

1 **Seed removal decrease by invasive Argentine ants in a High Nature Value farmland**

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10 **Abstract**

11 Seed dispersal by ants is an important ecological process that maintains the structure and
12 diversity of natural communities, however, it is vulnerable to biological invasions. Argentine ants are
13 one of the worst invasive ant species and cause severe changes in ecosystem processes and native ant
14 biodiversity declines in invaded sites. Here, we studied seed removal by ants combining observations
15 and a cafeteria experiment with seeds of four myrmecochorous plant species (*Centaurea*
16 *sphaerocephala*, *Rosmarinus officinalis*, *Silybum marianum*, and *Ulex australis*) in two sites (invaded
17 and uninvaded) located in the Mediterranean *Montado* ecosystem and classified as High Nature Value
18 farmland (HNV). Significant differences in daily seed removal rates were found between the two
19 study sites. In uninvaded sites, several native ant species were attracted to the seeds, resulting in all
20 seeds being removed rapidly. The majority of seed removal events were carried out by two key seed
21 dispersers *Pheidole pallidula* (71%) and *Aphaenogaster iberica* (26%) with a clear preference for
22 diasporous with larger and heavier elaiosome (i.e., *C. sphaerocephala*, *S. marianum*). By contrast,
23 while the Argentine ant showed some interest (68% of seeds were interacted with), no seed removal
24 events were observed. The extirpation of the local ant fauna by the Argentine ant and its inability to
25 ensure seed dispersal services may lead to the interference and eventually to the collapse of seed
26 dispersal of the four studied myrmecochorous plants in the invaded site in the future. We argue that

27 these discrete but severe consequences of an invasive species on a key ecological process may
28 strongly affect the functioning of the *Montado* ecosystem.

29

30 **Key words:** seed dispersal, Argentine ant, myrmecochory, *Montado* ecosystem, seed removal
31 collapse, mutualism disruption

32

33 **Introduction**

34 Over 11,000 plant species worldwide rely on ants for their seed dispersal (Lengyel *et al.*, 2010), a
35 mutualistic process named myrmecochory. The presence of a nutrient rich appendage (elaiosome) on
36 their seeds facilitates this process as it attracts ants as potential seed dispersers. Once the seed is
37 carried to the ant nest, the ants eat the elaiosome and often leave the seed inside the nutrient rich nest
38 or disperse it in its surroundings (Giladi, 2006). In this way, plants benefit from this interaction since
39 ants may contribute to decreased competition between the seeds and the parent plants, transport seeds
40 to more fertile soils (ant nests) that favor seed germination and/or decrease seed predation (Giladi,
41 2006; Noriega *et al.*, 2018).

42 However, seed dispersal by ants may be impacted by the presence of invasive ant species (Rodriguez-
43 Cabal *et al.*, 2009). Invasive species colonization may lead to native biodiversity decline, especially
44 when they occur at the same trophic level as the native species (Bradley *et al.*, 2019), and may cause
45 the loss of important ecosystem functions and processes (e.g. Rodriguez-Cabal *et al.*, 2009). For
46 example, Ness *et al.* (2004) found that invaded sites by the invasive red fire ant, *Solenopsis invicta*,
47 are characterized by a decrease in seed dispersal distance and ant mean body size. This may be linked
48 to the physical constrains, e.g. smaller body sizes and mandible gap (Oliveras *et al.*, 2005),
49 characterizing many invasive ant species, which may lead to a disruption of native ant-seed dispersal
50 mutualisms (Ness *et al.*, 2004).

51 The Argentine ant (*Linepithema humile* (Mayr)), originally from South America but today with a
52 cosmopolitan distribution, is listed as one of the most invasive ant species worldwide (Lowe *et al.*,

53 2000). Its occurrence and spread have been associated with anthropogenic activities and once
54 established, it may severely impact native biodiversity (Holway *et al.*, 2002). Due to invasive ant
55 characteristics (e.g. high abundance, ability to monopolize resources and higher aggressiveness)
56 native species are often outcompeted (Holway *et al.*, 2002). In Mediterranean ecosystems, seed
57 dispersal and invertebrate communities are severely affected by the presence of invasive Argentine
58 ants (Devenish *et al.*, 2019 and references therein), although their net effects on seed dispersal remain
59 unclear, since alongside negative effects (Rodriguez-Cabal *et al.*, 2009; Devenish *et al.*, 2019),
60 neutral and positive outcomes have been reported too (Blight *et al.*, 2018).

61 This invasive species arrived in Portugal more than 100 years ago and established mostly along the
62 coast of the country, particularly in Mediterranean ecosystems that present some anthropogenic
63 disturbance (Silva Dias, 1955), such as the man-made silvo-pastoral *Montado* ecosystem (Cammell
64 *et al.*, 1996).

65 In this seminatural ecosystem, we studied the effects of Argentine ants on seed dispersal of four
66 myrmecohorous native plants by assessing seed removal rates in an invaded and an uninvaded site.
67 In the invaded site, we expected to have lower seed removal rates due to the dominance of the invasive
68 species while in the uninvaded site, several native ant species may contribute to higher rates of seed
69 removal.

70

71 **Materials and Methods**

72 **Study site and ant communities**

73 The study was conducted in the *Montado* ecosystem at Companhia das Lezírias (38°50' N, 8°49' W),
74 a Long-Term Socio-Ecological Research (LTSER) station near Lisbon, Portugal. The *Montado* is an
75 agroforestry system characterized by high farmland biodiversity maintained through sustainable
76 anthropogenic activities (Pinto-Correia *et al.*, 2011), in fact at the European level it is recognized as
77 a High Nature Value (HNV) farmland (Keenleyside *et al.*, 2014). The study area is classified as an
78 HNV farmland since several low-intensity management practices, such as livestock grazing and cork

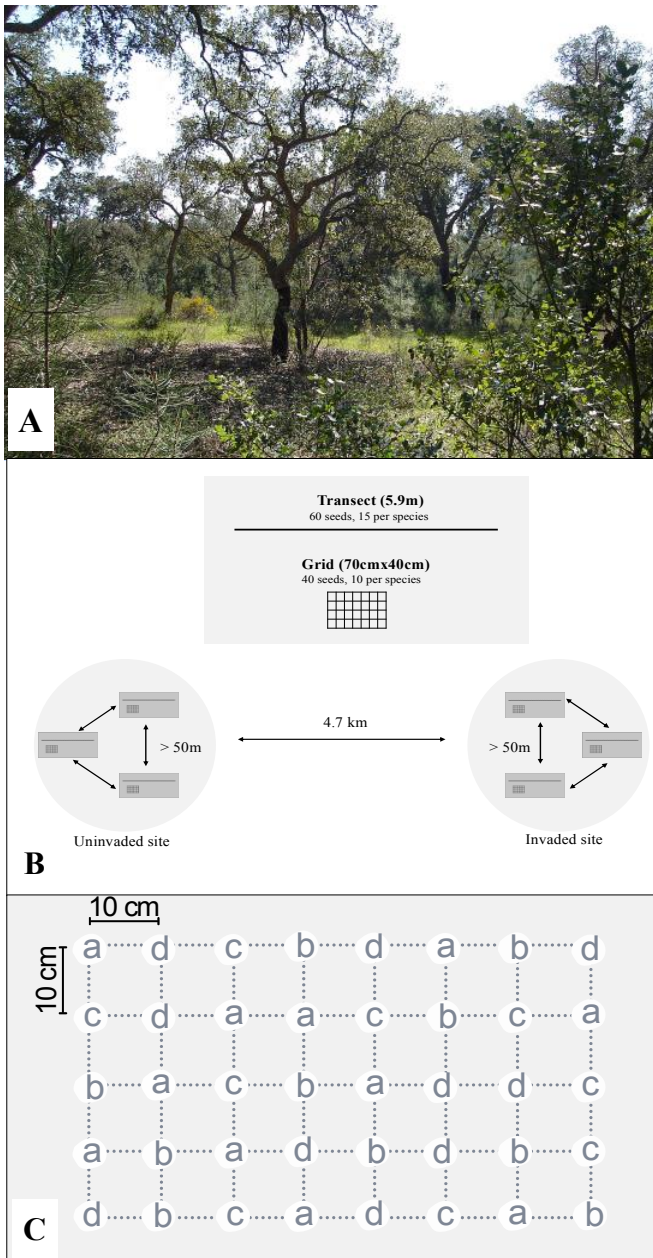
79 harvest, coexist there contributing to high habitat heterogeneity, high levels of farmland biodiversity
80 and the occurrence of several threatened species (<http://www.ltsermontado.pt>).
81 We selected two study sites: one dominated exclusively by the Argentine ant (invaded) and the other
82 without the presence of the invasive species (uninvaded). The two sites are 4.7 km apart and present
83 similar habitat characteristics regarding the density of cork oak trees and understory cover
84 (<http://www.ltsermontado.pt>), but the invaded site is subject to low-intensity livestock grazing (Fig.
85 1). The two sites have been targeted by several biodiversity and ecological studies in recent years
86 (e.g., Listopad *et al.*, 2018; Frasconi Wendt *et al.*, 2021; Köbel *et al.*, 2021). Furthermore, with
87 regards to ant community composition, a recent study conducted in the two same study sites, solely
88 reported the occurrence of the Argentine ant in the invaded site, while several native species were
89 found in the uninvaded site (Frasconi Wendt *et al.*, 2021). The Argentine ant is extremely abundant
90 in the invaded site and seemed to have outcompeted the native species, thus leading to the taxonomic
91 and functional homogenization of the ant community (Frasconi Wendt *et al.*, 2021). Most of the
92 native ant species sampled in the uninvaded site belong to the *Aphaenogaster*, *Camponotus*, *Pheidole*
93 and *Temnothorax* genera (Frasconi Wendt *et al.*, 2021).

94 **Seed removal experiments**

95 In the two study sites, we performed seed removal observations and set up cafeteria experiments
96 during September 2018 to investigate seed removal rates by ants using four myrmecochorous plant
97 species: *Centaurea sphaerocephala* L. (Asteraceae), *Rosmarinus officinalis* L. (Lamiaceae), *Silybum*
98 *marianum* (L.) Gaertn. (Asteraceae), and *Ulex australis* Clemente (Fabaceae). We selected these four
99 species because they are native and occur spontaneously in the area where we performed the
100 experiment, they have an elaiosome (myrmecochorous plant species) and we also aimed to ensure
101 both taxonomic and growth-form diversity (herbaceous: *S. marianum* and *C. sphaerocephala*; shrubs:
102 *R. officinalis* and *U. australis*). The diaspores and elaiosomes of the four study plant species also
103 differed in length, width and weight (Table S1). Seeds were collected in June and July and used in
104 September of the same year.

105 Daily seed removal rates (over a 24h period) were assessed by establishing three linear transects in
106 each site, distanced at least by 50 m from each other. Along each transect, we placed 15 seeds per
107 species on the soil with each seed distanced by 10 cm from the next ones to prevent ant recruitment.
108 To avoid potential bias in the seed removal rates, seeds of the different plant species were set in a
109 random order along the transect. Overall, 180 seeds were set in each site (45 seeds per plant species)
110 and after 24h, the ones remaining were counted and re-collected.

111 To evaluate the role of the different ant species as seed dispersal agents of the four study plants, we
112 performed direct observations of seed removal (cafeteria experiments) by setting three observational
113 grids (70 cm x 40 cm each; 50 m apart from each other) in each sampling site (Fig. 1). For each
114 observational grid, we used 40 seeds (10 seeds per plant species) regularly spaced from each other
115 by a distance of 10 cm to avoid ant recruitment and with the seed species randomly distributed. Grids
116 were continuously surveyed to record ant-seed interactions during the morning (900 - 1300 h) and
117 the afternoon (1400 -1700 h), encompassing the peak of ant foraging, for a total of 28h of observation
118 per site. The 28 hours of observation per site were hap hazardously distributed during a period of
119 several days. We took care to sample equal numbers of morning and afternoon periods per site to
120 account for differences in activity between ant species. For each observation, we recorded the number
121 and type of interactions and the seed and ant species involved. Whenever a seed was removed by
122 ants, we placed a new seed of the same plant species in the grid. Ant-seed interaction types were
123 classified following Takahashi & Itino (2012): (Interaction I) Ignore: ant touches the seed but then
124 ignores it, (Interaction II) Interest: ant picks the seed but drops it immediately after, (Interaction III)
125 Removal: ant picks the seed and carries it away (> 5 cm).



126

127 **Fig. 1.** Sampling site and schemes of the transect and the grids for the 24h and cafeteria experiment,
 128 respectively. A) Sampling site; B) scheme of the transect and grids and C) example of the disposition
 129 of the seeds (white circles) of the four different plant species (indicated with different letters) along
 130 the grids.

131 **Data analysis**

132 We assessed differences in seed removal rates over the 24h period and differences in the total number
 133 of ant-seed interactions (with no distinction between interaction type) between the two sampling sites
 134 using Wilcox-tests (alpha = 0.05).

135 To visualize the distribution of the seed removal at the uninvaded site, we built bipartite networks
 136 using the “bipartite” package and measured two indices at the species level, namely “species
 137 specificity”, which refers to the association of ant species towards seed species and “d”, which stands
 138 for the “specialization of each species based on its discrimination from a random selection of
 139 partners” (Dormann *et al.*, 2008). All analyses were conducted in R environment (R Core Team,
 140 2017).

141

142 **Results**

143 Daily seed removal rates were significantly different between the invaded and the uninvaded site
 144 (Wilcox-test, p-value = 0.02). In the invaded site only some seeds were removed (44% for *R.*
 145 *officinalis*, 24% for *C. sphaerocephala*, 18% for *S. marianum* and 14% for *U. australis*; Fig. 2a),
 146 while in the uninvaded site, all seeds were removed (Fig. 2b).

147 The cafeteria experiment showed significant differences in ant-seed interactions between the two
 148 sampling sites (Wilcox-test, p-value = 0.02), regardless the type of interaction (Table 1).

149

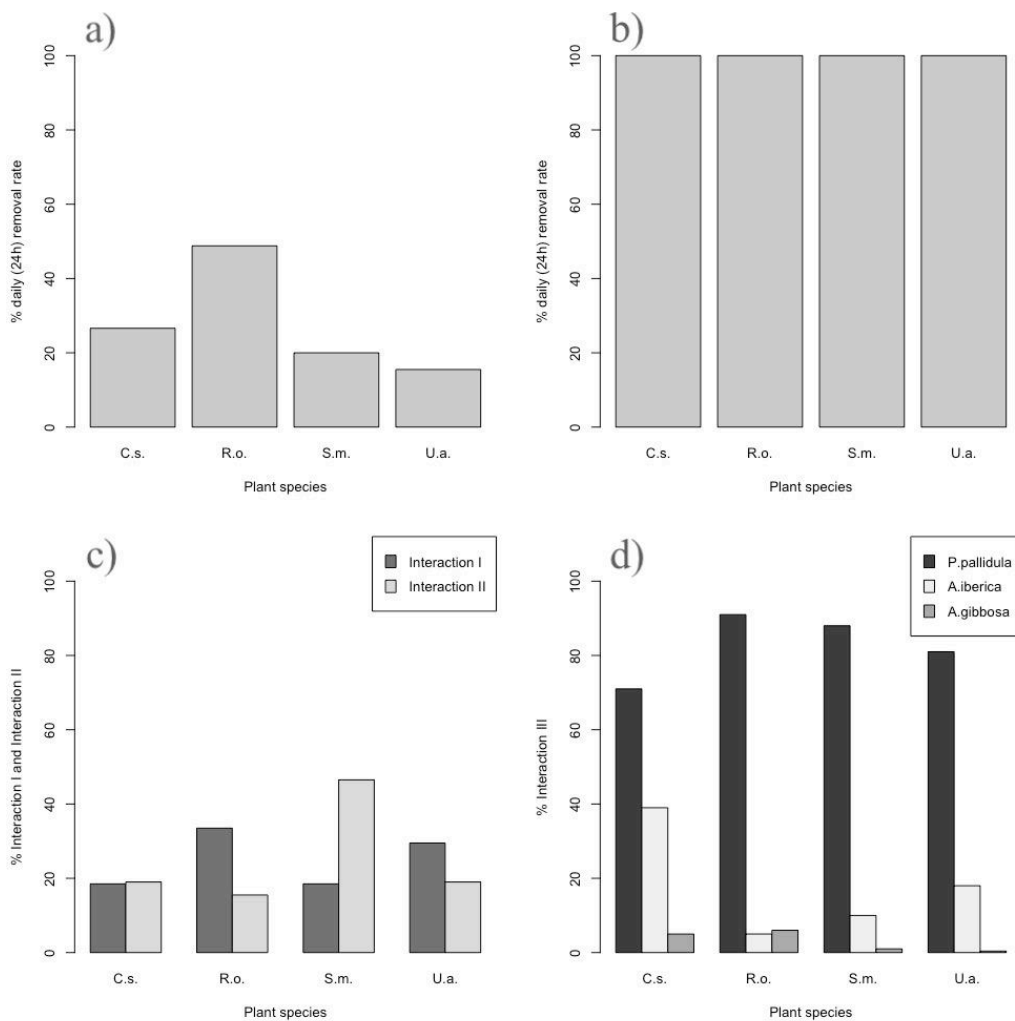
150 **Table 1.** Total number of ant-seed interactions from cafeteria experiments (regardless interaction
 151 type) in the invaded and uninvaded site. Data is presented as mean \pm standard deviation.

Plant species	Invaded site	Uninvaded site	Total number of seeds in invaded site	Total number of seeds in uninvaded site
<i>S. marianum</i>	10.6 \pm 5.1	59.2 \pm 100.9	30	296
<i>C. sphaerocephala</i>	5.3 \pm 5.7	155 \pm 144.6	30	620
<i>U. australis</i>	6.3 \pm 3.2	67 \pm 89.6	30	267
<i>R. officinalis</i>	6.0 \pm 7.8	18.6 \pm 22.8	30	56

152

153 When we accounted for the type of interactions in the invaded site, only Interaction I (Ignore, 32%)
 154 and Interaction II (Interest, 68%) were recorded (Fig. 2c), and no observation of seed removal by the
 155 Argentine ant was made. On the other hand, in the uninvaded site we recorded Interaction III

156 (Removal) only, meaning that whenever ants discovered a seed, they picked it. In the uninvaded site
 157 interaction III was, performed by seven native species, namely *Aphaenogaster gibbosa*, *A. iberica*,
 158 *Crematogaster auberti*, *Formica subrufa*, *Pheidole pallidula*, *Temnothorax recedens* and
 159 *Tetramorium semilaeve*. In the uninvaded site, two ant species, namely *P. pallidula* and *A. iberica*
 160 were involved in most of the interactions and accounted for 71% and 26% respectively of the total
 161 interactions recorded (Fig. 2d).

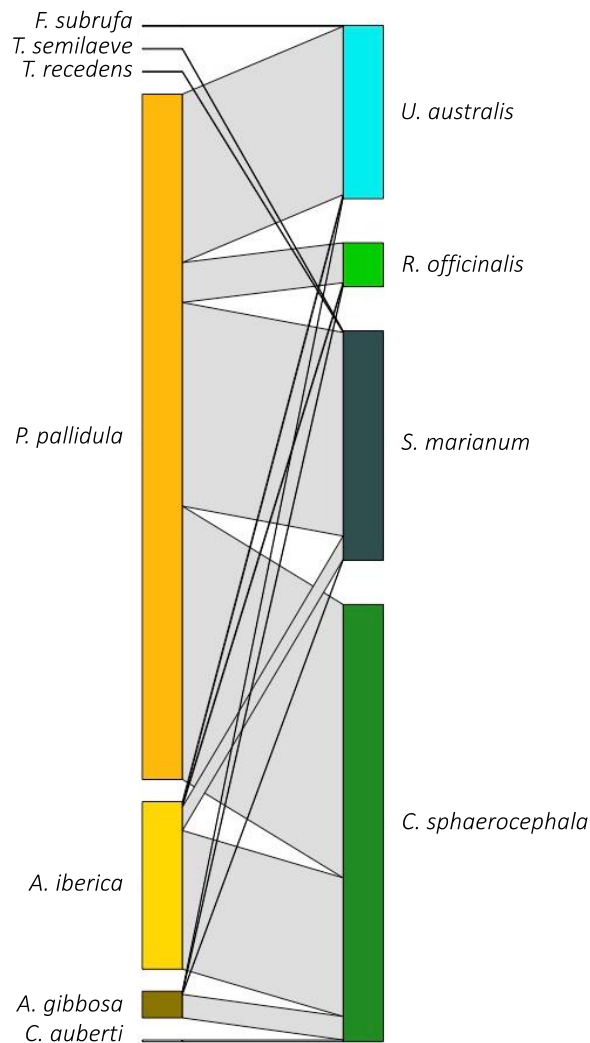


162
 163 **Fig. 2.** Percentages of daily seed removal rates and of ant-seed interactions in the invaded and
 164 uninvaded sites. Daily seed removal rates (over 24h) for the four myrmecochorous plant species in
 165 the invaded site (a) and in the uninvaded site (b). Percentages of Interaction I (ignore) and Interaction
 166 II (interest) for the four myrmecochorous plant species in the invaded site (c), and percentages of
 167 Interaction III (removal) by different ant species for the four myrmecochorous plant species in the

168 uninvasive site (d) - ant species with < 3 interactions were not included here. Abbreviations: C.s.=
 169 *Centaurea sphaerocephala*, R.o.= *Rosmarinus officinalis*, S. m.= *Silybum marianum* and U.a.= *Ulex*
 170 *australis*. Note: Interaction III did not occur in the invaded site.

171

172 High levels of species specificity were found for *A. iberica* and *A. gibbosa*: These two ant species
 173 were mainly associated to seeds of *C. sphaerocephala*. In contrast, *P. pallidula* workers did not show
 174 preferences for a particular seed species (Fig. 3 and Table 2). The percentage of seeds removed by *A.*
 175 *gibbosa* was low (3%), thus, *P. pallidula* and *A. iberica* stand out as key seed dispersers both
 176 considering the higher number of transport events and the wider spectrum of plant species dispersed.



177

178 **Fig. 3.** Bipartite graph showing seed removal (Interaction III) in the uninvasive site. Ant species are
 179 on the left and the four different seed species on the right of the network. The width of each rectangle

180 is proportional to the sum of interactions for each species. Connections in grey indicate seed removal
181 events and their width is proportional to the number of seed removal mediated by each ant species.

182

183 **Table 2.** Species specificity and specialization “d” indices for the interaction network between seed
184 and ant species (more than three observations) in the uninvaded site.

Ant species	Species Specificity Index	d (specialization)
<i>P. pallidula</i>	0.2841	0.0629
<i>A. iberica</i>	0.6725	0.1053
<i>A. gibbosa</i>	0.7507	0.0738

185

186 **Discussion**

187 This study sheds light on the interactions of two ant communities with seeds of four different plant
188 species in an Argentine ant invaded and in an uninvaded site in a High Nature Value farmland. Our
189 findings support previous studies that showed significant changes in seed removal rates in ant-
190 invaded sites when compared to uninvaded (e.g. Bond & Slingsby, 1984; Christian, 2001; Gómez &
191 Oliveras, 2003).

192 In our study, we witnessed no seed dispersal by ants in the invaded site as a consequence of the
193 extirpation of the local ant fauna by the Argentine ant (Christian 2001; Rowles & O’Dowd, 2009;
194 Frasconi Wendt *et al.*, 2021) and the incapability of the invasive species to perform effectively this
195 ecological process. The Argentine ant ignored the seeds or showed some interest on them but
196 provided no seed removal. Previous studies conducted in Mediterranean-type ecosystems also
197 reported a significant decrease in myrmecochory in Argentine ant invaded sites (e.g. study in NE
198 Spain conducted by Gómez & Oliveras, 2003). For example, Rowles and O’Down (2009) reported
199 the decrease but not the collapse of native seed dispersal following the invasion by the Argentine ant
200 in southeastern Australia. In contrast, Blight *et al.* (2018) reported high seed removal rates of *Anchusa*
201 *crispa* by the Argentine ant on the island of Corsica (France), suggesting that this invasive ant
202 functionally replaced the native seed dispersers. In this case, seeds are provided with a “handle” that

203 may have facilitated the transport by the invasive ant species. Thus, diaspore morphology and weight
204 seem to play a role in seed removal success.

205 Ant body size is also an important driver of seed dispersal by ants: many invasive species present a
206 smaller body size relative to native species, thus performing poorly as seed dispersers, particularly
207 for large seeded plants (Christian, 2001; Rodriguez-Cabal *et al.*, 2009). For example, Rowles and
208 O'Dowd (2009) found that in southeastern Australia the Argentine ant was incapable to remove the
209 large seeds of the native *Acacia sophorae* at distances over 5cm, feeding on the elaiosomes and
210 leaving the seeds *in situ*. Interesting, Ness *et al.* (2004), based on a global analysis of ant species,
211 showed that the reduction in mean ant body size in invaded sites (compared to uninvaded ones) leads
212 to a decrease in seed dispersal distances with potential negative consequences for seed fate.

213 In our study, we argue that the small body size and low mandible gap of the Argentine ant (Ness *et al.*
214 *et al.*, 2004; Oliveras *et al.*, 2005) limit its capacity to transport the seeds of the four study species. The
215 physical constraint of the invasive species (jointly with the extirpation of the local ant fauna) may be
216 the major cause for the disruption of seed removal by ants in the invaded site (e.g. Christian, 2001;
217 Ness *et al.*, 2004).

218 In the uninvaded site, seed removal was carried out by different native species, but two of them, *P.*
219 *pallidula* and *A. iberica*, were responsible for most of the transport and removal of all seed species.
220 *Pheidole pallidula* and *Aphaenogaster* ants disperse seeds of many myrmecochorous plant species in
221 temperate forests and Mediterranean ecosystems and are considered keystone dispersers in these
222 ecosystems (Espadaler & Gómez, 1996; Ness *et al.*, 2009). These key seed disperser species literally
223 vacuum the soil surface in search for food being extremely efficient in detecting and removing seeds
224 (Espadaler & Gómez, 1997). These native species removed the larger and heavier diaspores of *C.*
225 *sphaerocephala* and *S. marianum* at much higher rates compared to the smaller and lighter co-
226 occurring diaspores of *R. officinalis* and the larger seeds may be more attractive to ants since they
227 bear a well-developed elaiosome. We are aware that some ants involved in seed removal are
228 granivorous, but they may still contribute to seed dispersal by dropping seeds during transport to the

229 nest and by discarding viable seeds in the refuse piles (Arnan *et al.*, 2010; Bulot *et al.*, 2016). In our
230 study, we did not record the destination of the seeds once they were picked up and carried away by
231 the ants, although observations on seed fate are important to assess long-term changes at community
232 level (e.g. Gorb & Gorb, 2003; Giladi, 2006; Tanaka *et al.*, 2015). In the Argentine ant invaded site,
233 we observed no seed removal during the cafeteria experiments, but we found that some seeds were
234 removed during the 24h observation period. We are aware that other groups of animals besides ants
235 (e.g. beetles, birds, rodents) may remove elaiosome-bearing seeds. However, previous studies using
236 exclusion experiments have shown that the seed removal rates by vertebrates are extremely low in
237 neighboring areas (Boieiro, 2012) while ants play a major role as dispersers of myrmecochorous
238 plants in these Mediterranean habitats (e.g. Espadaler & Gómez, 1996, 1997). Nevertheless, we
239 cannot rule out the probability that some seeds were removed by nocturnal granivorous ground beetles
240 (e.g. *Amara*, *Harpalus*, *Pseudophonus* spp.), which are known to be abundant in the close vicinity of
241 study sites (Martins da Silva *et al.*, 2008, 2009).

242 Finally, we acknowledge that this study has some limitations since our observations were carried out
243 over a short period (approximately 2 weeks), thus not accounting for temporal variation in ant
244 diversity and activity, and we sampled in only three replicates per sampling site. Ant activity shows
245 a high sensitivity towards environmental temperature (e.g. Cerdá *et al.*, 1998) and we decided to
246 perform the observations after the summer temperature peak, which may attain over 42°C and
247 severely constrain ant foraging activity during the day. During summer months, the Argentine ants
248 mostly rely on sugar-rich liquid food (e.g. Abril *et al.*, 2007) probably not being that interested in
249 collecting the seeds. Ant diet preferences shift across the season to match colony demands and this
250 can also determine differences in seed removal rates between plants that release their seeds in spring
251 compared to those (like our study species) that shed them in summer.

252 In terms of further research, repeating this study in time may help to better understand what the
253 consequences for the myrmecochorous plant structure are. For example, repeating the study in time,
254 may show low seed dispersal and high seed mortality levels of myrmecochorous plants with

255 potential implications on plant recruitment for the plant species considered. Community-level
256 consequences of the invasion by the Argentine ant resulting in a shift in plant species compositions
257 have already been reported (Christian, 2001) and authors fear that invasive species may affects
258 myrmecochorous plant abundance, distribution and population dynamics and even lead to
259 extinction rare narrow endemic species (Bond & Slingsby, 1984; Quilichini & Debussche, 2000).
260 Furthermore, a future experiment in the same study area may include sites where seed-harvester
261 ants occur, given that in our uninvaded site no ants with a seed-based diet were recorded. In this
262 way another factor besides invasive ant species, that may affect the dispersal and distribution of
263 myrmecochorous plant species, would be present. Different species of ants may show a selective
264 diet, which may in turn determine their role in seed dispersal. For example, harvester ants or species
265 of the genus *Aphaenogaster*, are mainly seed eater, however they contribute to seed dispersal by
266 dropping seeds towards the way back to the nest (Arnan et al., 2010) or by increasing seed density
267 and richness in their refuse piles (Bulot et al., 2016).

268 In conclusion, in High Nature Value farmlands such as our study area, efforts are being made to
269 maintain crop diversity through farming practices and heterogeneous landscapes with the ecological
270 goal of supporting high levels of biodiversity and halting biotic homogenization. Nevertheless, the
271 Argentine ant may benefit from human-assisted dispersal to establish and spread in these disturbed
272 habitats ultimately outcompeting native arthropod fauna and disrupting ecological processes, thereby
273 discreetly triggering a cascade of events throughout the community. For this reason, it is crucial to
274 establish indicators and monitoring programs for the early detection and rapid response to species
275 invasions in HNV farmlands.

276

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283

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