

1 **Trophic cascades and the transient keystone concept**

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6
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8 non-consumptive effects

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34 Abstract

35 Apex predator reintroductions are commonly motivated by the imperative to restore
36 populations and wider ecosystem function by precipitating trophic cascades that release basal
37 species. Yet evidence for the existence of such cascades is often equivocal, particularly where
38 consumptive interactions between apex and intermediate predators are weak or absent. Here,
39 using a tri-trophic skate-crab-bivalve study-system, we find that non-consumptive
40 interactions between apex skate and intermediate crabs cascade down to consumptive
41 interactions between crabs and basal bivalves, significantly reducing bivalve mortality.
42 However, skate only functioned as keystones where crabs foraged for bivalves in the absence
43 of mature bivalve reef: where reef was present, bivalve mortality was not significantly
44 different. By facilitating the establishment of basal species which, in turn, diminish apex-
45 intermediate interactions, the skate's keystone function is subject to negative regulation.
46 Thus, we propose that keystone functionality can be transient with respect to environmental
47 context. Our findings have two central implications for apex predator reintroductions and
48 basic ecology: (i) species hitherto not considered as keystone may have the capacity to act as
49 such transiently, and; (ii) keystones are known to regulate ecosystems, but transience implies
50 that ecosystems can regulate keystone function.

51 1. Introduction

52 The keystone species concept is one of the most influential in all of contemporary ecology
53 (Davic, 2003; Mills et al., 1993; Power et al., 1996). As planet Earth undergoes a so-called
54 trophic downgrading (Estes et al., 2011) there are urgent societal, fundamental and applied
55 motivations to better understand keystone-ecosystem interactions. Widespread declines in
56 keystone apex predator populations have been implicated in the release of mesopredators,
57 associated declines in basal species populations, and reductions in biodiversity (Stier et al.,
58 2016). Yet, despite decades of research, keystone species can be difficult to define—as can
59 the trophic cascades that result from their presence or absence (Polis et al., 2000; Ripple et
60 al., 2016). Moreover, apparently incontrovertible examples of apex predator-mediated
61 cascades are often disputed because it is difficult to establish the strength or existence of
62 consumptive interactions between apex and intermediate predators (Grubbs et al., 2016).

63 Apex-mediated cascades that were once thought to be primarily driven by consumptive
64 effects often turn out to have strong non-consumptive or behavioural elements (Peckarsky et
65 al., 2008). Moreover, fear of apex predators alone is sufficient to initiate and maintain
66 cascades (Suraci et al., 2016). The recognition that non-consumptive effects are central
67 mediators of cascades (Peckarsky et al., 2008; Werner and Peacor, 2003) is particularly
68 relevant to understanding the functional role of elasmobranchs, because evidence for
69 consumptive mediation or apex function is often equivocal or disputed (Grubbs et al., 2016;
70 Roff et al., 2016). Further, because behavioural effects can be instantaneous and decoupled
71 from demographic factors, they are liable to change abruptly between contexts, for example,
72 where intermediate predators forage for basal species in risky or refuge habitats (Trussell et
73 al., 2006). In addition, many basal species—kelp, seagrass, biogenic reefs—are directly
74 responsible for driving changes in context through the provision of spatial structure (Barrios-
75 O'Neill et al., 2016, 2015). Yet little consideration is given to the notion that apex-basal
76 feedbacks might regulate cascades and/or the position of apex predators as keystones, despite
77 the recognition that wider food web complexity can buffer cascades (Brose et al., 2005).

78 Here, we are motivated to investigate the potential for keystone apex-basal feedbacks because
79 of relatively recent extirpations of large elasmobranchs (including the critically-endangered
80 Flapper Skate, *Dipturus intermedia*) and population collapse of a priority reef-forming

81 species (the Horse Mussel, *Modiolus modiolus*) in Strangford Lough, Ireland (refer to
82 Supporting Information for details). Given the local extirpation of the species in question, we
83 resort to experimental manipulations involving a proxy higher predator (the Painted Skate,
84 *Raja microocellata*) with a comparable feeding ecology (Supporting Information), a
85 representative intermediate crab (*Carcinus maenas*) and a reef forming basal bivalve (*Mytilus*
86 *edulis*). Structural complexity is known to mediate interactions across foraging contexts
87 (Barrios-O’Neill et al., 2016); thus, we hypothesised that any capacity of the apex predator to
88 provide keystone function would be modulated by the presence of bivalves established in a
89 size refuge, i.e. providing structural complexity whilst being invulnerable to predation. Our
90 goals here are twofold: (i) to experimentally elucidate if and how potential cascading effects
91 might be regulated via feedbacks in the tri-trophic system, and; (ii) to use this data to inform
92 new hypotheses about the potential demographic effects of such feedbacks.

93 2. Methods

94 Experimental stock (*Raja microocellata*, *Carcinus maenas* and *Mytilus edulis*) was obtained
95 in the locality of Strangford Lough (54.48102° N, 5.58841° W). Each species was maintained
96 separately in flow-through mesocosms at Queen’s Marine Laboratory prior to experimental
97 trials (Supporting Information). Because of the primacy of size over personality in
98 determining interaction strengths (Schröder et al., 2016) we subsampled narrow size-classes
99 of mussels and crabs for trials: *M. edulis* (valve length $\bar{x}/SD = 19.8 \text{ mm}/2.1$) and *C. maenas*
100 (carapace width $\bar{x}/SD = 43.4 \text{ mm}/2.1$). Given the locally endangered status of
101 *R. microocellata* we selected two closely size-matched individuals for trials (lengths: 490 mm
102 and 510 mm)—on account of this unavoidable pseudoreplication we refrained from analysing
103 data on skate movement.

104 Arenas (2200 L and 1800-by-1300 mm footprint) contained one marginally-positioned
105 Perspex refuge (40 mm tall, 130-by-200 mm footprint) and one centrally-positioned Perspex
106 reef patch (350-by-350 mm footprint) furnished with 40 previously settled mussel prey
107 (hereafter ‘juveniles’, i.e. a size class vulnerable to predation). Reef patches were either
108 ‘complex’ (4 large silicone-filled *Modiolus* bivalves, 57-110 mm valve length) or ‘simple’
109 (lacking *Modiolus*). 16 h trials were initiated on the introduction of predator mixtures
110 (presence/absence of 1 skate and presence/absence of 3 crabs) into arenas between 16:00-
111 18:00: surviving mussels were counted on termination. Trials were block-randomised with
112 $n = 10$ (reflecting the maximum experimental turnover practical in 2 months) at each
113 predator/complexity treatment combination, including predator-free controls. During the
114 second hour of a random subset of trials ($n = 6-8$) we recorded behaviour using camcorders
115 and quantified the following for skate and a randomly selected crab respectively: (i) time
116 spent moving (i.e. moving across the arena floor); (ii) time spent on the reef patch, off the
117 patch, or in the refuge.

118 All analyses were performed in R (R Core Team 2016). Mussel survival was 100% in
119 predator-free controls and skate-only mixtures, therefore we used a simple two-by-two
120 analysis of variance (ANOVA, categorical predictors: skate presence/absence and
121 simple/complex reef) and Tukey’s *post hoc* tests with respect to the focal crab-mussel
122 interaction. Crab location constitutes a non-discrete compositional response—therefore, to
123 satisfy model assumptions we applied an isometric planar transformation (van den Boogaart
124 and Tolosana-Delgado, 2008) and assessed location with respect to the same categorical
125 predictors using multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA). Crab movement is also a
126 compositional response, but with two options here we opt to treat proportion of time spent
127 moving as the response in a standard two-way ANOVA. Assumptions of heteroscedasticity
128 were met for all fitted models (all Bartlett’s tests $p > 0.05$).

129 3. Results

130 The presence of skate reduced consumption of mussel juveniles by crabs only in the absence
131 of mature reef (Fig. 1a: open half). Conversely, in the presence of reef, skate slightly
132 enhanced consumption of mussel juveniles by crabs (Fig. 1a: shaded half), resulting in a
133 significant main effect of skate ($F_{1,36} = 4.45$, $p = 0.042$, $\eta_p^2 = 0.11$) and a significant skate-
134 reef interaction ($F_{1,36} = 9.36$, $p = 0.004$, $\eta_p^2 = 0.21$). Reef presence did not significantly
135 enhance consumption of mussels, but still had a comparable effect size to skate presence
136 ($F_{1,36} = 3.22$, $p = 0.081$, $\eta_p^2 = 0.08$). Consumption of mussel juveniles by crabs was highest in
137 the absence of skate and mature reef (Fig. 1a: open half) and was significantly higher here
138 than in all other treatments (*post hoc*s: skate/reef absent $p = 0.004$; skate/reef present
139 $p = 0.043$; skate absent/reef present $p = 0.008$). Crabs did not change location in response to
140 the presence of mature reef or skate (Fig. 1b. Skate presence/absence $F_{1,23} = 0.82$, NS; reef
141 presence/absence $F_{1,23} = 1.39$, NS; skate-reef interaction $F_{1,23} = 0.02$, NS) but instead
142 significantly reduced their movement where skate were present (Fig. 1c: shaded boxes. Main
143 effect: $F_{1,23} = 18.71$, $p < 0.001$, $\eta_p^2 = 0.45$; *post hoc*s between all skate present treatments and
144 all skate absent treatments significant at $p < 0.05$). In contrast, skate tended to move less in the
145 presence of mature reef, and did not appear to respond to the presence of crabs (Fig. 1d open
146 *versus* shaded half).

147 4. Discussion

148 Across the biosphere, populations of apex predators are in widespread decline (Estes et al.,
149 2011). The resultant trophic downgrading of ecosystems is particularly concerning because of
150 the role that apex predators often fulfil as keystone species regulating biodiversity, disease
151 and other critical ecosystem functions (Stier et al., 2016). Despite decades of research,
152 ambiguity over operational definitions of keystone species (Davic, 2003), trophic cascades
153 (Polis et al., 2000) and a focus on consumptive effects (Peckarsky et al., 2008) have all
154 hindered more nuanced understanding of keystone-ecosystem interactions and feedbacks.
155 Here, we demonstrate that the presence of an apex predator drives an intermediate-basal
156 consumptive interaction only where that basal species isn't established, and lacking
157 individuals that are large enough to avoid predation. In doing so we provide preliminary
158 evidence for an apex-basal feedback which prompts us to posit the existence of a hitherto
159 unrecognised aspect of keystone species ecology: transience (Fig. 2). Although we must
160 stress that short term feeding trials prevent an explicit link to demographic effects in the field,
161 in the following section a re-examination data rich examples of trophic cascades would
162 suggest that transience is a viable concept.

163 The behaviourally mediated wolf-elk cascade in Yellowstone (Fortin et al., 2005) can be
164 viewed as a classic keystone cascade (our terminology: Fig. 2a) because it depends on a
165 continuous apex-intermediate effect through time. In contrast, a consumptively mediated
166 cascade initiated by orcas feeding on sea otters—cascading down to urchins and kelp—(Estes
167 et al., 1998) is transient because the apex predator cannot be sustained in the locality and
168 must move on once resources are locally depleted. We term this a positively regulated
169 transient keystone cascade (Fig. 2c): if the intermediate predator (here, the otter) is locally
170 extirpated then the alternate stable state (that of high urchin abundance) becomes independent
171 of continued apex-intermediate effects through time. In the same system, where orcas are
172 absent, otters regulate urchin abundance and release basal kelp but, given this release, kelp
173 forms dense stands that, in turn, reduce urchin grazing (Konar and Estes, 2003). Thus, the
174 function of the otter as keystone is reduced, but the cascade is maintained. We term this a
175 negatively regulated transient keystone cascade (Fig. 2b). Our present study-system is a

176 potential example of this form of transience. What we outline here is not prescriptive—there
177 are likely numerous permutations beyond (Fig. 2b-c)—but the unifying diagnostic of
178 transience is a system that is pushed into an apex-independent alternate stable state,
179 regardless of the continued presence of that apex. Transience is distinct from the notion that
180 wider complexity in food webs can regulate cascades (Brose et al., 2005) because it concerns
181 the focal tri-trophic motif, rather than the effects of peripheral species on that motif. We
182 suggest that food web models making broad assumptions about predator-prey interaction
183 strengths may systematically underestimate the importance of apex predators if they fail to
184 represent: (i) how changing foraging context can dramatically and systematically modulate
185 interactions (Barrios-O’Neill et al., 2016; Pawar et al., 2012) and; (ii) how apex predators
186 themselves might drive changes in context.

187 In Strangford Lough, elasmobranchs might function as transient keystones by facilitating the
188 reestablishment of *Modiolus* reefs which, in turn, add structural complexity that can dampen
189 interactions across the system (Barrios-O’Neill et al., 2016). Broadly, transience implies that
190 species which don’t obviously function as keystones in one context may come to do so in
191 others, and may act as a buffer, facilitating the maintenance of stable states. Transience is
192 therefore a form of functional redundancy that highlights the importance of biodiversity.
193 Beyond the potential considerations and applications in conservation and restoration ecology,
194 however, our findings highlight a key point: that although a keystone species may be
195 characterised by disproportionate top-down effects on the wider ecosystem, these effects may
196 themselves be subject to strong regulatory feedbacks.

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200 **Supporting information**

201 Sourcing stock, experimental setup and project details are available in the online supplement.
202 Data is available at datadryad.org/xxxxx.

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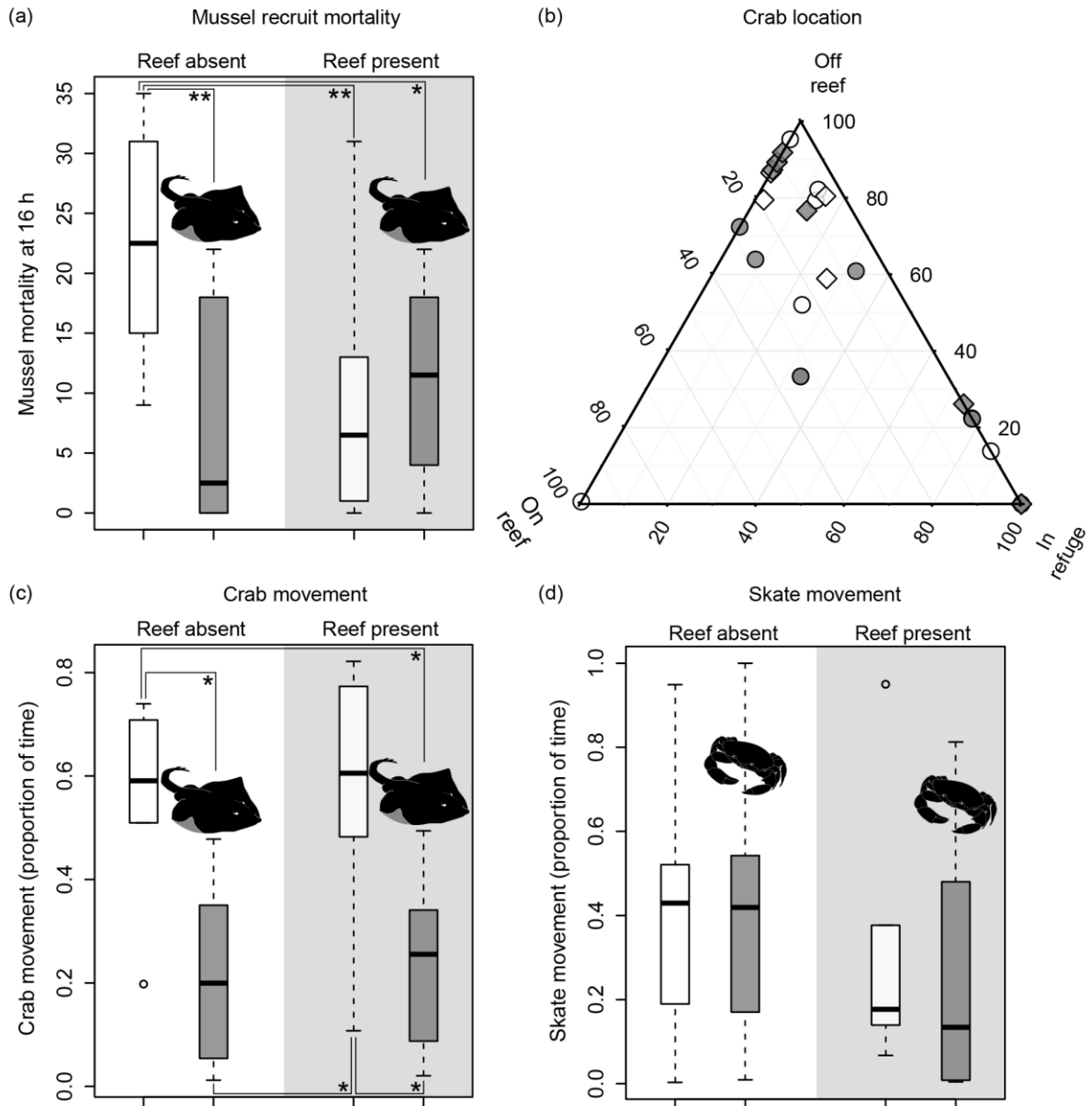
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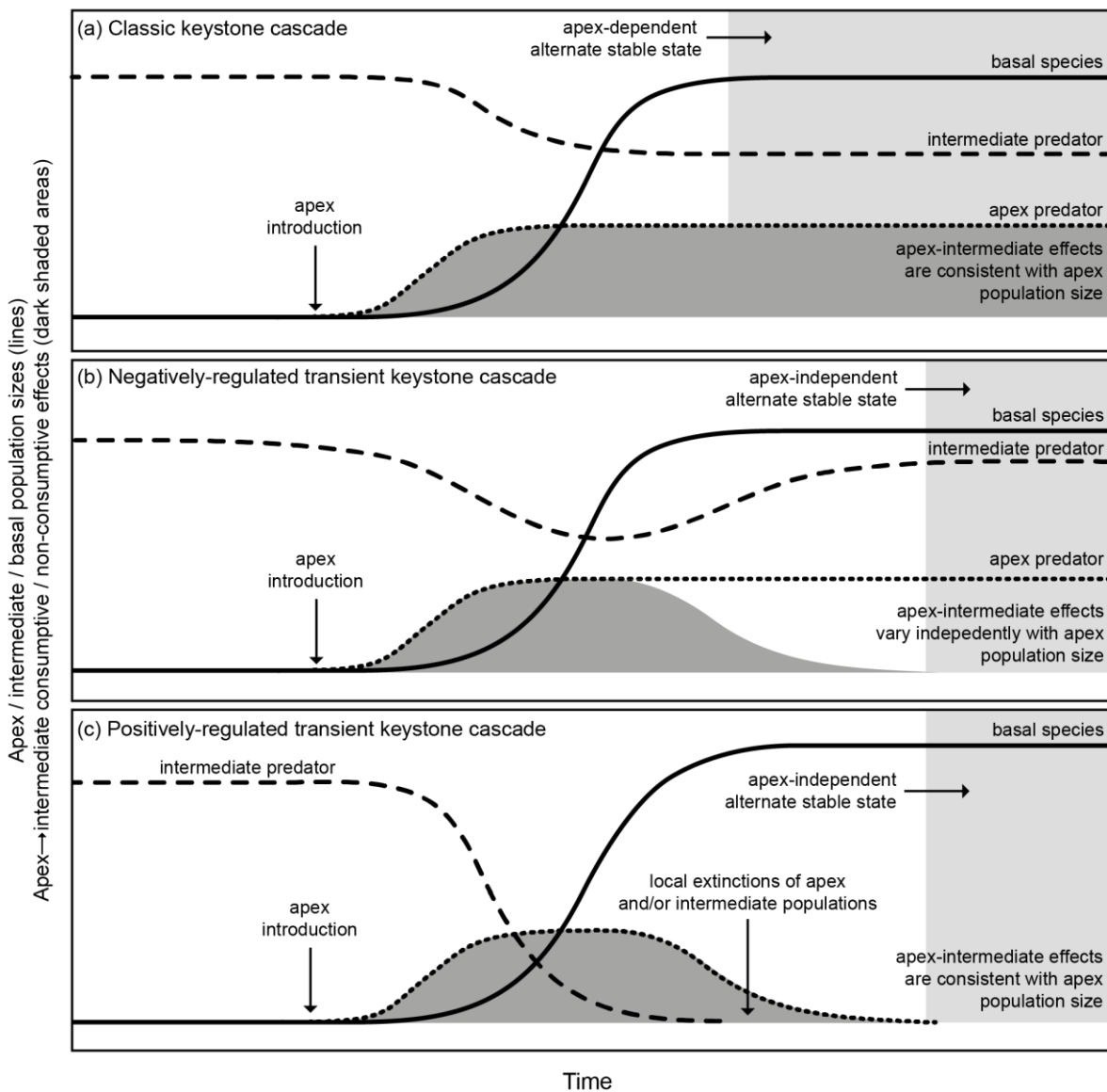
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285 **Figure 1** (a) Crab predation on mussel juveniles at 16 h; (b) crab location in the
 286 absence/presence (open/shaded) of skate and the absence/presence (diamond/circle) of
 287 mature reef; (c) crab movement in the absence/presence of mature reef and skate; (d) skate
 288 movement (pesudoreplicated) in the absence/presence of mature reef and crabs. Stars equate
 289 to significant differences following *post hoc*s.



290

291 **Figure 2** Classic trophic cascades depend on the continued effects of apex keystone predators
 292 on intermediate predators through time (a) but trophic cascades can also be precipitated when
 293 apex predators transiently act as keystones by releasing basal populations which, in turn, alter
 294 the context in which interactions occur. Negative regulation of this process may result in
 295 intermediate predator recovery (b), but where the cascade enhances intermediate risk
 296 extinctions may occur (c). In both cases the basal populations achieve an apex-independent
 297 alternate stable state.