

Termite activity and decomposition are influenced by digging mammal reintroductions along an aridity gradient

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- 1 Termite activity and decomposition are influenced by digging mammal
- 2 **<u>reintroductions</u>**
- 3
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- 11

12 Abstract

13	The decline of species Species declines can have broader impacts on ecosystems, particularly when
14	those species act as ecosystem engineers. Ecosystem engineers modify habitats and therefore indirectly
15	shape plant and animal communities. However, environmental attributes, such as aridity, may influence
16	the direct effect of engineers on habitat properties, indirectly affecting other species and the functions
17	they perform. We used three sites where endangered digging mammals had been reintroduced to test the
18	hypotheses that: 1. digging mammal reintroductions affect resource consumption and abandonment by
19	termites, and 2. locality attributes, such as aridity, influences termite interactions with reintroduced
20	mammals. We performed two manipulative experiments to test these hypotheses. First, we tested the
21	effects of burial resource depth on termite consumption of resources (toilet rolls). Here, resource depth
22	was a proxy for disturbance intensity by reintroduced mammals, with shallow rolls expected to
23	experience more disturbance. Second, we tested resource abandonment by termites in response to
24	simulated disturbances by determining the proportion of termites remaining at disturbed resources
25	relative to undisturbed controls over time. Both experiments were conducted at all three aridity
26	levelssites, inside and outside exotic predator and exotic digging mammal-free reserves. We discovered
27	that: 1. resource consumption was ~25% lower, and resource abandonment ~50% higher where digging
28	mammals were reintroduced; and 2. termite responses to reintroduced digging mammalsmammal
29	reintroduction became less pronounced_potentially_as aridity increased. We thus showed that the The
30	near-extinction of digging mammals from much of Australia is likely to have significantly altered
31	termite behaviour and termite-drivenactivity and decomposition, but that impacts may-potentially
32	depend on aridity. Our work should also be considered in the context of reserve carrying capacities as it
33	suggests, counterintuitively, that ecosystem impacts of reintroductions may be lower in resource-poor
34	sites.

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35 Keywords: Climatic gradient, Critical weight range mammal, Decomposition, Ecosystem engineer,

36 Interactions, Termite

37 1. Introduction

- 38 Recent declines in biodiversity have been dramatic (e.g. Colwell et al., 2012; Dunn et al., 2009),
- 39 resulting in significant changes to ecosystem functioning and species assemblages (Boyer and Jetz,
- 40 2014; Brodie et al., 2014; Feer and Boissier, 2015; Silvey et al., 2015). Australia has the fourth- highest
- 41 record of species loss (IUCN 2015) and the highest rate of terrestrial mammal extinctions worldwide.
- 42 Thirty terrestrial mammal species have been declared extinct since European settlement (from 1788).-A
- 43 and a further 21 native mammals are threatened with extinction (Fleming et al., 2014; Woinarski et al.,
- 44 2015). Non-native predators are amongst the leading contributors to Australia's mammal extinction
- 45 record (Woinarski et al., 2015). Some of the greatest impacts have occurred in arid and semi-arid
- 46 <u>habitats</u>, where species of intermediate body size (35 g 5500 g, referred to as 'Critical Weight Range')
- 47 species), (McKenzie et al., 2007), and greater mass (up to 10 kg, i.e. Hanna and Cardillo, 2014), have
- 48 <u>been more susceptible to regional extinctions or declines. The scale of these species losses has been</u>
- 49 mitigated through mammal reintroductions into fenced reserves, from which exotic predators and other
- 50 <u>non-native species have been removed</u> (e.g. Hayward and Kerley, 2009; Short and Turner, 2000)
- 51 Digging mammals in the critical weight range were almost completely extirpated from Australia's
- 52 mainland, where arid and semi-arid habitats comprise up to 70 % of the total terrestrial landscape (James
- et al., 1995). Desertification is increasing globally (Reynolds et al., 2007), *ergo*, the <u>cover of arid and</u>
- 54 semi-arid habitats is likely to increase in the near future. Australia's native digging mammals are
- 55 thought to have functioned as ecosystem engineers (sensu Jones et al., 1996). Engineering impacts are
- 56 generally expected to benefit biotic communities as abiotic stressors increase by providing physiological

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57	or physical refuge	(Crain and Bertness,	2006). Engineering effect	ts <u>However, their inputs</u> are not
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- adversity. The <u>magnitude of an engineer species' impacts can be context-dependent upon factors</u>
- 59 including aridity or productivity (hence, resource availability), both of which are important features of
- 60 <u>arid environments (Fischer and Turner, 1978; Hadley and Szarek, 1981).</u>
- 61 Prior to their declines from arid habitats, burrowing bettongs (*Bettongia lesueur*) and greater bilbies
- 62 (*Macrotis lagotis*) were native digging mammals that made prolific contributions to soil turnover,
- 63 moving between one to six tonnes of soil per hectare every year (Eldridge and James, 2009). The
- 64 survival record of these species on the Australian mainland since 1788 is mixed. Bilbies persist in
- 65 isolated populations in north-western Australia and north-central Queensland (e.g. Southgate and
- 66 Carthew, 2006) but were lost from their central, south and south-eastern Australian range from the
- 67 <u>1910s to the 1930s (Pavey, 2006). In contrast, bettongs became regionally extinct from mainland</u>
- 68 <u>habitats by the 1960s (e.g. Short and Turner, 2000). Critical weight range mammal declines (especially</u>
- 69 of digging mammals) represent a broad-scale loss of ecosystem function, with quantified impacts upon
- 70 the current structure of arid habitats and the biota within them (Fleming et al., 2014; Manning et al.,
- 71 2015). These include impacts upon multiple aspects of soil (Clarke et al., 2015; Eldridge et al., 2015).
- 72 invertebrate (Davidson and Lightfoot, 2007; Read et al., 2008; Silvey et al., 2015), and plant
- 73 assemblages (e.g. Chapman, 2016; Fleming et al., 2014; Verdon et al. in review) and fire regimes (). Re-
- rative mammal assemblages is anticipated to restore impacted natural ecological processes
- 75 (James and Eldridge, 2007; James et al., 2009; Manning et al., 2015). Digging mammals have been
- 76 <u>successfully established inside sanctuaries in arid and semi-arid habitats</u>, but the scarcity of accurate
- 77 historical data needed for these types of conservation projects means that little is known of their
- 78 potential interactions with, nor their impacts upon pre-existing ecological assemblages (e.g. Nogués-

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79 Bravo et al., 2016).

80	Termites are the dominant invertebrate soil engineers and detritivores in Australian arid systems
81	(Morton et al., 2011), and are vitally important to soil health wherever they occur (de Bruyn and
82	Conacher, 1990). Prior to European colonisation, native digging mammals were likely to have been
83	important disturbance agents and predators of subterranean termites and other ground-dwelling
84	invertebrates (Gibb, 2012a; Silvey et al., 2015). Termite activity is sensitive to disturbances which that
85	affect the availability and suitability of their resources (e.g. Jones et al., 2003). They are therefore likely
86	to respond_indirectly to soil disturbance when mammals are foraging or burrowing (Gibb, 2012a). This
87	may have cascading influences on factors such as habitat productivity, given their input into the
88	functioning of arid systems. In addition to their functional significance, termites are consumed by a
89	variety of fauna (e.g. Colli et al., 2006; Morton and James, 1988; Sheppe, 1970). They are directly
90	relevant to reintroduced digging mammals as one of their primary food sources, as a number of these
91	and other threatened critical weight range species are opportunistic dietary generalists and/or
92	insectivores (e.g. Bice and Moseby, 2008).
93	Understanding the responses of ecological assemblages to the reintroduction of regionally extinct
94	species is a developing field in ecology. New evidence indicates that critical weight range mammal
95	reintroductions (digging mammals included) have had significant influences on the community
96	assembly of arthropods by initiating trophic cascades (Silvey et al., 2015), and on soil microbes through
97	digging and defecation (Clarke et al., 2015). However, no previous studies have investigated the effects
98	of digging mammals on invertebrate activity and its implication for functions such as detritivory.
99	Understanding the impacts of mammal reintroduction on termite activity is important because of the
100	significant contribution of termites to food webs and ecological processes (i.e. Bice and Moseby, 2008;
101	Colli et al., 2006; Matthews, 1976; Morton et al., 2011; Morton and James, 1988; Sheppe, 1970).
1	

102 particularly in arid habitats (Whitford and Kay, 1999).

103	We used replicated comparisons of three reintroduction sanctuaries located in arid/semi-arid southern
104	Australia. Our aim was to quantify the responses of subterranean termite activity inside sanctuaries
105	where native digging mammals have been reintroduced, against controls outside the sanctuaries, where
106	native digging mammals are regionally extinct. We did this by comparing the proportion of a) resources
107	eaten by termites at different depths, and b) termites remaining at experimentally-disturbed resources
108	buried at both reintroduction and control habitats. We hypothesised that soil disturbances generated by
109	reintroduced digging mammals would reduce termite activity, resulting in lower proportions of buried
110	resources consumed, and higher proportions of resource abandonment by termites. Because aridity was
111	one of the major abiotic variables to increase across the sanctuaries, and also because engineering
112	impacts tend to be context-dependent (Crain and Bertness, 2006; McAfee et al., 2015), we also
113	considered whether different aridity levels at each sanctuary could affect the magnitude of termite
114	responses when digging mammals were present. We hypothesised that the effect of digging mammals on
115	termite foraging would be influenced by the level of aridity experienced at each sanctuary.

117 **2. Methods**

118 **2.1. Study sites**

119	We compared termite responses to soil disturbance by reintroduced digging mammals at three
120	conservation sanctuaries. These were Arid Recovery (-30°33'55.38''S, 136°55'3.85''E, South
121	Australia), Scotia (-33°8'9.00''S, 145°11'33.00''E, New South Wales), and Yookamurra sanctuaries (-
122	34°31'19.38''S, 139°28'31.91''E, South Australia) (Table 1, Fig. 1a). Scotia and Yookamurra
123	sanctuaries were administered by the Australian Wildlife Conservancy, and Arid Recovery by BHP
124	Billiton. Aridity varied across sanctuaries. The three sanctuaries were located along a gradient of aridity
125	(Table 1). Temperature, precipitation, gross primary production (GPP) and the enhanced vegetation
126	index (EVI) co-varied with aridity. We used aridity indices for each site that were provided by the
127	Australian Virtual Herbarium (Australian Virtual Herbarium 2015). We placed the aridity index value
128	for each sanctuary relative to the others according to the United Nations Food and Agriculture
129	Organization's (FAO) aridity index scale. Aridity indices are calculated as the annual mean ratio of
130	precipitation/potential evapotranspiration (Chiew, Wang, McConachy, James, Wright and deHoedt
131	2002, Tabari and Aghajanloo 2013). 'High' aridity indices closer to 1 are less arid than 'low' indices
132	eloser to 0. Thus, Hyper arid zones have indices <0.05, Arid zones are <0.05 -<0.20, and Semi-arid
133	zones are <0.20 - <0.50 (FAO 2015). Arid Recovery was the most arid sanctuary and Yookamurra
134	sanctuary was the least arid. Aridity indices, annual precipitation, GPP and EVI increased by an average
135	interval of 34.11%, and the mean daily maximum temperature decreased by an interval of 7.25% from
136	Arid Recovery to Yookamurra sanctuary (Table 1). Note: Aridity indices are calculated as the annual
137	mean ratio of precipitation/potential evapotranspiration (Chiew et al., 2002; Tabari and Aghajanloo,
138	2013). 'High' aridity indices closer to 1 are less arid than 'low' indices closer to 0. Thus, Hyper-arid
139	zones have indices <0.05, Arid zones are <0.05- <0.20, and Semi-arid zones are <0.20 - <0.50 (FAO,

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140	2015)Previous research suggests that effects of (invertebrate) ecosystem engineers on vegetation
141	communities increase with precipitation, and resource scarcity promotes fidelity for termites (Lenz,
142	Kard, Evans, Mauldin, Etheridge and Abbey 2009). We therefore hypothesised that termite responses to
143	reintroduced mammal disturbance would increase with decreasing aridity.
144	The dominant vegetation class for Scotia and Yookamurra sanctuaries was remnant Mallee woodland
145	and shrublands, with climate at Yookamurra classified as 'Mediterranean', while that at Scotia was
146	'Semi-arid'. Dominant ground cover at Scotia included spinifex (Triodia spp.) and chenopod species,
147	and Westringia rigida at Yookamurra sanctuary. The dominant trees in Mallee woodlands and
148	shrublands are Eucalyptus species, including E. dumosa and E. gracilis. Arid recovery Recovery was
149	classified as Acacia shrubland with a 'Desert' climate. Dominant ground cover at Arid Recovery varied
150	with season: at the time of data collection, the Poached-egg daisy (Polycalymma stuartii) and Desert
151	Rattle-pod (Crotalaria eremaea) were abundant. Sandhill wattle (Acacia ligulata) was the dominant
152	shrub species at Arid Recovery. Scotia and Yookamurra sanctuaries supported cryptogamic crust which
153	bound the soil surface at those sanctuaries, whereas Arid Recovery did not.
154	

155 **2.1.2. Sampling design**

- 156 All sanctuaries included large (up to $\sim \underline{86000}$ ha) enclosures free of introduced predators and protected
- by predator-proof fencing. <u>Reconstruction of native mammal assemblages commenced at Scotia</u>
- 158 Sanctuary circa 2004 (Finlayson et al., 2008), at Arid Recovery circa 2000 (Moseby et al., 2003), and at
- 159 Yookamurra Sanctuary circa 1999 (Vieira et al., 2007). <u>All sanctuaries functioned as pastoral land for</u>
- 160 livestock (sheep and/or cattle) after European settlement and prior to their conversion into sanctuary
- habitats (Grolleau and Peterson, 2012). All reintroduced mammal species were considered regionally

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162 <u>extinct</u>	from both reintro	duction and control	ol areas prior to	the establishment of these	sanctuaries (Table
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- 163 1). -Rabbits were present at control habitats, but had been eliminated from inside reintroduction
- 164 enclosures. The population densities of exotic species in control habitats (e.g. cats, foxes and rabbits) are
- 165 routinely controlled by sanctuary management using poison baiting, trapping and shooting.
- 166 To test the effects of <u>native</u> digging mammals on termite foraging along the elimatic gradient <u>activity</u>, we
- 167 performed experiments inside (reintroduced mammalian engineersdigging mammals present:
- 168 'Reintroduction') and outside the reintroduction enclosure (controls with no native mammalian
- 169 <u>engineersdigging mammals</u>: 'Control') at each sanctuary (Fig. 1b). We paired sampling sites (n = 6)
- 170 inside and outside the reintroduction enclosure at each sanctuary. Sites were paired to minimise the
- 171 influence of spatial autocorrelation of biotic and abiotic characteristics on our response variables.
- 172 Sampling sites were placed at least 150 m from the fence line (i.e., paired sites were at least 300 m
- apart) and, where possible, the distance between sites was 1 km (Fig. 1b).

174 2.1.3. Reintroduced mammalian engineer species mammals and presence of reintroduced

- 175 termitivores
- 176 We focused on soil disturbances caused by two reintroduced digging mammal species, burrowing
- bettongs, *Bettongia lesueur*, and greater bilbies, *Macrotis lagotis* (Table 1). <u>These species were</u>
- 178 important ecosystem engineers prior to their regional extinction from the Australian mainland (James
- and Eldridge 2007). Bettongs and bilbies are omnivorous and include termites in their diet, although
- bettongs tend to consume more plant material, while bilbies are more insectivorous (Gibson, 2001;
- 181 Navnith et al., 2009; Robley et al., 2001). Both species move substantial amounts of soil, within the
- 182 range of 1.27-5.99 t.ha⁻¹ per year (Eldridge and James, 2009), suggesting that termites experience
- 183 markedly greater levels of soil disturbance inside sanctuaries. Numbats (Myrmecobius fasciatus) were

- also reintroduced at Scotia and Yookamurra sanctuaries (Vieira et al., 2007). Although this species is not
- 185 considered an ecosystem engineer, it is exclusively termitivorous Numbats are exclusively
- 186 <u>termitivorous (Calaby, 1960)</u>, but are not digging mammals and do not function as ecosystem engineers
- 187 (Table 1). Interactions with numbats were not included in our hypotheses, but were acknowledged as a
- 188 potential influence on termite behaviour.

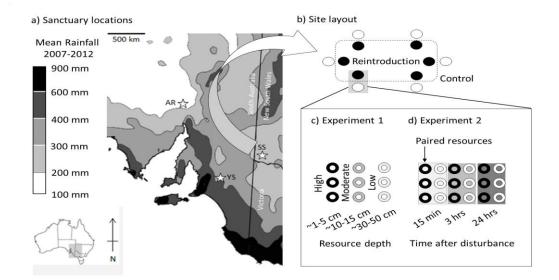


Fig.1 a) Map showing location of study sanctuaries-relative to the precipitation gradient; b) Simplified diagram of sampling sites at each
sanctuary. Dashed line represents the fence dividing habitats. Comparisons of termite responses to reintroduced to engineers-digging mammals
were made between habitats where digging mammals were reintroduced (Reintroduction: closed circles), or regionally extinct (Control: open
circles); c) Resource (toilet roll) layout for Experiment 1 showing resource depth-(disturbance level); d), Resource layout for Experiment 2,
showing 'disturbed' (black) and 'control' (white) resources and layout of blocks by observation time (shaded rectangles). AR: Arid Recovery,
SS: Scotia Sanctuary, YS: Yookamurra Sanctuary.

197 2.1.4. Vegetation Surveys

We performed vegetation surveys in September 2011, prior to commencing experiments. We 198 199 established twelve 5 m x 5 m quadrats at each of the six paired sites in each sanctuary. In every 200 quadrat, we estimated the percentage cover of four habitat characteristics: bare ground, ground 201 cover, leaf litter and canopy. We also calculated the average volume of logs (lying dead wood) with a diameter \geq 5 cm in every quadrat (c.f. Gibb and Cunningham, 2010). Standing stems were 202 203 not measured. Log volume was estimated as the volume of a cylinder in cubic centimetres, using log length and diameter measured at the mid-point of the log. Vegetation cover was predicted to 204 205 decrease with increasing aridity because precipitation_restricts resource availability (Oksanen et 206 al., 1981). It was also expected to decrease where ecosystem engineersdigging mammals were 207 present, because persistent soil disturbance limits opportunities of for plants to establish (e.g. 208 Gurney et al., 2015). Climate was expected to regulate the impact of digging mammals on 209 vegetation cover in more-arid habitats by limiting the amount of vegetation available for 210 manipulation by engineers.

211 2.2. Termite responses

2.2.1. Experiment 1: Resource consumption <u>under increasing soil disturbance intensity</u>.
We performed an experiment <u>using resources buried at three depths</u> to test the effect of <u>soil</u>
disturbance by reintroduced <u>ecosystem engineersdigging mammals</u> on termite foraging across
the climatic gradientactivity. We used resource depth as a surrogate for disturbance intensity. A
longitudinal study of soil disturbance indicated that the average foraging pit constructed by
bilbies and bettongs is 10-20 cm (Travers, 2013). We therefore expected that resource
consumption by termites would be affected most by reintroduced ecosystem engineerssoil

disturbance at depths less than 10 cm, moderately affected at depths less than 20 cm and not
 affected at depths greater than 20 cm.

221 In February 2012, we buried nine unscented toilet paper rolls ('resources') in a 3 m x 3 m grid at 222 each of the 6 paired sampling sites in each sanctuary (Fig.1a-c). We used toilet rolls as resources 223 because they were attractive to common soil and wood-feeding termite genera (Coptotermes, and 224 Heterotermes), whose ranges intersected all of our study sites (French and Robinson, 1981; 225 Watson and Abbey, 1993). A row of three resources was buried at each of the three depths, 226 where depth was a surrogate for disturbance. Treatments were: 1) intensely disturbed resources ('High disturbance'), 1-5 cm below ground (these represented the zone of highest resource 227 228 exposure to soil disturbance); moderately disturbed resources ('Moderate disturbance'), 10-15 229 cm below ground (these were close to the average maximum depth of engineer diggings); and 230 least disturbed resources ('Low disturbance'), 30-50 cm below ground, where the majority of 231 engineer disturbancediggings should be avoided (Fig. 1c). In August/September 2012, we 232 unearthed the resources and visually estimated the proportion of each resource that termites had consumed: 0% consumption indicated that the resource remained intact, and 100% consumption 233 234 indicated that the resource was completely consumed.

235 2.2.2. Experiment 2. Effect of intense soil disturbance on resource abandonment by 236 termitesResource abandonment.

We hypothesised that disturbance would <u>increase the rate of affect</u> resource abandonment <u>by</u> <u>termites</u>. Disturbance caused by reintroduced digging mammals was expected to expose termite foragers to threats such as desiccation or <u>to</u> attack by termite predators, which also include the reintroduced mammals themselves (Table 1). We tested the effects of disturbance <u>on termites</u> by comparing <u>termite</u> abundances on experimentally disturbed resources with those on controls
(undisturbed resources) over 24 hours (Fig. 1d).

243 In February 2012, we buried nine resources in pairs within a 3 m x 3 m grid at each of the six 244 paired sites at each sanctuary (Fig. 1d). Resources were buried approximately 5 cm below ground, within the range of highest soil disturbance intensity by reintroduced mammals (see 245 246 Experiment 1). Resource pairs were separated by 5-10 cm and rows were 1 -2 m apart (Fig. 1d). Termites were allowed to colonize resources until August/September 2012, when we applied our 247 248 disturbance treatment. For each pair, we disturbed one resource by unearthing it and leaving it unburied in its hole, and one resource, the 'control', undisturbed. The purpose of the control 249 resource was to estimate the number of termites using undisturbed resources. We disturbed 250 termite resources between 0900h-1000h to standardize temporal conditions at our sampling sites. 251 Resource abandonment in response to our disturbance was measured by comparing the number 252 253 of termites in the 'disturbed' and 'control' resources. We examined each row separately at 15 minutes, 3 hours and 24 hours after our initial disturbance treatment. Each replicate resource was 254 255 examined only once, i.e. termites inside resources from row 1 were collected and counted after 15 minutes, from row 2 after 3 hours, and from row 3 after 24 hours following resource 256 257 disturbance. For each pair, we counted the number of termites remaining in the disturbed 258 resource and its control. For tests of the effect of digging mammals and climate on resource abandonment, we standardised each response by the total number of termites at the pair (Control-259 260 Disturbed)/(Control+Disturbed). We identified termite species whenever soldiers were found 261 (soldiers were required for identification). We also noted predation by ants on termites, i.e., ants 262 carrying termites away (Fig. 1d), at the disturbed resources. Finally, we calculated the proportion of disturbed resources that were attended by ants and photographed ants for later identification to 263 264 genus.

265 2.3. Data Analysis

- 266 We used a generalized linear model (GLM) and Tukey's post-hoc tests with Bonferroni
- 267 corrections to test the effect of ecosystem engineerdigging mammal reintroduction on vegetation
- 268 cover. We also used GLMs to compare termite and ant responses to soil disturbance in habitats
- 269 with and without reintroduced digging mammals. We used the Gaussian response distribution for
- termite activity in both experiments. In experiment 2, note that we used the binomial distribution
- 271 for ant data, as these described either the presence or absence of ants. Tukey's post-hoc tests with
- 272 Bonferroni corrections were used to determine differences among interacting factors. All
- analyses were conducted using **R** (R Core Team, 2015).

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275 **3. Results**

276 **3.1. General**

- 277 3.1.1.Habitat Surveys
- 278 Habitat cover differed among sanctuaries, with habitat structure decreasing with aridityfrom
- 279 <u>Yookamurra to Arid Recovery, and Scotia intermediate between the two</u> (Table 2). Yookamurra
- had the greatest volume of $\log_{r_{2}}m^{-2}$, the densest canopy, and the least bare ground (Table 2 Post-
- hoc). At the opposite end of the scale, Arid Recovery consistently had the lowest percentage
- cover of all recorded habitat types, and had very few logs with a diameter >5 cm, with wood
- resources concentrated at patches of dead Sandhill wattle (Table 2, Post-hoc). Scotia was similar
- to Arid Recovery in terms of bare ground and canopy cover, but closer to Yookamurra in terms
- of ground cover. Leaf litter and logs at Scotia were intermediate between Arid Recovery and
- 286 Yookamurra sanctuaries (Table 2).

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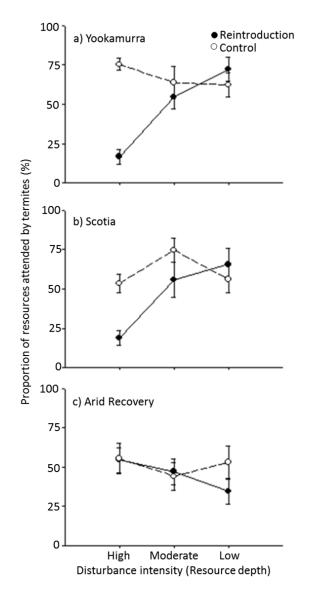
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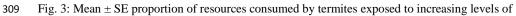
288 *3.1.2. Termites*

289	Species of Heterotermes comprised the overwhelming majority of termites collected in both
290	experiments; Coptotermes were collected in very small numbers. Trench surveys from a related
291	experiment estimated the average density of <i>Heterotermes</i> and of <i>Coptotermes</i> as follows:
292	<u>Heterotermes</u> : Arid Recovery (AR) 87 ± 22 termites.m ⁻² , Scotia (SS) 137 ± 21 termites.m ⁻² ,
293	Yookamurra (YS) 112 \pm 19 termites.m ⁻² . Coptotermes: AR 63 \pm 42 termites.m ⁻² , SS 120 \pm 47
294	termites.m ⁻² , YS 36 ± 34 termites.m ⁻² .
295	3.2. Experiment 1: Resource consumption under increasing soil disturbance intensity and
296	increasing aridityconsumption.
297	Average resource decomposition by termites was $53.25 \cdot 3 \pm 2.09 \cdot 1\%$ upon observation after 6
298	months' burial. We found a significant three-way interaction between the presence of digging
299	mammals, depth and aridity sanctuary location (Table 3). There was no difference in resource
300	consumption with resource depth (disturbance intensity) where engineers digging mammals were
301	excluded (Fig. 3, post-hoc: P>0.05). However, when reintroduced engineers digging mammals
302	were present, resource consumption at the low disturbance treatment (1-5 cm) was greater than at
303	the high disturbance treatment (30-50 cm) (Fig. 3).

- At 1-5 cm depths, the effect of reintroductions of digging mammals on resource consumption by
- termites (i.e., the difference inside and outside the sanctuary) increased with decreasing aridity
- 306 (Fig. 3a-c, post-hoc: P<0.0001).







- soil disturbance in Experiment I. Graphs for each sanctuary are presented in order of aridity,
- 311 from least arid (a, Yookamurra), to most arid (c, Arid Recovery).

314	3.3. Experiment 2: Resource abandonment following soil disturbance.
315	Soil disturbance Experimentally- disturbing buried resources significantly increased rates of
316	resource abandonment by termites over time, and rates of Resource abandonment were was
317	higher when digging mammals were present (Table 4, Termites; Fig. 4a-c). Aridity-The location
318	of sanctuaries did not affect resource abandonment by termites (Table 4, Termites). The number
319	of termites remaining on resources declined with time since disturbance at Yookamurra and
320	Scotia Sanctuaries (Fig. 4a-b) (effect size contrast: 15 mins > 3 hrs > 24 hrs ($p < 0.05$). The
321	number of termites remaining after disturbance at Arid Recovery fluctuated between the 3 hr and
322	24 hr observation times (Fig. 4c).
323	Ants were observed carrying termites away from disturbed resources and we used ant attendance
324	at resources as a surrogate for ant predation on termites. Time since disturbance, engineer status
325	and aridity-sanctuary interacted to affect ant attendance at resources. Control and reintroduction
326	sites differed after 3 hrs and 24 hrs, but only at Scotia and Yookamurra sanctuaries. At 24 hrs,
327	the effect size (difference between control and reintroduction) decreased with increasing
328	aridityfrom Yookamurra sanctuary to Arid Recovery, which was the most arid sanctuary (Figs.
329	4d-f). Iridomyrmex purpureus was the most frequently observed ant species preying on termites.

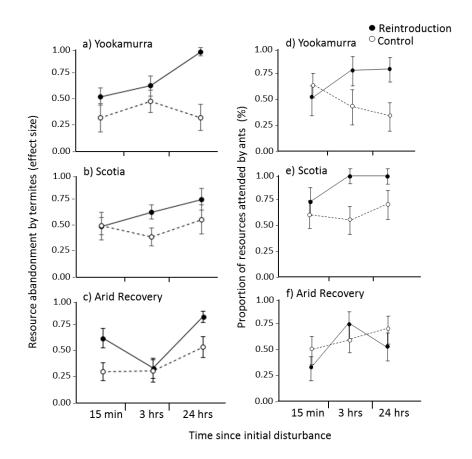




Fig. 4, Mean \pm SE resource abandonment by termites (a-c) and termite predation by ants (d-f)



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least arid (a & d, Yookamurra), to most arid (c & f, Arid Recovery).
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339 4. Discussion

340	Previous studies have shown that digging mammals alter invertebrate community assemblages
341	through ecosystem engineering (Davidson and Lightfoot, 2007; Read et al., 2008). Their effects
342	are associated with changes to habitat structure and/or complexity, such that assemblages that
343	take advantage of engineered habitats (for example, burrows), are distinct from surrounding
344	habitats that have not been engineered (e.g. Bravo et al., 2009). Invertebrate, and invertebrate
345	assemblages may be further altered through predation by reintroduced digging mammals and
346	resulting trophic cascades (Silvey et al., 2015). This is the first study to We show that
347	interactions with digging mammalsreintroduced digging mammals -also negatively affect
348	ecosystem functions performed by invertebratestermite activity, an impact that has not been
349	previously examined in the context of reintroducing regionally-extinct species. Termite activity
350	was approximately 25% lower and resource abandonment about 50% higher than controls when
351	digging mammals were reintroduced. We also observed a decrease in the effect magnitude of
352	termite responses from Yookamurra sanctuary to Arid Recovery. These may be attributed to
353	greater aridity levels and resource availability at Arid Recovery versus the other sanctuaries,
354	which we will discuss.
355	Digging mammals such as the greater bilby and burrowing bettong move a significant volume of
356	soil each year (Eldridge and James, 2009). Termites were expected to alter their resource
357	consumption to avoid soil disturbances (Brown et al., 1999), resulting in a decreased decreases
358	rate of termite activity that could ultimately influence decomposition, one of their primary
359	ecological functionsData from Experiment I supported this prediction: shallow resources that
360	were exposed to the most intense levels of soil disturbance (those at shallow depths) were
361	consumed less by termites when engineers digging mammals were present. In contrast, resource

362 consumption was independent of <u>resource disturbance intensity (resource depth)disturbance</u>

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363	when engineers-digging mammals were absent. This shift in resource consumption suggests that	
364	termites were either actively avoiding, or were less successful at consuming resources where soil	
365	disturbance was greater when digging mammals were present. Termite populations decline	
366	following habitat disturbances that disrupt their food supplies, for example, shortly following	
367	fires, or when habitats shift towards lower plant diversity (e.g. in plantations) (Dosso et al.,	
368	2013). It is therefore possible that this change in function resulted from a change in population	
369	density of termites. However, preliminary data suggest that this is not the case (Coggan & Gibb	
370	in prep), so changes in resource consumption may be the result of changes in termite behaviour,	
371	considered in Experiment 2.	
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372	We showed a clear (aridity dependent) diminution in termite activity in the upper layers of soil	 Comment writing so p
373	in the presence of digging mammals, although this was greater at Yookamurra and Scotia	don't have E and so may
374	sanctuaries. While previous studies have focussed on the biodiversity impacts of the loss of	
375	ecosystem engineers (Romero et al., 2015), few studies have examined the ecological cascades	
376	or functional changes resulting from changes in behaviour or population densities of species with	
377	which ecosystem engineers such as digging mammals interactTermites are the dominant	
378	detritivores in arid Australia (Morton et al. 2011), and the change in activity resulting in lower	
379	levels of resource consumption in the presence of digging mammals may translate into decreased	
380	decomposition (in the manner that functioning decreases along disturbance intensity gradients,	 Field Cod
381	i.e. McDonnell et al., 1997). Any such changes in termite-driven decomposition may	Field Cod
382	significantly alter soil nutrient cycling, with potential cascades through to habitat productivity.	
383	Our study suggests that reintroduction of <u>digging mammals that function as</u> ecosystem engineers	
384	might lead to decreases in decomposition rates, at least in the upper soil layer where foraging	
385	disturbance is most intense. Although it is possible that termite-driven decomposition has	
386	increased following the loss of digging mammals from the Australian arid zone, the outcome of	

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reintroductions for nutrient cycling are likely to be complex, with further studies required to

388 better elucidate the full complexity of interactions.

389 Reintroductions of digging mammals were associated with increased-greater resource 390 abandonment by termites, suggesting a behavioural response to disturbance might be the 391 mechanism determining reduced resource consumption. Several species of native mammals 392 (digging and non-digging) reintroduced to our study sites prey on invertebrates, which may result in cascading effects on invertebrate assemblages. For example, Silvey et al. (2015) documented 393 394 mesopredator release in arachnid assemblages, where mammal predation reduced the abundance 395 of the dominant scorpion species, triggering a trophic cascade in scorpion and ground-dwelling 396 spider communities (Silvey et al., 2015). Previous studies have also reported that some species 397 display behavioural responses to predators that minimise predation risk, but which also reduce 398 foraging success (i.e. the 'landscape of fear', Lima and Dill, 1990), although extreme hunger will 399 reverse-alter the priorities of risk in order to avoid certain death by starvation over uncertain 400 death by potential predators (Lima, 1998). Differences in resource abandonment rates-between control and reintroduction sites for similarly disturbed resources suggest that termites may 401 402 experience a landscape of fear effect in the presence of digging mammals. Laboratory 403 experiments show that resource abandonment by termites depends on the level of danger that 404 termites perceive (Gautam and Henderson, 2012). Increased rates of resource abandonment in reintroductions might therefore be a result of perceived threats of predation by reintroduced 405 native mammals (including digging species) digging mammals or other organisms affected by 406 407 the reintroductions.

Disturbed resources were attended by ants within minutes of exposure when engineers were
 presentexposure, and their attendance was greater at disturbed resources when digging mammals
 were present. Although effects of digging mammals on ant assemblages have not been reported,

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411	habitat disturbance alters invertebrate assemblages, favouring aggressive ant genera such as	
412	Iridomyrmex (Gibb and Hochuli, 2003). Ant attendance at resources was greater in	
413	reintroduction than control sites, suggesting ant predation rates on termites may be higher when	
414	termites are exposed to disturbance when digging mammals are present. Declines in numbers of	
415	termites at resources in the presence of digging mammals may therefore have resulted from both	
416	the direct process of predation by ants or digging mammals, and the indirect process of predation	
417	or disturbance avoidance.	
418	Changes in termite activity in the presence of digging mammals tended to be greatest at	
419	Yookamurra sanctuary, moderate at Scotia sanctuary, and not different from controls at Arid	
420	Recovery. We suggest that the differences in effect magnitude were associated with habitat	
421	(resource) availability, which differed at each sanctuary, for example, where vegetation resources	
422	covered more area at Yookamurra and Scotia than at Arid Recovery, which had more bare	
423	ground. The historical use of sanctuary land to run non-native livestock (cattle and/or sheep)	
424	before they were re-purposed for conservation is one factor that could strongly affect habitat	
425	availability. The presence of livestock in arid lands has lasting impacts on habitat structure.	
426	These include changes in the proportions of bare ground and low vegetation to taller plant types	
427	(e.g. shrubs), and the long-term impact on habitat cover can be observed when livestock is	
428	absent as those taller plant classes return (e.g. Eldridge et al., 2011). Persistent soil disturbance in	
429	addition to different mammal densities (where digging is an engineering function) also limits	
430	opportunities for plants to establish (e.g. Gurney et al., 2015; McAfee et al., 2015). Both of these	
431	factors are likely to contribute to the habitat cover observed at each sanctuary, in addition to	
432	aridity, which was lower at Yookamurra and Scotia than at Arid Recovery. The influence of	
433	rainfall (aridity) over productivity is one of the defining aspects of arid habitats (Fischer and	
434	Turner, 1978; Hadley and Szarek, 1981; Rodríguez-Castañeda, 2013), with less vegetation	
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435 expected in more arid habitats (Oksanen et al., 1981). Results from the first experimen	t indicated
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- 436 <u>that avoiding disturbance was important for termites in less-arid sanctuaries, where resources</u>
- 437 <u>such as wood and leaf litter were more available. The cost of leaving a resource would be higher</u>
- 438 in more arid environments where fewer alternative resources were available. Resource scarcity,
- 439 such as the low wood availability observed at Arid Recovery, might thus encourage higher
- 440 <u>fidelity to resources by termites. Different responses to resource-use based on the relative value</u>
- 441 of scarce resources have previously been observed in termites, for example, *Reticulitermes*
- 442 *flavipes* consumed resources more slowly when resources were scarce (Lenz et al., 2009).
- 443 Productivity might also affect ant predation: more productive environments might support larger
- densities of ants, such that the chance of discovery of termite prey would be higher. Further
- 445 <u>investigation is required to test this hypothesis.</u>

446 **5. Conclusions**

447 We observed clear effects of digging mammal reintroductions on termite activity, which were 448 significantly reduced when those mammals were present. An additional pattern suggested that 449 termite responses were influenced by resource availability, which could be affected by factors 450 such as aridity and land-use history. Our explicit test of termite responses to soil disturbance by mammals adds to our growing empirical understanding of interactions between digging 451 452 mammals and ground-dwelling invertebrates. Our results suggest that Australian arid ecosystems 453 may have been substantially different prior to the ecological extinction of digging mammalian engineers. They also highlight the complexity of species interactions, with mammal disturbance 454 455 also altering termite interactions with invertebrate predators (ants). Termites are important food 456 resources for other species, key detritivores in the decomposition process, and ecosystem engineers that affect soil processes and vegetation patterns, especially in arid environments 457 (Evans et al., 2011; Gibb, 2012b; Mora et al., 2005). The lessening of termite activity when 458

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459	digging mammals	were p	resent is a	an interesting	point to	consider,	as it could	l indicate	a shift in

- 460 <u>the location of resource decomposition into deeper, less-disturbed soil. The relevance of</u>
- 461 <u>sanctuary-specific background factors including aridity land-use history (among others) still</u>
- 462 require empirical exploration beyond what we uncovered using only three sites. The trends that
- 463 we observed agree with the context-dependency of engineering impacts (McAfee et al., 2015),
- 464 <u>but run counterpoint to theories that engineering ought to benefit interacting organisms with</u>
- 465 increasing environmental adversity (Crain and Bertness, 2006). This novel finding suggests that
- it may be more difficult to generalise about the effects of digging mammals on ecosystems than
- anticipated, and that higher carrying capacities of less arid environments may also be linked with
- greater ecosystem sensitivity. This study adds to the small, but growing, volume of research
- showing that the decline of digging mammals has had broad-reaching effects on invertebrates
- 470 (e.g. Davidson and Lightfoot, 2007; Silvey et al., 2015), and makes substantial advances in our
- understanding of impacts on invertebrate-driven decomposition, a critical ecosystem function.

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473 6. Acknowledgements

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- 480 **6.1. Conflict of interest disclaimer**
- 481 We confirm no conflicts of interest on behalf of the authors associated with this manuscript.

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