

1 **Vegetation cover and food availability shapes the foraging activity of rodent**
2 **pests in and around maize fields.**

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11 **Abstract:**

12 Evidence-based information for smallholder farmers on where and when to conduct
13 rodent management is vital given that most are resource poor and depend on
14 agriculture for food and income. However, there is scarce information on how the
15 foraging activity of rodent pests changes over agricultural cropping seasons. We
16 used the concepts of giving-up-density (GUD) and landscape of fear to monitor how
17 the foraging activity of rodent pests changes in and around maize (*Zea mays*) fields
18 over the cropping season. We tested the hypothesis that the foraging activity of
19 rodent pests will be influenced by vegetation cover, perceived predation risk and
20 food availability. *Mastomys natalensis* was the dominant species in all maize fields (n
21 = 3, 87.05% of the total captures). We observed that the foraging activity of rodents
22 was influenced by vegetation cover and food availability. During the germination
23 stage, rodent activity in the natural habitat and along the border was higher than
24 inside the maize fields. During land preparation, planting, weeding, maize tasselling,

25 maturity, and post-harvest stages, there was no difference in the foraging activity in
26 and around the maize fields. During the harvest stage, the foraging activity was
27 higher in the maize fields than along the border and in the natural habitat. These
28 results can be used to guide smallholder farmers where and when to focus rodent
29 control measures during different stages of the cropping season. An additional
30 approach would be to develop strategies that could potentially increase rodent fear
31 perceptions in cropping landscapes.

32 **Keywords:** Rodent pests, *Mastomys natalensis*, foraging activity, maize field, giving-
33 up-density, landscape of fear

34 1. Introduction

35 Rodent pests damage maize crops before and after harvest (Skonhofs *et al.*, 2006;
36 Swanepoel *et al.*, 2017). Mostly, rodent pests damage maize crops during the
37 germination (Mulungu *et al.*, 2005) and maturation stages (Mulungu, 2017). At the
38 germination stage, rodents dig up and consume germinating maize seeds (Mulungu
39 *et al.*, 2007) leading to either a regular distribution of damage in mosaic fields or a
40 more random distribution in monoculture fields (Mulungu *et al.*, 2005). At the
41 maturation stage, rodents consume both fresh and dry grains when the maize plants
42 are standing or on the ground (Mulungu, 2017). Population dynamics and
43 competition for available food resources partly accounts for observed heterogeneous
44 damage patterns (Mohr *et al.*, 2003). Predation risk, land preparation methods and
45 soil type can also account for the heterogeneous damage by indirectly or directly
46 affecting the population dynamics of rodents (Mulungu *et al.*, 2005). Therefore, either
47 random or stratified sampling methods could be used to assess rodent damage in
48 maize fields (Mulungu *et al.*, 2007). In maize cropping systems, little is known both

49 about how the foraging activity of rodent pests changes over the cropping season
50 and how this may affect crop damage, particularly in relation to harbourage provided
51 by field margin vegetation and the maize crop itself. Maintaining field margin
52 vegetation is increasingly recognised as important in facilitating crop pollination and
53 conservation biological control of insect pests (Arnold *et al.*, 2021; Ochieng *et al.*,
54 2022), but such vegetation could potentially exacerbate the presence of rodent pests
55 (Jacob, 2008; Rodríguez-Pastor *et al.*, 2016).

56 Understanding the foraging activity of rodent pests is important to enable sustainable
57 control to reduce their impact and damage (Belmain, 2010; Krijger *et al.*, 2017).
58 Foraging activity has been strongly correlated with vegetation cover in several
59 studies. In Philippines, *Rattus tanezumi* spent more time foraging at the centre of the
60 rice fields than on the field edges (border), where there was less vegetation cover
61 (Jones *et al.*, 2017). Evidence suggests that rodents in agricultural landscapes
62 spend more time foraging in areas where they perceive the least fear from predation
63 (Ylonen *et al.*, 2002). Understanding how the foraging activity of rodents changes
64 over the maize growing season could help to develop management strategies that
65 incorporate the 'landscape of fear' (LOF) concept (Laundré *et al.*, 2001) and thereby
66 reduce rodent foraging in cropping areas. Furthermore, evidence-based information
67 on where and when to conduct rodent management can help to prevent rodent
68 outbreaks and is vital given that most farmers are resource poor and depend on
69 agriculture for food and income (Swanepoel *et al.*, 2017; Taylor *et al.*, 2012).

70 To monitor and/or map the foraging activity of rodents across the maize growing
71 season, one technique that can be exploited is the giving-up-density (GUD)
72 approach, which attempts to characterise the LOF for a species in a habitat. The LoF

73 is “the spatially explicit distribution of perceived predation risk as seen by a prey
74 population” (Bleicher, 2017; Gaynor *et al.*, 2019). The perceived predation risk (cost
75 of foraging) of a population can be measured by the GUD (Brown and Kotler, 2004).
76 According to Johnson and Horn (2008), a forager abandons a patch quickly when
77 the perceived risk of predation is high, leaving behind greater density of food
78 compared to when the perceived risk of predation is low. In many crops, landscape
79 features can affect both domestic and wild predators that prey on rodents (Pita *et al.*,
80 2009; Fischer and Schröder, 2014; St. George and Johnson, 2021), as can the
81 presence of farmers regularly tending their fields who may influence the spatial
82 behaviour of rodents (Jones *et al.*, 2017). Rodents use both direct (predator odours)
83 and indirect (habitat type and weather conditions) cues to assess the risk of
84 predation in a particular patch (Orrock *et al.*, 2004).

85 GUDs have been successfully used to understand the foraging activity of rodents in
86 rice fields (Jones *et al.*, 2017), maize fields (Mohr *et al.*, 2003), wheatfields (Ylonen
87 *et al.*, 2002) and in natural habitats (Wheeler and Hik, 2014; Yang *et al.*, 2016;
88 Loggins *et al.*, 2019). Despite the application of GUD studies on rodents, few papers
89 directly apply GUDs to assess rodent management strategies (Krijger *et al.*, 2017).
90 Currently, most rodent management strategies in maize cropping systems do not
91 incorporate the rodent’s landscape of fear which could increase their efficiency and
92 reduce damage to maize crops. To address these shortcomings and highlight how
93 GUD studies could refine management strategies beyond the usual measures of
94 abundance or activity, the current study interprets the results with consideration of
95 rodent pest management strategies by recommending areas (in and around maize
96 fields) where farmers should focus pest control during different times of the maize
97 cropping season, i.e., areas where rodents perceive the lowest levels of predation

98 (Krijger *et al.*, 2017). This is the first application of GUDs and LOF in Africa to
99 understand how the foraging activity of rodent pest species in and around maize
100 fields changes across a growing season.

101 We tested the hypothesis that the foraging activity of rodents in a maize cropping
102 system is influenced by vegetation cover and food availability. We predicted that
103 rodents will have: (i) lower foraging activity in the maize fields than along the border
104 and in the adjacent natural habitat during the land preparation, planting, germination
105 and post-harvest stages (when the maize fields have less vegetation cover and less
106 food resources (grains)); (ii) equal foraging activity in maize fields and adjacent
107 natural habitat from the weeding to maize tasselling stages when the vegetation
108 cover in the maize fields increases; and (iii) the foraging activity will be higher in the
109 maize fields than the adjacent habitat during the maturity, and harvest stages due to
110 increased food resources (maize grains) and vegetation cover. This study will help to
111 understand how different habitats may affect anti-predator and foraging activity and
112 could guide rodent damage assessments (Jones *et al.*, 2017) and guide future
113 ecologically-based rodent management strategies (Krijger *et al.*, 2017) in maize
114 cropping systems.

115 **2. Materials and methods**

116 *2.1. Experimental Design*

117 Four maize fields located adjacent to a natural habitat in Luto agricultural camp,
118 Kitwe, Zambia (located between 12.94S,28.17E and 12.93S,28.20E) were selected
119 for this study (Fig. 1). The maize fields ranged from 2 to 4 hectares.

120 Prior to the main study, a pilot study was conducted to establish the best food (e.g.,
121 groundnuts, sunflower kernels, or pumpkin seeds), feeder (e.g., plastic, or wooden
122 trays) and substrate type (sand or soil from the fields) for GUD estimates (Bedoya-
123 Perez *et al.*, 2013). The pilot study involved placing 20 seeds of a single type
124 (groundnuts, sunflower kernels, or pumpkin seeds) in separate plastic or wooden
125 trays (18 buried and 2 placed on the top) filled with either sand or soil from the fields.
126 Trays contained small drainage holes in the bottom to allow rain water to drain
127 through. The trays were left in fields for three consecutive nights, counting the
128 number of seeds remaining each morning, and resetting to 20 seeds each night.
129 Pilot data indicated sunflower kernels and pumpkin seeds were more difficult to
130 recover than groundnuts when counting the number of seeds remaining, especially if
131 it had rained. Hence, we settled for groundnuts as the best food for the main study.
132 Plastic trays were preferred over wooden trays because wooden trays were soaked
133 by the rains making them difficult to carry around. Rodent activity was generally
134 lower in trays filled with sand, possibly because the sand increased neophobic
135 behaviour of rodents as sand is not commonly found in the area. Therefore, we used
136 soils from the fields as the substrate type for the main study. Thus the main study
137 was developed using four plastic trays with 20 m spacing between the trays (Ylonen
138 *et al.*, 2002) which were placed along five transects. The first transect was laid along
139 the border (field edge) of the maize field (transect #3), and two were at 20 m and 40
140 m either side of the border transect in maize fields (transects 1 and 2) and natural
141 habitat (transects 4 and 5), respectively (Fig. 2).

142 Twenty groundnuts were placed in each tray, 18 buried in soil and 2 placed on the
143 top (Jones *et al.*, 2017). The foraging activity was monitored for three consecutive
144 days (in the morning), with trays restocked with 20 groundnuts each day. The GUD

145 was assessed by counting the number of seeds remaining in the tray (Brown, 1988).
146 To confirm rodent activity at the feeding patches, a Bushnell Trophy Cam HD
147 Essential Trail camera trap was placed in one patch per field at the beginning of the
148 study (Fig. 3) (see Bedoya-Perez et al., (2013)). The camera traps were set to record
149 24 h per day with a 30 s delay between detections (Williams *et al.*, 2018; Rich *et al.*,
150 2017). The following parameters were set on the camera traps; take three photos
151 (8M pixel) per trigger, sensor level at auto, NV shutter at medium and time stamp on.
152 The camera traps were set 20 cm (Ramesh and Downs, 2015; Meek *et al.*, 2012)
153 above the ground on a wooden pole. The plastic tray was placed 1.5 m in front of the
154 camera trap (Glen *et al.*, 2016; Meek *et al.*, 2012).

155 Foraging activity was assessed monthly (4-week intervals) during the maize growing
156 season (October to July), while the populations of rodents in the maize fields were
157 monitored monthly following the capture-mark-recapture (CMR) procedure in fields
158 1-3 as part of another study which examined the population dynamics of small
159 mammals in maize fields (Imakando, 2021). A 70 m x 70 m permanent trapping grid
160 was established in the centre of each maize field. Each trapping grid had seven trap
161 lines, 10 m apart. Seven trapping stations, 10 m apart, were marked on each trap
162 line. One Sherman live-trap, baited with a mixture of peanut butter and maize bran,
163 was set in each trapping station. The traps were set in the evening and checked in
164 the morning for three consecutive days in each grid. On the first capture, all animals
165 were toe-clipped using sterile scissors. This study was initially conducted during the
166 2018/2019 maize cropping season and repeated in the 2019/2020 maize cropping
167 season.

168 2.2. Statistical analysis

169 An independent samples t-test, with Levene’s Test for equality of variance, was used
170 to compare the GUD results from 2018/2019 and 2019/2020 cropping seasons. A
171 two-way ANOVA using general linear mixed-effects model “package lme4” (Bates *et*
172 *al.*, 2019) was used to analyse the effect of distance (transect location) and crop
173 stage on angular transformed GUDs (proportion of groundnuts remaining) (Laundré
174 *et al.*, 2001; Kasuya, 2004). Tukey’s post hoc comparisons were conducted on
175 distance (transects) and crop stage using the package ‘multcomp’ (Hothorn *et al.*,
176 2019). All analyses were conducted in R version 3.6.1 (R Core Team, 2019). We
177 used the minimum number of animals known to be alive (MNA) method to calculate
178 the population of rodents during each stage.

179 3. Results

180 3.1. Rodent species and population dynamics.

181 From the CMR data, the most common rodent species in maize fields was *Mastomys*
182 *natalensis* (87.05% of the total captures, Table 1).

183 **Table 1**

184 Species composition of small mammals (rodents and shrews) captured in three
185 maize fields in Kitwe, Zambia, with species ordered by overall abundance. The
186 numbers in brackets are percentage composition of each species.

species	Fields			
	Luto 1	Luto 2	Luto 3	Overall
<i>Mastomys natalensis</i>	131 (72.78%)	396 (91.45%)	347 (88.75%)	874 (87.05%)
<i>Mus minutoides</i>	23 (12.78%)	15 (3.46%)	18 (4.60%)	56 (5.58%)
<i>Crocidura hirta</i>	14 (7.78%)	6 (1.39%)	11 (2.05%)	28 (2.79%)

<i>Steatomys pratensis</i>	2 (1.11%)	3 (0.69%)	11 (2.81%)	16 (1.59%)
<i>Saccostomus campestris</i>	5 (2.78%)	7 (1.62%)	1 (0.26%)	13 (1.29%)
<i>Gerbilliscus leucogaster</i>	3 (1.67%)	6 (1.67%)	1 (0.26%)	10 (1.00%)
<i>Elephantulus brachyrhynchus</i>	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	2 (0.51%)	2 (0.2%)
<i>Rattus rattus</i>	1 (0.56%)	0 (0%)	1 (0.26%)	2 (0.2%)
<i>Lemniscomys rosalia</i>	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	1 (0.26%)	1 (0.1%)
<i>Acomys spinosissimus</i>	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	1 (0.26%)	1 (0.1%)
<i>Arvicanthis niloticus</i>	1 (0.56%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	1 (0.1%)
Total	180 (100%)	433 (100 %)	391 (100 %)	1004 (100%)
Species richness	8	6	10	11
Shannon-weaver Diversity index	0.97	0.42	0.56	0.56

187

188 The density of rodents was low during the planting period and increased as the
 189 vegetation increased in the maize fields. The highest rodent density in maize fields
 190 was observed during the harvest stage and just before the fields are cleared (May-
 191 June). Population density reduced during land preparation post-harvest, especially
 192 after clearing of the fields (Fig. 4).

193 *3.2. Changes in the foraging activity of rodent pest species in and around maize*
 194 *fields.*

195 Motion sensitive camera traps confirmed that *M. natalensis* was the rodent species
 196 that frequently visited the GUDs. An independent samples t-test was conducted to
 197 examine GUD differences between the 2018/2019 and 2019/2022 cropping seasons.
 198 Levene's Test for equality of variances showed no violations, $p = 0.289$. In general,
 199 the GUD results from the 2018/2019 season and 2019/2020 season were not
 200 significant different ($t(88) = 1.201, p = 0.233$), so the data were combined during the
 201 analyses. Due to differences in the planting and harvest times between farmers, the
 202 results from December and January were combined as "germination stage" while the
 203 results from June and July were combined as "post-harvest" during the analyses, but

204 these were separated when constructing a heat map on spatial use. In general, the
205 foraging activity of rodents was highest (i.e., lowest GUD) during the germination
206 stage (mean GUD = 50.5) while lowest during the land preparation and post-harvest
207 stages (mean GUD = 58.0 at both crop stages). From the two-way ANOVA, overall,
208 there was a significant effect of distance for crop stage ($F_{7,40} = 11.228$, $p < 0.001$)
209 and the interaction between the effects of distance and crop stage on the GUD
210 ($F_{28,40} = 4.723$, $p < 0.001$), but no effect of distance on the GUD ($F_{4,40} = 1.631$, $p =$
211 0.185).

212 For distance from the edge of crops and natural habitat (transect), Tukey's post-hoc
213 tests revealed that rodent activity was affected during maize germination and harvest
214 stages, whereas rodent activity was similar on all transects during the other stages
215 (see Supplementary Table S2). During the maize germination stage, rodent activity
216 was higher on transect 5 (40 m into the natural habitat; mean GUD = 37) than on
217 transects 1 (mean GUD = 59; $t = - 6.551$, $p < 0.001$), 2 (mean GUD = 58; $t = - 6.039$,
218 $p < 0.001$) and 3 (mean GUD = 53; $t = - 3.941$, $p = 0.001$). Additionally, rodent
219 activity was higher on transect 4 (20 meters into the natural forest; mean GUD = 43)
220 than on transects 1 ($t = - 4.528$, $p < 0.001$), and 2 ($t = - 4.016$, $p < 0.001$) during the
221 germination stage. However, rodent activity during the harvest stage was higher on
222 transect 1 (40 meters into the maize field; mean GUD = 50) than on transects 3
223 (mean GUD = 59; $t = 2.935$, $p = 0.034$), 4 (mean GUD = 60; $t = 3.277$, $p = 0.013$)
224 and 5 (mean GUD = 59; $t = 2.817$, $p = 0.047$).

225 Rodent activity was higher during the germination stage than during land
226 preparation, planting, weeding, maturation, harvest and post-harvest crop stages
227 [(LP vs. G; $z = - 5.690$, $p < 0.001$); (P vs. G; $z = - 4.757$, $p < 0.001$); (G vs. W; $z =$

228 3.401, $p = 0.015$); (G vs. M; $z = 3.409$, $p = 0.015$); (G vs. H; $z = 5.418$, $p < 0.001$);
229 and (G vs. PH; $z = 6.757$, $p < 0.001$)]. Rodent activity also was higher during the
230 maize tasselling stage than land preparation ($z = -3.154$, $p = 0.034$); and higher
231 during the weeding stage than harvest stage ($z = 3.262$, $p = 0.024$) (see
232 Supplementary Table S3). The changes in the foraging activity of rodents in and
233 around maize fields can be summarised using a heat map (Fig. 5).

234 **4. Discussion**

235 This is the first study to document how the foraging activity of rodents in and around
236 maize fields changes across the growing season. As predicted, the foraging activity
237 of rodents over the maize growing season was influenced by vegetation cover and
238 food availability. Higher rodent activity occurred in the adjacent natural habitat than
239 along and inside the maize field during the germination period. Uniform/equal rodent
240 activity in the adjacent natural habitat, along the border and inside maize fields
241 occurred during the land preparation, planting, weeding, maize tasselling, maturity,
242 and post-harvest stages. During the harvesting period rodent activity was
243 significantly higher inside the maize fields than along the border and adjacent natural
244 habitat. These results provide evidence-based information on how rodent foraging
245 activity changes across the maize growing season. Krijger et al., (2017) suggested
246 that focusing rodent pest management in those areas where rodents perceived the
247 lowest predation risk could be more effective and efficient. Therefore, in
248 management terms, our findings suggest that farmers are likely to have greater
249 success managing rodent pests during the germination of the maize crop by focusing
250 rodent control measures in the natural habitats adjacent to the maize fields rather
251 than inside or along the edge of maize fields. From the weeding to maturation

252 stages, equal success would be achieved if rodent control measures are
253 concentrated inside, along the edge of maize fields or in the natural habitat adjacent
254 to the maize fields. During the harvest stage, greater success in managing rodent
255 pests could be achieved if rodent control measures are concentrated inside the
256 maize fields than if rodent control measures are concentrated along the field border
257 or in the natural habitat adjacent to the maize fields. However, it is necessary to
258 survey the species composition in all the habitats before application of control
259 measures to minimize non-target implications of rodent control in natural habitats.
260 Therefore, our findings can be used by small holder farmers to focus rodent
261 management strategies efficiently and effectively at different stages in the maize
262 cropping season, which in turn will reduce the cost for controlling rodent pest species
263 and losses of the crops.

264 Earlier work in maize fields in Tanzania have shown that vegetation cover plays an
265 important role in the foraging, habitat preference and population dynamics of
266 rodents, particularly *M. natalensis* (Leirs *et al.*, 1996; Mohr *et al.*, 2003). Leirs *et al.*,
267 (1996) reported that *M. natalensis* preferred (i.e., was more active in) areas with
268 vegetation cover while tending to avoid open spaces, especially during periods of
269 low density. Corroborating this finding, Mohr *et al.*, (2003) used GUD and video
270 evidence to show that *M. natalensis* perceived lower predation risk in feeding
271 patches with cover than in open patches. Elsewhere, research on the foraging
272 activity of other rodents using GUDs suggests that rodent foraging activity is shaped
273 by the perceived predation risk (Ylonen *et al.*, 2002; Orrock *et al.*, 2004; Wheeler and
274 Hik, 2014; Jones *et al.*, 2017). Jones *et al.* (2017) found that the foraging activity of
275 *Rattus tanezumi* in rice fields in the Philippines was shaped by the perceived
276 predation risk whereby more damage was observed in the middle of the rice fields

277 (with more vegetation cover) than on the borders and rice bund, with no vegetation.
278 Ylonen et al. (2002) reported that prior to harvest of wheat in southern Australia,
279 house mice, *Mus domesticus*, were mainly in the crop. Similarly, Oldfield mice,
280 *Peromyscus polionotus*, in South Carolina, USA, were found to remove more seeds
281 in areas with vegetation cover than outside of cover (Orrock *et al.*, 2004). In Canada,
282 the arctic ground squirrel, *Urocitellus parryii*, exhibited habitat specific strategies to
283 minimise predation risk by foraging more in tundra and shrub-tundra habitats while
284 avoiding the shrub-dominated habitat, which reduced their visibility and increased
285 predation risk (Wheeler and Hik, 2014). All of these studies highlight the importance
286 of vegetation cover as a feature of small mammal behaviour to avoid predation,
287 which aligns with the conclusions from our study.

288 Increased rodent activity around maize fields during the germination stage was
289 reported in other studies (Stenseth *et al.*, 2003; Mulungu *et al.*, 2007). However, the
290 findings in our study indicate that rodent activity was only high in the adjacent natural
291 habitat and along the border during germination of the maize crop. This indicates
292 that, during the germination stage, the perceived predation risk was higher inside the
293 maize fields than along the border and adjacent natural habitat, corroborating the
294 studies by Johnson and Horn (2008) and Jones et al., (2017), who reported that
295 rodents perceived open areas to be riskier than areas with cover. Similarly, Key
296 (1990) found that pre-harvest maize damage from the African ground squirrel
297 occurred at the edges of the fields than in the middle and that they used the edges of
298 the field for refuge when disturbed while feeding in the fields. However, when
299 farming methods that lead to less disturbance to rodent burrows and increased cover
300 and food supply, such as conservation agriculture, mice become resident in fields all
301 the time, rather than retreating to field edges (Ruscoe *et al.*, 2022). This indicates

302 that foraging activity of rodents in maize fields is shaped by their perceived predation
303 risk. Therefore, high GUDs during the land preparation stage on all transects may be
304 because at this stage the maize fields were cleared and, even in the natural habitat,
305 the vegetation cover is dry and minimal.

306 As the height of maize and vegetation increased inside the maize fields (from the
307 weeding to maturation stages), there was no difference in the mean GUD between
308 the natural habitat and maize field transects indicating that the perceived predation
309 was equal in the forest, along the margin and inside the maize field. This further
310 supports the contention that rodent foraging activity is shaped by vegetation cover
311 (Brown, 1988; Mohr *et al.*, 2003). Vegetative cover provides shelter for rodents,
312 leading to reduced detection probability and capture by predators (Banasiak and
313 Shrader, 2016) and thus reduces the perceived predation risk and increases the
314 foraging activity of rodent species (Loggins *et al.*, 2019). A limitation of our study is
315 that we are unable to comment on whether the different rodent species found in the
316 study area respond to vegetation cover in the same way. Further studies, for
317 example using camera traps, are recommended to understand whether there are
318 detectible differences in the way different small mammal species within the same
319 habitat respond to GUDs, vegetation cover and predation risk. As our study area is
320 dominated by *M. natalensis*, we can expect our results closely align with the
321 behaviour of this species.

322 Increased rodent activity inside the maize fields compared to along the border and
323 adjacent habitat during the harvest stage suggests that, at this stage, the foraging
324 activity was shaped by both vegetation and increased availability of food resources
325 (Sluydts *et al.*, 2007). In addition, the harvest stage (May) coincided with the peak

326 rodent population (see Fig. 4) in maize fields. When presented with patches of equal
327 vegetation cover, food availability becomes important in explaining the foraging
328 activity of rodents. This finding supports the hypothesis that rodents select to forage
329 in habitats and microhabitats where the perceived risk of predation is low (Brown,
330 1988; Jacob and Brown, 2000; Ylonen *et al.*, 2002). These findings support the
331 suggestion that rodent management during the harvest stage would be more
332 successful by placing baits inside the maize field than along the border or adjacent
333 natural habitat.

334 In conclusion, GUD was successfully used to monitor rodent foraging activity in and
335 around maize fields over the maize cropping season. Rodent activity was driven by
336 vegetation cover and food availability. Based on our findings, during the germination
337 period, rodent control measures should be concentrated along the maize fields
338 edges and in the natural habitat adjacent to maize fields while during the harvest
339 period rodent control measures should be concentrated inside the maize fields. This
340 information will help smallholder farmers to be more efficient and effective in rodent
341 control by focusing their management strategies in areas of perceived reduced
342 predation risk (Krijger *et al.*, 2017). We recommend further research, such as using
343 rodenticide baits or methods of trapping (e.g., linear trap barrier) at different times of
344 the growing season and at different distances from the maize field, to assess the
345 effect on rodent population dynamics and associated crop losses. Follow up studies
346 should also collect and include data on plant biomass on field edges and within fields
347 to track the changes over time and then assess how these changes affect rodent
348 foraging activity. Additionally, farming practices such as tractor ploughing and
349 management of the vegetation around fields margins can be used to increase
350 predation risk (Brown *et al.*, 2004; Massawe *et al.*, 2006). Target rodent pest species

351 and non-target impacts should be surveyed in adjacent natural habitats, particularly
352 as these habitats provide a range of ecosystem services beneficial to agricultural
353 production (Hatt *et al.*, 2017; Lindell *et al.*, 2018; Mkenda *et al.*, 2019) where trade-
354 offs between the management of rodents, insects, and weeds as well as crop
355 pollination services need careful cost-benefit assessments (Wegner and Pascual,
356 2011; Wratten *et al.*, 2012; Williams *et al.*, 2018).

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366 **Author contributions**

367 ICI and SRB conceived the topic. ICI, SRB, MFG and GRS conceived the research.
368 ICI conducted the field work and analyzed the data. All the authors contributed to the
369 writing of the manuscript.

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535 **Figure legends:**

536 **Fig. 1.** Map showing the location of the four maize fields in Luto agricultural camp,
537 Kitwe, Copperbelt Province, Zambia.

538 **Fig 2.** Layout of GUD trays in and around maize fields. The distance between the
539 trays and transects was 20 m.

540 **Fig. 3.** Camera trap image of *Mastomys natalensis* feeding from a tray used in
541 assessing giving up density. Camera type (Bushnell Trophy Cam HD Essential Trail
542 Camera) produces a 'black' infrared flash that does not disturb mammal behaviour.

543 **Fig. 4.** Mean monthly rodent abundance (minimum number known to be alive) in
544 maize fields (n = 3) in Kitwe, Zambia. The letters below the months represents
545 seasons; WW, warm-wet season (November to April); CD, cold-dry season (April to
546 August); HD, hot-dry season (September to October).

547 **Fig. 5.** Heat map showing rodent foraging activity across the maize growing season.
548 The lower the mean GUD, the higher the rodent foraging activity and vice versa. The
549 letters on the x-axis represent crop stage; LP = land preparation (October); P =
550 planting stage (November); G = germination stages (December and January); W =

551 weeding stage (February); MT = maize tasselling stage (March); M = maturity stage
552 (April); H = harvesting stage (May); and PH = post-harvest stage (June and July).