

Exploring the role of life history traits and introduction effort in understanding invasion success in mammals: A case study of Barbary ground squirrels

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1 Abstract

2 Invasive species –species that have successfully overcome the barriers of transport, introduction,
3 establishment, and spread– are a risk to biodiversity and ecosystem function. Introduction effort
4 is one of the main factors attributed to invasion success, but life history traits are also important
5 as they influence population growth. In this contribution, we first investigated life history traits
6 of the Barbary ground squirrel, *Atlantoxerus getulus*, a species with a remarkably low
7 introduction effort, and studied whether their exceptional invasion success is due to a very fast
8 life history profile through a comparison of these traits to other successfully invaded mammals.
9 We then examined whether number of founders and/or a fast life history influences invasion
10 success of squirrels. We found that Barbary ground squirrels were on the fast end of the “fast-
11 slow continuum”, but their life history is not the only contributing factor for their invasion
12 success, as the life history profile is comparable to other invasive species that do not have such a
13 low introduction effort. We also found that neither life history traits nor number of founders
14 explained invasion success of introduced squirrels in general. These results contradict the
15 concept that introduction effort is the main factor explaining invasion success, especially in
16 squirrels. Instead, we argue that invasion success can be influenced by multiple aspects of the
17 new habitat or the biology of the introduced species.

18 *Keywords:* fast-slow continuum, introduction effort, invasive species, life history, population
19 dynamics

20

21 Introduction

22 Invasive species are a threat to biodiversity and ecosystem function, are an economic
23 concern, and cause multiple conservation problems (Lodge 1993; Tsutsui et al. 2000; Kolar and

24 Lodge 2001; Allendorf and Lundquist 2003). Introduced species become invasive when they
25 successfully overcome barriers related to the four different stages of the invasion process (i.e.,
26 transport, introduction, establishment, and spread; Colautti et al. 2004; Blackburn et al. 2011).
27 Factors contributing to invasion success, including introduction effort (number of founders
28 and/or introduction events), habitat, and species characteristics, can differentially impact the
29 probability for a species to successfully overcome each stage (Blackburn et al. 2011). A greater
30 number of founders promotes invasion success, as they reduce extinction probability and enable
31 populations to more readily adapt to new environments (Blackburn et al. 2015), and multiple
32 introductions increase the probability for genomic admixture and increased fitness (Keller and
33 Taylor 2010). Habitat characteristics influence invasion success (Lodge 1993; Kolar and Lodge
34 2001) as they affect the adaptive potential of the introduced species (Le Roux et al. 2008; Vahsen
35 et al. 2018). Finally, different species characteristics such as explorative and dispersive
36 behaviour, a generalist character of the species and genetic variation among the introduced
37 individuals may promote expansion success (Lodge 1993; Kolar and Lodge 2001; Fisher and
38 Owens 2004; Hayes and Barry 2008; Capellini et al. 2015). In particular, life history traits
39 promoting population growth are important at two different stages: 1) the introduction stage,
40 because particularly at first, stochastic events can lead to higher risk of extinction, suggesting
41 that smaller founding populations with slow population growth may be more susceptible to
42 extinction risk (Capellini et al. 2015); and, 2) the spread stage, because life history traits
43 influence population growth, which is essential when dispersing individuals form new
44 populations in their introduced range (Capellini et al. 2015).

45 Life history strategies of species can be placed along a “fast-slow continuum” (Stearns
46 1983; Promislow and Harvey 1990; Dobson and Oli 2007a, but see Bielby et al. 2007). Fast

47 species –species with life history traits that accompany rapid population growth, such as early
48 maturity and frequent and large litters– are generally short-lived with greater fecundity, whereas
49 species on the slow end of the continuum are long-lived with lower fecundity (Stearns 1983;
50 Promislow and Harvey 1990; Dobson and Oli 2007b). Nonetheless, species within orders or even
51 populations within species can show variation along this continuum (Dobson and Oli 2007b, a).
52 Bat species, for example, may show a combination of life history traits either related to a fast or
53 slow life history (Culina et al. 2019). In invasion ecology, fast life history traits are suggested to
54 promote population growth and spread of introduced species, thus favouring species
55 ‘invasiveness’ (Capellini et al. 2015). Mammals are more likely to be introduced if they have
56 larger, more frequent litters and a longer reproductive lifespan (Capellini et al. 2015). The
57 establishment success of introduced mammals depend on larger litters, longer reproductive
58 lifespan and greater introduction effort, and their spread success is associated with larger, more
59 frequent litters and higher introduction effort (Capellini et al. 2015). A fast life history influences
60 not only invasion success in mammals (Capellini et al. 2015, but see Sol et al. 2008), but also in
61 reptiles, amphibians (van Wilgen and Richardson 2012; Allen et al. 2017), and fishes (Liu et al.
62 2017). In birds, on the contrary, a slow life history increases the potential to be a successful
63 invader (Sæther et al. 2004; Sol et al. 2012). Thus, for different species, diverse life history traits
64 may influence their potential for invasion success.

65 Nevertheless, introduction effort is the major factor amongst those affecting invasion
66 success (Lockwood et al. 2005; Colautti et al. 2006; Simberloff 2009; Blackburn et al. 2015).
67 Thus, both fast life history traits and a high introduction effort contribute to the probability for
68 established species to successfully spread in the new range (Capellini et al. 2015; Allen et al.
69 2017). However, the role of introduction effort in explaining species invasiveness could be

70 difficult to interpret in certain taxonomic groups, such as squirrels, as some species are known to
71 be successful invaders without a high introduction effort. For example, in 71.4% of successful
72 invasions of grey squirrels, *Sciurus carolinensis*, the number of founders did not explain invasion
73 success because fewer than ten individuals were released (Wood et al. 2007; Lawton et al. 2010).
74 Also in the Pallas's squirrel, *Callosciurus erythraeus*, and the Finlayson's squirrel, *Callosciurus*
75 *finlaysonii*, the number of founders did not prevent them from establishing in their introduced
76 ranges, as fewer than seven individuals were released (Bertolino 2009; Bertolino and Lurz 2013;
77 Benitez et al. 2013).

78 We used the Barbary ground squirrel as an exemplar of a species whose introduction
79 effort is extremely low, as only two individuals from Morocco were introduced in 1965 to the
80 island of Fuerteventura, Canary Islands, Spain (Machado 1979; Kratzer et al. 2020). In 37 years,
81 the Barbary ground squirrel spread across the entire island, favoured by five translocation
82 accounts from the original founder locality to new localities on the island (Machado 1979;
83 Machado and Domínguez 1982; López-Darias, unpubl. data). Since the introduction, their
84 population has grown to an estimated one million animals (López-Darias 2007) despite low
85 genetic diversity and a small effective population size of 77 individuals (Kratzer et al. 2020). The
86 species has negative ecological, economical, and public health impacts. They consume native
87 and endemic snails (Machado and Domínguez 1982; Groh and García 2004; López-Darias
88 2007), prey upon some critically endangered species (Bañares et al. 2003) and feed upon the
89 eggs of small native and endemic passerine birds (López-Darias 2007). Their ecological impacts
90 go beyond direct predation upon species, as they directly alter plant-animal interactions of
91 fleshy-fruited plant species and ruderal weeds, including herbaceous plants of native or
92 introduced origin (López-Darias and Nogales 2008, 2016). Although reliable studies are lacking,

93 Barbary ground squirrels may compete with the endemic shrew, *Crocidura canariensis* (López-
94 Darias 2008), listed as vulnerable by the IUCN (Hutterer 2008). Additionally, these ground
95 squirrels carry parasites that impact native fauna as well as public health (Lorenzo-Morales et al.
96 2007; López-Darias et al. 2008), and cause damage to agricultural activities (Machado and
97 Domínguez 1982; López-Darias 2007). Moreover, these ground squirrels alter the population
98 dynamics of predators in two ways (López-Darias 2007). First, the ground squirrels are the main
99 prey of an endemic subspecies of Eurasian buzzard, *Buteo buteo insularum*, whose population
100 has increased on Fuerteventura in the last 40 years possibly because they prey upon this
101 abundant, new prey (Gangoso et al. 2006; López-Darias 2007). Second, the ground squirrels
102 positively impact invasive feral cat populations (Medina et al. 2008). Despite the notable
103 invasion success of the species on the island, nothing is known about the life history traits that
104 could have influenced their population growth.

105 The objective of this manuscript is three-fold. First, we investigated life history traits of
106 the Barbary ground squirrel, *Atlantoxerus getulus*, a species with a remarkably low introduction
107 effort (Machado 1979; Kratzer et al. 2020). Second, we studied whether the Barbary ground
108 squirrel's exceptional invasion success (despite low introduction effort) is due to a very fast life
109 history profile through a comparison of these traits to other successfully invaded mammals using
110 the dataset provided by Capellini et al. (2015). Third, we examined whether number of founders
111 and/or a fast life history influences invasion success of squirrels using the dataset provided by
112 Bertolino (2009). Our results will contribute to our understanding of invasion success when
113 introduction efforts are minimal and will be essential to plan for future conservation programs on
114 this species, as knowing life history traits parameters of the species, such as when females come
115 into estrus or if they can breed year-round, is core to better plan control programs. As well, our

116 research put the life history traits in a broader comparative context to understand their
117 contribution and that of introduction effort to invasion success in squirrels.

118

119 Methods

120 *Life history traits of invasive Barbary ground squirrels*

121 Of the Canary Islands' seven main volcanic islands, Fuerteventura is the closest to the
122 African continent (approximately 100 km away), the oldest, and has the second lowest altitude
123 (807 m a.s.l.). The island has an arid climate –high temperatures ($\approx 20^\circ\text{C}$) and low rainfall (on
124 average < 100 mm/year)– characterised by trade winds, which have resulted in a semi-desert
125 habitat (López-Darias and Lobo 2008). We studied the invasive population of Barbary ground
126 squirrels in the northwest of Fuerteventura ($28^\circ34'60''$ N, $13^\circ58'0''$ W). Stony plains with
127 xerophytic scrubland, interspersed with ravines caused by erosion and abandoned cultivated
128 areas that are fenced by man-made rock walls and dams characterise our study site.

129 The semifossorial Barbary ground squirrel is a social species: adult females share
130 sleeping burrows with other related females and males share sleeping burrows with unrelated
131 males and subadults of either sex (van der Marel et al. 2020). Throughout the day, both male and
132 female groups can be active in the same area (van der Marel et al. 2020).

133 To determine life history traits of the species, we trapped Barbary ground squirrels using
134 live traps (Tomahawk Co., WI, U.S.A.; 13 x 13 x 40 cm) baited with peanut butter during three
135 consecutive years (February through July 2014, January through July 2015, and January through
136 June 2016) following the procedures described in van der Marel et al. (2019, 2020). Upon
137 capture, we transferred squirrels to a conical handling bag (Koprowski 2002), where every adult

138 squirrel received a passive integrated transponder (PIT) tag (Avid Identification Systems, Inc.,
139 Norco, CA, U.S.A.) for individual identification.

140 We first assessed whether there was a distinct breeding season in the Barbary ground
141 squirrels by regularly trapping and observing male (2014: $n = 32$, 2015: $n = 52$, 2016: $n = 55$)
142 and female (2014: $n = 40$, 2015: $n = 69$, 2016: $n = 82$) reproductive progress. We reported the
143 reproductive status of adult males through the year from non-scrotal to descending scrotum, fully
144 scrotal, and regressing scrotum. Subadult males (2014: $n = 8$, 2016: $n = 1$) were those individuals
145 that have reached adult body size, were over six months old, but did not have descended testes
146 (Waterman 1996). Female subadults (2014: $n = 6$) were individuals that have reached adult body
147 size, were over six months of age, but their vulva and nipples were not swollen during the mating
148 season (indicative of no reproduction). We assessed the reproductive progress of adult females by
149 measuring gestation length from oestrus date until parturition date. We estimated the day of
150 oestrus following previous recommendations by Pettitt et al. (2008) and Waterman (1996).
151 Lactation length was measured from the day of parturition to the day of juvenile emergence. We
152 determined the day of parturition by trapping and weighing the females more extensively around
153 their expected parturition date and by palpating their lower abdomen for embryos. The nipples of
154 immature (subadult) females are small but after their first successful parturition, the nipples
155 elongate and swell during lactation. Large bite marks surrounding the nipples indicated the
156 weaning period. We calculated the weaning age from the day of juvenile emergence until the bite
157 marks around the nipples of the mothers started to subside. After weaning, the nipples of adult
158 females stay elongated but not swollen (Waterman 1996). We estimated age at first birth in
159 females with known date of birth ($n = 8$). As our sample size was small, we also estimated age at
160 first birth in females with unknown day of birth but instead with known date of emergence. For

161 these females, we added the average lactation length to the date of emergence to acquire their age
162 at first birth. We only used females, because we were certain they had mated due to the swelling
163 of their vulva and presence of copulatory plugs. As age at first birth violated the assumptions of
164 the normality and homoscedasticity of a parametric test, we tested for a difference in our two
165 estimates (females with known date of birth vs females with known date of juvenile emergence)
166 using a Mann-Whitney *U* test.

167 To locate nest burrows of adult pregnant females, we fitted them with radio collars (3.6 g
168 PD-2C transmitters, Holohil Systems Ltd., Carp, Ontario, Canada) just prior to juvenile
169 emergence. We radiotracked the females using an R-1000 telemetry receiver (Communications
170 Specialists, Inc., Orange, CA, U.S.A.) and a Yagi antenna model F150-3FB (Advanced
171 Telemetry Systems, Inc., Isanti, MN, U.S.A). Upon juvenile emergence, we extensively trapped
172 at nest burrows to sex, measure, and mark the juveniles (individuals newly emerged from their
173 nest burrow up to six months of age) with ear tags (#1005 Size 1 Monel, National Band and Tag
174 Co., Newport, KY, U.S.A.). We also determined litters per year and litter size. We used a
175 Kruskal-Wallis test to analyse differences in average litter size across years. We calculated litter
176 sex ratio as the proportion of male juveniles out of the total emerged juveniles (Charnov 1982;
177 Ryan et al. 2012), which we analysed using a chi-square test of independence. We tested whether
178 litter sex ratio differed from parity using an exact binomial test. Using a chi-square test of
179 independence, we analysed differences in juvenile survival rate measured as the proportion of
180 emerged juveniles that survived to one month. Occasionally, mothers merged their litters with the
181 litters of other adult females before all juveniles were trapped and marked, resulting in unmarked
182 juveniles at a communal burrow. These litters were excluded because we were uncertain of the
183 identity of the mothers. Finally, we calculated maternal success rate as the proportion of females

184 successfully raising their litter to emergence and used a chi-square test of independence to test
185 for differences in maternal success rate.

186 We were unable to measure neonatal body mass in the field because the females give
187 birth within their nest burrow, therefore we used neonatal body mass recorded during an earlier
188 study with the Barbary ground squirrels on Fuerteventura (mean \pm SE = 8.1 \pm 0.5 g, $n = 5$
189 juveniles; Machado and Domínguez 1982). We measured adult body mass using a spring scale (\pm
190 5 g; Pesola AG, Baar, Switzerland) and focused on masses outside of the reproductive period,
191 selecting males that were non-scrotal and females prior to the breeding season or after their
192 offspring were weaned. We measured average adult lifespan for individuals of known age and for
193 individuals of uncertain age, thus, individuals that did not survive into adulthood were excluded.
194 We tested for sex differences in average lifespan using Mann-Whitney U tests. We calculated
195 adult survival as the proportion of adults in a group that were trapped in the following field
196 season (January 2015, 2016, and 2017). We censored adult survival for squirrels that were
197 already adults in our first field season and were still alive in our last field season, i.e., squirrels
198 with uncertain age. We performed the Kaplan-Meier approach on our censored data using the
199 ‘Survival’ package version 2.43-1 (Therneau and Grambsch 2000; Therneau 2015). Reproductive
200 lifespan was calculated from the maximum lifespan/longevity (5.0 year) reported in Aulagnier et
201 al. (2013) transformed into days and age at first birth in days following Capellini et al. (2015).

202 To understand the contribution of life history traits and introduction effort to invasion
203 success, we questioned whether the Barbary ground squirrel's exceptional invasion success
204 (despite low introduction effort) is due to a very fast life history profile. We compared the life
205 history profile of the Barbary ground squirrel population to the life histories of other invasive
206 mammals and other invasive squirrels using the dataset provided by Capellini et al. (2015).

207 All applicable institutional and/or national guidelines for the care and use of animals
208 were followed. All procedures conformed to the guidelines of the American Society of
209 Mammalogists for the use of wild mammals in research, were approved by the University of
210 Manitoba Animal Care and Use Committee (protocol #F14-032), and were permitted by the
211 government of Fuerteventura (Cabildo Insular de Fuerteventura #14885). We performed all the
212 statistical analyses with alpha set to 0.05 in R version 3.5.1 (R Core Team 2017). We reported the
213 mean \pm standard error (*SE*).

214

215 *Life history vs introduction effort in explaining invasion success of squirrels*

216 We used a Bayesian Phylogenetic Multilevel Model to test the impact of life history traits
217 (longevity, body mass, gestation length, weaning age, litter size, litters per year, age at first birth,
218 and reproductive lifespan) and introduction effort (number of founders and times introduced) on
219 the invasion status of squirrels (Bertolino 2009). For our phylogeny, we selected the squirrel
220 species reported in Bertolino et al. (2009) from a mammalian supertree provided by Rolland et
221 al. (2014). In our model, we used invasion status (successfully spread or not; Bernoulli
222 distribution) as our dependent variable. We tested for collinearity between our variables using the
223 variance inflation factor (VIF) function from the ‘CAR’ package version 3.0-2 (Fox and
224 Weisberg 2011) and excluded covariates with the variance inflation factor (VIF) above three. We
225 included number of founders, weaning age, litters per year, and age at first birth as our covariates
226 (ESM 1) and standardised these variables. We used species as random factor to account for any
227 effects that are independent of the phylogenetic relationship between species as we had multiple
228 introduction events per species ($n = 8$ species ranging between 1 and 28 introduction events with
229 878 data points in total, Bertolino 2009). We also accounted for phylogenetic signal between

230 species. We ran two models, one without added variability of the independent variables within
231 species and one with it. As only the number of founders was variable per species, we only had to
232 account for this covariate. We used the ‘get_prior’ function to set our prior. As settings for our
233 model, we used three chains, two cores, 10000 iterations, and 1500 as the warmup (burnin), and
234 we set the ‘adapt_delta’ to 0.99. We visually inspected for model convergence and we assessed
235 mixing by ensuring that the effective sample sizes for all parameters were above 1000. We
236 selected the model with the lowest loo information criterion (Vehtari et al. 2017). We assessed
237 the influence of each independent variable on invasion status by analyzing whether the posterior
238 distribution crosses zero. If the posterior distribution of the parameter estimates (β) crosses zero
239 then that variable has a negligible effect on the dependent variable, whereas if it substantially
240 shifted from zero then that variable has an influential effect. For this analysis, we used the R
241 package ‘brms’ (Bürkner 2017, 2018) from the Stan environment (<http://mc-stan.org/>). We
242 performed the statistical analyses in R version 4.0.1 (R Core Team 2020).

243

244 Results

245 *Life history traits of invasive Barbary ground squirrels*

246 Reproduction in the Barbary ground squirrels was seasonal; in 2014, mating started at the
247 end of January and ended mid-March, whereas in 2015 and 2016 mating started at the beginning
248 of January and late December and ended mid-February and at the end of January, respectively.
249 Males were scrotal for 76.3 ± 4.0 days ($n = 65$) after the last day of the mating period, but it took
250 on average 152.1 ± 5.0 days ($n = 54$) for males to fully regress their scrota. All adult females that
251 we sampled within a group bred. Gestation length was 43.5 ± 0.4 days (range 39-49 days; $n = 47$
252 females) and lactation lasted 42.3 ± 0.5 days (range 39-46 days; $n = 43$ females). Female age at

253 first birth was the first breeding season except for the six subadults in 2014. The estimates of age
254 at first birth calculated for females with known date of birth (343.4 ± 11.0 days, $n = 8$) and for
255 females with known date of emergence (345.5 ± 5.7 days, $n = 15$) did not differ (Mann-Whitney
256 U test: $U = 53$, $P = 0.67$). Therefore, average age of first birth was 344.8 ± 5.2 days ($n = 23$
257 females).

258 Over a two-year period (2015 and 2016), 15 of 138 pregnancies failed (10.9%). Females
259 rebred in 11 of these failed pregnancies (73.3%), although five of these later pregnancies failed
260 again (45.5%). Maternal success rate (proportion of females that successfully raised their litter to
261 emergence) did not differ among years (2014: 0.78, 2015: 0.76, and 2016: 0.79; chi-square test
262 of independence: $\chi^2_2 = 0.71$, $P = 0.70$). In 2016, eight females of a total of 80 (10.0%) were
263 observed to have a second litter in one breeding season after they had successfully bred once, but
264 we do not have data on their litters because we left the field before the emergence of these late
265 litters. In 2014, 112 juveniles emerged from 28 litters; in 2015, 161 juveniles from 44 litters; and
266 in 2016, 166 juveniles from 63 litters. Average litter size did not differ among years (2014: $2.3 \pm$
267 0.3 , 2015: 3.4 ± 0.4 , and 2016: 3.1 ± 0.2 ; Kruskal-Wallis test: $H_2 = 3.91$, $P = 0.14$). The mean
268 percentage of adult females that were successful in raising one litter during the three-year period
269 was $75.5 \pm 2.0\%$, with a litter size of 3.0 ± 0.2 [1 – 8] juveniles/litter ($n = 62$ litters). Litter sex
270 ratio was 0.50 male across all years and did not differ among years (2014: 0.50, 2015: 0.47, and
271 2016: 0.52; chi-square test of independence: $\chi^2_2 = 0.24$, $P = 0.89$), nor did it differ from parity
272 (exact binomial test: two-tailed $P = 1.0$, 95%-CI = [0.42 - 0.59], $n = 45$ litters from 40 distinct
273 females). Juvenile mortality was significantly lower in 2014 (19.4%) compared to 2015 (50.3%)
274 and 2016 (49.4%), respectively ($\chi^2_2 = 31.24$, $P < 0.001$).

275 Average adult body mass outside of the reproductive season was 221.1 ± 5.7 g ($n = 116$
276 individuals) with males weighing 227.0 ± 6.4 g ($n = 51$), and females weighing 204.0 ± 5.0 g
277 ($n = 65$). As average lifespan did not differ between adult males and females (lifespan of
278 individuals of known age, Mann-Whitney U test: $U = 247.5$, $P = 0.20$; and lifespan of
279 individuals of uncertain age included, $U = 10187$, $P = 0.95$), we combined the sexes. The
280 estimated average lifespan of the Barbary ground squirrel in our sites calculated over a three-year
281 span was 1.48 ± 0.09 years of age for the individuals with known age ($n = 52$), but 1.76 ± 0.06
282 years when individuals with uncertain age were included ($n = 239$). The survival rate did not
283 differ between males and females ($P = 0.41$) and was 0.89 ± 0.02 , 0.79 ± 0.03 , and 0.73 ± 0.04 at
284 age 1, 2, and 3 years, respectively. Reproductive lifespan calculated using the maximum
285 lifespan/longevity of five years (Aulagnier et al., 2013) was 1480.2 days (4.1 years).

286 Although, the reproductive lifespan is shorter and body mass is lower than other invasive
287 species, Barbary ground squirrels have large and frequent litters similar to other invasive species
288 (Table 1, Fig. 1).

289

290 *Life history vs introduction effort in explaining invasion success of squirrels*

291 The model without added variability of the independent variables within species
292 (looic = 71.7) best explained whether squirrels were successful invaders in comparison to the
293 model with added variability of the independent variables within species (looic = 82.6).
294 However, neither number of founders, nor life history characteristics explained invasion status of
295 introduced squirrels (Fig. 2), as all the posterior distributions of the covariates crossed zero
296 (Fig. 3). We found effects that were both dependent and independent of the phylogenetic

297 relationship between species (random effect species: 95% CI = [0.01 – 1.99] and phylogenetic
298 signal: 95% CI = [0.04 – 4.13]).

299

300 Discussion

301 Our study provides the first detailed data on the life history and population dynamics of
302 an invasive population of Barbary ground squirrels, a species with one of the lowest introduction
303 efforts (one pair or three individuals as founders, Katzer et al. 2020) but great invasion success
304 compared to other introduced mammals (Capellini et al. 2015). The Barbary ground squirrel
305 represents the fast end of the “fast-slow continuum” of life history traits, because they are
306 small-bodied, mature within their first year and females have large and frequent litters (Table 1).
307 Barbary ground squirrels’ exceptional invasion success (despite low introduction effort, Katzer
308 et al. 2020) is not due to a remarkable fast life history profile as their life history is comparable to
309 other invasive species that do not have such a low introduction effort (Table 1, Fig 1). When we
310 analysed the effects of introduction effort and life history traits further, we found that neither
311 number of founders nor life history traits influenced invasion status of introduced squirrel
312 species. These results suggest that especially for squirrels, other traits besides introduction effort
313 and life history traits influence their probability to successfully invade a new range, which we
314 discuss further below.

315

316 *Potential factors influencing invasion success of Barbary ground squirrels*

317 The Barbary ground squirrel can be considered a genetic paradox of invasion (Estoup et
318 al. 2016). The successfully invaded population was founded by 2 or 3 individuals resulting in
319 low genetic diversity and high level of inbreeding (Kratzer et al. 2020). A high degree of

320 inbreeding could lead to inbreeding depression, i.e., a high impact of deleterious alleles on the
321 average fitness of offspring (Ralls et al. 1979; Ralls and Ballou 1982). But, the particular case of
322 the Barbary ground squirrel, with a population estimated at around one million individuals
323 (López-Darias 2007), argues against inbreeding depression, because this population has
324 successfully reproduced and grown. Although the squirrels have a fast life history, this factor
325 alone could not explain their invasion success (this study). Besides a fast life history, other
326 aspects, such as anthropogenic, habitat or species-level factors, may have favoured the invasion
327 success. First, multiple anthropogenic translocations of the initial founder population (Machado
328 1979; Machado and Domínguez 1982; López-Darias, unpubl. data) may have had a significant
329 effect on the invasion success of the Barbary ground squirrel.

330 Second, climatically matched habitat characteristics could impact the adaptive potential
331 and population growth of an introduced species in their new range (Lodge 1993; Kolar and
332 Lodge 2001; Forsyth et al. 2004; Hayes and Barry 2008). For Barbary ground squirrels, climate
333 conditions of the source location (Sidi Ifni, Morocco, Machado 1979; 133 mm rainfall/year and
334 19.2 °C, Merkel, n.d.) are very similar to the habitat on Fuerteventura (Machado 1979; <100 mm
335 rainfall/year and ~ 20 °C, López-Darias and Lobo 2008). Since the climate is so similar, it is no
336 surprise that climate did not affect the squirrel's abundance in their invasive range (López-Darias
337 and Lobo 2008). As well, habitat preferences are similar between the native (Rihane et al. 2019)
338 and the invasive range (López-Darias and Lobo 2008). Moreover, Barbary ground squirrels are
339 reported to have a low diversity of parasites in their new range (López-Darias et al. 2008), and
340 number of predator species (species richness) is lower in the invasive range (Gangoso et al.
341 2006; Medina et al. 2008) compared to the endemic range (Machado 1979). Additionally, the
342 main current aerial predator (the Eurasian buzzard) had an atypically small population at the time

343 the squirrels were introduced (Gangoso et al. 2006), suggesting a release from predation around
344 the establishment stage of the Barbary ground squirrel. Only 2% of the diet of the only terrestrial
345 predator of the Barbary ground squirrel, feral cats, consists of the squirrels (Medina et al. 2008).
346 Nevertheless, predation pressure may still be significant if the number of feral cats is large. No
347 information regarding the population size of feral cats is available, but cats were introduced to
348 the Canarian archipelago in the 15th century and are now present in each habitat of each main
349 island (Medina et al. 2008). Overall, Fuerteventura can be considered a suitable habitat for the
350 Barbary ground squirrel.

351 Barbary ground squirrels also may have become successful invaders due to behavioural
352 advantages, as favourable behavioural traits promote success at each stage of the invasion
353 (Holway and Suarez 1999; Chapple et al. 2012; Carere and Gherardi 2013). Species with
354 increased interspecific or decreased intraspecific aggression, and behaviours enhancing their
355 dispersal, e.g., exploration, activity, and boldness, should perform better in their new habitat
356 (Holway and Suarez 1999). These behavioural traits have been hypothesised to represent an
357 invasion syndrome (Sih et al. 2004; Chapple et al. 2012), and can be linked to life history traits,
358 which then result in “pace-of-life” syndromes (Réale et al. 2010). Often species with a fast pace-
359 of-life syndrome, i.e., more explorative and bold species, have lower survival chances because
360 they are more exposed to predators and parasites (Réale et al. 2010). For introduced species, a
361 fast pace-of-life may be advantageous since there are fewer predators and parasites resulting in
362 higher survival chances. In Barbary ground squirrels, this hypothesis is supported, because more
363 explorative individuals were better at avoiding predation, resulting in greater survival chances
364 (Piquet et al. 2018).

365 Finally, generalist species –species not specialised in habitat use or diet– are suggested to
366 better adapt to a variable environment and to have a better chance of becoming successful than
367 specialist species (Fisher and Owens 2004). The Barbary ground squirrel has a generalist diet
368 because they are omnivorous and eat not only seeds, nuts, and fruits, but also native mollusks
369 (Machado and Domínguez 1982; López-Darias and Nogales 2008). Also, we have recorded them
370 feeding on the horns and hooves of goat carcasses (van der Marel, pers. obs.), supporting the
371 suggestion that the squirrels could be mineral-limited (Machado 1979). A generalist diet could
372 have helped the squirrels survive dry years with scarce resources, as they would have a wider
373 niche breadth and not depend on a limiting resource. For example, in Darwin’s tree finches,
374 generalist species have a more varied diet in dry years compared to wet years (Christensen and
375 Kleindorfer 2009). Thus, multiple different aspects could have helped the squirrels overcome
376 barriers in their introduced range.

377

378 *Life history vs introduction effort in explaining invasion success of squirrels*

379 Neither introduction effort measured as the number of founders nor life history traits
380 affected invasion status of squirrels as all the posterior distributions of the covariates crossed
381 zero (Figure 3). The life history traits may not be varied enough among the related squirrel
382 species studied here to show any effects on invasion status, as we do see an effect of phylogeny
383 in our model. It seems counterintuitive that introduction effort does not impact invasion success,
384 because multiple advantages are associated with a high introduction effort (Lockwood et al.
385 2005; Colautti et al. 2006; Simberloff 2009; Blackburn et al. 2015). First, multiple introduction
386 events increase fitness (Keller and Taylor 2010) and eventually genetic diversity (Dlugosch and
387 Parker 2008). Genetic diversity loss is U-shaped when plotted against time since first

388 introduction, suggesting that an invasive population regains its genetic diversity over time, which
389 can be promoted when multiple introduced populations connect (Dlugosch and Parker 2008).
390 Second, more founders reduce the risk of extinction and promote adaptability to the new
391 environment through increased genetic diversity (Dlugosch and Parker 2008; Blackburn et al.
392 2015). For example, lower genetic diversity caused by a small number of founders reduced the
393 spread rate of grey squirrels (Signorile et al. 2014). Still, the species did successfully spread
394 despite a low introduction effort, albeit slower, suggesting that a loss in genetic diversity does
395 not imply a loss in the adaptive potential of an introduced species per se (Dlugosch and Parker
396 2008). Instead, the probability for population growth from a small founding population in tree
397 squirrels may be attributed to high reproductive output (Wood et al. 2007). Additionally, climate
398 suitability may be a better predictor for invasion success than the number of founders or a fast
399 life history in squirrels, similar to mammals introduced to Australia (Forsyth et al. 2004).
400 Normally, demographic stochasticity negatively affects population growth in small populations;
401 However, other factors unrelated to demographic stochasticity, such as unsuitable habitat or
402 climate, may negatively impact large populations as well (Blackburn et al. 2015). As such, small
403 populations may then persist when other factors, such as climate and habitat suitability, work
404 instead in their favour.

405

406 *Concluding remarks and future studies*

407 Barbary ground squirrels have a fast life history strategy resulting in rapid population
408 growth. If these life history traits have not changed since 1965, their fast life history may have
409 contributed to their invasion success with an extremely low introduction effort on Fuerteventura
410 Island, together with favourable behavioural traits, a generalist diet and good resources, enemy

411 release, and similar habitats and climate. Only by understanding their basic biology will we be in
412 the position to control and minimise the ecological damage this species causes in their new
413 habitat. For a future study, we could run a population model to predict how long it would take for
414 a pair of squirrels to spread across the island or to evaluate the necessary effort to control the
415 population or reduce the number of squirrels on Fuerteventura, while taking the factors
416 influencing their invasion success into account (Merrick and Koprowski 2017).

417 Our study also aids in constructing a comprehensive framework on the factors, including
418 life history traits and introduction effort, influencing invasion success in mammals. For
419 introduced squirrels, suitable climate or habitat may be more important predictors whether a
420 species becomes a successful invader than introduction effort or life history traits alone. Our
421 results contradict the concept that introduction effort is the key factor influencing invasion
422 success (Lockwood et al. 2005; Simberloff 2009); instead, we argue that the invasion success can
423 be influenced by multiple aspects of the new habitat or the biology of the introduced species.

424

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429

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453

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- 657

658 Figure legends

659 **Fig. 1** Density plots of a) number of introductions and the life history traits, b) longevity, c)
660 gestation time, d) weaning age, e) litter size, f) litters per year, g) age at first birth, and h)
661 reproductive lifespan, of mammals and species of the family Sciuridae (squirrels, including
662 Barbary ground squirrels *Atlantoxerus getulus*) that successfully spread in their introduced range
663 (invasive species). Dashed lines are the median values for mammals (blue) and squirrels (orange)
664 and the point values for the traits of Barbary ground squirrels (dashed green line)

665

666 **Fig. 2** The (a) number of founders, (b) weaning age, (c) litters per year, and (d) age at first birth
667 for squirrel species that did not successfully spread (no) and that did successfully spread (yes)
668 into their new geographical range. The dark line is the median, the box edges are the upper and
669 lower quartiles, the whiskers are 50% from the median, and the closed circles are the outliers,
670 calculated as the values smaller or larger than 1.5 times the box length (i.e., upper - lower
671 quantile). Note the non-standardized y-values

672

673 **Fig. 3** The posterior distribution of the parameter estimates (β) of introduction effort and life
674 history traits. The distributions that cross zero have a negligible effect on invasion status,
675 whereas distributions that do not contain zero have a strong effect on invasion status

Table 1 Life history traits median values and sample size (N) for all mammals, the species of the family Sciuridae (squirrels, including Barbary ground squirrels *A. getulus*) that successfully spread in their introduced range (invasive species), and the Barbary ground squirrels only

	Mammals ^a		Only squirrels ^a		<i>A. getulus</i> only
	<i>N</i>	median	<i>N</i>	median	
Introduction effort	47	26	6	11	1
Body mass (g)	47	6361.6	5	349.6	221.1
Neonatal body mass (g)	47	113.0	4	8.8	8.9
Litter size	47	2.3	5	3.8	2.9
Litters/year	47	1	6	2	1
Age at first birth (days)	45	403.3	5	357.5	344.8
Gestation time (days)	47	66.4	5	41.4	43.5
Weaning age (days)	45	60.9	5	54.8	66
Longevity (years)	47	20.0	5	15.9	5
Reproductive lifespan (years)	45	18.3	5	15.1	4.1

^a Life history traits adopted from Capellini et al. (2015), except for the *A. getulus* data.

Fig. 1

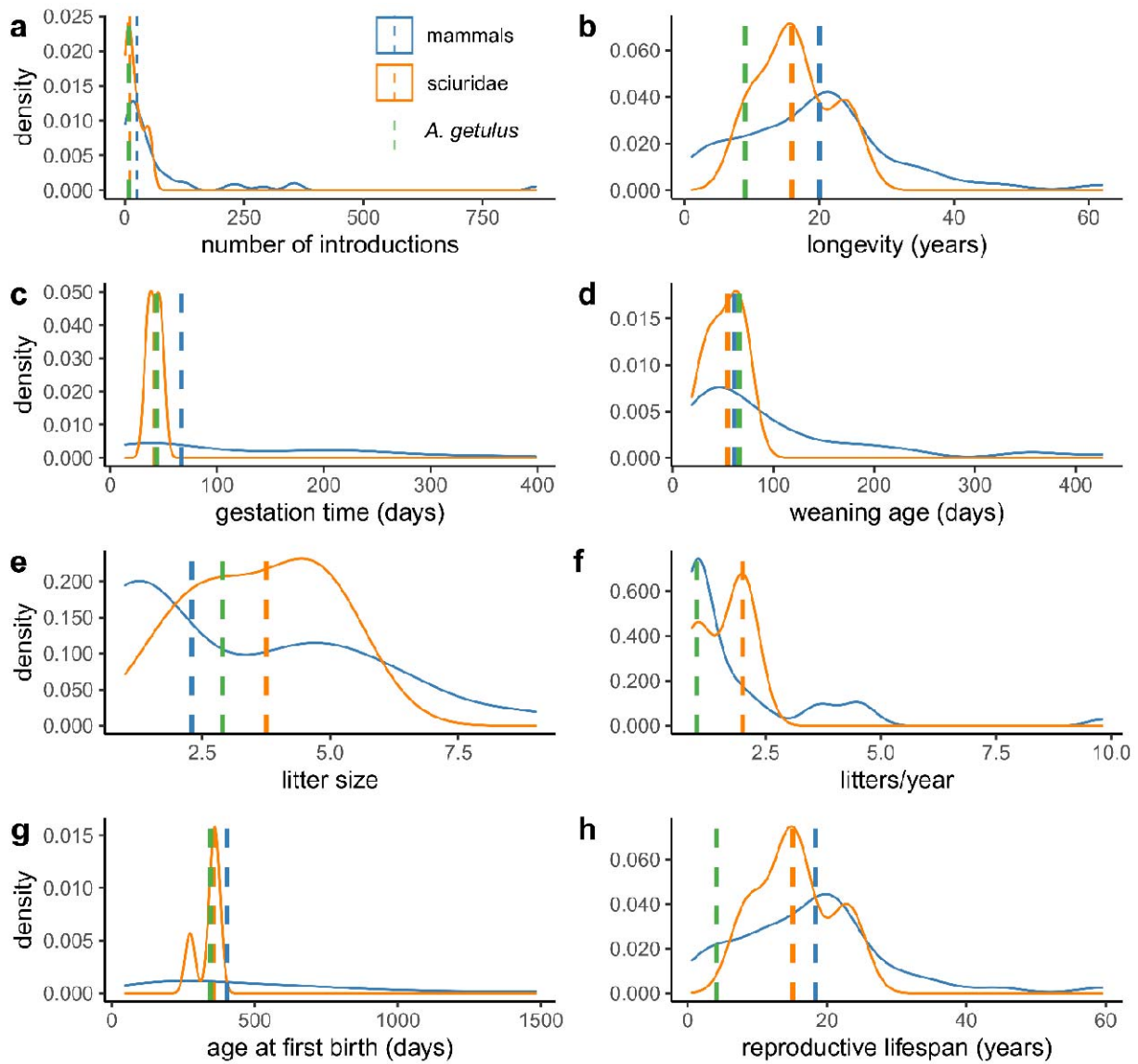


Fig. 2

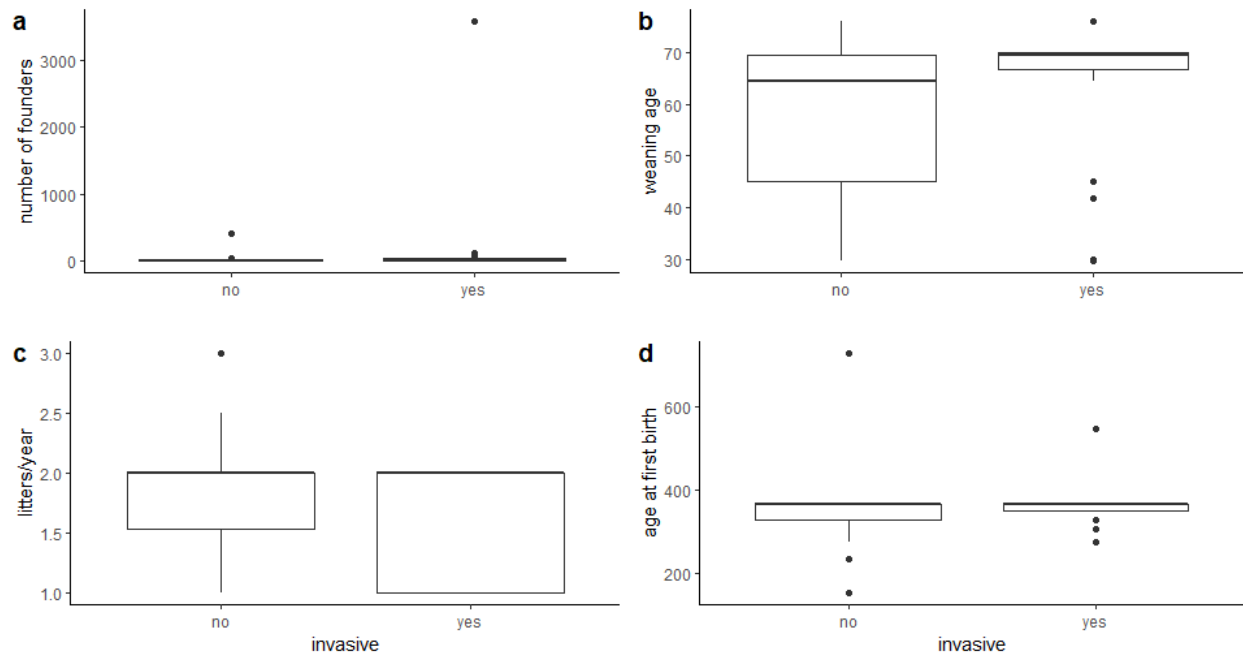


Fig. 3

