Temporal changes in species composition affect a ubiquitous species' views of patch quality 1 2 3 Ellen K. Bledsoe, School of Natural Resources and Environment, University of Florida, 4 ellen.bledsoe@ufl.edu [corresponding author] 5 S. K. Morgan Ernest, Department of Wildlife Ecology and Conservation, University of Florida, 6 7 skmorgane@ufl.edu 8 9 Abstract Metacommunity theory, particularly the patch dynamics archetype, suggests that an organism's 10 11 perspective of patch quality can depend solely on the local competitive environment. Across 12 landscapes, however, shifts in species composition often co-occur with shifts in habitat, making 13 it difficult to disentangle the role of competitors and environment on assessments of patch 14 quality. Using 26 years of rodent community time-series data, we show that perception of patch quality by a small, ubiquitous granivore (*Chaetodipus penicillatus*) shifted with both spatial and 15 temporal changes in species composition. In the mid-1990s, C. baileyi, a novel competitor, 16 17 colonized and the study site. C. penicillatus patch preference shifted with increasing abundance of C. baileyi, including corresponding changes in estimated survival, probability of movement 18 19 between patches, and the arrival of new individuals in patches. Changes in energy use on patches 20 due to the establishment of C. baileyi point to a potential mechanism for the differences in patch quality perceived by C. penicillatus. These results demonstrate that experimental time-series data 21 22 can be used to examine how changes in species composition and, specifically, changes in the 23 competitive landscape, can affect perception of patch quality and patch preference.

24 **Key words**: metacommunity, patch heterogeneity, patch preference, species composition

25

26 Introduction

27 Species often exist on continuous landscapes consisting of a patchwork of habitats, some 28 of which are conducive to a species' survival and reproduction and others which are less suitable. 29 The long-term persistence of a species on one of these landscapes is a function of both its 30 interactions with other species within suitable patches and the ability of it and its enemies to 31 move across this landscape (Huffaker 1958, Ricklefs 1987). One framework developed to study 32 such scenarios is metacommunity theory (Leibold et al. 2004). A metacommunity is a group of 33 interacting communities (or "localities") connected by dispersal (Wilson 1992, Leibold et al. 34 2004). One of the most useful aspects of the metacommunity framework is the ability to 35 simultaneously consider multiple processes that are acting at different scales. Within patches, 36 multiple populations of species interact, and mechanisms of species coexistence play an 37 important role. These local communities, however, are also connected to each other at a larger 38 scale where regional processes (e.g., dispersal, colonization and extinction events, and landscape 39 heterogeneity) become increasingly important. Two main messages have emerged from 40 metacommunity theory since its formal proposal by Leibold et al. (2004): 1) metacommunities represent the interaction of local and regional processes and the scales at which they operate, and 41 42 2) some type of patch heterogeneity remains an integral assumption to the vast majority of work on metacommunities (Leibold & Chase 2018). 43

Landscape heterogeneity in patches is important for maintaining diverse
metacommunities. Variability in environmental conditions creates niche opportunities (Comins
& Noble 1985), while variability in patch connectivity supports scenarios where populations can
be rescued from extinction by dispersal (Brown & Kodric-Brown 1977) or where species can

48 find isolated refuges when they would otherwise be driven extinct (Sedell et al. 1990). Metacommunity ecology often focuses on spatial patterns in heterogeneity-differences between 49 patches in habitat (e.g., vegetation structure) or abiotic conditions (e.g., temperature, soil 50 51 conditions). However, changes in patch conditions can also take place through time (Azeria & 52 Kolasa 2008, Ernest et al. 2008), resulting in patches that may vary in their suitability for a 53 species as conditions change in the future. Despite the fact that population dynamics and regional processes (i.e., dispersal, colonization, extinction) are inherently both spatial and temporal, 54 temporal variation in patch heterogeneity is not frequently incorporated into the metacommunity 55 56 framework. An organism's perspective on the quality of a patch not only depends on the 57 58 environmental conditions of a patch but also the local competitive environment (i.e., 59 colonization-competition trade-offs; Levins & Culver 1971, Tilman 1994). For example, two patches of equivalent environment may differ considerably in their suitability for a species based 60 61 solely on the presence or absence of a dominant competitor (Durant 1998). Because metacommunities are embedded in dynamic landscapes, the impact of a dominant competitor on 62 a subdominant species' patch preferences may also vary over time depending on the resource-63 64 supply rates or shifts in the competitive hierarchy (Tilman 1982, Amarasekare et al. 2004). 65 Understanding a species' perception of biotically-induced changes in patch quality over time is 66 complicated because shifts in species composition often co-occur across landscapes with shifts in 67 habitat (MacArthur et al. 1966, Whittaker 1967, Tews et al. 2004). Species may be less abundant or absent from certain patches, but whether that absence is due to the patch having an 68 69 incompatible environment, the isolation of the patch from other patches, the presence of superior 70 competitors, or a combination of any of the above reasons is often unclear. Thus, the role of

shifting biotic conditions in determining how a species views the patchy landscape is often
difficult to disentangle (Kraft et al. 2015).

To understand how shifts in species composition can alter a species' perception of patch 73 74 quality, we can leverage long-term experiments manipulating the presence of dominant species 75 across patches. If conducted at a small enough spatial scale, these species manipulations are 76 independent of landscape-level changes in environmental conditions that often are correlated 77 with changes in species composition. In this study, we use time-series data from a desert rodent 78 community in southeastern Arizona, USA, to show how both spatial and temporal variation in 79 the competitive biotic landscape affect species and their perception of patch quality. Our system has both control plots (all rodents have access) and manipulated plots in which kangaroo rats, the 80 81 behaviorally dominant genus in the system, are selectively excluded. Recent studies have shown 82 only minimal impacts of the treatment on the plant community (Supp et al. 2012, Christensen et 83 al. 2018); thus, this system creates a landscape with patches differing in quality due primarily to 84 differences in rodent species composition caused by the removal of the dominant competitor, kangaroo rats. In the mid-1990s, this competitive landscape was altered when a species of large 85 pocket mouse (Chaetodipus bailevi) colonized. It rapidly became one of the most abundant 86 87 species at the site for over two decades but exhibited a preference for kangaroo rat exclosure plots. Here, we ask how the patch preference of a small, subdominant pocket mouse, C. 88 89 *penicillatus*, across this landscape of patches with and without kangaroo rats was impacted by 90 the change in the competitive landscape with the arrival of the larger pocket mouse, C. bailevi. 91

92 Methods

93 Study System and Data

94	We used a 26-year time series (1988 – 2014) of capture-mark-recapture rodent data
95	collected from the Portal Project to see how C. penicillatus responded to the arrival of a novel
96	competitor, C. baileyi, through time. The Portal Project, started in 1977, is a long-term
97	experimental system (Brown et al. 1998) located in the Chihuahuan desert near Portal, Arizona,
98	USA, on colonized land of the Chiricahua Apache now under the jurisdiction of the U.S. Bureau
99	of Land Management. The site consists of 24 50x50 m fenced plots with three treatment types. In
100	control plots ($n = 10$), holes cut in the fence are large enough to allow all rodent species access
101	while full rodent removal plots ($n = 6$) have no gates. Kangaroo rat exclosures ($n = 8$) have small
102	holes in the fences which allow passage of all rodents except for kangaroo rats (Dipodomys
103	genus), which are behaviorally dominant in the system (Brown & Heske 1990). Each plot
104	consists of 49 evenly-spaced permanent trapping stations in a 7x7 grid. Rodent abundance and
105	composition data are collected monthly using Sherman live traps (Ernest et al. 2018). We
106	identify trapped individuals to species, measure and record size and sex characteristics, and give
107	each rodent an individualizing marker. In the past, toe and ear tags were used to mark
108	individuals, but we now exclusively use passive integrated transponder (PIT) tags. We excluded
109	data collected after 2014 because the treatments for many plots changed in early 2015.
110	
111	Analyses
112	All analyses were performed using R 3.5.0 (R Core Team 2018). Data and code are available on
113	GitHub (https://github.com/weecology/PortalData; https://github.com/bleds22e/PP_shifts).

114

115 Patch preference of C. penicillatus in response to C. baileyi abundance

116	To determine how C. penicillatus abundance in control plots and kangaroo rat exclosures
117	differed from equal through time, we fit a linear model along the 1:1 line of mean C. penicillatus
118	per plot by year in kangaroo rat exclosures against control plots. We then fit a linear generalized
119	least squares model (nlme, Pinheiro et al., 2018) of mean C. baileyi per plot by year against the
120	resulting residuals from the previous model to demonstrate how C. baileyi mean abundance
121	relates to C. penicillatus' plot treatment preferences. Accounting for temporal autocorrelation did
122	not significantly improve the model (see supplemental material for details).
123	
124	Population-level metrics of C. penicillatus
125	For C. penicillatus in each treatment, we calculated apparent survival (S), transition
126	probability (Ψ), and the average number of new individuals per plot type. Both survival and
127	transition probability were estimated through a multistate capture-mark-recapture model using
128	the RMark package, an R interface for the MARK software (White & Burnham 1999; Laake,
129	2013). Different strata represented treatment types, and each time step was a trapping period. We
130	designated each time period as being either before or after the establishment of C. baileyi in the
131	system; the first trapping period in which C. baileyi was caught in all eight kangaroo rat
132	exclosures (July 1997) was used as the differentiating timepoint. In the model, we assumed that
133	recapture probabilities (p) were equal between the plot types. Additionally, it should be noted
134	that our data does not allow for differentiation between permanent emigration and death, and,
135	therefore, these two processes are not differentiated in our survival estimates. We used Program
136	CONTRAST, a program designed specifically for comparing survival estimates (Hines & Sauer
137	1989), to run chi-squared tests to determine if differences in survival and transition probabilities
138	between C. baileyi establishment and treatment types were statistically significant.

139	We calculated the number of new C. penicillatus individuals, defined as individuals
140	caught and given an identification tags, for the first time, in each treatment type. We then
141	calculated mean and standard error of new C. penicillatus individuals per plot by year by
142	treatment type.
143	
144	System-level aspects of patch preference
145	Changes in species composition have been shown to have substantial effects on the
146	energy use in a system (Ernest & Brown 2001). To determine how this aspect of ecosystem
147	functioning might have contributed to how C. penicillatus view the quality of patches through
148	time, we calculated the ratio of total rodent biomass per year between the kangaroo rat
149	exclosures and control plots (portalr; Yenni et al. 2018).
150	
151	Results
152	Patch preference of C. penicillatus in response to C. baileyi abundance
153	After its arrival in the mid-1990s, C. baileyi increased in abundance until the late 2000's
154	(Fig. 1a) and was found far more frequently on the kangaroo rat exclosures than the control plots
155	(Fig. S1). C. penicillatus' preferences for the two treatment types also shifted through time (Fig.
156	1b). C. penicillatus had higher average abundance in the kangaroo rat exclosure plots before C.
157	baileyi arrived. During the time C. baileyi was established, however, C. penicillatus had a higher
158	average abundance on control plots. C. penicillatus's preference for control plots increased with
159	increases in <i>C. baileyi</i> abundance (Fig. 1c; y = -0.163x + 0.662, df = 20, RSE = 0.46, p < 0.05).
160	

162	Estimated survival of C. penicillatus showed significant differences between treatment
163	types and <i>C. baileyi</i> status ($\chi^2 = 15.22$, df = 3, p = 0.002). Before <i>C. baileyi</i> colonized the site,
164	estimated survival for C. penicillatus was significantly higher on kangaroo rat exclosures than on
165	controls (Fig. 2a). This difference completely disappears after C. baileyi becomes established, at
166	which point estimated survival becomes statistically indistinguishable between treatment types.
167	The transition probability of C. penicillatus also showed significant differences between
168	treatment types and <i>C. baileyi</i> status ($\chi^2 = 12.44$, df = 3, p = 0.006). The probability of a <i>C</i> .
169	penicillatus individual moving from a kangaroo rat exclosure to a control plot was low,
170	regardless of C. baileyi establishment (Fig. 2b). When a C. penicillatus individual moved before
171	C. baileyi's arrival, it was more likely to move from a control plot to a kangaroo rat exclosure.
172	Afterwards, however, the probability of a C. penicillatus individual moving from a control plot
173	to a kangaroo rat exclosure was not only significantly lower than before C. baileyi establishment
174	but also significantly lower than the probability of movement in the other direction (Fig. 2b).
175	The differences in arrival of new (i.e., untagged) C. penicillatus individuals on the two
176	treatments also support changes in patch preference (Figure 2c). Before the arrival of C. baileyi,
177	kangaroo rat exclosures had, on average, slightly higher numbers of new individuals appearing.
178	After C. baileyi established in the system, new individuals were consistently found on control
179	plots in higher average numbers until the period of C. baileyi decline in the late 2000s.
180	
181	System-level aspects of patch preference

Prior to *C. baileyi* fully establishing in the system, the biomass on kangaroo rat exclosure
plots was only a fraction of that on control plots (Fig. 3). With the arrival of *C. baileyi*, however,

the average biomass on kangaroo rat exclosure plots reached over 80% of the biomass found oncontrol plots, even with *C. penicillatus* individuals moving to the control plots.

186

187 Discussion

If a species changes its patch preference due to changes in the competitive landscape, 188 189 there should be detectable effects on population metrics such as apparent survival, patch choice, 190 and the probability of movement between patch types (Morris & Davidson 2000, Gurnell et al. 2004). Our results show responses in all of these metrics, indicating that C. penicillatus 191 192 perceived a substantive change in the suitability of kangaroo rat exclosures with the colonization of C. baileyi. Before the arrival of C. baileyi, C. penicillatus was disproportionately found in 193 kangaroo rat exclosures and exhibited higher survival, lower transition probabilities, and a larger 194 195 influx of new individuals than on the control plots. After the arrival and establishment on C. baileyi on the kangaroo rat exclosures, however, C. penicillatus was found disproportionately in 196 197 control plots (Fig. 1), a higher number of new individuals were detected on control plots (Fig. 2c), and survivorship and transition probabilities converged between plot types (Fig 2ab). Thus, 198 199 with the arrival of C. baileyi, kangaroo rat exclosures shifted from high quality patches to 200 patches of a similar, or even slightly lower, quality as control plots. Because all patches are in 201 more-or-less the same habitat (Supp et al. 2012, Christensen et al. 2018), this approach allowed 202 us to disentangle effects of community composition from habitat differences on perception of 203 patch quality by effectively eliminating the habitat changes that often coincide with changes in species composition. 204

Our results provide some insights into the mechanisms that led to higher *C. penicillatus*numbers on control plots once *C. baileyi* established on kangaroo rat exclosures. Higher *C.*

207 penicillatus abundances on control plots after C. baileyi's establishment seems due to more new individuals being caught on control plots (Fig. 3). However, once C. penicillatus individuals 208 209 established territories on control plots, similar apparent survivorship and transition probabilities 210 on treatments and controls suggest they perceived little difference between these plot types after 211 C. bailevi colonized. We do not know whether the higher numbers of new individuals on control 212 plots were due to higher birth rates, higher juvenile survivorship, lower juvenile dispersal rates, or higher immigration rates for controls. Shifts in control plot birth rates, juvenile survivorship, 213 or juvenile emigration rates would suggest that conditions on control plots had improved; we are 214 215 not aware of any mechanisms, however, that would improve the quality of control plots without also improving the nearby kangaroo rat exclosures. Instead, we suspect that dispersing 216 217 individuals from the surrounding matrix of desert habitat were preferentially deciding to enter 218 control plots rather than C. baileyi-dominated kangaroo rat exclosures. 219 Higher immigration rates into some patches over others can reflect differences in 220 distances to source populations (i.e., mass effects or source-sink dynamics; Schmida & Wilson 221 1985, Holt 1985, Pulliam 1988) or active decisions by individuals based on their expected fitness 222 or resource intake rate in a patch (e.g., Ideal Free Distribution, optimal foraging; Fretwell & 223 Lucas 1970, Charnov 1976). Because our patches are interspersed in a matrix that is suitable 224 habitat for C. penicillatus, all patches should be equidistant from a C. penicillatus source 225 population. However, the colonization of C. baileyi on kangaroo rat exclosures had a substantive 226 effect on rates of resource use on those plots, which may have altered foraging and fitness expectations for C. penicillatus. Before C. baileyi established in the system, rodent biomass of 227 228 the kangaroo rat exclosures was never more than half of that found in the control plot (Fig. 3).

229 With the preferential establishment of *C. baileyi* on the kangaroo rat exclosures, however, the

230 biomass ratio between the exclosure and control plots increased considerably. In addition to demonstrating the impact that the establishment of one species can have on the entire system, the 231 biomass ratio nearing equal helps shed light on why the arrival of C. bailevi caused C. 232 233 *penicillatus*'s clear shifts in patch preference (Fig. 1). The changes in biomass also correspond to 234 changes in energy use in the system (Ernest & Brown 2001). If patches have roughly the same 235 amount of resources, patches with lower rates of energy use should have more resources that are not being fully exploited (MacArthur & Pianka 1966). As the biomass and, subsequently, energy 236 use in the plot types neared equal, the kangaroo rat exclosures were no longer overtly preferable, 237 238 and C. penicillatus showed corresponding changes in patch preferences (e.g., changes in survival rates, Fig. 2a). As resource availability became more similar, the importance of resource 239 240 availability in discriminating among patches may have diminished and allowed other factors to 241 influence the decision-making process of *C. penicillatus*. One possibility is that niche similarities between C. penicillatus and its congener, C. baileyi, made establishing territories on plots with 242 C. baileyi more difficult, or simply less appealing, for dispersing C. penicillatus individuals. 243 Species' perceptions of patch quality can vary depending on a variety of factors, such as 244 resource availability (MacArthur & Pianka 1966), biotic interactions (Durant 1998, Gurnell et al. 245 246 2004), and other habitat properties (Brown 1988, Butler et al. 2005). In many systems, changes 247 in species composition correspond to changes in habitat (MacArthur et al. 1966, Whittaker 1967, 248 Tews et al. 2004). Therefore, teasing apart the effects of species composition and habitat 249 properties on a species' perception of patch quality can prove challenging. In this study, we show 250 that experimental time-series data can be used to help elucidate how changes in species 251 composition and, specifically, changes in the competitive landscape, can affect perception of 252 patch quality and patch preference. This is not to suggest that changes in habitat or abiotic

253	factors do not impact patch preference; much work in landscape ecology and metacommunity
254	theory has shown that they can (Leibold & Chase 2018); rather, we use time series and
255	experimentally manipulated patches to tease apart the effects of species composition from those
256	of habitat, changes which frequently occur together spatially (Durant 1998, Tews et al. 2004).
257	This method allows us to still assess spatial use patterns—a key aspect of metacommunity
258	theory—while also allowing changes through time to inform our observations. We suggest that
259	time is a key component in any holistic study of patch preference in metacommunity dynamics.
260	
261	Acknowledgments
262	We thank the UF Weecology group for helpful feedback on the project, Dr. Juniper L.
263	Simonis for statistical advice on population metrics, and Dr. Sarah R. Supp for making R code
264	from a previous project openly available, which made our analyses substantially easier. We
265	thank the hundreds of people who have worked on the Portal Project to make this data available.
266	This work was supported by National Science Foundation grant DEB-1622425 to SKME. EKB
267	was additionally supported by the UF School of Natural Resources and Environment.
268	
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366 Figure Legends

367

Figure 1: Relationship between C. penicillatus abundances on treatments and C. baileyi 368 369 abundance. (a) Average number of C. bailevi individuals per plot through time. (b) The 370 difference between mean C. penicillatus individuals per treatment type through time. The zero 371 line indicates equal numbers of C. penicillatus on both treatments. Points are residuals from a 372 linear model run against a 1:1 line of mean C. penicillatus abundance on kangaroo rat exclosures 373 against control plots. Above the zero line (positive residuals) indicates higher mean C. 374 *penicillatus* abundance on kangaroo rat exclosures; below the line (negative residuals) are higher 375 mean C. penicillatus on control plots. In (a) and (b), grey bars indicate the colonization period 376 (1995-1998) and subsequent decline (2008-2010) of C. baileyi. (c) Generalized least squares 377 regression of C. penicillatus differences from equal (y-axis from (a)) against mean C. baileyi 378 individuals per plot per year (y-axis from (b); y = -0.163x + 0.662, df = 20, RSE = 0.46, p 379 <0.05). As mean C. baileyi abundances increase, the mean abundance of C. penicillatus shifts 380 from more individuals on kangaroo rat exclosures to more on control plots. 381 Figure 2. Population-level metrics of C. penicillatus by treatment type. (a) Estimated survival of 382 C. penicillatus by treatment type and C. baileyi establishment in the system. (b) Probability of C. 383 384 *penicillatus* individuals moving from one treatment type to the other, also based on *C. baileyi* establishment. (c) Mean new C. penicillatus individuals per plot through time. Grey bars indicate 385 386 the period of establishment (1995-1998) and subsequent decline (2008-2010) of C. baileyi. 387

Figure 3. Ratio of total rodent biomass in kangaroo rat exclosures to control plots though time.

389 Grey bars indicate establishment (1995-1998) and subsequent decline (2008-2010) of *C. baileyi*.

390 Figure 1

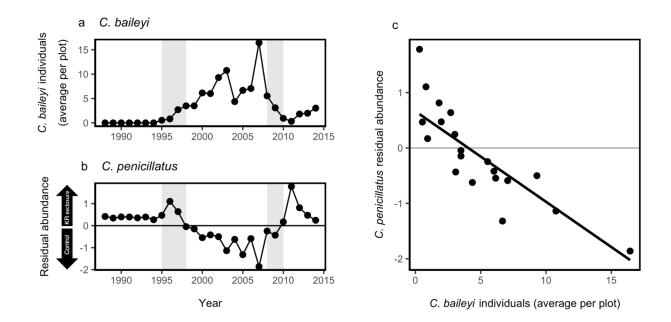
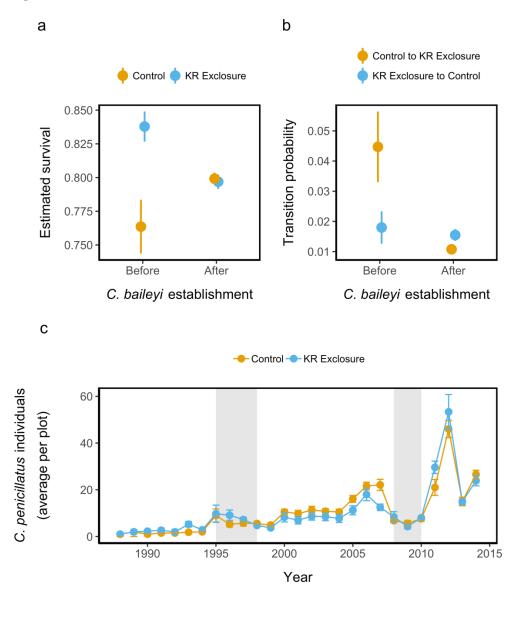


Figure 2



394

Figure 3

