

ORIGINAL RESEARCH

Spatio-temporal patterns of carnivore guild related to their prey in a Mediterranean landscape

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Keywords

activity patterns; detectability; mesocarnivores; population dynamics; predator–prey relationships; dynamic occupancy models; small mammals.

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Abstract

Small mammal populations fluctuate significantly in abundance over time, affecting the entire food web. However, changes in their occupancy across a landscape receive less attention. While habitat features are relevant for some predators, diet specialization and prey distribution and abundance might play an important role in shaping predator populations. Using a multi-season occupancy analysis, we examined the spatio-temporal patterns of Mediterranean mesocarnivores—common genet, stone marten and red fox—focusing on the factors that influence their occupancy dynamics, particularly small mammal occupancy as a prey resource. Data was collected from December 2020 to May 2021 in the Sant Llorenç del Munt i l'Obac Natural Park using a camera-trap grid. We analysed small mammal occupancy dynamics and used these as covariates in predator occupancy models to explore predator–prey relationships. Additionally, we included the occurrence of each carnivore as a predictor for interspecific analysis, and kernel density functions were used to assess daily activity overlaps. Results showed that interspecific competition significantly affected mesocarnivore occupancy, as genet occupancy was negatively correlated with the red fox occupancy. Although prey occurrence did not influence mesocarnivore occupancy, it did affect detectability, with genet and stone marten detectability being positively related to small mammal presence and high daily activity overlap between predators and prey. This suggests that mesopredators respond rapidly to prey abundance, highlighting the intricate temporal dependence between predator activity and prey occupancy. Dynamic occupancy and activity models provide a deeper understanding of predator–prey relationships at the local scale.

Introduction

Understanding ecosystem functioning and, therefore, effectively devising conservation strategies, requires studying population dynamics and interspecific relationships within communities (Kandziora et al., 2013; Tilman et al., 1997). While large predators have received more attention in ecological studies, mesocarnivores also play a pivotal role in ecosystem dynamics and often serve as crucial drivers of ecosystem function, structure and dynamics as seed dispersers, small mammal population regulators and scavengers (Roemer et al., 2009). On the other hand, small mammals, like rodents and insectivores, play key roles as seed dispersers, burrowers or prey (Hayward & Philipson, 1979; Lacher Jr et al., 2019), despite often being

considered pests in anthropogenic ecosystems (Stenseth et al., 2003). The complex top-down and bottom-up regulatory mechanisms of small mammal populations provide valuable insights for studying the spatial and temporal dynamics of mesocarnivores, which may be influenced by these prey populations (Krebs, 2009; Meserve et al., 2003; Sinclair & Krebs, 2002).

Current landscape and climate changes are causing shifts in small mammal assemblages (Muhly et al., 2011; Rowe & Terry, 2014; Sokolova et al., 2024; Torre et al., 2020, 2023), highlighting the need for new management strategies to conserve ecosystems. Identifying factors influencing prey and predator presence is key for conservation assessment. Both biotic and abiotic elements may play a significant role in

spatio-temporal predator–prey interactions and interspecific relationships (Doherty et al., 2022; Puig-Gironès & Pons, 2023; Sunyer et al., 2013; Torre et al., 2007). For instance, predator habitat selection can be conditioned by prey abundance in a certain environment (Carvalho & Gomes, 2004; Puig-Gironès & Pons, 2020; Vilella et al., 2020), while prey species may exhibit seasonal spatial patterns based on the maturation of fruits that are part of their diet (Díaz et al., 2010; Puig-Gironès et al., 2023).

In the Mediterranean basin, which is defined by highly variable weather patterns, this variability can potentially determine predator–prey dynamics (Fargallo et al., 2009; Previtali et al., 2009; Torre et al., 2020, 2023; Wilmers et al., 2007). Drought and habitat interactions may reduce food availability, decreasing small mammal populations (Espelta et al., 2008; Puig-Gironès et al., 2023), which could affect the mesocarnivore guild, especially the species that rely the most on small mammals for food (Burgos et al., 2023; Hernandez-Puentes et al., 2022; Vilella et al., 2020). However, despite their relevance to the ecosystem and the need for their management, predator–prey and carnivore intra-guild interactions remain understudied in Mediterranean landscapes (Carvalho & Gomes, 2004; Díaz et al., 2005; Puig-Gironès, 2023; Vilella et al., 2020).

Predators and prey usually operate at different temporal and spatial scales, with prey having more rapid reproductive cycles and predators often having larger home ranges (Palomo et al., 2007). Dynamic occupancy models (MacKenzie & Nichols, 2004) are a valuable tool for assessing seasonal variations in rodent occupancy (i.e. species presence probability per sampling unit at each defined period), acting as a surrogate for abundance and studying how this variable influences both predator occupancy and detectability (i.e. the likelihood of detection of a species during each sampling period) (Bailey et al., 2007; MacKenzie et al., 2017; MacKenzie & Nichols, 2004). Additionally, occupancy models may be useful to assess how the presence of each predator species influences the occurrence of others.

In this study, we focused on a mesocarnivore guild comprised of three generalist predator species: the red fox (*Vulpes vulpes* L.), stone marten (*Martes foina* Erxleben) and common genet (*Genetta genetta* L.). Our aim was to describe how forested habitat, prey availability and intra-specific competition influence the occupancy and detectability of these common mesocarnivores in a Mediterranean area, using camera traps in Sant Llorenç del Munt i l'Obac Natural Park (NE of the Iberian Peninsula) during five months between 2020 and 2021. We tested the following hypotheses: (1) predator occurrence is driven by seasonal dependence on food availability and the short-term prey density fluctuations on a carnivore home-range scale. If it is supported, we expect that mesocarnivore detectability and occupancy will be affected by intra-annual variations in small mammal occurrence, as well as predator–prey activity patterns showing overlaps, particularly impacting mesocarnivores that specialize in small mammal prey (Barrientos & Virgós, 2006; Carbone & Gittleman, 2002; Virgós et al., 1999). (2) Predator occurrence is driven by intra-specific competition with niche partitioning structuring carnivore coexistence and activity patterns. Consequently, we would expect to

see spatial and temporal niche partitioning among mesocarnivores (Vilella et al., 2020). (3) Habitat factors, specifically the amount of forest cover, positively influence predator occurrence. If supported, we should see mesocarnivore occupancy increase with greater forest cover, based on the habitat preferences of each focal species (Díaz et al., 2005; Mangas et al., 2008; Muñoz et al., 2009; Puig-Gironès & Pons, 2020).

Materials and methods

Study area and target species

The study area was Sant Llorenç del Munt i l'Obac Natural Park (henceforth PNSLL; Fig. 1), a 13 694-ha protected area in the Catalan Prelitoral Mountain Range (NE of Iberian Peninsula). With an altitudinal range of 280–1103 m a.s.l. it has a mid-altitude Mediterranean montane climate, precipitation around 500 mm per year and average temperatures remain around 15°C (Puig-Gironès et al., 2023). Forest covers 60% of its surface area, a consequence of multi-decadal rural abandonment since the 1950s (Carnicer et al., 2021). It is characterized by rocky outcrops and cliffs, whose crags and ridges are clothed chiefly by holm oak (*Quercus ilex* L.) and Aleppo pine (*Pinus halepensis* Mill.) woodland with an evergreen oak understory (Pintó & Panareda, 1995).

Since 2018, the Biodiversity Monitoring Centre of Mediterranean Mountains (CMBMM), have extensively monitored biodiversity indicators in the Natural Park (Puig-Gironès & Real, 2022). The terrestrial mammal community is one of the biodiversity elements that is monitored, particularly the mesocarnivore guild consisting of three potential predators of small mammals weighing from 1 to 15 kg (Prugh et al., 2009): genet, stone marten and red fox. These carnivores are widespread in the sampling area (Peris et al., 2011; Torre & Díaz, 2004), however, the common genet stands out as the most specialized rodent predator among them (Dupuy et al., 2009; Hanski et al., 1991). The European badger (*Meles meles* L.) and the least weasel (*Mustela nivalis* L.) are also present in the system but were not included in this study due to their low representation and/or a generalist and rodent-poor diet (Fig. 2). Small mammals, such as rodents and insectivores under 120 g, present in the system include mice, voles and shrews (Delany, 1974).

Camera trap survey

A 22-square grid (1.5 km sides) defined camera placement, based on the common Mediterranean carnivore species' average home ranges (Santos-Reis et al., 2005). A camera trap (Browning BTC-5HDPX) was strategically placed near (± 150 m) of the centre of each 2.25-km² square, forming a 4950-ha continuous sampling area (Fig. 1). Camera trapping has been effectively used for surveying medium and large mammals (Rovero & Zimmermann, 2016; Tobler et al., 2008), and is increasingly recognized as an efficient technique for identification and studying small mammals, such as rodents (Hopkins et al., 2024; Lamelas-López & Salgado, 2021; Swann & Perkins, 2014; Villette et al., 2016). Using camera traps in

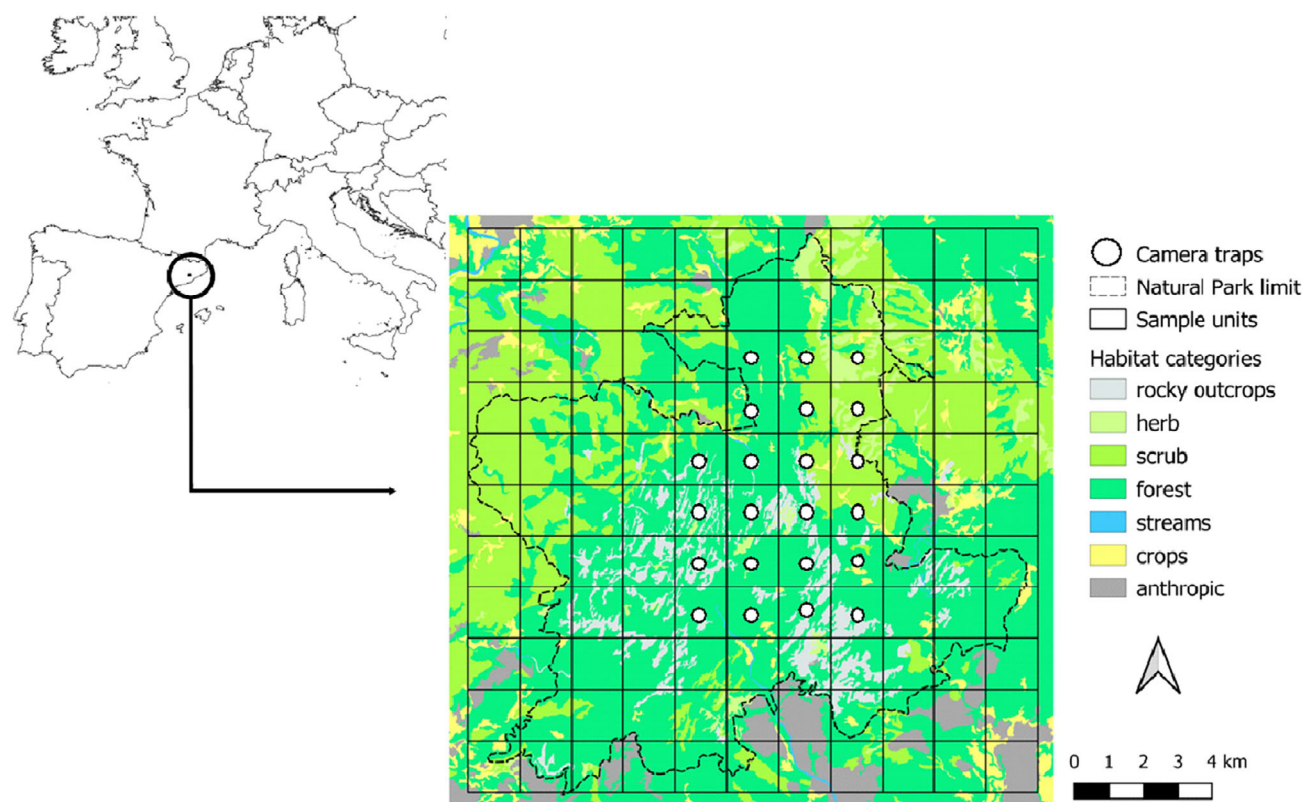


Figure 1 Study area at Sant Llorenç del Munt i l'Obac Natural Park, Catalonia, northeast Spain and the sampling unit grids, camera trap locations and habitat categories considered.

this study, the detection probability of small mammals was adequate for occupancy modelling (average of 0.46; 95% CI 0.32–0.59). Moreover, during dry and hot conditions, camera traps detected more small mammals than live Sherman traps in PNSLL, whereas both methods captured similar numbers during wet periods when their abundance was greater (unpublished data). Cameras were selectively placed along wildlife paths and trails within the squares to maximize the likelihood of detecting the target species. This placement strategy aimed to optimize the natural movement corridors of animals, enhancing the chances of capturing them without the use of lures or baits. By applying this strategy, cameras were positioned 20–50 cm above ground, oriented downward and focusing the camera at rocks or roots, which allowed for effective capture both medium-sized and small mammals (Taylor *et al.*, 2014; Viviano *et al.*, 2022). We obtained authorization from the Servei de Gestió de Parcs Naturals of the Diputació de Barcelona, local administration responsible for managing the Natural Park, to conduct this study.

Cameras operated 24-h a day, capturing three-photo bursts with a 10-s time interval between consecutive bursts. They recorded data for approximately five consecutive months (from December 2020 to May 2021). Considering that the target mesocarnivores do not have a preference for a specific small mammal species (Padial *et al.*, 2002), and the wood mouse (*Apodemus sylvaticus* L.) represents over 89% of the live

captures in the area (Puig-Gironès *et al.*, 2023), small mammals were not classified to the species level assuming that the vast majority of the photographs corresponded to this species. Therefore, we assumed wood mouse occupancy data as a proxy of small mammal abundance at locations and periods.

Data analyses

Spatial analysis

For dynamic spatial relationships between species, we used multi-season occupancy models in an unmarked R package (Fiske & Chandler, 2011) within R software (R Development Core Team, 2017). These dynamic models allowed simultaneous assessment of multiple sampling periods, showing variations in occupancy and detectability over time. Capture histories, required for occupancy models, were generated using the *camtrapR* package (Niedballa *et al.*, 2016). Capture histories were represented as binary values indicating species detection (1) or absence (0) at each sampling station (i.e., camera trap) on every capture occasion. To improve detection probability and reduce capture occasions, surveys were structured hierarchically in time. Primary occasions (season), each lasting 15 days, were considered as the highest temporal level. Within each season, three-day data were collapsed into a visit or capture occasions. This approach maintains consistency with

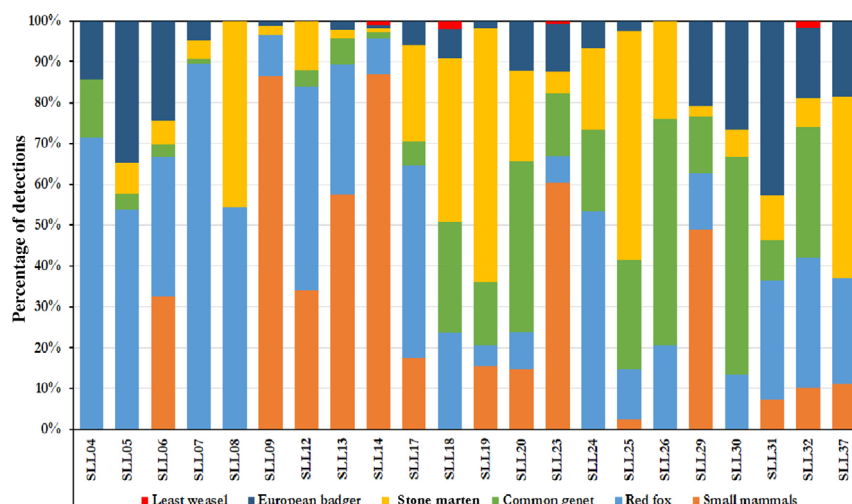


Figure 2 Percentage of independent camera trapping detections for each carnivore and small mammal species at each camera trap site.

carnivore models and applying the same method to small mammals allows for model comparison, enhances model homogeneity, increases detection probability and reduces temporal autocorrelation (Burton *et al.*, 2015; Kleiven *et al.*, 2023; Windell *et al.*, 2024).

Dynamic models for prey were calibrated with primary occasions (seasons) used as a categorical season-site-covariate influencing detection probability (p), colonization probability (γ) and extinction probability (ϵ). Habitat categories were not considered for small mammals due to insufficient resolution in available cartography (i.e. one hectare) to influence their occupancy. Prey occupancy estimates for each season and site were used as covariates in predator species occupancy models.

In mesocarnivore occupancy models (red fox, stone marten and common genet), small mammal occupancy estimates served as both occupancy and detection covariates. Therefore, it was considered that predator detectability could vary across sites within each season (15-day period). Colonization and extinction parameters also were contemplated that could vary between seasons for small mammal models, consistent with their rapid adaptability and population dynamics (Puig-Gironès & Pons, 2023; Rosário & Mathias, 2004). Conversely, for mesocarnivores, both parameters were assumed constant in the occupancy models due to the relatively short study period. Forest percentage was used as the site habitat variable, discarding all other habitats considered open (scrub, herbaceous, rocky and crops) in the carnivores analysed. To include forest habitat features, habitat percentages were extracted within each 1.5-km square of the camera grid (Fig. 1) from the PNSLL 1:10 000 habitat cover map (Mercadé & Ferré, 2019). Lastly, to assess possible interspecific relationships between carnivores, the estimates of the occupancy of each predator species were introduced as site covariates into the occupancy models of the other species.

Our model selection was ranked using the Akaike information criterion corrected for small sample size (AICc) (Burnham

& Anderson, 2002) employing the AICcmodavg (Mazerolle, 2023) R package. A model was considered most plausible in explaining the data if the next best models Δ AICc score was >2.0 (Burnham & Anderson, 2002).

Temporal analysis

Camera-trapping data was also used to calculate mesocarnivore and small mammal daily activity patterns using the kernel density function, a nonparametric method. Nycthemeral prey–predator and predator–predator temporal segregation were calculated using overlap coefficients in pairwise comparisons. Thereby, independent detections were only considered when two same-species pictures from the same camera were separated by a minimum one-hour interval. This interval is commonly used in camera-trapping studies and allows for maximizing independent contacts and obtaining an accurate estimate of daily activity patterns (Azevedo *et al.*, 2018; Bu *et al.*, 2016). Coefficients of overlap (Δ) ranged from 0 (no overlap) to 1 (total overlap). We categorized activity overlap based on the percentiles of overall pairwise comparisons (Monterroso *et al.*, 2014), with ‘low’ overlap as $\Delta \leq 50$ th percentile, ‘moderate’ overlap as 50th percentile $< \Delta \leq 75$ th percentile and ‘high’ overlap as $\Delta > 75$ th percentile. The overlap coefficient is defined as the area under both curves, taking the minimum of the two density functions at each time point. The analyses were performed using the *camtrapR* package (Niedballa *et al.*, 2016) applying the *Dhat* 4 (Δ_4) estimate since we had more than 75 observations for all species (Meredith & Ridout, 2018).

Results

Between December 2020 and May 2021, 3291 trap-nights provided 1251 independent records of target species: small mammals (451), genet (239), stone marten (214) and red fox (347). During this period, the small mammals were registered on

63.6% ($n = 14$) of sampling sites, red fox was photographed at all sampling points (100%; $n = 22$), while both stone marten (95.4%; $n = 21$) and genet (86.4%; $n = 19$) were detected at most sites (Fig. 2).

Although, our results showed that the best dynamic model for explaining small mammal occupancy incorporates within-season variation in detectability (Table 1), our first hypothesis—that small mammal availability influences mesocarnivore occupancy—was not supported, as mesocarnivore occupancy remained unaffected by small mammal occupancy.

However, we observed clear evidence that mesocarnivore detectability was influenced by the multi-season modelled occupancy of small mammals, with both genet ($\beta = 0.923$; 95% CIs = 0.412 to 1.433) and stone marten ($\beta = 0.785$; 95% CIs = 0.315 to 1.255) showing a positive significant effects (Fig. 3). In contrast, red fox detectability and occupancy was not influenced by any of the tested variables.

Regarding daily activity patterns, focal species were predominantly nocturnal, with small mammal activity peaking at mid-night, while mesocarnivores showed activity peaks at twilight

Table 1 The models with variables that affect occupancy and detectability, the degrees of freedom (d.f.), the difference in the Akaike Information Criterion corrected for small sample (ΔAIC_c), the AIC weight (AIC_w) and the cumulative AIC_w (ΣAIC_w)

	Candidate models	d.f.	AIC _c	ΔAIC_c	AIC _w	ΣAIC_w
Small mammal model	$p(\text{season}); \gamma(.)$ and $\epsilon(.)$	14	732.17	0	0.89	0.89
	γ and $p(\text{season}); \epsilon(.)$	23	736.45	4.28	0.11	1.0
	γ, ϵ and $p(\text{season})$	32	747.25	15.08	0.0	1.0
	Null	4	752.73	20.56	0.0	1.0
	$\gamma(\text{season}); \epsilon(.)$ and $p(.)$	13	755.52	23.35	0.0	1.0
	$\epsilon(\text{season}); \gamma(.)$ and $p(.)$	13	761.87	29.7	0.0	1.0
	γ and $\epsilon(\text{season}); p(.)$	22	763.89	31.72	0.0	1.0
	$p(\text{SMamml}); \psi(.)$	5	735.85	0	0.77	0.77
Genet model	$p(\text{SMamml}); \psi(\text{SMamml})$	6	738.38	2.53	0.22	0.99
	Null	4	745.23	9.38	0.01	1.0
	$p(.); \psi(\text{forest})$	5	747.45	11.6	0.0	1.0
	$p(\text{season}); \psi(.)$	14	820.02	84.17	0.0	1.0
	$p(\text{season}+\text{SMamml}); \psi(.)$	15	823.89	88.04	0.0	1.0
	$p(\text{SMamml}+\text{season}); \psi(\text{forest}+\text{SMamml})$	17	899.04	163.18	0.0	1.0
	$p(\text{SMamml}); \psi(.)$	5	820.55	0	0.82	0.82
	$p(\text{SMamml}); \psi(\text{SMamml})$	6	823.82	3.27	0.16	0.97
Stone marten model	Null	4	827.83	7.27	0.02	1.0
	$p(.); \psi \sim (\text{forest})$	5	831.05	10.49	0.0	1.0
	$p(\text{season}); \psi(.)$	14	891.55	70.99	0.0	1.0
	$p(\text{season}+\text{SMamml}); \psi(.)$	15	904.78	84.22	0.0	1.0
	$p(\text{SMamml}+\text{season}); \psi(\text{forest}+\text{SMamml})$	16	934.65	114.1	0.0	1.0
	Null	4	1054.85	0	0.7	0.7
	$p(.); \psi(\text{forest})$	5	1058.01	3.16	0.15	0.85
	$p(\text{SMamml}); \psi(.)$	5	1058.22	3.37	0.13	0.98
Red fox model	$p(\text{SMamml}); \psi(\text{SMamml})$	6	1061.85	6.99	0.02	1.0
	$p(\text{season}); \psi(.)$	14	1118	63.15	0.0	1.0
	$p(\text{season}+\text{SMamml}); \psi(.)$	15	1139.75	84.89	0.0	1.0
	$p(\text{SMamml}+\text{season}); \psi(\text{forest}+\text{SMamml})$	16	1170.11	115.25	0.0	1.0
	$p(\text{SMamml}); \psi(\text{vulvul})$	6	732.33	0	0.55	0.55
	$p(\text{SMamml}); \psi(\text{marfoi}+\text{vulvul})$	7	733.39	1.06	0.32	0.87
	$p(\text{SMamml}); \psi(.)$	5	735.85	3.52	0.09	0.97
	$p(\text{SMamml}); \psi(\text{mar_foi})$	6	737.9	5.57	0.03	1.0
Stone marten carnivore interactions model	$p(\text{SMamml}); \psi(.)$	5	820.55	0	0.69	0.69
	$p(\text{SMamml}); \psi(\text{vulvul})$	6	823.46	2.9	0.16	0.85
	$p(\text{SMamml}); \psi(\text{gengen})$	6	823.96	3.41	0.13	0.97
	$p(\text{SMamml}); \psi(\text{gengen}+\text{vulvul})$	7	827.16	6.61	0.03	1.0
Red fox carnivore interactions model	$p(.); \psi(.)$	4	1054.85	0	0.66	0.66
	$p(.); \psi(\text{gengen})$	5	1057.43	2.57	0.18	0.85
	$p(.); \psi(\text{marfoi})$	5	1058.24	3.39	0.12	0.97
	$p(.); \psi(\text{gengen}+\text{marfoi})$	6	1061	6.15	0.03	1.0

Where p represents the probability of detection, ψ is the probability of occupancy, γ represents the colonization and ϵ is the extinction probability. Dot (.) denotes no covariate effect on the parameter. SMamml corresponds to the small mammal modelled occupancy results, whereas gengen (genet), marfoi (stone marten) and vulvul (red fox) correspond to the carnivore best occupancy model.

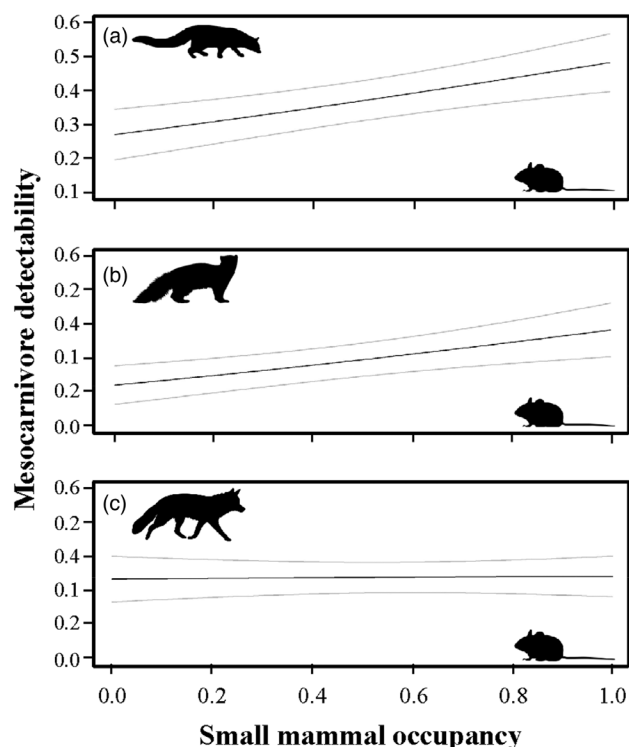


Figure 3 The variation in mesocarnivore detectability (line) and its corresponding confidence intervals (shadow) depending on wood mouse multi-season occupancy is shown in figure (a) for genet, (b) for stone marten and (c) for red fox.

and dawn (Fig. 4). Overlap values differed between the three prey–predator dyads: there was high overlap between small mammals and common genet ($\Delta_4 = 0.91$), moderate overlap with stone marten ($\Delta_4 = 0.85$) and low overlap with red fox ($\Delta_4 = 0.69$).

Considering our second hypothesis regarding mesocarnivore competition, the spatial influence of co-occurring carnivores on individual mesocarnivore occupancy revealed that genet occupancy was impacted by both red fox and stone marten presence, with the former negatively affecting genet occupancy ($\beta = -6.625$; 95% CIs = -12.912 to -0.338) and the latter having a non-significant positive effect ($\beta = 5.445$; 95% CIs = -3.443 to 14.335 ; Fig. 5). Stone marten and red fox occupancy was unaffected by other carnivores in our study area.

Referent to temporal overlaps between predators (Fig. 4), common genet and stone marten presented high overlap as potential small mammal predators and competitors ($\Delta_4 = 0.88$), whereas the red fox showed low overlap with genet ($\Delta_4 = 0.75$) and stone marten ($\Delta_4 = 0.79$).

Finally, no models supported our third hypothesis. Thus, forest cover does not appear to be a variable that significantly influences the occupancy or detectability of mesocarnivores, although, for the red fox, it was the second-best model.

Discussion

Prey distribution has been shown to influence predator occupancy (Dias et al., 2019; Kleiven et al., 2023; Moreno-Sosa et al., 2022; Sharief et al., 2022). However, our study did not find that relationship, but instead found it influenced predator detectability. A possible explanation includes small mammal occupancy variations in spring and summer, influenced by their rapid reproductive cycles (Palomo et al., 2007). Detecting changes in occurrence influenced by specific food availability on slower-life-cycle predators, especially common species that appear in more than 85% of the study area, is challenging. Nevertheless, our dynamic occupancy models showed a positive relationship between prey occupancy and predator detectability, specifically for small mammals–common genet and small mammals–stone marten dyads. The predator–prey relationship, wherein the occurrence of small mammals increases predator detectability, suggests a more predictable response to a food resource expressed by a more active behaviour of genets and stone martens in areas with greater small mammal availability. This could be explained by the seasonal dependence of both mesocarnivores on small mammals in their diet (Barrientos & Virgós, 2006; Virgós et al., 1999). However, this relationship was not observed in the red fox, a more generalist species (Padial et al., 2002), which further supports the link between diet specialization and response to prey.

Predation and anthropogenic disturbances lead to segregation in species' daily activity patterns (Barrientos & Virgós, 2006; Frey et al., 2017; Monterroso et al., 2013; Smith et al., 2019). Consistent with dynamic occupancy models, our results showed high overlaps in carnivore–small mammal activity patterns, particularly for the stricter nocturnal carnivores like the common genet and stone marten. Supporting our hypothesis, the genet, the most trophic specialist among the mesocarnivores studied (Rosalino & Santos-Reis, 2002) showed greater synchrony with small mammal activity, while stone marten, a medium specialist predator, showed moderate overlap. As expected, the red fox, known for its generalist behaviour (Carvalho & Gomes, 2004), exhibited the least activity overlap with small mammals. Small mammals were more active than predators at midnight, consistent with other studies in the same season and geographical region (Monterroso et al., 2013; Vilella et al., 2020). Shifts in the activity peaks of prey have been described as an avoidance strategy to evade predation (Brown et al., 2001; Díaz et al., 2005; Ferreiro-Arias et al., 2021).

Despite differences in reproductive rates, lifespan and home-range size, we provide evidence of the predator–prey relationship in the Mediterranean mountains, an ecosystem characterized by seasonal food availability and irregular population dynamics (Díaz et al., 2010). Small mammals were identified as the main factor to determine both genet and stone marten detectability, indicating the presence of clear predator–prey interactions (Puig-Gironès & Pons, 2020; Torre & Díaz, 2004; Vilella et al., 2020).

Interspecific competition for common resources among carnivores can significantly influence species' spatio-temporal

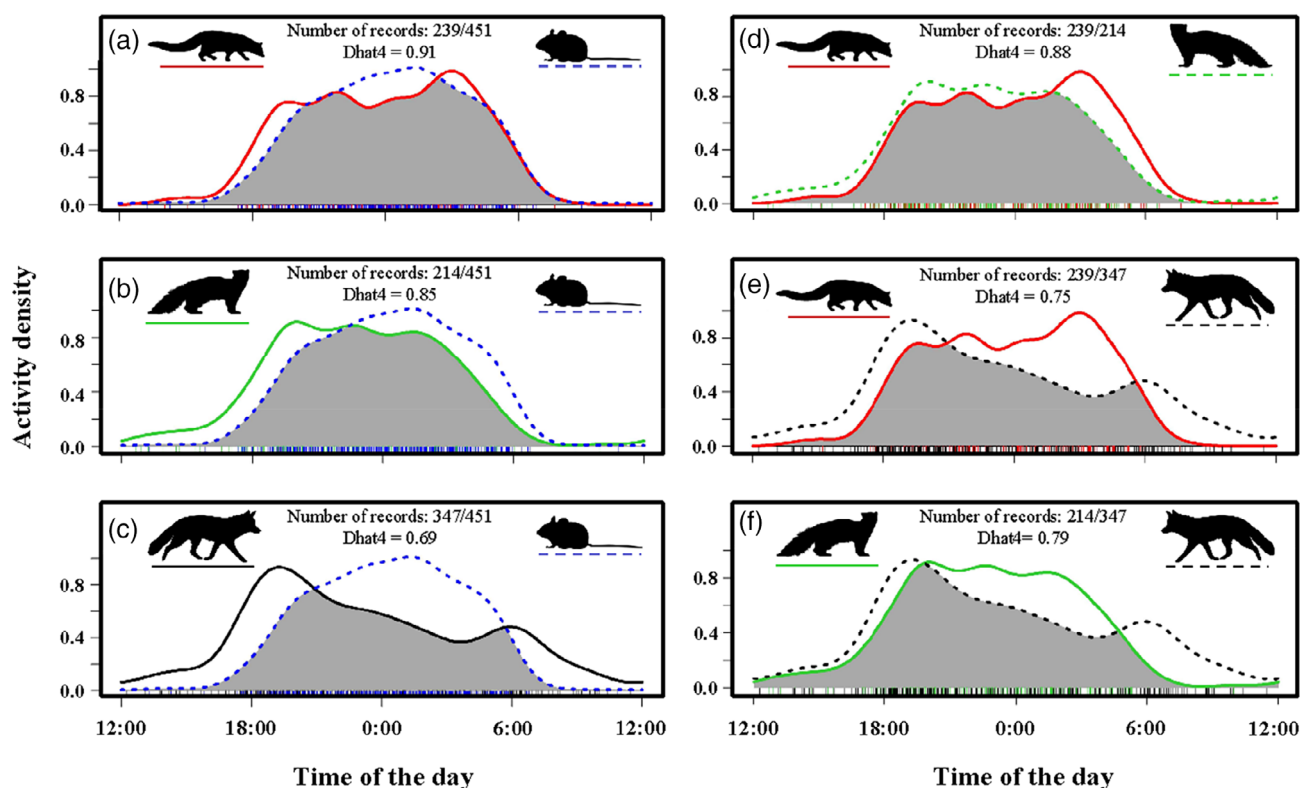


Figure 4 Activity overlap between carnivore species and wood mice (panels on the left): for (a) genet, (b) stone marten and (c) red fox. On the other side (panels on the right), the activity overlap among carnivores for (d) genet and stone marten, (e) genet and red fox and (f) stone marten and red fox.

dynamics (Ferreiro-Arias *et al.*, 2021; Karanth *et al.*, 2017), causing perceptible changes in occupancy patterns and abundance. Variation in the degree to which predators rely on specific prey species can result in separation in habitat use by different predator species. We found that common genet occupancy was inversely related to red fox. This spatio-temporal pattern may be explained by the habitat preferences, as the genet is a more specialized forest species compared to the generalist red fox. Although the red fox can predate on smaller carnivores (Casteneda *et al.*, 2022), and genets do spend time on the ground hunting prey and taking shelter in rocky outcrops (Virgós & Casanovas, 1997), they are primarily arboreal. Genets often spend considerable time climbing trees to hunt birds (Carvalho *et al.*, 2014) and resting in thickets and trees within areas of very dense vegetation, which are practically inaccessible to potential predators (Camps, 2011; Carvalho *et al.*, 2014). This arboreal behaviour makes them less accessible to red foxes. Additionally, trophic segregation reinforces this relationship. The common genet, a specialist in small mammals, exhibits activity patterns that differ from the generalist red fox. These factors contribute to the observed low diel activity overlap, as other authors found (Ferreiro-Arias *et al.*, 2021; Vilella *et al.*, 2020). The second-best model for common genet occurrence included stone marten occupancy as predictor. The positive influence of stone marten occupancy on genet occupancy could be a response to joint predation on

small mammals during certain seasons of the year and a similar habitat selection (Vilella *et al.*, 2020).

Genet and stone marten exhibit different degrees of preference for forest environments, while red fox and wood mice, the most abundant small mammal species in the study area, are habitat generalist species (Díaz *et al.*, 2005; Mangas *et al.*, 2008; Muñoz *et al.*, 2009; Puig-Gironès & Pons, 2020; Sunyer *et al.*, 2016; Torre *et al.*, 2022). However, in our carnivore occupancy models, the forest habitat variable did not appear as relevant in the best models for these species. The relative ubiquity of forest habitat—covering approximately 60% of the study area—may complicate the detection of selectivity or occupancy patterns. When a preferred habitat type is widely available, it becomes less likely to be identified as selected or influential (Åberg *et al.*, 2000). Additionally, the wide ranges of predator species within the predominantly forested sampling area may contribute to the lack of clear patterns in habitat selection for mesocarnivores. In addition, several factors beyond simple habitat types, like latitude, historical biogeography, macroclimatic variables and human impact may potentially influence mammal species richness (Ceballos & Brown, 1995; Fløjgaard *et al.*, 2011).

Mesocarnivores have a significant impact on ecosystem function, structure and dynamics (Ritchie & Johnson, 2009). Therefore, the diversity observed in resource and habitat use within this carnivore guild (Roemer *et al.*, 2009), may be

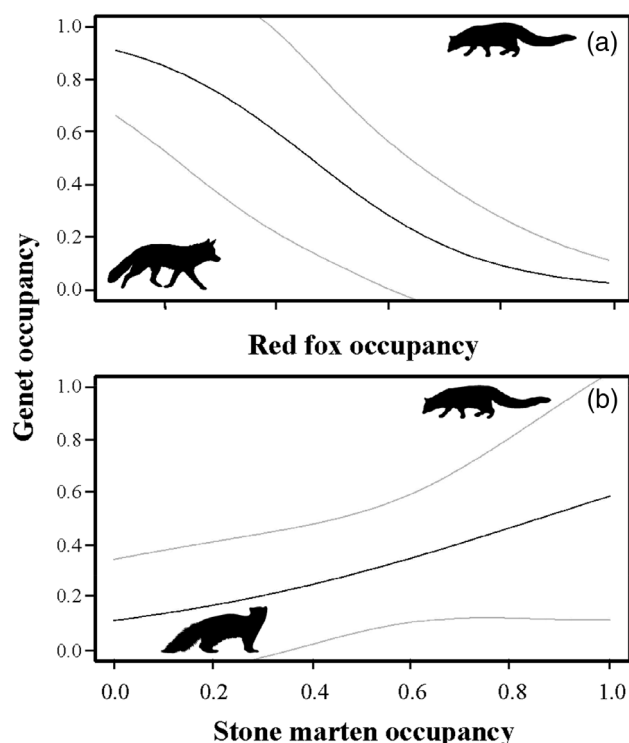


Figure 5 The variation in genet occupancy (line) and its corresponding confidence intervals (shadow) depending on (a) red fox and (b) stone marten occupancy.

crucial in maintaining intra-guild relationships and shaping species' ecological niches (Chesson, 2000). Our study reveals the spatial and temporal dynamics of predator guild and examines how interspecific relationships and predator–prey interactions facilitate and structure the coexistence of mesocarnivore assemblage. Understanding these species interactions is fundamental for biodiversity conservation in apex predator-free communities (Ripple *et al.*, 2014) and for effective decision-making.

Our results highlight the usefulness of camera trapping, a well-established method for monitoring medium- and large-sized unmarked animals (Gilbert *et al.*, 2021), in simultaneously obtaining data on smaller mammals (Ferreiro-Arias *et al.*, 2021; Lamelas-López & Salgado, 2021; Vilella *et al.*, 2020). Traditionally, the inclusion of small mammals in photographic analyses was limited by device sensitivity. Currently, aligning the methodology with predator detection not only improves modelling but also expands the focus, leading to a more comprehensive and realistic understanding of the ecosystem. Nevertheless, further studies should explore other variables such as additional food resource availability, and extend the results across full-year and inter-annual scales.

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Author contributions

AP, TM, MV and RP-G designed the methodology, the manuscript visualization and conceptualized the study. AP data curation and analysed the data. AP, MV and RP-G wrote the manuscript draft with inputs from TM, DP and JR. AP and RP-G wrote the review manuscripts and editing. JR and DP found the economic resources and project administration. All authors contributed critically to the draft manuscript and gave final approval for publication.

Conflict of interests

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

Data availability statement

Data are available on request.

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