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Abstract:

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Running Head: Porcupines, pines, and beetles

10                   **INDIRECT INTERACTIONS AMONG DENDROPHAGES: PORCUPINES**  
11                   **PREDISPOSE PINYON PINES TO BARK BEETLE ATTACK**

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1    **Abstract**

2    Discerning linkages among trophic levels and untangling indirect interactions is essential  
3    to understanding structuring of communities and ecosystems. Indeed, indirect  
4    interactions among disparate taxa are often essential to the functional role of these  
5    species. The goal of this research was to test the hypothesis that the relationship between  
6    2 dendrophagous taxa, the North American porcupine (*Erethizon dorsatum*) and the pine  
7    engraver beetle (*Ips hoppingi*), is an asymmetric indirect interaction mediated by a  
8    common host. We proposed that the porcupine predisposes the papershell pinyon pine  
9    (*Pinus remota*) to colonization by pine engraver beetles. We examined porcupine tree  
10   selection, pinyon pine physiology and physiognomy, and beetle-pine associations on a  
11   study area in the southwestern Edwards Plateau of Texas from June 1997 to August 1999.  
12   Although attacks by beetles were evident on both damaged and undamaged trees,  
13   successful colonization was greater ( $\chi^2 = 75.3$ ,  $df = 3$ ,  $P < 0.01$ ) on pines damaged by  
14   porcupines. Intensity of porcupine attack, indexed by number of feeding scars and area  
15   of bark removed, also was associated with subsequent colonization by beetles.  
16   Porcupines selected pinyon pines over more abundant species ( $P < 0.001$ ) and were  
17   selective at the level of morphology, whereas pine engraver beetles were selective of tree  
18   morphology and physiology. Trees colonized by beetles had phloem with higher  
19   concentrations of fructose and glucose and lower percent composition of limonene,  
20   sabinene, and terpinolene than uncolonized trees. Our findings supported our hypothesis  
21   of an indirect interaction between these dendrophages. We rejected alternative  
22   explanations (e.g., that these dendrophages preferred similar trees or that beetles  
23   facilitated porcupine damage) for this relationship based on the biology of *Ips* and their

1 selection of host trees. We propose that release of volatile terpenes as a result of  
2 porcupine feeding and reallocation of carbon resources as a response to stress explains  
3 the facilitation of beetle colonization in porcupine-damaged trees. Our findings parallel  
4 those observed in other systems involving indirect effects and fit within the framework of  
5 integrated theories explaining host plant-herbivore interactions.

6 *Key Words:* dendrophages, *Erethizon dorsatum*, indirect effects, *Ips hoppingi*, *Pinus*  
7 *remota*, plant-herbivore interactions

8

## 9 **1. Introduction**

10 The role of direct interspecific interactions in structuring communities is evident  
11 in extensive examinations of competition (Connell, 1983; Schoener, 1983) and predator-  
12 prey relations (Sih et al., 1985; Martin, 1988). The strength of indirect effects occurring  
13 among different trophic levels has received much less attention, which is likely a result of  
14 the inherent difficulty in detecting these types of relationships (Wooton, 1994). The role  
15 of a requisite third species in these events compromises the efficacy and timely detection  
16 of indirect interactions (Davidson et al., 1984).

17 Indirect ecological interactions among species in disparate taxa are essential to the  
18 functional roles of these individual species (Christensen and Whitham, 1993; Elkinton et  
19 al., 1996; Martinsen et al., 1998). Discounting or ignoring the role of indirect effects can  
20 lead to erroneous conclusions regarding community dynamics of a system (Davidson et  
21 al., 1984; Wooton, 1992). Insects and vertebrates can interact to influence species  
22 composition, organic decomposition, and soil properties within an ecosystem (Sharpe et  
23 al., 1995; Elkinton et al., 1996). Several studies have shown that attack by one consumer  
24 can increase susceptibility to attack by others. Browsing by mammalian herbivores can  
25 lead to increased densities of leaf-eating (Martinsen et al., 1998) and galling insects

1 (Roininen et al., 1997; Olofsson and Strebom ,2000). Herbivory may induce  
2 qualitative changes in defensive chemistry (Tallamy and Raupp, 1991; Loreto et al.,  
3 2000), resulting in increased occurrence of related and non-related herbivorous taxa  
4 (Martinsen et al., 1998; Redman and Scriber, 2000; Tomlin et al., 2000). Although the  
5 impact of herbivory on dendrophagic insects has received less attention, Conner and  
6 Rudolph (1995) suggested that pecking at resin wells by red-cockaded woodpeckers  
7 (*Picooides borealis*) may increase susceptibility of cavity trees to infestation by bark  
8 beetles (*Dendroctonus frontalis*.) Similarly, defoliation of jack pine (*Pinus banksiana*) by  
9 the jack pine budworm (*Choristoneura pinus pinus*) led to increased colonization by  
10 subcortical insects (Wallin and Raffa, 2001).

11 We examine a novel interaction involving 2 dendrophagic species and their tree  
12 hosts to advance our understanding of plant-herbivore interactions. Previous research  
13 effort in this area has focused on leaf-eaters and defoliation. The cost to defend, repair,  
14 and replace bark damaged by dendrophages likely differs from damage produced by  
15 defoliators, warranting examination of a model system involving indirect interactions  
16 among a host plant and 2 dendrophages. Our study animals, the porcupine (*Erethizon*  
17 *dorsatum*) and bark beetles (Coleoptera: Scolytidae), are taxonomically distinct  
18 dendrophagous taxa occurring sympatrically in many wooded ecosystems. Their  
19 phloem-feeding activities impact nutrient flow within the host tree, as opposed to nutrient  
20 production (by defoliators) or nutrient storage and acquisition (by root pathogens).  
21 Phloem feeding causes wounding or girdling, thereby altering translocation of  
22 carbohydrates and resulting in increased activity of bark beetles (Dunn and Lorio 1992).

23 Mechanisms of host attack exhibited by porcupines and bark beetles differ. The  
24 porcupine exploits a variety of habitat types (Roze and Ilse, 2003) and prefer to attack  
25 healthy, vigorous trees (Sharpe et al., 1995). A strict herbivore, it consumes deciduous  
26 leaves and herbaceous matter during spring and summer, but feeds primarily on inner  
27 bark and coniferous foliage during the winter and fall (Roze and Ilse, 2003). Although

1 trees may be girdled in the process, damage frequently is restricted to rectangular or  
2 ovate patches positioned within grasping distance of branches occupied by the porcupine  
3 (Spencer, 1964). Conversely, scolytid species of the *Ips* genus, emerge in spring and  
4 aggregation and development of multiple generations occurs through summer (Stark,  
5 1982). Furthermore, they attack, feed, and oviposit in stressed or otherwise compromised  
6 conifers (Raffa et al., 1993) and exhibit greater host specificity at the species level  
7 (Wood, 1963; Cane et al., 1990). Events known or presumed to precipitate pine engraver  
8 and other bark beetle infestations include fire, severe drought, mechanical injury,  
9 lightning, and even cavity-nesting by the red-cockaded woodpecker (Blanche et al., 1985;  
10 Nebeker and Hodges, 1985; Conner and Rudolph, 1995). As with porcupine damage,  
11 host mortality following infestation is contingent upon attack intensity and tree vigor.

12         The constitutive oleoresin system of healthy conifers acts as a primary defense  
13 response against bark beetle attack by flushing out invaders. A secondary, or induced,  
14 response contains the infestation when the primary response is insufficient to repel attack  
15 (Berryman, 1972; Cates and Alexander, 1982; Raffa, 1991). Chemical and nutritional  
16 imbalances resulting from a variety of stressors diminish a host's ability to mount a  
17 defensive response and increase the potential for pathogenic infection and increased  
18 susceptibility to bark beetle invasion (Hodges et al., 1979; Lorio 1993; Paine and Baker,  
19 1993).

20         Porcupines and pine engravers feed upon the papershell pinyon pine (*Pinus*  
21 *remota*) in the pinyon-juniper woodlands of the Edwards Plateau region of Texas (Ilse,  
22 2001; Ilse and Hellgren 2001). Close observation of vigorous, healthy pines in this  
23 region often indicated extensive porcupine feeding scars. However, examination of dead  
24 and dying trees indicated additional presence of pine engraver beetles (*I. hoppingi*).  
25 These observations led to development of our hypothesis that porcupine-feeding activity  
26 acts similar to other mechanical stressors (e.g., fire, lightning, cavity-building),  
27 predisposing these pinyon pines to subsequent colonization by bark beetles and

1 producing an asymmetric, indirect interaction between these 2 dendrophages. We  
2 compared morphological and physiological characteristics, as well as colonization  
3 success of *I. hoppingi*, of trees that were (target) or were not (nontarget) attacked by  
4 porcupines. We predicted that if a facultative association occurred among these taxa, we  
5 would observe greater colonization of pine engraver beetles on those trees that had been  
6 previously damaged by porcupines. We also predicted that we would discern differences  
7 in morphology and physiology of target and nontarget trees attributed to taxon-specific  
8 host selection.

9

## 10 **2. Study area and methods**

11

### 12 *2.1 Study area*

13

14 Research was conducted on the 2577-ha Kickapoo Caverns State Park (KCSP;  
15 Fig.1) located about 35 km north of Brackettville, Texas. The site (formerly recognized  
16 as Kickapoo Caverns State Natural Area) straddles Kinney and Edwards counties in the  
17 southwestern region of the Edwards Plateau. Topography was predominantly steep  
18 limestone hills and deep canyons with elevations of 482–610 m. Average annual rainfall  
19 is about 45 cm (National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration, 1999). No standing  
20 water or active springs were present on the site.

21 Shallow clay soils of east- and north-facing slopes supported pinyon-juniper-oak  
22 plant communities. In addition to papershell pinyon pine, dominant tree species included  
23 Ashe juniper (*Juniperus ashei*), plateau live oak (*Quercus fusiformis*), Texas persimmon  
24 (*Diospyros texana*), and vasey oak (*Q. pungens* var. *vaseyana*). Woody shrubs included  
25 evergreen sumac (*Rhus virens*), guajillo (*Acacia berlandieri*) prickly pear (*Opuntia* spp.),  
26 and Roemer acacia (*Acacia roemeriana*). Ground cover was represented by cedar  
27 panicgrass (*Dichanthelium pedicellatum*) and cedar sedge (*Carex planostachys*) in

1 shaded areas, and sideoats grama (*Bouteloua curtipenula*) and hairy tridens (*Erioneuron*  
2 *pilosum*) in more open areas. Shallow soils of the south- and west-facing slopes were  
3 dominated by guajillo plant communities, with pinyon pines restricted to lower slopes.  
4 Shrub species included guajillo, coyotillo (*Karwinskia humboldtiana*) and leatherstem  
5 (*Jatropha dioica*). Grasses included threeawn (*Aristida* spp.) and red grama (*Bouteloua*  
6 *trifida*). Mottes of plateau live oak mixed with vasey oak and Ashe juniper were common  
7 in canyons and drainages where moisture was more abundant and soil was deeper.  
8 Pinyon pines and netleaf hackberry (*Celtis reticulata*) also occurred in these areas.  
9 Dominant grasses include threeawn and annual dropseed (*Sporobolus* spp.).

10

## 11 2.2 *Animal capture and handling*

12

13 Porcupines were captured in cage-type live traps (Tomahawk Live Trap Co.,  
14 Tomahawk, WI) using apples and salt as bait (Hale and Fuller 1996) or by immobilizing  
15 animals in trees or dens by use of an adjustable pole-mounted syringe. We immobilized  
16 porcupines with a mixture of tiletamine hydrochloride and zolazepam hydrochloride  
17 (Telazol®, A.H. Robbins, Richmond, VA) at a rate of 7 mg/kg body weight (Hale et al.,  
18 1994). All animals were marked with self-piercing ear tags (National Band and Tag Co.,  
19 Newport, KY), and individuals  $\geq 1.5$  kg body mass were outfitted with radio-transmitters  
20 (L&L Electronics, Manomet, Illinois) secured by nylon mesh collars.

21

## 22 2.3 *Selection of trees by porcupines*

23

24 We used radiotelemetry to locate and obtain visual observations on all animals at  
25 least twice weekly during 1997–1999. Triangulation was used only when an animal left  
26 the study site and lack of appropriate authorization or hunting seasons precluded our safe  
27 and/or lawful access. We recorded location and activity of each porcupine and the tree  
28 species for every animal located within a tree. Three hundred, 0.04–ha fixed-radius plots



1 were randomly established across the study site and sampled to assess relative availability  
2 of tree species. We tallied all trees  $\geq 1.5$  m in height because porcupines were rarely  
3 observed using trees shorter than this threshold.

4

#### 5 *2.4 Morphology of target vs. nontarget trees*

6

7 We randomly established 20, 500-m transects (Fig.1) in woodland habitat used by  
8 porcupines across the study area. Transects were not placed in open grassland or guajillo  
9 habitats where porcupine activity was limited. At 25-m intervals on each transect, we  
10 tagged the nearest porcupine-damaged (target) tree and a neighboring undamaged  
11 (nontarget) tree for a maximum of 20 pairs of trees per transect. Most transects had  
12 fewer than 20 pairs of trees due to low availability of nontarget trees. Diameter at root  
13 collar (Cognac, 1996), height, crown diameter, crown density and bark thickness were  
14 recorded for each tree. Basal area was determined using a 10-factor prism at each tagged  
15 tree.

16 Limb structure of each tree was characterized as vertical if lateral limbs generally  
17 extended upward and horizontal if lateral limbs extended outward. Total number of  
18 porcupine feeding scars was recorded and area of bark removed ( $\text{cm}^2$ ) was estimated for  
19 each target tree. Activity of bark beetles at each tree was characterized as: no beetle  
20 activity (N); attack only (A), evident by the presence of resin tubules but no successful  
21 colonization; or colonization (C), evident by the presence of  $\geq 1$  dead stems or branches  
22 resulting from beetle engravings. Morphological and beetle activity data on all transects  
23 were collected during June-August in 1997 and 1998.

24

#### 25 *2.5 Physiology of transect trees*

26

27 Physiological characteristics of pinyon pines were evaluated by measuring plant  
28 moisture stress, 24-hr resin flow, monoterpene content of resin, and carbohydrate content

1 of phloem in August-September 1998. Plant moisture stress was evaluated using the  
2 pressure-bomb technique (Waring and Cleary, 1967; Ritchie and Hinckley, 1975). Stems  
3 representing current year's growth were excised and sampled during pre-dawn hours to  
4 ensure trees were at equilibrium with regard to water potential.

5 Exudate from an arch punch wound (1.25 cm) was collected in plastic vials to  
6 determine 24-hr resin flow (Hodges et al., 1979) for all tagged trees. All trees were  
7 tapped between 0700 and 0900 h to alleviate photoperiod effects. Tissue removed from  
8 the arch punch wound from 3 randomly selected pairs of trees from each transect was  
9 placed in plastic bags and frozen before processing for carbohydrate analyses. Phloem  
10 was separated from the outer bark and dried at 45° C to a constant weight. Samples were  
11 ground using a mortar and pestle. Sugar extraction was performed using a modification  
12 of the method described by McCready et al. (1950) and modified by Wood and McMeans  
13 (1981) for woody tissues. Three extractions were completed using 80% ethanol and then  
14 brought to volume using 80% ethanol for a 1:400 dilution. Glucose, fructose, and  
15 sucrose were identified using high-pressure liquid chromatography (HPLC) and  
16 expressed in mole fractions ( $\mu\text{mol/mL}$ ; Russo et al., 1998).

17 Resin for monoterpene analyses was collected from the same 3 randomly selected  
18 pairs of trees used in carbohydrate analyses. Holes (12 mm) were drilled at an upward  
19 angle into the tree and 1-dram glass vials were screwed directly into the holes to alleviate  
20 evaporative loss of hydrocarbons. Vials were removed after 24 h and the resin they  
21 contained was processed for subsequent gas chromatograph analysis of 7 monoterpenes  
22 ( $\alpha$ -pinene, camphene, sabinene,  $\beta$ -pinene, myrcene, limonene, and terpinolene). Equal  
23 volumes of chromatographic grade pentane were added to aliquots of each sample  
24 (Snyder, 1992) to facilitate injection into a gas chromatograph (Smith, 1977).

25

## 26 *2.6 Statistical analyses*

27

1 Selection of tree species by porcupines was determined by comparing use with  
2 availability using compositional analysis (Aebischer et al. 1993) and individual  
3 porcupines as the experimental unit. Analyses were restricted to porcupines with >20  
4 locations in trees ( $n = 19$ ) and to 4 groups of tree species: oaks, junipers, pinyon pines,  
5 and other. Tree availability was based on plot sampling.

6 Morphological and physiological data for all trees were averaged across each  
7 transect ( $n = 20$ ); hence, transects were the experimental units. To explore porcupine  
8 selection, average values for target and nontarget trees on each transect were compared  
9 using paired  $t$ -tests and significance was set at  $P < 0.05$ . The relationship between  
10 porcupine damage (target, nontarget) and beetle activity (none, attacked, colonized) on  
11 individual trees was examined with a  $\chi^2$  test of independence. In addition,  
12 morphological and physiological characteristics of target and nontarget trees was  
13 compared using 2-way ANOVA, with level of beetle activity and tree classification  
14 (target, nontarget) as main effects and the activity-classification interaction. Resin  
15 chemistry data were entered as percent composition of 8 dominant monoterpenes and  
16 subjected to angular transformation before analysis. Correlation analyses were  
17 performed to determine if percent composition of individual monoterpenes was  
18 associated with area of exposed xylem resulting from porcupine herbivory. Alpha levels  
19 were Bonferroni-adjusted for correlation analyses of monoterpene concentrations to  $P =$   
20 0.0024.

### 22 **3. Results**

#### 24 *3.1 Selection of trees by porcupines*

26 Thirty-seven porcupines (24F;13M) were equipped with radio collars and were  
27 tracked > 1 month during the 3-year study period, yielding 1,496 total locations. Visual  
28 observations comprised 1,401 of the locations. Eighty percent of those locations ( $n =$

1 1,118) were in trees, 14% ( $n = 197$ ) were on the ground, and only 6% ( $n = 86$ ) were  
2 located in dens.

3 We tallied 1,046 trees representing 10 distinct genera in the plot sampling. Ashe  
4 juniper, Texas persimmon, oaks, and pinyon pines accounted for 92% of all available tree  
5 species, and 97% of all porcupine observations occurred in these species. Trees were  
6 used nonrandomly ( $\chi^2_3 = 35.6, P < 0.001$ ) by the 19 porcupines included in the analysis.  
7 Pinyon pines ranked highest in selection, and were preferred ( $P < 0.05$ ) in all pairwise  
8 comparisons with other tree groups. Oaks ranked second, and were preferred ( $P < 0.05$ )  
9 relative to junipers and other trees.

10

### 11 3.2 Morphology of transect trees

12

13 Data were collected on 366 trees (183 pairs). Four morphological characteristics  
14 differed between target and nontarget trees (Table 2). Porcupines used trees that were  
15 greater in girth, taller, greater in crown diameter, and thicker-barked. *Post hoc* analyses  
16 of those 5 characteristics revealed that diameter at root collar was significantly correlated  
17 with height ( $r = 0.79, P < 0.0001$ ), bark thickness ( $r = 0.83, P < 0.0001$ ), crown diameter  
18 ( $r = 0.89, P < 0.0001$ ), and resin flow ( $r = 0.50, P < 0.001$ ). Additionally, 72 % ( $n = 131$ )  
19 of all trees damaged by porcupines ( $n = 183$ ) exhibited horizontal instead of vertical  
20 lateral limb structure, indicating disproportionate use of this structural characteristic ( $\chi^2 =$   
21  $35.2, df = 1, P < 0.0001$ ). Similarly, beetle colonization was associated with horizontal  
22 limb structure ( $\chi^2 = 13.6, df = 2, P < 0.001$ ). Of beetle-colonized trees, 83% (83 of 100)  
23 had horizontal limb structure vs. 62.5% (15 of 24) attacked trees and 56.9% (33 of 58) of  
24 trees with no beetle activity.

25 Trees damaged by porcupines were more likely to be colonized by bark beetles,  
26 and undamaged trees were more likely to free from beetle attack ( $\chi^2 = 75.3, df = 3, P <$   
27  $0.01, Fig. 2$ ). However, tree characteristics varying by level of beetle activity were not

1 entirely consistent with those associated with porcupine use of trees (Table 2). Larger  
2 trees were more likely to be fed upon by porcupines and colonized by beetles; however,  
3 resin flow did not vary across levels of beetle activity. Pinyon pine basal area varied by  
4 the interacting effects of beetle activity and tree classification ( $F_{2,92} = 3.94, P = 0.02$ ).  
5 Basal area of pinyon pines (Table 2) was greater ( $P < 0.055$ ) on colonized, nontarget  
6 trees ( $\bar{x} \pm SE = 3.1 \pm 0.8 \text{ m}^2/\text{ha}$ ) than any other combination of beetle activity and tree  
7 class (pooled  $\bar{x} \pm SE = 1.4 \pm 0.3 \text{ m}^2/\text{ha}$ , all cell  $\bar{x}$  between 1.1 and 1.8  $\text{m}^2/\text{ha}$ ).

8 Number of porcupine scars was correlated positively with area of bark that had  
9 been removed ( $r = 0.90, P < 0.0001$ ). Area of bark removed was less ( $P < 0.001$ ) on  
10 trees that exhibited no beetle activity or attack only (pooled  $\bar{x} \pm SE = 303 \text{ cm}^2 \pm 75$ ) than  
11 on trees that had been colonized ( $\bar{x} \pm SE = 989 \text{ cm}^2 \pm 152$ ).

12

### 13 *3.3 Physiology of transect trees*

14

15 Target trees had greater resin flow than nontarget trees (Table 2). Plant moisture  
16 stress did not differ between target and non-target trees ( $P > 0.05$ ) and measurable  
17 amounts of sucrose were found in only 2 samples collected from transects. Glucose and  
18 fructose dominated all samples, but did not differ between target and nontarget trees  
19 (glucose:  $\bar{x} \pm SE = 0.410 \text{ } \mu\text{mol}/\text{mL} \pm 0.020$ ; fructose:  $0.417 \text{ } \mu\text{mol}/\text{mL} \pm 0.023$ ). Trees  
20 that were colonized by beetles had higher levels of both these sugars (glucose:  $0.451$   
21  $\text{ } \mu\text{mol}/\text{mL} \pm 0.021, P < 0.01$ ; fructose:  $0.455 \text{ } \mu\text{mol}/\text{mL} \pm 0.022, P < 0.03$ ) than trees that  
22 had no beetle activity or had been attacked only (glucose:  $0.389 \text{ } \mu\text{mol}/\text{mL} \pm 0.019$ ;  
23 fructose:  $0.395 \text{ } \mu\text{mol}/\text{mL} \pm 0.022$ ). An interaction in fructose concentration across levels  
24 of beetle activity and by tree classification approached significance ( $P < 0.08$ ).  
25 Undamaged trees that were colonized by beetles tended to have higher levels of fructose  
26 ( $0.544 \text{ } \mu\text{mol}/\text{mL} \pm 0.04$ ) than target trees ( $0.422 \text{ } \mu\text{mol}/\text{mL} \pm 0.03$ ) and undamaged trees  
27 with no beetle activity or attack only ( $0.386 \text{ } \mu\text{mol}/\text{mL} \pm 0.02$ ). Fructose concentrations

1 also were higher in undamaged colonized trees than all target trees ( $0.422 \mu\text{mol/mL} \pm$   
2  $0.03$ ).

3 The most abundant monoterpenes in target and nontarget trees ( $n = 120$ ) were  $\alpha$ -  
4 pinene,  $\beta$ -pinene, and limonene (Table 3). Alpha-pinene concentration was correlated  
5 negatively with sabinene ( $r = -0.36, P < 0.0017$ ),  $\beta$ -pinene ( $r = -0.89, P < 0.0001$ ),  
6 myrcene ( $r = -0.73, P < 0.0001$ ), limonene ( $r < -0.88, P < 0.001$ ), and terpinolene ( $r = -$   
7  $0.35, P < 0.002$ ). Positive correlations were evident between sabinene and myrcene ( $r =$   
8  $0.40, P < 0.0005$ ),  $\beta$ -pinene and myrcene ( $r = 0.72, P < 0.0001$ ),  $\beta$ -pinene and limonene  
9 ( $r = 0.67, P < 0.0001$ ), myrcene and limonene ( $r = 0.48, P < 0.001$ ), myrcene and  
10 terpinolene ( $r = 0.45, P < 0.0001$ ) and terpinolene and sabinene ( $r = 0.97, P < 0.0001$ ).

11 Of the terpenes we examined, only myrcene concentration differed between  
12 target and nontarget trees ( $P = 0.008$ ; Table 3). Negative associations were detected  
13 between area of bark removed and levels of sabinene ( $r = -0.48, P = 0.03$ ), terpinolene (  
14  $r = -0.47, P = 0.03$ ), and myrcene ( $r = -0.16, P = 0.08$ ). Sabinene, limonene, and  
15 terpinolene occurred in lower proportions in trees that had been colonized or attacked  
16 than in trees with no beetle activity (Table 3). The only monoterpene affected by the  
17 interaction of beetle activity and porcupine damage was camphene ( $F_{2,63} = 5.16, P =$   
18  $0.008$ ). Undamaged, colonized trees had higher proportions of this monoterpene ( $\bar{x} \pm$   
19  $\text{SE} = 2.4\% \pm 1.9$ ) than trees with other combinations of beetle activity and porcupine  
20 damage (pooled  $\bar{x} = 0.4\% \pm 0.1$ ).

21

#### 22 **4. Discussion**

23

24 Our findings are compatible with our predictions that porcupine bark-feeding  
25 activity predisposes pinyon pines to subsequent bark beetle activity. Our results do not  
26 unequivocally define the mechanism that explains our observations. However, we  
27 propose and elaborate 2 non-exclusive and likely interacting mechanisms responsible for

1 the facilitative association observed in our study. These mechanisms are, first, that  
2 porcupine damage is a stressor needed for successful colonization by bark beetles, and  
3 second, that porcupine damage causes release of volatile terpenes, which in turn cue pine  
4 engraver beetles to the status of potential colonization sites. In addition, we will reject  
5 alternative explanations regarding the direction of the indirect interaction.

6 The first mechanism, that porcupine damage represents an additional stressor  
7 requisite to infestation by these bark beetles, is supported by our result that trees damaged  
8 by porcupines were more likely to be colonized by bark beetles than undamaged trees. In  
9 addition, trees colonized by bark beetles had, on average, 3 times as much bark removed  
10 by porcupines as non-colonized trees. Association of beetles with trees in areas of higher  
11 pinyon pine basal area in this study further emphasizes the role of stress in insect  
12 outbreaks (Hodges and Lorio, 1975; Mattson and Haack , 1987; Paine and Baker, 1993).  
13 Under these conditions, balance of nutrients necessary for growth and defense responses  
14 of the tree is compromised because of lower levels of photosynthates and increased  
15 competition for nutrients among within-plant processes (growth-differentiation  
16 hypothesis; Lorio, 1986). Consistent with our results, Lombardero et al. (2000) found  
17 that resin flow induced by wounding in *Pinus taeda* was lowest in trees with smaller  
18 crowns and in areas of high basal density. Successful colonization by beetles was likely  
19 facilitated because of the diminished resistance by the host tree. We postulate that injury  
20 to trees by porcupines elicits a similar response, causing the tree to displace nutrients  
21 used for growth to the wound site for defense (Christiansen et al., 1987). Disruption of  
22 carbon allocation by reallocation of photosynthates to terpenes and resins surrounding  
23 feeding scars, and therefore away from the remainder of the tree, puts the tree at  
24 increased vulnerability to beetle infestation.

25 Porcupines may select pinyon pines over more abundant species to optimize  
26 nutrient acquisition and thermoregulation. Coniferous species provide thermal  
27 advantages over deciduous species (Clarke and Brander , 1973) and frequently constitute

1 the preferred feeding and resting trees of porcupines (Dodge, 1967; Griesemer, 1995;  
2 Speer and Dilworth, 1978). We observed that feeding by porcupines on oaks was  
3 restricted to leaves and acorns in the canopy, whereas consumption of bark was apparent  
4 only in pinyons. Pine bark and cambium is easier to remove than oak bark and is  
5 generally higher in fats and water content. Conversely, oak leaves and acorns are higher  
6 in protein than pine bark and cambium (Stricklan et al., 1995). Live oaks on site allowed  
7 porcupines to supplement and balance winter nutritional needs with foliage, precluding a  
8 diet restricted to bark.

9 Paired sampling on transects allowed us to eliminate site favorability as a cause  
10 for tree selection by porcupines. Significant correlations of height, crown diameter, bark  
11 thickness, and resin flow with diameter at root collar indicate that size is the dominant  
12 factor in intraspecific selection of trees. Similar findings of size-related selectivity by  
13 porcupines have been reported (Krefting et al., 1962; Tenneson and Oring, 1985; Sullivan  
14 et al., 1986). Trees colonized by beetles also were larger than nontarget trees.  
15 Preponderance of horizontal limb structure in target trees was indicative of the habit of  
16 porcupines to rest on branches and then feed and remove bark within comfortable reach  
17 (Spencer, 1964). These data validate the contention that morphological selection of trees  
18 by porcupines reflects foraging optimization (Roze, 1989).

19 We reject alternative explanations regarding the direction of the indirect  
20 interaction. First, it is unlikely that beetles are predisposing subsequent feeding by  
21 porcupines because beetles are facultative colonizers, usually requiring stressed hosts  
22 (but see Santoro et al., 2001), whereas porcupines are not limited by host health.  
23 Facilitation of beetle attack by porcupine feeding exemplifies an asymmetrical process.  
24 Porcupines, because of their size, sharp incisors, and large claws, select large, healthy  
25 trees from which they can easily remove bark. *Ips*, however, is a facultative parasite that  
26 generally attacks stressed or injured hosts (Raffa et al., 1993; but see Santoro et al.,  
27 2001). Unlike the porcupine, which is not dependent on a single host tree for survival, the



1 pine engraver spends much of its life cycle within the inner bark of the host, leaving only  
2 to disperse to a new host. Furthermore, successful brood production by all scolytid  
3 beetles requires recently dead tissue (Raffa et al., 1993). Hence, the engraving pattern  
4 typical in the course of colonization by *Ips* beetles results in death of the colonized host  
5 limb/whole tree, rendering it unavailable for use by porcupines.

6 We also reject the alternative explanation that the relationship we observed was a  
7 result of similar tree preferences by the 2 dendrophages in our study system. This  
8 explanation was similarly discussed and ultimately rejected for a budworm  
9 (*Choristoneura pinus pinus*)–bark beetle (*Ips grandicollis*)–woodborer (*Monochamus*  
10 *carolinensis*) system (Wallin and Raffa, 2001). Porcupines and beetles exhibited several  
11 differences in tree selection, especially physiologically. Our data indicate that  
12 biochemical variability may influence porcupine diet selection, but minimally. We found  
13 no correlation between feeding activity of porcupines and levels of limonene, in contrast  
14 to Snyder and Linhart (1997). Target and nontarget trees of porcupines differed for only  
15 1 physiological measure, myrcene concentration. On the other hand, as discussed below,  
16 the biochemical composition of trees colonized by beetles differed from uncolonized  
17 trees for several terpenes and carbohydrates. Association of increased beetle colonization  
18 on trees with higher levels of glucose and fructose was not surprising given nutritional  
19 requirements of the pine engraver (Haack and Slansky, 1987).

20 We propose that the second mechanism to explain the directional nature of the  
21 association between beetle colonization and porcupine feeding activity is that damage by  
22 porcupines causes release of volatile terpenes, thereby cueing pine engraver beetles to  
23 presence of toxic substances and availability of potential pheromone precursors. Such a  
24 mechanism parallels that observed for defoliator-conifer-bark beetle models of host-  
25 herbivore interactions (Wallin and Raffa, 1999; Erbilgin et al., 2003). In those systems,  
26 variation in monoterpene content and composition of the induced defenses of a host tree  
27 led to variation in the relative aggregation or inhibition of bark beetles (*Ips pini*; Erbilgin

1 et al., 2003). Defoliation intensity, which is analogous to amount of bark removed in our  
2 study, directly altered monoterpene composition and was inversely related to  
3 monoterpene concentration over long time frames ( $\geq 12$  months; Wallin and Raffa, 1999,  
4 2001).

5 Beetles, in contrast to the porcupine, appeared to select trees based on  
6 monoterpene characteristics of resin. High levels of limonene are toxic to many bark  
7 beetles (Harborne, 1993) and explain increased beetle activity on trees in our study area  
8 exhibiting low proportions of this monoterpene. Loreto et al. (2000) reported increased  
9 emissions of limonene and  $\alpha$ -pinene in artificially wounded needles of the Mediterranean  
10 pine (*Pinus pinea*). Hence, bark removal by the porcupine and resultant vaporization of  
11 limonene may alert the beetle to levels of this hydrocarbon. Similar responses to  
12 herbivore-induced volatile plant terpenes and other plant chemicals have been reported  
13 for parasitic wasps (Turlings et al., 1990) and anthocorid predators (Drukker et al., 2000).

14 Chemical reactions between host monoterpenes and pheromone production are  
15 complex and have not been identified completely for *I. hoppingi*. However, myrcene and  
16  $\alpha$ -pinene serve as pheromone precursors in other species of pine engraver beetles  
17 (Hughes, 1974; Renwick et al., 1976; Hughes and Renwick, 1977; Byers et al., 1979).  
18 Cane et al. (1990) reported a lack of pheromone specificity occurring between *I. confusus*  
19 and *I. hoppingi*, which are closely related to *I. paraconfusus* but are host-specific to  
20 pinyon pines. They attributed this lack of specificity to recent phylogenetic divergence of  
21 these beetles. Based on the close phylogenetic relationship among these species of *Ips*,  
22 we speculate that myrcene and  $\alpha$ -pinene may be suitable pheromone precursors for *I.*  
23 *hoppingi*.

24 The overwhelming dominance of monoterpene composition by  $\alpha$ -pinene in all  
25 groups of trees may have masked an association between beetle colonization and this  
26 terpene. Alpha-pinene, a major constituent of pines and other conifers, is particularly  
27 dominant in pinyon pines. Percent composition of this monoterpene ranges from about

1 10% in ponderosa pine (Sturgeon, 1979; Snyder, 1992) to > 90% in populations of  
2 Mexican pinyon pine (*Pinus cembroides*) in the Big Bend region of Texas (Zavarin and  
3 Snajberek, 1985). We postulate that *I. hoppingi* is either an  $\alpha$ -pinene obligate species or  
4 harbors *Bacillus cereus* and is therefore able to biosynthesize this monoterpene, as in *Ips*  
5 *paraconfusus* (Brand et al. 1975). Beetles attacked or colonized trees with lower levels  
6 of sabinene and terpinolene, which were terpenes that were correlated negatively with  
7 concentrations of  $\alpha$ -pinene.

8 We acknowledge that a stronger test of our hypothesis would have included  
9 experimental manipulation of trees or demonstrating the temporal sequence of  
10 dendrophagy. Alternatively, long-term temporal observation across a quantified range of  
11 bark removal by porcupines (*sensu* Wallin and Raffa, 2001) also would also strengthen  
12 our inference. However, we were constrained by the limited number of pinyon pines of  
13 comparable size and possessing physiological characteristics preferred by porcupines that  
14 were also free of porcupine and/or beetle damage (Ilse, 2001). Conservation concerns on  
15 the study area also precluded the ability to artificially inflict damage requisite to  
16 experimental manipulation. Therefore, we were unable to adequately test our hypothesis  
17 with an experimental manipulation at our study site. However, our detailed observational  
18 data supports the hypothesis and rejects alternative explanations.

19 The novel aspect of our work is the focus on the indirect effects of a vertebrate  
20 dendrophage on a insect dendrophage with the same host plant, as opposed to the large  
21 body of work exploring effects of insect defoliators on host plant suitability to other  
22 insect herbivores. However, the proposed mechanisms for the association between  
23 porcupines and bark beetles fit within the framework of integrated theories explaining  
24 host plant-herbivore interactions. First, the porcupine feeding process can be generalized  
25 to a mechanical stress to the host tree, rendering it susceptible to invertebrate infestation.  
26 The outcome of the invertebrate attack likely depends on the interaction among seasonal  
27 timing of initial damage by porcupines, attack magnitude by beetles, and the induced-

1 defense response of the stressed host (Raffa and Berryman, 1983), which is a trade-off  
2 best explained by the growth-differentiation model of plant resistance (Lorio, 1986;  
3 Herms and Mattson, 1992). Second, the putative mechanism linking the 2 dendrophages  
4 involves release of chemical cues (e.g., monoterpenes) from the host tree that are  
5 triggered by the mechanical damage. The specific composition and concentration of these  
6 cues can either trigger beetle aggregation or inhibit beetle attraction (Erbilgin et al.,  
7 2003). We suggest that the differential nature of the induced response by host plants to  
8 varying types of wounding (e.g., defoliation, root pathogenic infection, bark removal) be  
9 examined.

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14

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Table 1. Availability and use of dominant tree species by porcupines on Kickapoo Caverns State Park, southwestern Texas, USA, 1996-1999.

Tree species	Availability <sup>a</sup> ( <i>n</i> = 965)		Use ( <i>n</i> = 1092)	
	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%
Ashe juniper	350	36	155	14
Oak species	253	26	393	35
Texas persimmon	216	22	2	0.2
Papershell pinyon pine	146	15	542	50

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<sup>a</sup> Based on 300, 0.04 ha fixed-radius plots.

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2 Table 2. Morphological and physiological characteristics of pinyon pines differing with regard to porcupine and bark beetle activity on the

3 Kickapoo Caverns State Park, southwestern Texas, USA 1996-1999. Values represent average of 20 transect means.

Characteristic	Porcupines					Beetles <sup>a</sup>						
	Target		Nontarget		<i>P</i> <sup>b</sup>	None		Attacked		Colonized		<i>P</i> <sup>c</sup>
	$\bar{x}$	SE	$\bar{x}$	SE		$\bar{x}$	SE	$\bar{x}$	SE	$\bar{x}$	SE	
DRC (cm) <sup>d</sup>	22.3	1.1	12.4	0.5	<0.001	14.8 A	0.6	15.2 A	0.9	23.6 B	0.9	< 0.001
Height (m)	4.6	0.2	3.2	0.1	<0.001	4.4 A	0.2	4.6 A	0.3	7.1 B	0.3	< 0.001
Crown diameter (m)	4.1	0.2	2.3	0.1	<0.001	2.7 A	0.2	2.7 A	0.2	4.1 B	0.2	< 0.001
Crown density (%)	88.7	1.7	88.2	1.7	0.755	88.1AB	0.2	91.8A	0.2	84.3B	0.2	0.147
Bark thickness (cm)	0.8	0.03	0.4	0.02	<0.001	0.4 A	0.03	0.4 A	0.0	0.8 B	0.0	< 0.001
Basal area (m <sup>2</sup> /ha) <sup>e</sup>	3.1	0.2	1.5	0.2	0.424	1.5 A	0.3	1.3 A	0.3	2.0 B	0.4	0.04
24-hr Resin flow (mL)	2.6	0.3	1.4	0.2	<0.001	1.9	0.2	2.0	0.3	2.6	0.3	0.09

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5 <sup>a</sup> Means for each characteristic with the same letter are not different at  $\alpha = 0.05$  level of significance.6 <sup>b</sup> Main effect of porcupine damage (present or absent).7 <sup>c</sup> Main effect of level of beetle activity.8 <sup>d</sup> Diameter at root collar.9 <sup>e</sup> See text for discussion of interactive effects.

1 Table 3. Percent ( $\pm$  SE) composition of seven monoterpenes occurring in papershell pinyon pines used by porcupines and pine engraver beetles on  
 2 the Kickapoo Caverns State Park, southwestern Texas, USA, 1999. Values represent average of 20 transects (3 pairs of trees/transect).

Monoterpene %	Porcupines			Beetles <sup>a</sup>			
	Target	Nontarget	<i>P</i> <sup>b</sup>	None	Attacked	Colonized	<i>P</i> <sup>c</sup>
$\alpha$ -pinene	86.15 $\pm$ 1.83	82.63 $\pm$ 2.16	0.1187	80.14 $\pm$ 2.28	86.30 $\pm$ 3.03	88.9 $\pm$ 1.96	0.1201
Camphene <sup>d</sup>	0.39 $\pm$ 0.06	0.56 $\pm$ 0.10	0.3864	0.37 $\pm$ 0.07A	0.38 $\pm$ 0.10A	0.67 $\pm$ 0.28B	0.0223
Sabinene	0.60 $\pm$ 0.21	0.79 $\pm$ 0.25	0.4483	0.62 $\pm$ 0.17A	1.65 $\pm$ 0.60B	0.15 $\pm$ 0.08A	0.0218
$\beta$ -pinene	5.04 $\pm$ 0.91	6.65 $\pm$ 0.97	0.1298	7.64 $\pm$ 1.06	4.8 $\pm$ 1.27	4.11 $\pm$ 1.09	0.2111
Myrcene	0.63 $\pm$ 0.11	1.08 $\pm$ 0.14	0.0084	1.03 $\pm$ 0.15	0.86 $\pm$ 0.19	0.61 $\pm$ 0.14	0.4413
Limonene	6.79 $\pm$ 0.98	7.89 $\pm$ 1.11	0.2957	9.82 $\pm$ 1.25B	5.26 $\pm$ 1.40A	5.38 $\pm$ 0.93A	0.0247
Terpinolene	0.37 $\pm$ 0.11	0.44 $\pm$ 0.11	0.6043	0.34 $\pm$ 0.09A	0.91 $\pm$ 0.28B	0.17 $\pm$ 0.05A	0.0138

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 4 <sup>a</sup> Means for each monoterpene with the same letter are not different at  $\alpha = 0.05$  level of significance.

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 6 <sup>b</sup> Main effect of porcupine damage (present or absent).

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 8 <sup>c</sup> Main effect of level of beetle activity.

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 10 <sup>d</sup> See text for discussion of interactive effects.

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Figure Captions

Fig. 1. Location of study site, Kickapoo Caverns State Park, in southwestern Texas, USA with solid bars delineating vegetation transects.

Fig. 2. Association of bark beetle activity on target (porcupine-damaged) and nontarget (non-damaged) pinyon pines on Kickapoo Caverns State , in southwestern Texas, USA. N = no beetle activity; A = beetle attack only, C = beetle colonization.

Figure 1

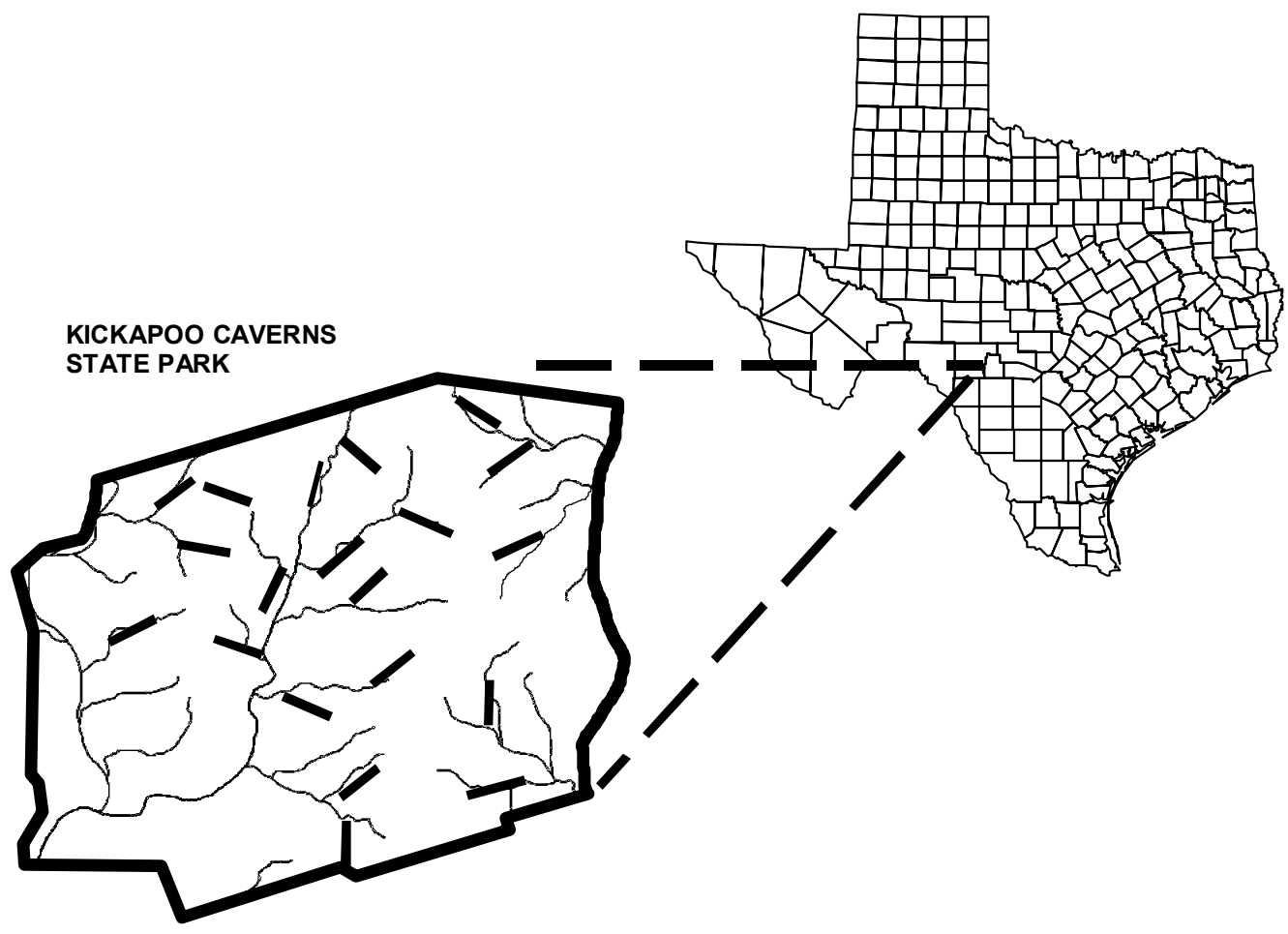


Figure 2

