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# Restoration of Native Plants Is Reduced by Rodent-Caused Soil Disturbance and Seed Removal<sup>4,44</sup>

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### ABSTRACT

Granivory and soil disturbance are two modes by which burrowing rodents may limit the success of native plant 20 restoration in rangelands. This guild of animals has prolific effects on plant community composition and struc- 21 ture, yet surprisingly little research has quantified the impact of rodents on plant restoration efforts. In this 22 study, we examined the effects of seed removal and soil disturbance by the giant kangaroo rat (*Dipodomys* 23 *ingens*) on native plant restoration in a California rangeland. Using experimental exclosures and stratifying resto- 24 ration plots on and off rodent-disturbed soil, we assessed the individual and combined effects of seed removal 25 and soil disturbance on seedling establishment of four native plant species. Across all species, biotic soil distur- 26 bance by kangaroo rats reduced seedling establishment by 19.5% (range = 1-43%), whereas seed removal 27 reduced seedling establishment by 0.67% (range = 4-12%). Rates of seed removal across species weakly 28 paralleled kangaroo rats on native seedling establishment via changes in soil properties may rival or exceed the 30 direct effects of seed removal. 31

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#### 33 Introduction

Native grasslands are among the most critically endangered ecosys-34 tems in the United States (Noss et al., 1995), making native grassland 35 36 restoration a priority for many conservation land managers. However, 37 grassland restoration success has been limited by a lack of knowledge about the factors that affect restoration outcomes and how these factors 38 can be manipulated to improve success (Aronson, 2013). Rodents are 39 common in grassland ecosystems, and disturbance by rodent popula-40 tions may therefore be an important factor affecting restoration success. 41

As burrowers, herbivores, and granivores, small mammals can have 42considerable effects on plant community composition and structure 43 (e.g., Brown and Heske, 1990; Schiffman, 1994; Brock and Kelt, 2004).  $\overline{44}$ In extreme cases, rodents can remove up to 90% of local annual seed 4546 production (Chew and Chew, 1970; Soholt, 1973), clear vegetation 47from up to 32% of the landscape (Schiffman, 1994), and turn over the 48 entire soil surface every 3 to 15 years (Hobbs and Mooney, 1995). Researchers and restoration practitioners have acknowledged that rodents 49

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may strongly impact restoration projects (e.g., Longland and Bateman, 50 1998; Watts, 2010; Longland and Ostoja, 2013). However, relatively 51 few studies have examined the mechanisms by which rodents affect 52 plant restoration, and these studies have focused primarily on the ef-53 fects of granivory (e.g., Hoffmann et al., 1995; Orrock et al., 2009; Orrock 54 and Witter, 2010). The effects of other rodent interactions (e.g., biotic 55 soil disturbance) on restoration success remain largely unknown. 56

Rodent-disturbed microsites often have soil characteristics that dif- 57 fer markedly from less disturbed areas just meters away (Grinnell, 58 1923). As central place foragers, burrowing rodents tend to concentrate 59 nutrients and organic matter from larger areas into smaller areas (Mun 60 and Whitford, 1990). Rodents can also transport material vertically 61 through the soil profile surface (Whitford and Kay, 1999). Collectively, 62 these actions can cause significant changes in a variety of soil properties 63 including bulk density, soil temperature, infiltration, soil moisture, pH, 64 and soil nutrient levels (Whitford and Kay, 1999). These indirect effects 65 of rodents on soil properties have been proposed as possible mecha- 66 nisms explaining the keystone effects of kangaroo rats (Brown and 67 Heske, 1990; Guo, 1996). 68

Rodent burrowing may be particularly important in nonequilibrium 69 systems such as arid and semiarid rangelands, where productivity is 70 moisture limited and there is a positive relationship between aridity 71 and interannual variability of rainfall (Sullivan and Rohde, 2002). In 72 nonequilibrium systems, theory suggests that abiotic factors such as 73 soil properties, site characteristics, and weather generally have more influence on plant community structure than direct biotic interactions 75

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such as herbivory and granivory (Jackson and Bartolome, 2002). Conse-76 77 quently, a number of recent restoration studies have focused on the ef-78 fects of abiotic variables such as site preparation techniques or soil amendments (e.g., Bonebrake et al., 2011; Doll et al., 2011; Kulmatiski, 79 2011). Rodent-caused changes in the physical and chemical properties 80 of soil could function similarly to soil amendments, by acting as ecolog-81 ical filters that favor the assembly of certain species over others, inde-82 pendent of rodent seed preferences and seed removal. 83

84 In California's Carrizo Plain, Dipodomys ingens (giant kangaroo rat, hereafter GKR) dominates the rodent community and is thought to be a 85 "keystone species" and "ecosystem engineer," as it has a disproportionate-86 ly large impact on the grassland community and physically transforms the 87 landscape (Prugh and Brashares, 2012a). Like other kangaroo rats, GKRs 88 are primarily seed eaters (granivores) and consume vast amounts of 89 90 both native and exotic plant seeds (Shaw, 1934; Williams et al., 1993). GKRs typically cut the ripening seed heads of grasses and forbs and sun-91 92dry the seeds in either buried pit caches or in stacks on the soil surface (Shaw, 1934; Williams et al., 1993). GKRs later relocate buried caches 93 and transfer the contents into long-term storage chambers in their burrow 94 mounds (Shaw, 1934; Williams et al., 1993). GKR burrow mounds are 95established over many generations, and long-term occupancy results in 96 Q3 mima-mound topography (Williams and Kilburn, 1991; Fig. 1).

98 Here, we sought to identify the individual effects of GKR seed removal 99 and soil modification on the success of rangeland restoration efforts. We first assessed GKR seed preferences using cafeteria-style diet trials. We 100 then quantified and compared the effects of seed removal, biotic soil dis-101 102 turbance, and soil chemistry on the seedling recruitment of four native plant species selected from our diet trials. These four species were select-103 ed to include a variety of growth forms and span a range of GKR seed pref-104 105 erences. Using experimental exclosures, we established small-scale restoration plots in areas that were accessible and inaccessible to kanga-106 roo rats and stratified plot locations on and off GKR burrow mounds. 107

### 108 Methods

### 109 Study Area

We conducted this study from 2008-2011 in a semiarid annual 110 rangeland within the Carrizo Plain National Monument, in southeastern 111 San Luis Obispo County, California (Fig. 2). This study was a component 112 113 of a larger long-term study initiated in 2007 to experimentally examine interactions among cattle, plants, and wildlife in the Carrizo Plain (Prugh 114 and Brashares, 2012b). Parts of the monument were grazed by sheep and 115cattle when vegetation levels exceeded thresholds (U.S. Bureau of Land 116 117 Management, 2010). The Carrizo Plain is the largest contiguous grassland



Fig. 1. Mima-mound topography that dominates the landscape in the study area within the Carrizo Plain National Monument, California. Photo credit: Don Johnson.

in California, and it is among the last refuges for many species endemic to 118 the San Joaquin Valley ecoregion (Germano et al., 2011). Precipitation in 04 the Carrizo Plain is highly variable (annual CV = 47%), averages 209 mm 120 per year, and falls primarily as rain during the winter months 121 (MesoWest, 2011). Rainfall was nearly 50% above average when restora- 122 tion plots were established, totaling 302 mm in the 2010 water year 123 (MesoWest, 2011). The above-average rainfall likely resulted in better 124 growing conditions and improved seedling establishment rates relative 125 to normal conditions for some plants. Perennial bunchgrasses, most no- 126 tably Poa secunda (Sandberg's bluegrass), may have once dominated the 127 southern San Joaquin Valley region alongside native annual forbs 128 (Germano et al., 2001). Exotic annual species including Bromus Q5 madritensis ssp. rubens (red brome), Erodium cicutarium (red-stem 130 filaree), and Hordeum murinum (foxtail barley) are now abundant in 131 the Carrizo Plain, and native plant cover has declined (Schiffman, 1994; 132 Germano et al., 2001). 06

Our study area was located within the core habitat of the GKR, on flat 134 terrain with no shrub cover (Fig. 2). The GKR is a state and federally listed 135 endangered species that has experienced severe habitat loss but is locally 136 abundant within the Carrizo Plain (Williams and Kilburn, 1991). The GKR **Q7** is the most abundant member of the rodent guild in the Carrizo Plain and 138 was the only primarily granivorous rodent species present in our study 139 area (Prugh and Brashares, 2012a). Extensive trapping of GKR was conducted twice annually on our study sites beginning in 2007. From 141 2007–2012, average densities of GKR never fell below 25 ha<sup>-1</sup> and peaked 142 at more than 50 ha<sup>-1</sup> (Prugh and Brashares, 2012b). GKR burrow mounds 143 covered roughly 20% of the landscape (Bean et al., 2012). The high densi-144 ties of GKR observed within the study area are fairly typical during years without extended droughts (Williams et al., 1993).

Diet Trials

We conducted cafeteria-style diet trials to assess the dietary prefer- 148 ences of GKRs. We collected ripe seed heads of the 12 most common 149 plant species found on our plots in April 2008. We randomly chose 30 150 GKR mounds spread throughout our study area for diet trials, which 151 were conducted 14 July 2008 to 28 July 2008. On each selected 152 mound, we dug a shallow trench (approximately 1 m long, 6 cm wide, 153 and 1 cm deep) and placed 0.5 g of seeds from each of the 12 plant spe- 154 cies in separate piles along the trench. The order of species along the 155 trench was randomized in each trial. We returned at dawn the next 156 day to collect and weigh remaining seeds. Motion-trigger cameras were 157 used to ensure GKRs visited each trench. Additionally, controls with 158 wire mesh cages that were accessible to ants but not GKRs were initially 159 used to assess whether seeds were being removed by ants. These controls 160 resulted in only negligible amounts of seed removal (mean of 3% remov- 161 al). For each trial, selection ratios (SR) were calculated as the proportion 162 of each species removed relative to proportions available: 163

$$SR = \frac{U_i}{P_i * \sum U_i} \tag{1}$$

Where  $U_i$  = weight of seeds of species *i* removed and  $P_i$  = propor- 166 tion of available seed (based on weight) composed of species *i* (Manly 167 et al., 2002). Selection ratios > 1 indicated preference and ratios < 1 in- 168 dicated avoidance. Mean selection ratios for each species were calculat- 169 ed across the 30 trials, along with standard errors and confidence 170 intervals. Results of diet trials were used to select plant species for 171 seeding in restoration plots. 172

#### Experimental Design

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To examine effects of seed removal and soil disturbance on native 174 seeding efforts, we used a randomized split-plot experimental design 175 with two factorial treatments: kangaroo rat presence and burrow presence. In 2007, stratified randomization was used to place 10 experimental 177

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