aubrey 2003). The term "pyrodiversity variable" is used here to refer to the environmental gradients formed by fire severity and fire frequency.

Fire management in the Australian Alps and the ACT

Aboriginal use of fire in the Australian Alps at the time of European settlement was variously reported by early explorers and settlers (Zylstra 2006 and references therein) as being widespread, and applied throughout vegetation communities in montane and tableland areas. However more recently it is believed to have largely been restricted to the lower woodlands and grasslands (Zylstra 2006). With the advent of agriculture in this landscape in the mid to late 1800's, fire was seen as a method for renewing pasture and reducing the cover of trees and shrubs throughout the alps (Pryor 1939).

Pryor (1939) remarked that the fire frequency had apparently increased markedly since European settlement into the mountainous forests of the ACT and adjacent ranges. He proposed that fire had been an irregular event, occurring every 50-100 years prior to this period where lightning would have been the most likely ignition source. His assertions are supported by more recent analysis (Banks 1989; Zylstra 2006). From a reanalysis of Pryor's data in combination with other sources, Banks (1989) reported that across surveyed sites in the Brindabella Ranges (the western most range of the ACT), the mean fire interval increased from one fire in the entire 130 year period prior to 1860 to an average of one fire every 4.9 years in the period 1860-1973.

The ACT was declared a federal territory in 1902 and the Cotter River Catchment was set aside for as water catchment for the development and sustainment of the national capital, Canberra (IconWater 2016). From that time until the declaration of Namadgi National Park (NNP) in 1984, the catchment was largely managed for water catchment and some forestry production that involved the use of fire for hazard reduction and silviculture (ACT Government unpublished data). From 1984 until 2003 fire management in NNP was predominantly focused on the suppression of wild fire and some minor, experimental ecological burning (Don Fletcher pers. comm.).

Recommendations from the Victorian Royal Commission into the 1939 fires included more burning in forests for protection purposes and the establishment of a fire fighting authority (Stretton 1939). The use of prescribed fire to reduce the impact of wild fires has become a widely accepted practice across Australia (Keith, Williams & Woinarski 2002; DellaSala *et al.* 2004; Parr & Anderson 2006; Gill 2008; Gibbons *et al.* 2012). Coroner Maria Dugan, inquiring into the 2003 Canberra fires, recommended that a hazard reduction program "involving regular and strategic burning in all areas of the ACT" be implemented (Australian Capital Territory & Doogan 2006). The use of prescribed fire is a key strategy for the ACT Parks and Conservation Service annual fuel management program, the Bushfire Operations Plan (BOP), (ACT Government 2015) in its application to Namadgi National Park and Tidbinbilla Nature Reserve where a mosaic burning approach as described in (Parr & Brockett 1999; Parr & Andersen 2006)has been adopted.

Green and Osborne (2012) also documented the increase of fire frequency during the late 19th and first half of the 20th centuries and raised concerns that wildfire frequency would increase with climate change. They highlighted that repeat fires in alpine and sub alpine communities in 2003, 2006 and 2007 were a phenomenon that is likely to increase with changing climate. Repeated high severity wildfire and subsequent habitat change are likely to push species that are already impacted by climate induced stressors to local extinction (Green & Osborne 2012).

As early as 1939, Pryor recognised that fire severity and fire frequency played a significant role in forest dynamics and in forest structure in particular. While his insight was clearly in relation to the indiscriminate nature of graziers use of fire, the impacts of repeated fire in forest communities have been echoed more recently (Penman *et al.* 2008; Fisher *et al.* 2009). He claimed that this indiscriminate burning of the upland forests of the ACT would result in the substantial loss of large trees from forest systems and those systems would be replaced by shrub lands:

"The extent of the degradation of the country will depend upon the frequency and severity of the burning, and will be somewhere between the limits of slightly damaged forest, more or less similar to the undisturbed vegetation, and a barren waste of eroded mountains with sparse plant cover.

Continued indiscriminate burning is fatal as a long-range policy of land use. It is selfdestructive, and must ultimately be abandoned if the land is to remain productive." (Pryor 1939, p. 37).

Pryor further described the reduction of several tree species resulting from repeated fire and his observations of long unburned forest patches as having "rather open, well-spaced undergrowth" of small shrubs and grasses.

The research question used to frame this research was: How does a gradient across fire severity and fire frequency influence faunal community assemblage metrics describing phylogenetic diversity, and ecosystem function?, and how do these explanatory variables influence habitat structural elements in wet forests?

Materials and methods.

Site stratification and selection- mammals.

This study was confined to wet sclerophyll communities within NNP and TNR in south eastern Australia (see figure 3). To achieve a balanced design for the project, planning involved finding replicate sites across pyrodiversity variables while minimising variance amongst other, potentially confounding variables such as aspect, slope and topographic position. All sites chosen in this study were either long unburned (greater than 50 years since last fire) or were burned in wildfires during January 2003. The sites had experienced no fire since 2003.

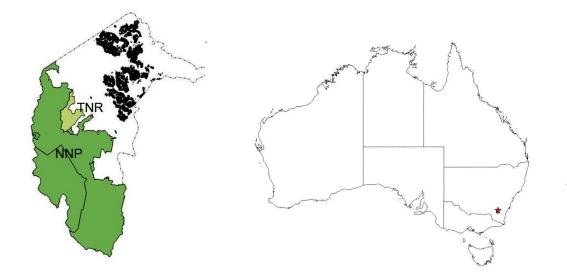


Figure 3. Tidbinbilla Nature Reserve (TNR) and Namadgi National Park (NNP) within the Australian Capital Territory (ACT) (left), and the location of the study area (red star) within Australia (right).

Terrain variables were stratified using Quantum GIS (QGIS 2011) by constructing a vector grid layer of 50*50 metre polygons and then extracting topographic data from raster layers supplied by the ACT Government. These were then transformed into three categories each for topographic position index (TPI) (valley, mid-slope or ridge) and slope, while aspect was generalised into 4 categories (see table 1). Fire severity was drawn from data originally prepared for the ACT Government immediately following the 2003 fires (figure 1). These data were interpreted from Landsat imagery and aerial photography (Barrett 2006). Three classes were synthesised in this study from the original five, (class 1) severity 0 (unburnt); (class 2) severity 1-3; and (class 3) severity 4 and 5.



Figure 4. 2003 fire severity raster layer of Tidbinbilla Nature Reserve, west of southern Canberra. The fire severity is represented by a spectral gradient from blue to red, blue pixels are low severity, red are extreme.

Fire frequency classes were constructed from ACT Government fire history data (1900 – present) that had been compiled from a range of sources including contemporaneous maps, personal accounts and digital spatial data collected from fire grounds (ACT government unpublished data).

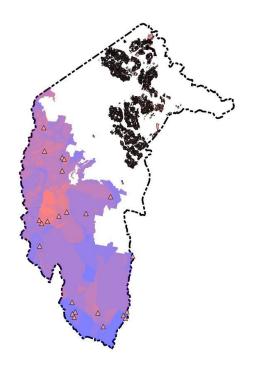


Figure 5. Mammal survey sites across (triangles) NNP and TNR represented here by a fire frequency raster image. Red signifies high fire frequency grading to blue, no recorded fires.

The three classes were defined for this study comprised (1) long unburnt (no fire recorded since 1900); (2) one, two or three fires since 1900; (3) four or more fires since 1900 (see figure 5).

Number of sites	Frequency class	Severity class	Aspect class	Slope class	TPI class	Class code
6	1 (unburned)	1 (unburned)	3 (southerly)	2 (moderate)	2 (mid-slope)	UB
6	2 (1-3 fires)	2 (moderate)	3 (southerly)	2 (moderate)	2 (mid-slope)	MM
6	2 (1-3 fires)	3 (severe)	3 (southerly)	2 (moderate)	2 (mid-slope)	MH
6	3 (≥ 4 fires)	2 (moderate)	3 (southerly)	2 (moderate)	2 (mid-slope)	HM
6	3 (≥ 4 fires)	3 (severe)	3 (southerly)	2 (moderate)	2 (mid-slope)	HH

Table 1. Variables used to stratify mammal sites based on explanitory variables. Six replicates with attributes from each row in the table were planned for this project, representing a total of 30 plots. The class code HM was not surveyed as insufficient replicates were found to be available after site inspections.

QGIS (QGIS 2011) was used to find candidate plot locations with the appropriate characteristics for each of the explanatory and terrain variables. This generated over 500, 000 candidate points from which geographically dispersed subsets were created. Individual sites were then randomly selected from these candidate points using the QGIS random points selection tool.

During field visits, sites were assessed against the stratification criteria and those not suitable were discarded and another candidate chosen from the random sample. Field inspection revealed that most candidate sites in the combination high severity (class 3) and moderate frequency (class 2) had been impacted by more recent planned burns. For this reason, that class of sites (HM) was dropped from the study. At completion of the field work, six replicate sites in each of classes UB, MH and HH and five replicates in class MM had been surveyed.

Bird data.1

The Canberra Ornithologists Group (COG) had been collecting observational data for birds and creating a data set that includes areas of NNP and TNR. The group kindly agreed to share a subset of these data for this project and other ACT Government research purposes. The data were collected by members of COG in two hectare plots over 20 minute periods in NNP and TNR (Canberra Ornithologists Group 2016). This dataset included bird observations dating back to 1984, however to reduce the effect of time since the 2003 fires and for comparison with the

¹ The data collected here was found to be insufficient for meaningful analysis and the results are not reported. The methods are included here to comply with the MRes thesis instructions that encouraged students to include aspects of the project that were tried, even if meaningful results were not found.

mammal data (see below), data from the most recent year with sufficient data points for analysis (2014) was used here. Data for 2015 was included in the original set, however it was found to have insufficient observations within the target forest formation to be of use to this project.

The data were projected into a GIS layer and analysed at site level to elucidate stratification characteristics (QGIS 2011). Resultant records were filtered to remove those species that were not likely to be regular occupants of wet forest and potential vagrants. This was achieved by checking the species entries in Taylor (2013) to determine their habitat preferences and nesting habits to ascertain residency status. Table 3 below indicates the stratification variables applied to the COG bird observational data.

Stratification variable	Measure	Field value	
Vegetation type	Keith class	Tall wet forest	
Season	Month	October	
Fire severity	Class	3-5	
Fire frequency	No. fires since 1900	1, 2, 3 and 6	
Residency	Tall wet forest nesting	Species	

Table 2. Variables used to stratify bird sites based on explanitory variables.

The stratification yielded 148 records across 10 sites and included 27 species. Figure 6 shows the sites selected for this study.

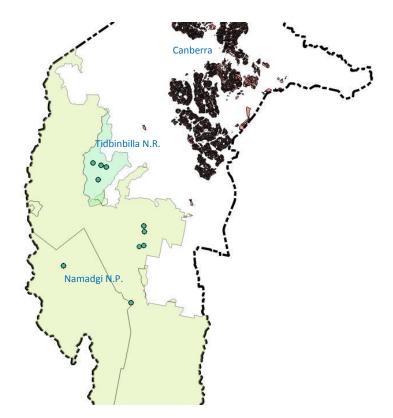


Figure 6. Canberra Ornithologists Group site locations for wet forest bird observation surveys conducted in 2014 used in this study.

After applying the filters and stratification, the available data for analysis were geographically restricted to the central area of NNP and to TNR. This feature of the data inevitably resulted in a restriction in the breadth of fire frequency and severity classes obtainable for analysis, in particular no data from unburned sites was available. Table 3 below indicates the fire variable stratification of the data.

Fire class code	Fire severity (2003 fires)	Fire frequency (since 1900)	Replicate sites
PC32	2	2	1
PC42	4	2	2
PC46	4	6	1
PC51	5	1	1
PC52	5	2	3
PC53	5	3	1

 Table 3. Fire variables used in the analysis of bird phylogenetic and functional diversity.

Habitat structure survey.

At the time of the planning and field work component of this project, updated, fine scale vegetation mapping was being undertaken for the entire ACT by the Environment and Planning

Directorate of the ACT. To date, approximately half of NNP has been completed however earlier, coarser scale mapping for the balance of the area was available (Baines *et al.* 2013).

To assess the potential impact of fire variables on habitat elements, the datasets described in table 4 were collected for 19 of the 23 sites of this study (see table 1). Complete data was not collected for all sites as a result of the extreme weather experienced during the survey period (see below).

Table 4. Habitat data collected at each survey site of this project, see figure 4 for details of the plot layout. (After Mulvaney et al. 2014).

Dataset	Plot Size	Key Variables
Site data	50 x 20m	Plot location and orientation
		Aspect
		Slope
Habitat attributes	50 x 20m	Number of trees with hollows
		Total length of logs >10cm diameter
		Number of large trees >40cm dbh
Vegetation cover	50m line transect	Over-storey percent foliage cover
		Mid-storey percent foliage cover
		Low shrub cover
		Grass cover
		Sedge/rush cover
		Forb cover
		Bare ground cover
		Litter cover
		Litter depth

At each site, two plots and a transect were established to collect the data types described in table

4, site photographs were taken and the location and landscape details recorded (figure 6).

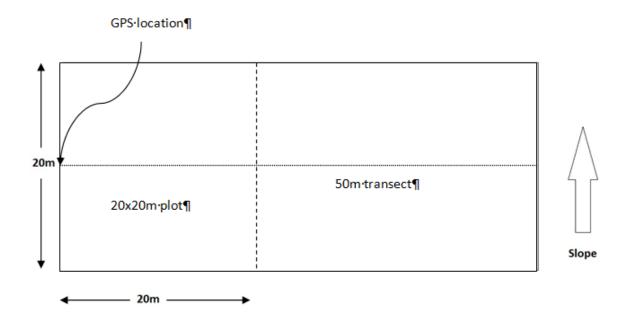


Figure 6. Plot layout for habitat survey undertaken at each site. Adapted from Mulvaney et al. (2014).

Details of field methods are listed in the appendix.

Camera trap survey.

The use of remote camera traps as a cost effective method for detecting wildlife in census and survey work has increased remarkably over recent decades (Fleming *et al.* 2014). As the use of cameras has increased in this field, the development of technique has also advanced (Rovero, Tobler & Sanderson 2010; Fleming *et al.* 2014; Si, Kays & Ding 2014; Swan *et al.* 2014; Meek, Ballard & Fleming 2015; Welbourne *et al.* 2015).

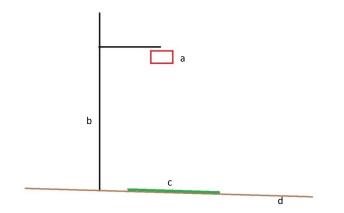


Figure 7. Side elevation diagram of the white flash camera (TYPE WF) deployment for sampling small mammals. The camera (a) is set on a steel post (b) ~0.8m above a cork tile (c) that is scented with rendered bacon fat and sesame oil. The camera is angled so as its detector is parallel to the ground surface (d).

The technique used here was adapted following (Welbourne 2013) and (Towerton *et al.* 2011) to detect small mammal species as well as larger fauna such as macropods, felids and canids. This

method makes use of at least two cameras at each site, one infrared instrument (TYPE IR) (Reconyx PC900) set to monitor a game trail for larger species and the second, a white flash camera (TYPE WF) (Reconyx HC550), vertically mounted, 800mm above the ground with an attractant to monitor smaller species (figure 7). For the TYPE WF two attractants were applied to a commercially produced cork flooring tile that was anchored to the ground using steel pins. The attractants were commercially produced sesame oil to target herbivores and omnivores (Chang's, Auburn NSW), following the findings of (Diete *et al.* 2016) and rendered bacon fat (to target carnivores), produced by frying approximately 40g of bacon fat in 2 mL of sunflower oil (Crisco) until 20mL of fluid is produced. The TYPE IR camera was mounted to a suitable tree at ~1.5 m above the ground and angled towards the ground to detect fauna moving along the trail. Both types of cameras were set to their most sensitive motion detection setting and programmed to take 5 successive images each time they were triggered.



Figure 8. The image on the left was taken by the TYPE WF camera trap and shows the cork tile on which two separate attractants have been placed. The image on the right was taken by the TYPE IR camera trap, designed to detect larger species in this case *Vulpes*.

Camera trap deployment time for detecting small mammal resident species within a site was found by De Bondi *et al.* (2010) to be five nights and Si, Kays and Ding (2014) found a trade-off between trap nights and additional sites for optimal detection. In this study, traps were planned to be deployed for a minimum of 7 nights and a maximum of 14 nights however, heavy snow and rain was experienced during the fieldwork period that impeded access to the sites resulting in highly variable effort across sites (7-73 nights with an average of 22.5 nights). The winter was the third wettest on record (Bureau of Meteorology 2016) and access along some roads within Namadgi was denied by the ACT Parks and Conservation Service from early June due the potential damage to those roads. The lack of access in the south of the park resulted in some site data not being collected. Only 19 of 23 sites had complete habitat data at the end of field work.

Statistical analysis.

All statistical analysis were conducted in the data analysis software R (R Development Core Team 2016).

Habitat data.

The elements of the habitat data (table 6) were analysed using analysis of variance for any relationship across pyrodiversity classes as well as multivariate techniques. Data were z-transformed to overcome differences in scales.

Variation in trapping effort.

For the reasons outlined above, the number of nights cameras were deployed varied substantially, with a minimum of 7 nights, a maximum of 73 nights and a mean of 22.5 nights the minimum number of trap nights was 32. To ensure that this variation did not contribute to some systematic bias, the relationships between explanatory variables, diversity measures and trap nights were tested using Pearson's product-moment correlation and linear modelling. To further guard against trap night induced bias, rarefaction techniques (Simberloff 1972; Heck, van Belle & Simberloff 1975) were applied to find the expected richness of each site for a specific number of randomly selected trap nights. Expected richness (*S*) for a given sampling effort is the sum of probabilities (*p*) of each species occurring in a subset of *m* accumulation units (Chiarucci *et al.* 2008; Nipperess 2016b), equation 1:

$$E[S]_m = \sum_{i}^{S} {}_m p_i \tag{1}$$

In this case p is calculated in the square brackets in equation 2, where N is the number of trap nights, n_i is the total number of nights for species i summed across all cameras for each site and m is the minimum number of trap nights across all sites.

$$E[S]_m = \sum_{i}^{S} \left[1 - \frac{\binom{N-n_i}{m}}{\binom{N}{m}} \right]$$
(2)

Phylogenetic and species richness analysis

Mammals.

To analyse the phylogenetic characteristics of the mammal communities detected during the survey, a published mammal supertree (Kuhn, Mooers & Thomas 2011) was obtained from internet resources. This supertree was originally published by Bininda-Emonds *et al.* (2007) and had been updated by Fritz, Bininda-Emonds and Purvis (2009). In order to resolve the numerous polytomies in this supertree, Kuhn, Mooers and Thomas (2011) generated a set of 100 equally plausible trees using a constant rate birth-death process in conjunction with Monte Carlo Markov chain algorithms. Phylogenetic data was then analysed utilising R packages 'ape' (Paradis, Claude & Strimmer 2004), 'vegan' (Oksanen *et al.* 2007), and the stand-alone functions 'phylorare' (Nipperess 2014) and 'phylocurve' (Nipperess 2016a).

Phylogenetic response to the fire variables was assessed using the phylogenetic dispersion index across the fire variable classes. The methods of Nipperess (2016b) were used to calculate phylogenetic dispersion indexes at each site class, UB, MM, MH and HH and 'phylocurve' was used to produce rarefaction curves. In this case incidence data (presence) by site was compared to the 100 trees of Kuhn, Mooers and Thomas (2011) and the mean rarefied dispersion (ΔPD) calculated.

Functional response was similarly calculated between sites and an analysis of variance model of the outputs was generated using analysis of variance. Species richness was also calculated at the site scale and the same analysis of variance was applied as well as the post hoc test, Tukey's honest significant difference (HSD) using expected richness data to overcome potential trap night bias.

Species compositional data were analysed for differences amongst fire variables using vegan package functions. Initially Nonmetric Multidimensional Scaling (NMDS), a form of ordination describing the relationships within and between alpha and beta data groups was used to identify potentially significant differences in fire class values. PERMANOVA was used to test the assumption of homogeneity within data groups in relation to multivariate dispersion, in the context of a resemblance measure, in this case Euclidian distance. Permutation tests utilising analysis of variance were then applied to determine the significance between data groups.

Birds

The phylogenetic features of the bird data set were analysed in a similar manner to that of the mammal data. In this case, the supertree (1,000 trees) of Jetz *et al.* (2012) was used to create a phylogenetic tree for the filtered COG bird data. Phylogenetic dispersion vales for each pyro-class were calculated and rarefaction curves produced.

Species richness metrics were produced using the methods outlined for mammals (above).

Functional analysis

Functional dendrograms (figure 10) for mammal and bird functional diversities were generated using data from published sources of functional traits (see supplementary material).

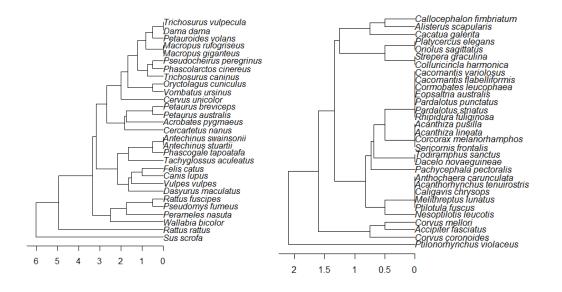


Figure 10. Functional dendrograms for mammals (left) and birds (right)generated using the Vegan Package (Oksanen *et al.* 2007). Scales indicate manhattan distance.

For mammals, Key Ecological Functions (KEF) (Marcot & Vander Heyden 2001; Morrison, Marcot & Mannan 2012) were assigned from published ecological data for each of the species recorded to be present in NNP or TNR from ACT Wildlife Atlas data (see reference table in appendix N). As each of these functional traits were recorded as present or absent, a distance matrix was constructed using Manhattan distance. These distance values were then used to construct a functional dendrogram. To do this a analysis was performed using a cluster analysis(Oksanen *et al.* 2007) in this case, making use of Ward's minimum variance methods (Ward Jr 1963) to construct

the dendrogram. This was in turn used to generate the functional dispersion index in the same manner the phylogenetic dispersion index was calculated, for each site and across explanatory variable classes.

For birds the functional measure for KEF was based on diet traits drawn from Garnett *et al.* (2015). The categories used to construct the functional measure were major dietary components of one or more of the following: fruit, nectar, seeds, foliage, corms, invertebrates, vertebrates and carrion.

The aov function in R was utilised to construct a linear model using analysis of variance (ANOVA) to evaluate any significant difference in functional dispersion across sites and explanatory variable classes. This was appropriate given the balance across the data. Post-hoc analysis, Tukey's Honest Significant Difference was conducted to identify pairwise relationships between fire classes.

Pearson's product-moment coefficient was used to examine any correlative relationship between phylogenetic dispersion and functional dispersion at the site level.

Results

Sites were surveyed and camera traps deployed during the period 15th of March to 29th of August 2016. A total of 23 sites were surveyed across the explanatory variable classes. Weather was a major barrier to site access that limited the collection of quality habitat data from all sites surveyed for mammal presence (19). Camera trapping yielded a total of 7,860 images and 358 mammal detections of 18 species.

Mammals

The mammal species detected are detailed in table 5 below.

 Table 5. Mammal species detected across the 23 sites in this study, 18 species were recorded. Nomenclature and authorities follow (Van Dyck & Strahan 2008).

Species	Common name
Antechinus agilis (Waterhouse, 1840)	Agile antechinus
Antechinus swainsonii (Macleay, 1840)	Dusky antechinus
Canis lupus (Linnaeus 1758)	Dingo
Cercartetus nanus (Geoffroy and Desmarest 1817)	Eastern pygmy possum
Felis catus (Linnaeus 1758)	Feral cat
Macropus giganteus (Shaw 1790)	Eastern grey kangaroo
Macropus rufogriseus (Desmarest 1817)	Red-necked wallaby
<i>Oryctolagus cuniculus</i> (Linnaeus 1758)	Rabbit
Pseudocheirus peregrinus (Boddaert 1785)	Common ringtail possum
Rattus fuscipes (Waterhouse 1839)	Bush rat
Rattus rattus (Linnaeus 1758)	Black rat
Sus scrofa (Linnaeus 1758)	Pig
Tachyglossus aculeatus (Shaw 1792)	Echidna
<i>Trichosurus cunninghami</i> (Lindenmayer, Dubach and Viggers 2002)	Mountain brush tallied
	possum
Trichosurus vulpecula (Kerr 1792)	Common brush tailed
	possum
<i>Vombatus ursinus</i> (Shaw 1800)	Wombat
Vulpes vulpes (Linnaeus 1758)	Red fox
Wallabia bicolor (Desmarest 1804)	Swamp wallaby

In all the results listed below, the abbreviations for each explanatory variable class are the class codes in tables 1 and 3 in the methods section above.

Species	UB (6)	MM (5)	MH (6)	HH (6)
Antechinus agilis	0	0	4	2
Antechinus swainsonii	2	1	0	2
Canis lupus	1	1	0	0
Cercartetus nanus	0	0	1	0
Felis catus	3	0	0	0
Macropus giganteus	2	3	1	1
Macropus rufogriseus	6	4	4	1
Oryctolagus cuniculus	2	1	0	0
Pseudocheirus peregrinus	0	0	1	0
Rattus fuscipes	0	0	2	2
Rattus rattus	0	0	2	0
Sus scrofa	1	0	0	1
Tachyglossus aculeatus	3	1	2	0
Trichosurus cunninghami	3	1	0	0
Trichosurus vulpecula	0	4	5	1
Vombatus ursinus	1	2	5	0
Vulpes vulpes	0	1	1	0
Wallabia bicolor	4	3	5	2

Table 6. The number of sites of mammal observations by explanatory variable site classes. The numbers in parentheses indicate the number of sites in that class.

Habitat data.

The habitat data from the 19 sites represented the following number of replicates in each explanatory variable class: HH, 6; MH, 5; MM, 4 and UB, 4.

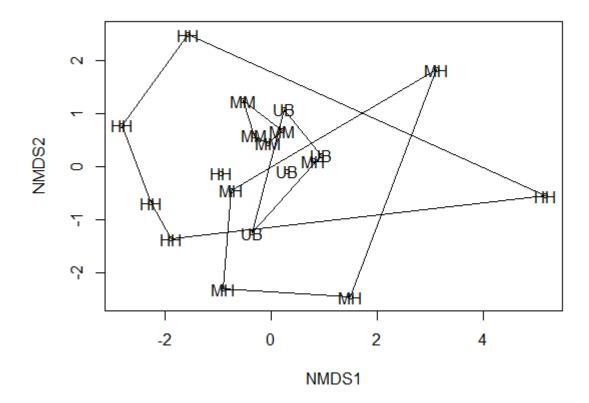


Figure 11. NMDS ordination plot depicting habitat data grouped by the explanatory variable (Run 4, stress 0.15, Procrustes: rmse 0.0537215 max resid 0.20).

The more highly disturbed sites (classes HH and MH) displayed a greater diversity in habitat values, while the less disturbed sites (classes MM and UB) were more similar within classes.

A Permutational Multivariate Analysis of Variance (PERMANOVA) using Euclidian distance indicated significant differences between site classes (R2=0.26, p>0.006, df=3). Tukey's Honest Significant Differences indicated which pairs of classes were significantly different in multivariate dispersion (table 6).

Classes	Difference	lower	upper	p adjusted
MH-HH	-0.008	-0.061	0.044	0.967
MM-HH	0.044	-0.014	0.102	0.172
UB-HH	0.0327	-0.025	0.091	0.398
MM-MH	0.052	-0.004	0.108	0.070
UB-MH	0.041	-0.015	0.097	0.194
UB-MM	-0.011	-0.073	0.050	0.949

 Table 7. Tukey's Honest Significant Differences for z-transformed, positive adjusted habitat variables. All pairs are not significantly different in multivariate dispersion.

Given that homogeneity of multivariate dispersion is an assumption of the PERMANOVA test, only those pairs of classes that were not significantly different were tested for pairwise differences in species composition (using ANOVA with Bonferroni correction for multiple comparisons – table 7). In this case, all possible pairs of classes were tested because no comparison was significantly ($p \le$ 0.05) different in multivariate dispersion.

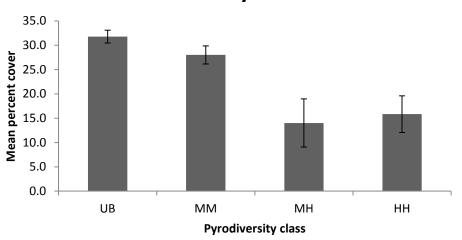
Table 8 Bonferroni corrected p – values fo	r each pair of explanatory variable classes	using PEMANOVA (999 permutations).
Table o Domerrom corrected p Values to	r cach pan of explanatory variable classes	using i Emanova (555 permutations).

Classes	Bonferroni-corrected p-value	R ²	Degrees of freedom
MH-HH	0.028	0.14	1
MM-HH	0.048	0.14	1
UB-HH	0.028	0.14	1
MM-MH	0.052	0.14	1
UB-MH	0.028	0.14	1
UB-MM	0.004	0.14	1

Pairwise tests indicated that each group was significantly different in habitat characteristics to each of the others, except the pair MM, MH.

Individual habitat elements.

Only two of the elements contributing to the habitat measures (table 4) were found to have a significant contribution to relationships with explanatory variable classes. These were over storey cover (f=5.42, p=0.01, df=3) and shrub cover(f=5.08, p=0.01, df=3), figures 12 and 13.



Overstorey cover

Figure 12. Mean percent cover of over story vegetation in relation to explanatory variable classes. Error bars indicate SE.

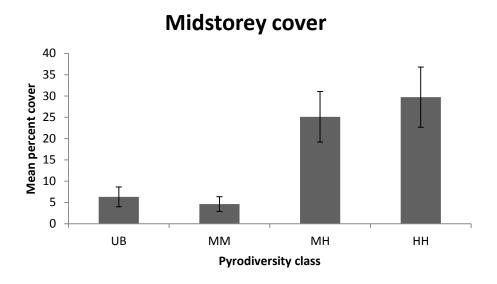


Figure 13. Mean percent cover of over mid storey vegetation in relation to explanatory variable classes. Error bars indicate SE. This result indicates that the higher disturbance categories were having a greater impact on the canopy of over storey species. Increased mid storey cover could have been an artefact of reduced over storey shading and competition and potentially greater germination of these species post fire.

Variation in trapping effort.

To test for the impact of the previously reported variation in trapping effort on the calculated fauna assembly attributes, correlative relationships between trap nights and species richness, trap nights and phylogenetic dispersion and trap nights and functional dispersion were examined.

Table 9. Pearson's product-moment correlation for calculated fauna assembly attributes and number of traps nights (camera trap effort).

Attribute	t- value	Degrees of freedom	p- value	Correlation
Species richness	1.59	21	0.13	0.33
Phylogenetic dispersion	-0.98	19	0.34	-0.22
Functional dispersion	-0.59	19	0.56	-0.13

As the p value was < 0.2 for species richness, the decision to use rarefaction to correct for the difference in trap nights across sites was justified. Expected species richness values were calculated for all sites for a minimum number of trap nights (26) and these values were used

instead of observed species richness in subsequent analyses. No significant relationship between phylogenetic dispersion and trap nights and functional dispersion and trap nights was observed.

Phylogenetic dispersion at the habitat scale

For mammals across sites the PD data indicated a trend for greater phylogenetic dispersion index (Δ PD) in the long unburnt sites decreasing with increased fire frequency and severity.

Table 10. Mean Phylogenetic Dispersion Indexes across explanatory variable classes.

	UB	MM	MH	НН	
ΔΡD	112.66	112.12	100.73	91.02	

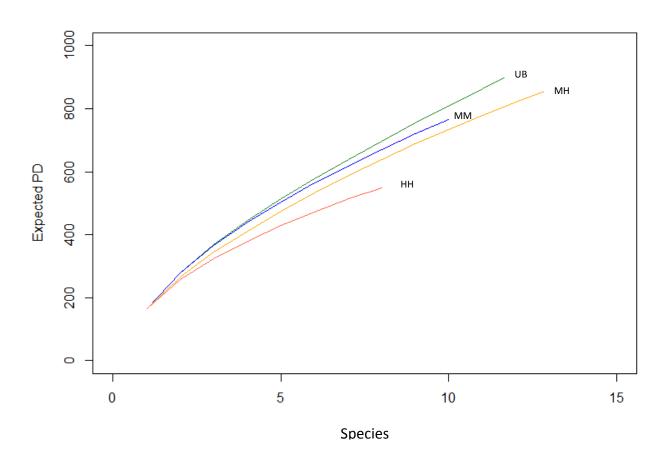


Figure 14. Rarefaction curves for expected phylogenetic diversity (PD) of mammals in each explanatory variable class: (a) UB, (b) MM, (c) MH and (d) HH. The figure indicates a steady increase in the expected PD from the more greatly disturbed sites to the less disturbed sites.

Mammal phylogenetic diversity at the site level.

Mammal PDI at the site scale exhibited no statistically significant difference (ANOVA df=3, F=0.48, p=0.7) between explanatory variable classes however the mean values were highest in the unburned sites and lowest in the highly impacted, higher frequency sites.

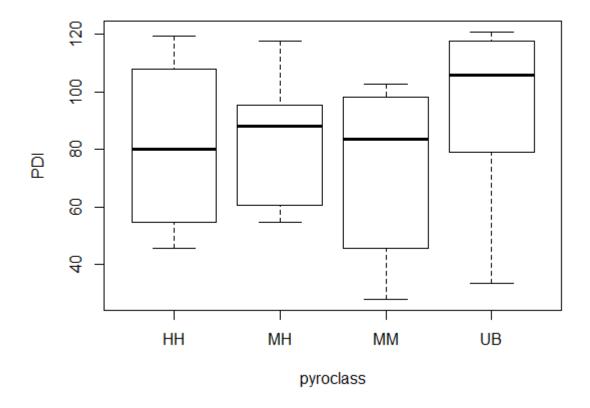


Figure 15. Boxplot of PDI of mammals across explanatory variable classes at the site level. No significant relationship was detected (ANOVA df=3; f=0.48; p=0.7)

Species richness

Analysis of variance for the expected richness relationship with explanatory variable site classes was highly significant (f=5.85, p=0.005, df=3)

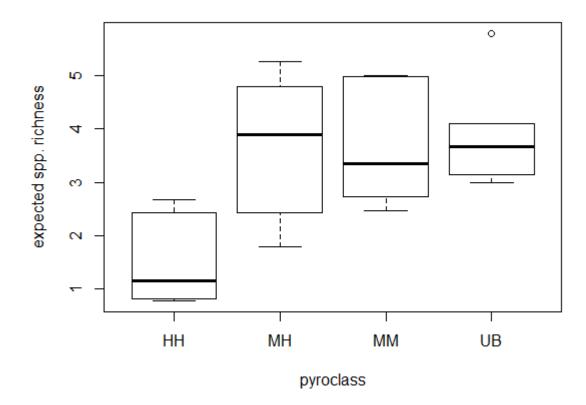


Figure 16. Boxplot indicating expected species richness of mammals across explanatory variable classes (ANOVA df=3; f=5.85; p=0.005)

Analysis of variance indicated that there was a significant difference in expected species richness and Tukeys HSD was used for pairwise testing to determine the significant differences between each of the classes.

Table 11. Tuckey's HSD pairwise tests for significant differences in expected species richness between explanatory variable classes. Differences between HH and the other three classes were significant.

Classes	Difference	lower	upper	p adjusted
MH-HH	2.173	0.320	4.026	0.018
MM-HH	2.207	0.264	4.150	0.023
UB-HH	2.395	0.542	4.247	0.009
MM-MH	0.034	-1.909	1.977	1.000
UB-MH	0.222	-1.631	2.075	0.986
UB-MM	0.188	-1.755	2.131	0.993

Species composition in relation to site classes.

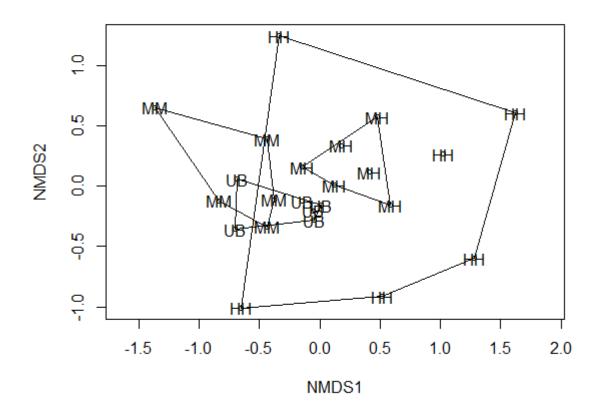


Figure 17. Ordination plot (Run 5 stress 0.1246812) exhibiting site level species composition of mammals across explanatory variable classes.

A Permutational Multivariate Analysis of Variance (PERMANOVA) using the Bray – Curtis dissimilarity across site classes indicated significant differences in species composition between explanatory variable classes (R^2 =0.33, p>0.001, df=3). Because of the observed relationship between species richness and survey effort, Bray-Curtis distance was calculated from a site by species matrix of probabilities rather than abundances. Each cell in the matrix was calculated from the rarefaction formula and was the probability of selecting that species from that site when the data were rarefied to the minimum number of 26 trap nights. The explanatory variable classes were significantly different in multivariate dispersion of species composition, indicating that classes differed in beta-diversity among sites (Permutational test of multivariate dispersion; F=4.21, p=0.03, df=3). Tukey's Honest Significant Differences (Tukey's HSD) indicated which pairs of classes were significantly different in multivariate dispersion (table 10).

Classes	Difference	lower	upper	p adjusted
MH-HH	-0.25	-0.49	0.00	0.05
MM-HH	-0.16	-0.41	0.09	0.32
UB-HH	-0.28	-0.52	-0.04	0.02
MM-MH	0.09	-0.17	0.34	0.78
UB-MH	-0.03	-0.28	0.21	0.98
UB-MM	-0.12	-0.38	0.13	0.55

Table 12. PERMANOVA test for multivariate dispersion, four of the six classes tests were shown to be testable in a pairwise comparison.

Given that homogeneity of multivariate dispersion is an assumption of the PERMANOVA test, only those pairs of classes that were not significantly different were tested for pairwise differences in species composition (using PERMANOVA with Bonferroni correction for multiple comparisons – table 11).

From the testable pairs of site classes

Table 13. Bonferroni-corrected p-values indicated that these pairs were significantly differentiated.

Classes	Bonferroni-corrected p-value	R ²	Degrees of freedom		
MM-HH	0.004	0.33	1		
MM-MH	0.004	0.33	1		
UB-MH	0.004	0.33	1		
UB-MM	0.004	0.33	1		

The compositional differences between site classes are shown from the occurrence data represented in Table 14.

Table 14. Occurrence data for mammal species across explanatory variable gradients.

Site class	UB	MM	МН	HH
Macropus_giganteus	1	1	1	1
Macropus_rufogriseus	1	1	1	1
Tachyglossus_aculeatus	1	1	1	0
Vombatus_ursinus	1	1	1	0
Antechinus_swainsonii	1	1	0	1
Wallabia_bicolor	1	1	1	1
Trichosurus_vulpecula	1	1	1	1
Trichosurus_caninus	1	0	1	0
Pseudocheirus_peregrinus	0	0	1	0
Cercartetus_nanus	0	0	1	0

Antechinus_stuartii	0	0	1	1
Rattus_rattus	0	0	1	0
Rattus_fuscipes	0	0	1	1
Felis_catus	1	0	0	0
Vulpes_vulpes	0	1	1	0
Canis_lupus	1	1	0	0
Sus_scrofa	1	0	0	1
Oryctolagus_cuniculus	1	1	0	0

Functional dispersion

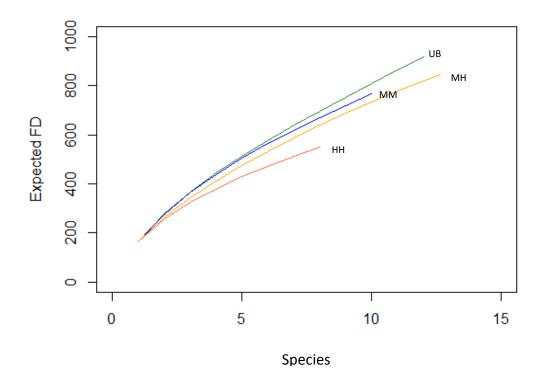


Figure 18. Rarefaction curves for expected Functional Diversity (FD) of mammals in each explanatory variable class.

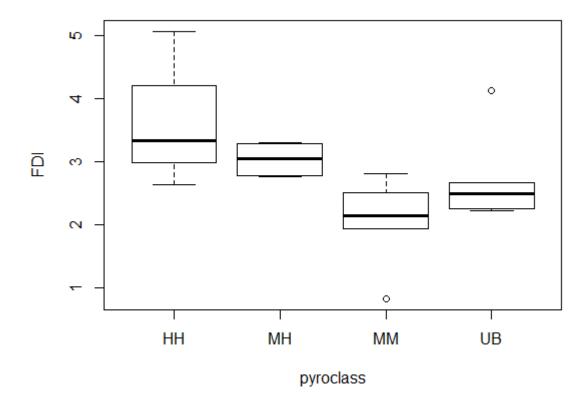


Figure 19. Functional dispersion of mammals across explanatory variable classes, classes HH and MM were found to be significantly different (F=3.58, p=0.037, df=3).

Analysis of variance indicated that across explanatory variable classes there were significant differences in functional diversity indexes, (F=3.58, p=0.037, df=3). Tuckey's HSD was again used to determine the pairwise difference between explanatory variable classes, the results are shown in table 15.

 Table 15. Differences in in functional dispersion across explanatory variable classes. The only significant difference was found between classes MM and HH.

Classes	Difference	lower	upper	p adjusted
MH-HH	-0.64324	-2.09709	0.810613	0.596343
MM-HH	-1.63363	-3.13516	-0.1321	0.030646
UB-HH	-0.97261	-2.42646	0.481239	0.261259
MM-MH	-0.99039	-2.23539	0.254612	0.145473
UB-MH	-0.32937	-1.51644	0.85769	0.856191
UB-MM	0.661017	-0.58399	1.906019	0.449753

At the site level, functional dispersion and phylogenetic dispersion were found not correlated using Pearson's product-moment correlation (r=0. 55, p=0.30 df=16).

Birds

Early analysis of the bird data indicated that there was insufficient samples and limited replication within and across classes of stratification. No further analysis was conducted using these data and no meaningful results were produced.

Discussion.

Species detected.

Of the 18 mammal species detected by camera trapping, nine were marsupials, eight were eutherians and one was a monotreme. This sample was a broad representation of the class Mammalia which accounted for the observed, relatively high expected Δ PD values compared to those values for the birds.

Following stratification and filtering, 27 species of birds were drawn from COG observations for this study, these are listed in the supplementary information.

Habitat and explanatory variables

The habitat structure was clearly differentiated across the classes, indicating that measured variables responded to fire and were therefore appropriate for this component of the study. The variation between each of the classes was likely to be driven by one or more of the measured habitat elements. A strong positive trend in shrub cover was indicated in figure N (results) with increased explanatory variable class (UB \rightarrow HH), while over storey cover declined across the same gradient. No other trends were seen in the habitat elements.

Explanatory variable gradients and fauna.

In this study, a contrast in the phylogenetic response to explanatory variable variables was seen between mammals and birds.

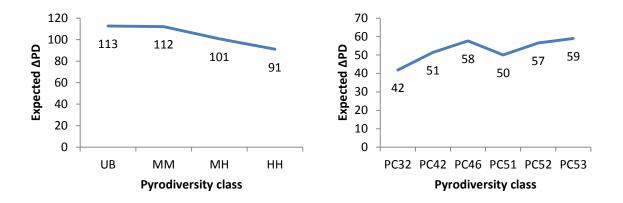


Figure 19. Expected phylogenetic dispersion values for mammals (left), and birds (right). The two groups exhibit contrasting response trends to increased fire frequency and severity. See table 3 for explanatory variable class codes.

For mammals there was a statistically non-significant trend to lower Δ PD with increased fire frequency and severity, while with birds, a statistically non-significant trend of increasing in Δ PD with increases in fire frequency and severity. It is possible that the peaks and trough in the right hand graph in figure 14 reflect the importance of frequency (the second digit in the explanatory variable code). However the small sample size in this data set does not allow for further investigation here, but could be investigated further with more sites and observations targeted specifically at researching this feature.

The trend in reduced ΔPD in mammals could suggest a decline in evolutionary potential for those sites severely burnt and with higher fire frequency (Nipperess & Matsen 2013). However this is dependent on the scale of the disturbance, the proximity of refugia and the dispersal characteristics of fauna(Berry *et al.* 2015). Of note however that there is still a signal in the species richness data some 13 years after the most recent fire. This coincides with the habitat data, where the HH class is significantly distinct from all other classes, possibly indicating that the fewer species prefer this habitat.

In contrast to Δ PD, Δ FD was highest in the most impacted site class, HH implying that the reduced numbers of species were individually contributing a greater number of KEF's than those with greater species richness. A close inspection of the species that were detected at these sites indicated that some of them had relatively high numbers of KEF's, *Sus scrofa, Wallabia bicolor and Rattus fuscipes*. The higher KEF value indicate more generalist species while more specialised species have lower KEF values(Marcot & Aubrey 2003), table 16.

Species	Common name	Number of KEF's
Macropus giganteus	Eastern grey kangaroo	3
Macropus rufogriseus	Red-necked wallaby	3
Antechinus swainsonii	Dusky antechinus	3
Wallabia bicolor	Swamp wallaby	9
Trichosurus vulpecula	Common brush-tailed possum	3
Antechinus agilis	Agile antechinus	3
Rattus fuscipes	Bush rat	7
Sus scrofa	Pig	12

Table 16. Mammal species detected in explanatory variable class HH and the numbers of KEF's that they represent.

Also observed was the absence of introduced predators in site classes MH and HH. No larger predators were detected at HH sites, and only one MH site recorded *Vulpes vulpes*, red fox. The use of burned areas soon after fire by introduced predators has been reported in south-eastern Australia (E.g. Robley 2013; Payne *et al.* 2014), and given the time since fire reported here, the observations of this study do not contradict earlier findings. It does suggest that these areas are less used by these predators through subsequent successional stages. It may however represent a particular habitat opportunity or other resource that is linked to the successional stage of higher explanatory variable class coded sites (Chia *et al.* 2016). Robinson *et al.* (2014) found that compared to long unburned sites, fire reduced species richness. Changes in species richness were not statistically significant between explanatory variable classes in this study, but generally trended upwards (see figure N). The increased mid storey cover in the higher explanatory variable classes observed in the mammal sites may provide greater cover and other resources for a broader range of bird species.

Of further interest were the records of *Felis catus*, feral cats that were only observed in unburned sites and not in any other explanatory variable class. The increased scrubbiness of the classes where cats were not observed may be a factor in their absence.

Synthesis and applications

The results of this study indicate that fire frequency and severity have an impact on fauna habitat (figures 11, 12, 13; table7) and that in turn impacts phylogenetic (and functional structure of faunal communities figures 14, 18,20 and 23). The implications for management are therefore to provide habitat opportunities for those potentially unique species compositions through heterogeneous fire regimes.

Several studies have been undertaken investigating the impact of disturbance on the phylogenetic structure of communities (E.g. Dinnage 2009; Helmus *et al.* 2010; Brunbjerg *et al.* 2012; Ding *et al.* 2012), but relatively few have vertebrates as their target species. Of those studies the majority are focused on tropical birds (E.g. Gomez *et al.* 2010; Gianuca *et al.* 2014; Klingbeil & Willig 2016) The use of Δ PD as measure of community structure, biodiversity and beta-scale evolutionary potential across environmental gradients shows considerable promise for vertebrate taxa (see Nipperess 2016b).

The use of KEF's to characterise the functional roles of entities within communities or ecosystems is has the advantage of easily being derived from the known ecology and life history information of those entities. The approach can be extended to investigate various community characeristics related to function using the same set of measures as for biodiversity (E.g. Shannon's entropy, functional evenness, functional dissimilarity, etc.). In relation to threatened or declining species the imperilled functions of those entities can also easily be identified (Marcot & Aubrey 2003).

The premise that patch mosaic burning maximises biodiversity has been questioned by some authors (E.g.Parr & Anderson 2006; Taylor *et al.* 2012) however a range of vegetation within various post-fire stages could be managed to provide the maximum diversity across communities (E.g. Richards, Possingham & Tizard 1999; McCarthy 2012; Di Stefano *et al.* 2013). The scale at which this needs to be undertaken is dependent on the biological need of those entities within the community. Allowing for dispersion from minimum viable areas that in turn support minimum viable populations can be a starting point for considering the scale of disturbance.(Wisz *et al.* 2013)

It is important to note that the relative proportion of long unburned in a community needs to be higher than other classes so as to provide a buffer against unplanned fire impacting areas stochastically (McCarthy 2012).

The effectiveness of the strategy of landscape scale mosaic burning for fuel reduction in preventing severe fires crossing the urban interface and impacting human life and property is a matter of debate in the literature (Gibbons *et al.* 2012; Attiwill & Adams 2013; Gill, Stephens & Cary 2013; McCaw 2013). Gibbons *et al.* (2012) found that prescribed burning was only effective in mitigating house loss when conducted close to the build asset. They suggest burning at distances greater than several hundred metres from assets is ineffective as a measure for preventing urban impacts. Further, Tolhurst and McCarthy (2016) found that the influence of

previous fire to the severity of wildfires was minimal during weather conditions that were conducive to high forest fire danger indexes (FFDI) >25 ; and that in milder condition (FFDI<25) fuel reduction burning less than three years old was most likely to reduce fire severity. They also found that fuel reduction burns less than 10 years old reduced fire severity to an extent that canopy loss was reduced (again if the FFDI was less than 25). The effectiveness of hazard reduction burning, given that fire behaviour leading to loss of life and urban destruction generally occur at FDI's of greater than 50 (Blanchi, Leonard & Leicester 2006; Gibbons *et al.* 2012) is therefore questionable. Keith, Williams and Woinarski (2002); Gill (2008); Di Stefano *et al.* (2013); Driscoll *et al.* (2016) present examples of fire management approaches that allow for management strategies to recognise and integrate biodiversity values at landscape scales. These approaches provide planning frameworks and tools that assess the relative efficacy of fuel treatment strategies in the context of their potential impact on biodiversity needs and values.

Limitations and further research

The effectiveness of the measures used here could be further tested using larger data sets. The bird data here was not collected specifically for this study and therefore does not conform to rigorous design that is fit for purpose. The number of replicates sites restricted the analyses and conclusions that were able to be extrapolated from these data.

For mammals the use camera detection methods limited the resultant data to presence only. While it was possible to recognise some individuals of some species, there was insufficient "mark – recapture" incidents across species and individuals to provide any meaningful abundance data. While some methods relating detection probability to abundance (E.g. Rowcliffe *et al.* 2008) the type of data available from this study precluded their use. Without abundance data studies was limited in their ability to produce meaningful information that relate to the importance or rareness of individual species through measures such as evenness or geometric mean abundance.

As mentioned earlier, it is intended that the approaches used here will be implemented across other vegetation communities in NNP and TNR, and these data will be used to further evaluate the effectiveness of the approaches. It is hoped that this set of studies will provide for the establishment of longer term studies advocated by Lindenmayer *et al.* (2016). The complex relationships between the biota and fire regime elements (Gill 1975) and their interactions with each other have been the subject of a range of studies (E.g. Gill & Catling 2002; Hobbs 2002; Keith, McCaw & Whelan 2002; Lindenmayer *et al.* 2016). The attributes of time since fire and seasonality of fire were not expressly considered in this study. However the time since last fire was standardised to the 2003 fire (16 years) and no sites were chosen that had burned since that time. Seasonality data for fires prior to the 1980's was not reliable (in many cases only the year of the fire was recorded) and therefore not used in this study, but is clearly important for both plants and animals as populations may be more vulnerable to its effects during their reproductive season(Gill 1975; Knox & Clarke 2006). Inter-fire interval (the mean period between fires where the fire frequency is greater than 1) was also not considered here.

There was also insufficient data to test the relative impact of fire frequency and fire severity. An experimental approach that incorporated forest type could be more definitive than the space for time approach used here in providing such data.

Authors Contributions

ACC conceived the project and the survey design, conducted the analyses, conducted the field work and wrote the manuscript.

DAN helped conceive the project and the survey design, wrote the code for the analyses and provided critical comment on the manuscript.

JAS helped conceive the project and the survey design, contributed to the field work and provided critical comment on the manuscript.

All authors contributed critically to the drafts and gave final approval for publication.

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Supplementary material

Table S1. Summary of camera trap deployments and site locations for mammal survey.

Site name	Site code	x	У	Date deployed	Date recovered	Number of wf traps	Number of ir traps	Total trap nights
TNR01	23223	671428	60711 64	16/03/2016	23/03/2016	5	2	49
TNR02	23223	671353	60747 63	17/03/2016	29/03/2016	5	2	84
NC01	33223	666433	60829 03	03/04/2016	18/04/2016	3	1	60
GC01	13221	675006	60329 37	05/04/2016	24/04/2016	3	1	76
CR01	23223	690530	60479 66	20/04/2016	05/05/2016	3	1	60
CR02	23223	688971	60329 49	21/04/2016	05/05/2016	3	1	56
CF01	23223	666624	60765 04	04/05/2016	28/05/2016	3	1	96
TNR03	23223	671911	60743 38	13/05/2016	26/06/2016	3	1	176
SC01	13221	674103	60355 49	18/05/2016	03/07/2016	3	1	184
MG01	23222	665312	60507 79	29/06/2016	08/08/2016	1	1	80
CG01	33223	670495	60589 63	30/06/2016	05/08/2016	1	1	72
ST01	33223	672666	60600 68	01/07/2016	31/08/2016	1	1	122
MT01	23222	684506	60642 04	12/07/2016	08/08/2016	1	1	54
OR01	23222	677890	60596 42	12/07/2016	08/08/2016	1	1	54
BR01	23222	681078	60326 51	21/07/2016	13/08/2016	1	1	46
SS01	13221	674146	60324 14	31/07/2016	20/08/2016	1	1	40
SS02	13221	674589	60315 41	31/07/2016	20/08/2016	1	1	40
LH01	33223	665185	60577 78	10/08/2016	27/08/2016	1	1	34
DC01	33223	665842	60569 77	10/08/2016	27/08/2016	1	1	34
DC01	33223	665841	60569 71	10/08/2016	27/08/2016	1	1	34
DC02	33223	667433	60575 07	10/08/2016	27/08/2016	1	1	34
DC02	33223	667433	60575 07	10/08/2016	27/08/2016	1	1	34
LHC01	13221	688037	60319 40	12/08/2016	29/08/2016	1	1	34

LHC01	13221	688040	60319	12/08/2016	29/08/2016	1	1	34
			41					
LHC02	13221	688550	60311	12/08/2016	29/08/2016	1	1	34
			60					
NCK01	23222	682564	60289	13/08/2016	29/08/2016	1	1	32
			50					

Table S2. Field methods after (Mulvaney et al. 2014).

Variable/attribute	Method
PFC Canopy	50m transect. At each 5 metre interval make
	an assessment of the PFC using the "hole in
	the hands" estimation method.
Canopy height (median)	50x20. Estimate the median canopy height in
	metres. If 2 or more distinct sub strata exist,
	record for each as O1, O2On.
Canopy Dieback	50x20. Estimate the average health of
	overstorey species: 1 – healthy tree, 2- foliage
	beginning to die from tips of branches, some
	thinning or 'sickness' of leaves and some partly
	dead branches, 3 – as with 2 but with greater
	loss of foliage and some completely dead
	branches, 4 – most of the epicormic foliage
	has died, 5- dead.
Species dominance and evenness	50x20. Record and identify the ≤3 most
	dominant species in the overstorey, record
	total species count of overstorey species and
	the number of individuals of each species. Can
	be done in conjunction with tree hollow
	assessment
PFC midstorey	50m transect. Visually estimate percent foliage
	cover every 5 metres of transect.
Midstorey species richness	20x20. Record and identify the ≤3 most
	dominant species in the midstorey, record
	total species count of midstorey species and
	the number of individuals of each species.
PFC grasses	At 50 points (i.e. every 1m) along 50m
	transects record whether grass intersects that
	point. Note, multiple 'hits' (i.e. multiple
	grasses) at a point count as one hit only. Divide
	the total of 'hits' by the number of points
	measured along the transects (i.e. 150).
	Multiple transects are usually required to
	sufficiently encompass ground stratum cover
	heterogeneity.
PFC shrubs	At 50 points (i.e. every 1m) along 50m
	transects record whether shrub intersects that

	point. Note, multiple 'hits' (i.e. multiple grasses) at a point count as one hit only. Divide the total of 'hits' by the number of points measured along the transects (i.e. 150). Multiple transects are usually required to sufficiently encompass ground stratum cover heterogeneity.
PFC other ground stratum Cryptogam, %rock, bare ground, litter cover.	At 50 points (i.e. every 1m) along 50m transects record whether a ground element intersects that point. Note, multiple 'hits' (i.e. multiple grasses) at a point count as one hit only. Divide the total of 'hits' by the number of points measured along the transects (i.e. 150). Multiple transects are usually required to sufficiently encompass ground stratum cover heterogeneity.
Litter depth	50m transect. At each metre interval measure the depth of litter using a ruler.
Length of fallen logs (CWD) over 0.1m dia.	This is the total length of logs at least 10cm diameter and at least 0.5m long. The diameter is estimated with a measuring tape (or callipers if available) held horizontally immediately above the log and the length is estimated to the nearest metre by measuring with a tape, or pacing along the part of the log that is at least 10cm diameter. If estimating length by pacing then the actual length of a sample of logs should be measured regularly with a tape so the assessor can calibrate their own estimate derived from pacing. Only those parts of logs lying within the plot are measured.

Habitat variable	UB		ММ		МН		НН	
	mean	s.e.	mean	s.e.	mean	s.e.	mean	s.e.
bare_ground	0.5	0.29	0	0	0.2	0.20	0.8	0.65
cryptogam	0.25	0.25	0	0	2.6	1.69	0	0
CWD_length	78.5	44.06	29.5	14.66	68.4	23.49	56.7	8.99
GC_Fern	0	0	0.5	0.50	3.2	2.27	4.3	3.59
GC_Grass	18.5	7.46	31.8	1.38	15.6	6.52	22.2	5.44
GC_Herb-dicot	1	0.41	3.0	1.47	3.0	1.79	7.0	1.46
GC_litter	48.5	0.65	49.3	0.25	37.4	7.16	46.7	0.92
GC_Sedge/Rush	1.5	1.19	4.0	1.78	1.0	0.55	1.7	0.42

GC_Woody	2.5	1.04	3.8	1.31	1.2	0.58	6.5	3.92
live_tree_shrub	0	0	0	0	0.8	0.49	7.2	2.51
mean_litter_depth	3.975	0.56	4.089	0.83	5.7	1.00	5.056	1.8
mean_MS_cover	6.3	2.33	4.611	1.74	25.1	5.94	29.7	7.06
OS_cover	31.8	1.31	28	1.87	14.0	4.95	15.8	3.76
rock	0.75	0.48	0.5	0.29	2.6	1.47	2.5	1.34

KEF data sources.

Table S4. Avian dietary preferences assigned from Garnett et al. (2015).

Species	Key dieta	ary prefe	rence					
	Fruit	Nectar	Seeds	Foliage	Corms	Invertebrates	Vertebrates	Carrion
Acanthiza lineata	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0
Acanthiza pusilla	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0
Acanthorhynchus tenuirostris	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0
Accipiter fasciatus	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
Alisterus scapularis	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0
Anthochaera carunculata	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0
Cacatua galerita	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0
Cacomantis flabelliformis	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0
Cacomantis variolosus	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0
Caligavis chrysops	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0
Callocephalon fimbriatum	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0
Colluricincla harmonica	1	0	1	0	0	1	1	0
Corcorax melanorhamphos	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0
Cormobates leucophaea	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0
Corvus coronoides	0	0	1	0	0	1	1	1
Corvus mellori	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1
Dacelo novaeguineae	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0
Eopsaltria australis	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0
Melithreptus lunatus	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0
Nesoptilotis leucotis	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	0
Oriolus sagittatus	1	0	1	0	0	1	0	0
Pachycephala pectoralis	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0
Pardalotus punctatus	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0
Pardalotus striatus	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0
Platycercus elegans	1	0	1	0	0	1	0	0
Ptilonorhynchus violaceus	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	0
Ptilotula fuscus	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0
Rhipidura fuliginosa	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0
Sericornis frontalis	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0
Strepera graculina	1	0	1	0	0	1	1	0
Todiramphus sanctus	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0

Species	Key E	cologica	al Funct	ion dete	ermined	l from (\	/an Dyc	k & Str	ahan 20	008; Jor	nes <i>et al.</i>	2009)											
	seeds/fruits	fungi	pollinator	vertebrate disease	controls insects	controls vertebrates	root feeder	frugivore	grazer	browser	spermivore	foliovore	nectarvore	prey	carrion feeder	ovivore	vertebrate feeder	invertebrat e feeder	Constructs burrows	Digs soil	Secondary burrow user	Creates wallows	Damages timber
Cervus unicolor	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
Dama dama	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
Sus scrofa	1	1	0	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	1	1	0	1	1	0	1	0	1	1
Canis lupus	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0
Felis catus	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0
Vulpes vulpes	0	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	1	1	0	0	1	0	0
Antechinus stuartii	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0
Antechinus swainsonii	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0
Dasyurus maculatus	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0
Phascogale tapoatafa	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0
Acrobates pygmaeus	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Macropus giganteus	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Macropus rufogriseus	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Petauroides volans	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Petaurus australis	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1
Petaurus breviceps	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	1
Cercartetus nanus	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0
Phascolarctos cinereus	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Pseudocheirus peregrinus	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Trichosurus caninus	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0
Trichosurus vulpecula	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
Vombatus ursinus	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0

Species	Key Eo	cologica	l Functi	on dete	rmined	from (V	an Dyc	k & Str	ahan 20	08; Joi	nes <i>et al</i> .	2009)											
	seeds/fruits	fungi	pollinator	vertebrate disease	controls insects	controls vertebrates	root feeder	frugivore	grazer	browser	spermivore	foliovore	nectarvore	prey	carrion feeder	ovivore	vertebrate feeder	invertebrat e feeder	Constructs burrows	Digs soil	Secondary burrow user	Creates wallows	Damages timber
Wallabia bicolor	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0
Oryctolagus cuniculus	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0
Tachyglossus aculeatus	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0
Perameles nasuta	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	1	0	1	0	0	0
Pseudomys fumeus	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	0	0
Rattus fuscipes	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	0	0
Rattus rattus	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	0
Table S6. Number of dete	ctions of e Macropus_rufogriseus	-	Tachyglossus_aculeatus /q saiz	Vombatus_ursinus	Antechinus_swainsonii		Wallabia_bicolor	Trichosurus_vulpecula	Trichocurre coninue		Pseudocheirus_peregrin us	Cercartetus_nanus		Antechinus_stuartii	Rattus_rattus		Kattus_tuscipes	Felis_catus	Vulpes_vulpes	Canis lunus		Sus_scrofa	Oryctolagus_cuniculus
BR01 2				4	2		2	8												-	1		
CF01							4	3				2		3									
CG01					6		1																
CR01	3		1	4			7	8				2							1				
CR02	3			2			4	8						2	1								
DC01																	4						
DC02														1									

Species Key Ecological Function determined from (Van Dyck & Strahan 2008; Jones *et al.* 2009)

GC01		8				3	11	1						1				3
LH01		1									1						1	
LHC01		1				1	2	2										
LHC02		3				2	5											
MG01	4	4				1	2											
MT01	2	4	2	4														
NC01						2					7		12					
NCK01	1				1			1							1			3
OR01		4		3			4											
SC01		15		5		5	7	8						1				
SS01	2	9		3	1		4							1		1		
SS02	3	1	1				2											
ST01	1						3											
TNR01		1				6	1						6					
TNR02				2		8					1							
TNR03	3	5		14		25	1		1		6	1	4	1	2			
BR01	2			4	2	2	8									1		
CF01						4	3			2	3							
CG01					6	1												
CR01		3	1	4		7	8			2					1			
CR02		3		2		4	8				2	1						
DC01													4					
DC02											1							
GC01		8				3	11	1						1				3
LH01		1									1						1	
LHC01		1				1	2	2										
LHC02		3				2	5											
MG01	4	4				1	2											
MT01	2	4	2	4														
NC01						2					7		12					
NCK01	1				1			1							1			3

OR01		4	3	3			4								
SC01		15	ļ	5		5	7	8					1		
SS01	2	9	3	3	1		4						1		1
SS02	3	1	1				2								
ST01	1						3								
TNR01		1				6	1					6			
TNR02				2		8				1					
TNR03	3	5	14	1		25	1		1	6	1	4	1	2	

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