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**The Non-Indigenous Ant, *Solenopsis invicta*, Reduces Loggerhead Shrike and Native Insect
Abundance¹**

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ABSTRACT The red imported fire ant (*Solenopsis invicta* Buren) is an aggressive, non-indigenous species that is a threat to native biota in the southeastern United States. We determined the effect of *S. invicta* on loggerhead shrike (*Lanius ludovicianus* L.) abundance and investigated a possible mechanism of impact, a reduction in insect prey availability. We used a fire ant bait (hydramethylnon) to reduce fire ant populations on one randomly chosen member of each of five pairs of 202-ha study areas in the Texas coastal Bend region, and also measured shrike relative abundance and a volumetric index of insect biomass on the study areas. Loggerhead shrike relative abundance was assessed at five counting stations established along 3.2-km transects through prairie habitat on each study area during the fall of 1992 and 1993. We sampled non-*S. invicta* invertebrates with 13.3-L-capacity UV light traps and found that insect volume, species richness, and diversity were greater on treated sites. More shrikes were observed on areas where *S. invicta* populations had been reduced. Both insect biomass and shrike abundance were negatively correlated to the level of *S. invicta* infestation. Our data suggest that shrikes may avoid areas on wintering habitats that have been invaded by *Solenopsis invicta* and that this avoidance may result from reduced insect availability.

KEY WORDS endangered species, Formicidae, Hymenoptera, invasive species, Laniidae, *Lanius ludovicianus*, Passeriformes

Ants are important in ecological systems, acting as keystone species in many instances (Risch & Carroll 1982). Ants provide key and irreplaceable ecosystem services, such as pollination, nutrient turnover, energy flow, and seed dispersal (Handel et al. 1981). As invasive or introduced species, ants also may have large impacts, affecting native invertebrate (Porter & Savignano 1990, Cole et al. 1992) and vertebrate species (Allen et al. 1998), as well as ecological processes (Bond & Slingsby 1984, Zettler et al. 2001).

The red imported fire ant (*Solenopsis invicta* Buren) is native to the Pantanal flood plain of South America and was introduced into the United States in the vicinity of Mobile, Alabama, in the 1930s (Vinson & Sorensen 1986). It spread throughout the southeastern United States and continues to expand its range and populations at both local (Wojcik 1994) and regional scales (Cokendolpher & Phillips 1989). *Solenopsis invicta* is of interest to ecologists and invasion biologists because of its rapid spread and increasing evidence of negative impacts on diverse native fauna, both vertebrate and invertebrate.

In its native range, and historically in the United States, *S. invicta* are predominately monogynous, with a single fertile queen in each colony, and are intra-specifically territorial. Polygyny was unknown in *S. invicta* until the discovery of multiple-queen colonies in Mississippi (Glancey et al. 1973). Competition among monogynous colonies generally maintains colony densities at < 99/ha (Wojcik 1983). Polygynous colonies are characterized by high mound densities (>100 mounds/ha) associated with an apparent failure of the nest-mate recognition system and subsequent loss of territoriality (Mirenda & Vinson 1982). Polygynous colonies are now common in some infested regions, most notably in Texas where >50% of all colonies are polygynous (Porter et al. 1991). The sustained high population densities associated

with polygyne *S. invicta* have increased the potential for negative impacts on native invertebrate and vertebrate species and communities.

Impacts on vertebrates, and in particular on avian species, include decreased fledgling success (Sikes & Arnold 1986) and population reductions (Allen et al. 1995). *Solenopsis invicta* may prey on pipping young (Allen et al. 1994, Drees 1994) and have indirect impacts on behavior (Pedersen et al. 1996), survival, and weight gain (Guiliano et al. 1996, Allen et al. 1997). Presumably, decreases in insects such as orthopterans and lepidopteran larvae and overall decreases in arthropod abundance (Porter & Savignano 1990) have indirect negative influences on insectivorous birds (and other animals) by decreasing food availability.

Loggerhead shrikes (*Lanius ludovicianus* L.) and *S. invicta* forage on many of the same insect species and shrike-cached insects may be consumed by *S. invicta*. We hypothesized that fire ants may reduce insect availability for wintering shrikes, thereby reducing habitat quality for shrikes on wintering grounds. To test this hypothesis we reduced fire ant populations and measured the effect on a volumetric index of available invertebrate biomass and loggerhead shrike relative abundance.

Materials and Methods

We conducted our research on three private ranches in the Texas Coastal Prairie vegetational area of Texas (Gould, 1975). We selected ten 202-ha study areas (five pairs: R1, R2, V1, VC1, and VC2) during the fall of 1990 and paired them based on similarities in degree of *S. invicta* infestation, vegetation, soils, and pretreatment wildlife indices. A detailed description of the study areas is in Allen et al. (1995).

Red imported fire ant populations were reduced on one randomly chosen member of each study area pair with aerial applications (1.67 kg/ha) of Hydramethylnon (Amdro[®]) fire ant bait (American Cyanamid Co., Wayne, New Jersey), a delayed action toxicant. Hydramethylnon was applied in April and October 1991, and May 1992. Fire ant populations and the efficacy of *S. invicta* population reductions were assessed with ten, 0.10-ha, non-overlapping circle counts near the center of each study area. All *S. invicta* mounds within each 0.10-ha circle were counted and assigned a value corresponding to mound size and presence or absence of worker brood (Lofgren & Williams 1982). This index weights colonies with worker brood more heavily than colonies without, because the lack of worker brood indicates the absence of a fertile queen and, thus, a moribund colony. Red imported fire ants were surveyed prior to treatments (April 1991) and seven times post-treatment. Efficacy of treatments to reduce *S. invicta* populations were analyzed with randomized design block analysis of variance using pretreatment fire ant indices as a covariate (Allen et al. 1995).

Six of the ten available 202-ha study areas in three pairs (R1, V1, and VC1; Allen et al. 1995) were used to investigate *S. invicta* impact on invertebrate biomass, measured indirectly via collected volume. We sampled (non-*S. invicta*) invertebrates with 13.3-L-capacity UV light traps (Universal Black Light Trap 2851A, BioQuip Products, Gardena, California) using one trap-night per study area during each sampling period. Light traps were placed at ground-level >100 m from study area boundaries approximately 30 minutes before sunset and collected and emptied approximately 30 minutes after sunrise. Placement of traps on the ground and well within study area boundaries on our brush-prairie sites limited visibility so that our sampling was restricted as much as possible to invertebrates residing in our study areas. Members of a study area pair were sampled concurrently during three nights of consecutive sampling. The

contents of light traps were transferred to graduated cylinders and settled by tapping prior to the measurement of volume. Recovered Carabidae, Scarabidae, orthopterans (Tettigoniidae, Acrididae, Tetrigidae, Gryllotalpidae, Gryllidae), and Dictyoptera (roaches) were identified to species. We compared species richness and diversity using the Shannon Diversity Index (Magurran 1988) among treated and untreated sites with Wilcoxon Signed Rank Tests, because the data were not normally distributed ($P < 0.04$). Data from light traps (ccs of insects per study area) were analyzed with randomized block design analysis of variance (SAS Institute 1989). Each sampling period was analyzed separately because species turnover was high between sampling periods and thus represented independent samples. Voucher specimens are maintained at the United States Department of Agriculture Imported Fire Ant Station, Gulfport, Mississippi.

Pre-treatment data were collected in April 1991, treatment data in June, July, and October 1991, and again in January (*S. invicta* indices only), March, May (biomass only), June, August, and October (biomass only) of 1992. In June and August 1993, sampling documented *S. invicta* populations and insect biomass > 1 yr after the cessation of treatments. Pearson correlation analysis was used to test for a relationship between *S. invicta* indices and insect biomass for those periods where both measurements were collected. To decrease the chance of Type II error, we considered a $P < 0.10$ significant (Tacha et al. 1982).

We measured loggerhead shrike relative abundance on 3.2-km transects (Allen et al. 1995) through representative habitat on each study area. Five regularly spaced counting stations were placed on each transect. Transects were walked within three hours of sunrise/sunset and three minutes were spent at each station counting all shrikes seen within 50 m of the station. Stations were surveyed 12 times on each study area between 2 September and 2 November 1992, for a total of 60 counts on each study area. Between 1 September and 13 November 1993,

stations were surveyed an average of 17 times (range 13 to 26), for a total of 85 counts on each study area. Members of paired study areas were counted simultaneously. Shrike abundance was expressed as average number of shrikes observed on each five-station transect. Loggerhead shrike abundance was analyzed with randomized block design analysis of variance and we calculated both linear and non-linear regressions to determine if shrike abundance was affected by fire ant abundance as measured by indices (SAS Institute 1989).

Results

Fire ants on our study areas were primarily polygynous (Allen et al. 1995). Prior to treatment, *S. invicta* indices averaged 435 per 0.10-ha plot on treated areas and 297 per 0.10-ha plot on untreated areas, roughly corresponding to average mound densities of 290 and 198 mounds/ha, respectively. Following treatments, *S. invicta* population indices were reduced on treated sites (see Allen et al. 1995), remaining below untreated indices for the remainder of 1991 and throughout 1992. *Solenopsis invicta* indices after treatment averaged 18% of pretreatment levels on treated sites, while remaining virtually unchanged on untreated sites (averaging 105% of pretreatment level). In August 1992, immediately prior to the collection of shrike data, fire ant population levels on treated areas averaged 10% of untreated area indices. In 1993, a year after the last treatment to reduce fire ants, fire ant populations were similar on treated and untreated study areas (Allen et al. 1995).

Before treatments, insect volume was less ($P = 0.08$) on those areas randomly selected to be treated than on untreated areas (Table 1). After treatments, recovered insect volume was greater on treated sites and averaged more than double that of untreated areas. Significant differences were detected in June ($P = 0.02$) and October 1991 ($P = 0.03$) and May 1992 ($P < 0.10$), and approached significance in March ($P = 0.15$) and June 1992 ($P = 0.16$, Table 1). In

August 1992, immediately prior to the collection of shrike data, insect volume on untreated sites was 43% of volume recovered on treated sites. Invertebrate taxa recovered from light traps were predominately Scarabaeidae, Trogidae, Carabidae, Tettigoniidae, Acrididae, Gryllidae, as well as Lepidoptera, Homoptera, and Hemiptera. A significant negative correlation existed between *S. invicta* indices and recovered invertebrate volume ($r^2 = -0.281$, $df = 12$, $P = 0.07$). One year after the cessation of treatments, recovered insect volume from treated and untreated areas were similar and not significantly different ($P > 0.10$, Table 1).

Scarabidae, Carabidae, Orthoptera (Tettigoniidae, Acrididae, Tetrigidae, Gryllotalpidae, Gryllidae), and Dictyoptera were identified to species. Species richness was higher on treated sites ($W = 17$, $df = 7$, $P = 0.094$; Table 2). One hundred and forty four species were collected, 124 from treated sites and 100 from untreated sites (Table 2). The median Shannon Diversity index for treated sites (1.577) was greater than mean diversity (1.386) on untreated sites ($W = 19$, $df = 5$, $P = 0.063$; Table 2).

We observed 57 shrikes during 600 3–minute observation periods. Significantly more shrikes were observed on areas where *S. invicta* populations had been reduced ($F = 11.58$, $df = 4$, $P = 0.027$; Table 3). An average of 0.72 shrikes per 5–station transect was observed on treated areas, and 0.25/transect on untreated areas. Linear regressions of the relationship between fall shrike abundance and the abundance of *S. invicta* were significant as measured in both June ($r^2 = 0.650$, $df = 9$, $P < 0.005$) and August ($r^2 = 0.394$, $df = 9$, $P < 0.052$; Figure 1) 1992. Non–linear models provided a better fit, however, explaining more variance (June $r^2 = 0.823$, $df = 9$, $P = 0.011$, rational 4–parameter model; June $r^2 = 0.71$, $df = 9$, $P = 0.0124$, Inverse 2nd order polynomial)(Figure 2). In 1993, > 1 yr after the cessation of treatments to reduce fire ants, shrike populations were similar on treated and untreated study areas ($W = 5$, $df = 4$, $P = .625$; Table 4).

Discussion

We quantified an increase in overall non-*S. invicta* invertebrate volume, richness and diversity on areas treated to reduce *S. invicta* populations. Treatments were unlikely to have any direct effect on non-*S. invicta* insects (Apperson et al. 1984). *Solenopsis invicta* dominates baits and even at relatively low density are the first species to recruit to >95% of baits, and to eventually exploit 100% of baits (Baroni Urbani & Kanno 1974). *Solenopsis invicta* may remove >90% of bait in less than two hours. Furthermore, hydramethylnon decomposes rapidly with exposure to sunlight (Vander Meer et al. 1982) and leaves no detectable residues after 24 hours (Apperson et al. 1984). We conclude that fire ants negatively affected overall insect biomass, richness, and diversity.

Shrike abundance was higher on sites where *S. invicta* populations were reduced. A mechanism responsible for lower shrike abundance on sites with higher fire ant populations may be the deterioration of habitat quality due to a decrease in the availability of insects. The better fit of non-linear models of the relationship between shrike abundance and fire ants suggests that there may be a threshold infestation level that occurs at fairly modest fire ant densities (Figure 1). Food resource abundance affects territory quality, with sites supporting fewer insects also supporting lower densities of shrikes (Seki & Takano 1998). Shrikes largely feed on arthropods (Craig 1978), mostly grasshoppers, crickets, and beetles (Lynn & Temple 1991). Red imported fire ants also feed heavily on arthropods (Hays & Hays 1959) and on our study sites we detected community-level negative effects on native insects. The indirect influence of *S. invicta* on insect availability also has been suggested as a mechanism of negative impact on quail populations (Allen et al. 1995). More direct resource co-option also may affect the quality of shrike habitat.

Food caching behavior by the loggerhead shrike is not fully understood (Fraser & Luukkonen 1986), but influences reproductive success (Yosef & Pinshow 1989). In 1992, a loggerhead shrike was observed caching a freshly impaled grasshopper on a fence post and minutes later this grasshopper was dismembered and carried away by foraging *S. invicta* (Allen, personal observation). This observation and the speed of recruitment by *S. invicta* to food sources suggests that prey cached in areas heavily infested by *S. invicta* are likely to be exploited by fire ants. If caching by male shrikes is important in the reproductive energetics (Applegate 1977) and success (Yosef & Pinshow 1989) of females, or as a reserve food source for shrikes in times of prey scarcity, this may be an additional mode of impact in the loggerhead shrike.

Conservation of native species often requires understanding the effect of invasive species upon native species, the mechanisms of impacts, and the factors leading to invasion. Predaceous invasive invertebrate species can have profound negative effects on native insect communities (Simberloff 1981), both by preying upon native species and by competing with them. The impact of *Solenopsis invicta* on native species diversity and abundance is becoming more clearly understood (Allen et al. 1998), yet more remains unknown than known concerning the ecological impacts of fire ants. It is clear, however, that fire ants are a threat to native invertebrate and vertebrate communities, especially in areas where polygynous fire ants are established.

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Table 1. Insect volume (cc) (\pm one standard error) collected from light traps on three pairs of treated and untreated study areas in the Texas Coastal Prairie, 1991–1992.

Date	<u>Treated</u>	<u>Untreated</u>	<i>F</i> -value ^a	<i>P</i> -level
	X \pm SE	X \pm SE		
Pre-treatment (April 1991)	164 \pm 18	248 \pm 39	10.5	0.083

June 1991	2405 \pm 244	960 \pm 215	60.1	0.016
July	487 \pm 105	323 \pm 87	3.2	0.213
October	43 \pm 3	21 \pm 6	33.8	0.028
March 1992	9 \pm 4	4 \pm 2	5.2	0.151
May	162 \pm 90	126 \pm 81	8.9	0.096
June	1007 \pm 314	467 \pm 91	4.6	0.164
August	670 \pm 371	290 \pm 98	1.8	0.316
October	135 \pm 87	87 \pm 57	2.4	0.259

<i>S. invicta</i> recovery period				
June 1993	170 \pm 98	177 \pm 111	0.3	0.662
August	246 \pm 47	8 \pm 70	3.1	0.220

^a 2 degrees of freedom in all comparisons.

Table 2. Species richness (totals) and diversity (means; Shannon Diversity Index) of selected invertebrate families captured in light traps on three pairs of treated and untreated study areas in the Texas Coastal Prairie, 1991–1992.

	<u>Treated</u>		<u>Untreated</u>	
	Richness	Diversity	Richness	Diversity
Carabidae	52	2.886	52	2.963
Tettigoniidae	12	1.367	11	1.107
Acrididae	14	1.832	9	1.665
Tetrigidae	0	-	1	-
Gryllidae	3	0.489	3	0.303
Gryllotalpidae	1	-	0	-
Dictyoptera	3	0.902	1	0
Scarabeidae	39	1.786	23	1.671
Totals or means	124	1.544	100	1.285

Table 3. Loggerhead shrike abundance (\pm one standard error) on five pairs of treated and untreated study areas in the Texas Coastal Prairie, 2 Sept. – 2 Nov. 1992.

Study area pair	Treated	Untreated
R1	0.92 ± 0.31	0.08 ± 0.08
R2	0.83 ± 0.21	0.75 ± 0.22
V1	0.67 ± 0.43	0.17 ± 0.17
VC1	0.42 ± 0.15	0.17 ± 0.11
VC2	0.75 ± 0.25	0.08 ± 0.08
Mean \pm SE	0.72 ± 0.09	0.25 ± 0.13

Table 4. Loggerhead shrike abundance (\pm one standard error) on five pairs of treated and untreated study areas in the Texas Coastal Prairie > 1 yr after the cessation of treatments, 1 Sept.–13 Nov. 1993.

Study area pair	Treated	Untreated
R1	0.44 \pm 0.13	0.42 \pm 0.10
R2	0.29 \pm 0.13	0.16 \pm 0.09
V1	0.13 \pm 0.09	0.07 \pm 0.07
VC1	0.39 \pm 0.14	0.75 \pm 0.11
VC2	0.18 \pm 0.10	0.05 \pm 0.05
Mean \pm SE	0.29 \pm 0.06	0.29 \pm 0.13

Figure 1. Linear relationship between fall abundance of loggerhead shrikes and spring and fall fire ant abundance, 1992.

Figure 2. Non-linear relationship between fall abundance of loggerhead shrikes and spring and fall fire ant abundance, 1992.



