

1 **Coming back home: recolonisation of abandoned dens by crested porcupines *Hystrix***
2 ***cristata* and European badgers *Meles meles* after wood-cutting and riparian vegetation**
3 **mowing events**

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18

19 **Abstract**

20

21 Semifossorial species excavate dens and thus are considered as landscape engineers, often
22 responsible for soil oxygenation and shuffling, as well as for landslides and floods. The crested
23 porcupine and the European badger are semifossorial mammals sharing dens in C Italy. Both
24 species localise their setts mainly in densely vegetated areas, providing them with cover and

25 protection from local predators and poachers. This is particularly evident for the porcupine,
26 widely poached in central and southern Italy, whereas badgers may locally exploit burrows
27 also in open and periurban areas. Wood-cutting and mowing of riparian vegetation
28 surrounding den setts force both porcupines and badgers to leave their burrows. We
29 evaluated the probability of den re-occupancy in the years following the vegetation removal,
30 through intensive camera-trapping at 14 den setts monitored for 9 years. We performed
31 GLMMs to test the annual probability of sett occupancy by the two species after vegetation
32 disturbance events. The probability of re-occupying the burrow by porcupines increased with
33 increasing time from the disturbance cessation. A similar pattern was also observed for the
34 badger, which probability of den occupancy was also negatively correlated with the porcupine
35 presence at the same den, confirming the aggressive behavior of this rodent. We also tested
36 whether, since the first year after vegetation removal, the proportion of years of occupation
37 by porcupines on the total of years has been affected by the disturbance repetition. This effect
38 was found to be significant only for the badger. The crested porcupine, protected by
39 international and national laws, is more sensitive than the badger, protected according to the
40 Italian national law, to vegetation removal. A single disturbance event is sufficient to force it
41 to abandon the den sett, followed by a slow recolonisation with growing vegetation.
42 Conversely, the badger is sensitive to continuous vegetation removal whereas it can colonise
43 porcupine dens abandoned after single disturbances.

44

45 **Keywords:** woodland management; den setts; habitat loss; recolonisation; *Hystrix cristata*;
46 *Meles meles*.

47

48 **Introduction**

50 Habitat loss and fragmentation (e.g. due to urbanisation, infrastructure construction,
51 agricultural expansion, and logging) have been reported to be the main anthropogenic
52 disturbance to world ecosystems (e.g. Scott et al., 2006; Brodie et al., 2015; Khalatbari et al.,
53 2018) and the main cause of the current global biodiversity crisis (e.g. Bright, 1993; Brooks et
54 al., 2002; Fahrig, 2003). In the Mediterranean basin and in Central Europe, ecosystems were
55 subjected to intensive human disturbance in the past 10,000 years and habitat fragmentation
56 is a well-known driver of animal abundance and distribution (Mangas and Rodríguez-Estival,
57 2010; Mortelliti et al., 2011; Thomas et al., 2018). If some species are potentially benefited by
58 wood-cutting and agricultural/urbanisation intensification (Macdonald et al., 2007; Russo and
59 Ancillotto, 2015), populations of forest-dweller species are generally negatively affected
60 (Wilcove et al., 1986; Kouki et al., 2001; Mortelliti et al., 2011).

61 The European badger *Meles meles* and the crested porcupine *Hystrix cristata* are
62 protected species in Italy; therefore, hunting against these species is not allowed in this
63 country. Furthermore, the crested porcupine is also listed within the annexes of the Bern
64 Convention and of the Habitat Directive. These species may be found in various habitat types
65 ranging from woodlands to agricultural areas and human settlements (Mori et al., 2014a;
66 Chiatante et al., 2017; Lovari et al., 2017; Geiger et al., 2018). Both species show semifossorial
67 habits, i.e. they inhabit underground den systems (hereafter, “setts”: Neal and Cheeseman,
68 1996) in daylight hours, which may be directly excavated or naturally present (Neal and Roper,
69 1991; Corsini et al., 1995; Roper et al., 2001; Monetti et al., 2005). Moreover, badgers and
70 porcupines may share the same sett (Tinelli and Tinelli, 1980; Pigozzi, 1986; Zavalloni and
71 Castellucci, 1994; Mori et al., 2015); however, during the reproductive period, crested
72 porcupines tend to outcompete other species, dismissing them from the den (Mori et al.,

73 2015). Given the high amount of energy required to dig dens (Vleck, 1979; Stewart et al.,
74 1999), a strong den site fidelity has been reported for badgers and porcupines, who may
75 occupy the same sett for many decades (e.g. Neal, 1986; Neal and Roper, 1991; Monetti et al.,
76 2005). Even if both badgers and porcupines may attend a wide number of habitat types, their
77 dens are mostly located within densely vegetated areas (e.g. scrublands and deciduous
78 woodlands), often on limestone and in solid and steep soils (Neal and Roper, 1991; Doncaster
79 and Woodroffe, 1993; Revilla et al., 2001a; Monetti et al., 2005). Conversely, pinewoods,
80 human settlements and open habitats (farmlands and fallows) are largely avoided (Neal, 1986;
81 Kurek, 2011; Revilla et al., 2001a; Mori et al., 2014a). Steep soils may guarantee den
82 resistance, whereas the location within dense woodland and scrubland is functional to protect
83 them from predators, extreme temperatures and poachers (Neal and Roper, 1991; Monetti et
84 al., 2005; Lovari et al., 2017). Accordingly, it has been suggested that scrubland/woodland
85 elimination (e.g. for timber production or to increase agricultural areas/pastures for livestock)
86 may force semifossorial mammals to locally abandon their setts (Feroe and Montgomery,
87 1999; Revilla et al., 2001a; Kurek, 2011; Lovari et al., 2017).

88 Due to their digging habits, both European badgers and crested porcupines have been
89 suggested to be responsible for riverbank collapses, flooding and infrastructure damages, e.g.
90 to railway embankments (Sforzi et al., 1999; Balestrieri and Remonti, 2000; Convito and Paci,
91 2003; Orlandini et al., 2015). In these cases, wood-cutting or riparian vegetation removal
92 around dens has been proposed as a way to resolve conflicts with human activities and to
93 mitigate damages without direct control intervention (Sforzi et al., 1999; Orlandini et al.,
94 2015).

95 In this work, we aimed at assessing the pattern of recolonisation of den setts previously
96 occupied by porcupines or by porcupines and badgers after vegetation removal in central Italy,

97 also considering the interspecific interference occurring among these two semifossorial
98 mammals. Given that badger setts may also occur in open areas (Tinelli and Tinelli, 1980;
99 Pigozzi, 1986; Neal and Roper, 1991; Revilla et al., 2011a; Kurek, 2011), we predicted that
100 wood-cutting may exert a stronger impact on the crested porcupine, which would recolonise
101 abandoned dens in a longer amount of time.

102

103 **Materials and Methods**

104

105 *Study area*

106

107 Our study has been conducted on the Metalliferous Hills, in Central Italy (Provinces of
108 Grosseto and Siena), along the Merse river valley (43.08°N, 10.09°E; 420-625 m a.s.l.: Fig. 1).

109 About 60% of the study area is covered by woodlands (mostly *Quercus cerris*, *Castanea*
110 *sativa*, *Ostrya carpinifolia* and *Carpinus betulus*), surrounded by Mediterranean scrubland
111 (*Juniperus* spp., *Rubus* spp. and *Spartium junceum*: about 8.5%). Open habitats (including
112 fallows and cultivations) cover about the 25% of the study site. The remaining part of the study
113 area (about 6.5%) is covered with coniferous woodlands (*Pinus nigra* and *Cupressus arizonica*).
114 Average annual temperature was 16°C with summer peaks up to 33°C.

115

116 *Camera trapping and vegetation control monitoring*

117

118 Data were collected through a camera-trapping survey to study the spatiotemporal
119 behaviour of the crested porcupine (June 2010-December 2018). We used 4 camera traps
120 Ziboni Tecnofauna Explorer Case 1988 and 3 camera traps Multipir 12. Camera traps were

121 located near the entrances of 16 den setts, i.e. all those detected within the study area, at a
122 height of 20-50 cm above the ground level. All the setts were inhabited by reproductive groups
123 of crested porcupines and 12 of them also hosted badger family groups (Mori et al., 2016). At
124 least 57 individual crested porcupines and 46 badgers were camera trapped in our study site,
125 i.e. at den entrances (cf. Balestrieri et al., 2016). Population densities cannot be reliably
126 estimated, as both porcupines and badgers use also dense scrublands for denning, in our study
127 area (Pigozzi, 1986; Mori et al., 2015; Lovari et al., 2017), which have not been surveyed
128 because of their scarce accessibility.

129 Our survey included 3797 trap nights; each camera trap site was kept active for 28-52
130 nights/year, 24 hours/day, to take 3 pictures/event. Shortest monitoring times at den setts
131 (i.e. 28, 32 and 34 nights/year) were due to camera-trap failures (because of dead batteries)
132 and thefts. Camera traps were checked at least once every two weeks, to download photos
133 and change batteries. Den setts were separated one-another by 800-1300 m and were
134 considered as spatially independent one-another as each one hosted a familiar, reproductive
135 nucleus of both the semifossorial mammals in at least one period of the year (Kruuk, 1989;
136 Buesching et al., 2003; Mori et al., 2016).

137 In the study area, vegetation control (i.e. wood-cutting and removal of riparian plants
138 along riverbanks) has been recorded and mapped once every three months. We recorded that
139 it occurred several times during the study period, but always in early spring, in patches of up
140 to 100 hectares.

141

142 *Statistical analysis*

143

144 To test the annual probability of den sett occupancy by porcupine after vegetation
145 disturbance (i.e. wood-cutting or removal of riparian plants along riverbanks), we built a
146 generalized linear mixed effect model (GLMM) with a binomial error distribution and a logit-
147 link function. We considered each year as a sampling unit for each den sett and we assessed
148 whether the den sett was occupied (1) or not occupied (0) by the crested porcupine. As
149 explanatory variables, we used the year after the ceasing of vegetation disturbance and
150 whether the den sett was occupied by the European badger in the same year. We controlled
151 den sett occupancy from one to six years after vegetation disturbance; the latter case was
152 available for only two den setts and, thus, we excluded it from the analyses. We used the den
153 sett identity as a random intercept factor to account for the expected non-independence of
154 occupancy pattern in different year in a determined den sett. We also conducted a specular
155 analysis using the badger den sett occupancy as response variable (and the porcupine den sett
156 occupancy in the same year as predictor).

157 Additionally, for both species, we tested whether the proportion of years of sett
158 occupancy over the total years (starting to count from the year after the ceasing of the first
159 vegetation disturbance) were affected by the number of years in which a vegetation
160 disturbance event occurred. To do that, we used GLMs with binomial error distribution and a
161 logit-link function. All the analyses were performed with R version 3.4.1 (R Core Team, 2017).
162 GLM were run with the default *stats* package, whereas GLMMs were run with *glmmADMB*
163 package (Skaug et al., 2015). Due to the low number of predictors tested in each model, we
164 assessed the variables importance by hypothesis testing. The covariate significance was
165 assessed by means of likelihood ratio chi square tests (for GLMs) or Wald's chi square tests
166 (for GLMMs), performed with the R package *car* (Fox and Weisberg, 2011), because for non-

167 normal GLM(M)s, these tests are considered to be more reliable than the default statistics
168 (Venables and Ripley, 2002; Assandri et al., 2017).

169 Predation pressure may influence the spatio-temporal distribution of prey species (e.g.
170 Thaker et al., 2011; Prugh and Golden, 2014). However, local predation on porcupine is a very
171 rare occurrence (i.e. by red foxes and grey wolves: Mori et al., 2014b). As well, badgers have
172 been only occasionally detected in the local diet of the grey wolf, which may also take profit
173 by road-killed badger/porcupine carcasses, thus not directly preying on them (Battocchio et
174 al., 2017). Therefore, we excluded predation risk from predictors in our models.

175

176 **Results**

177

178 The crested porcupine was strongly and negatively affected by vegetation disturbance
179 events. After those events, den setts regularly occupied for one or more years were regularly
180 abandoned and then deserted (Fig. 2). As to the European badger, not all the monitored den
181 setts were occupied before disturbance events, but a similar pattern of abandonment
182 occurred. However, badgers may benefit from the (disturbed) porcupine deserted dens,
183 recolonising them earlier than porcupines.

184 The porcupine probability of sett occupancy was significantly affected by the years
185 after the ceasing of vegetation disturbance ($\chi^2 = 13.55$, $df= 4$, $p=0.008$, $n=63$), but not by the
186 badger sett occupancy ($\chi^2 =0.02$, $df=1$, $p=0.85$, $n=63$). Less than 30% of the formerly occupied
187 den setts were occupied again from the first year up to three after the ceasing of vegetation
188 disturbance. From the fourth year, and more markedly during the fifth year, the probability of
189 den sett occupancy increased up to a level of almost 70% (Fig. 3).

190 The badger probability of sett occupancy was significantly affected by the year after
191 the ceasing of vegetation disturbance ($\chi^2 = 12.04$, $df = 4$, $p = 0.01$, $n = 53$), and negatively ($\beta = -$
192 4.69 ± 2.51), although marginally not-significantly, by the porcupine presence at sett ($\chi^2 = 3.48$,
193 $df = 1$, $p = 0.06$, $n = 53$). The badger, after a first year of very low occupancy probability (10%),
194 rapidly occupied formerly abandoned den sett (about 50% in the third year) up to a maximum
195 of about 80% of occupancy in the fifth year.

196 Considering the proportion of years of sett occupancy over the total years (after the first
197 vegetation disturbance event), the crested porcupine was not significantly affected by the
198 number of years in which a vegetation disturbance event occurred ($\beta = -0.24 \pm 0.27$; LR $\chi^2 =$
199 0.76 ; $df = 1$; $p = 0.38$). Conversely, this variable significantly (and negatively) affected the
200 European badger ($\beta = -0.82 \pm 0.33$; LR $\chi^2 = 7.52$; $df = 1$; $p = 0.006$).

201

202 **Discussion**

203

204 Our results showed that both the European badger and the crested porcupine are
205 sensitive to vegetation disturbance. However, we highlighted some interspecific behavioural
206 differences. According to our predictions, the crested porcupine showed a higher sensitivity
207 with respect to the badger, as it abandoned dens immediately after the disturbance and
208 employed a higher amount of time for recolonisation. We are aware of the caveats related to
209 our small sample size (i.e. 16 den setts); however, with a much greater number of
210 experimental setts, a constant camera-trap monitoring, as the one we have used in our study
211 but throughout a wider area, would have been particularly challenging. Furthermore, a
212 reliable estimation of population density of crested porcupines and European badger would
213 have only been possible through a capture-mark-recapture program (Pigozzi, 1988; Rogers et

214 al., 1997; Sforzi et al., 1999; Tuytens et al., 2001), but we are rather confident that most of
215 locally available den setts have been monitored. However, some dens may have been located
216 within dense scrubland, thus not detected (cf. Balestrieri et al., 2016; Lovari et al., 2017).

217 Despite crop damage by porcupine is very low in central Italy (Laurenzi et al., 2016),
218 persecution and poaching against this species is still occurring because of popular beliefs,
219 damage to small vegetable gardens and because it is considered as a food delicacy (Amori and
220 Angelici, 1992; Cerri et al., 2017; Lovari et al., 2017). Poaching against badger seems to be a
221 rare occurrence in central Italy. Illegal killings of badgers mostly occurred for pelts and fat (as
222 folk medicine) before the 1970s (Kowalczyk et al., 2000). Sometimes, humans still kill badgers
223 as a bycatch in hunting drifts to wild ungulates with hounds (Revilla et al., 2001b).
224 Furthermore, in their native range (sub-Saharan Africa), crested porcupines are preyed upon
225 by large carnivores (Mori et al., 2014b), which have brought this rodent to be evolved by
226 thriving in concealed habitats (cf. Fattorini and Pokheral, 2012; Mori et al., 2014a). Conversely,
227 badgers coexist with a number of small carnivores, but it has been reported to be the upper
228 competitor (Macdonald et al. 2004; Trewby et al., 2007; Kowalczyk et al., 2008), as also being
229 the largest in size (cf. Palomares and Caro, 1999; Donadio and Buskirk, 2006). Furthermore, it
230 is only an occasional prey for the wolf (Gade-Jorgensen and Stagegaar, 2000; Battocchio et al.,
231 2017). As a likely consequence of these factors, porcupine setts are for their vast majority
232 located in dense scrubland and deciduous woodland (Monetti et al., 2005; Mori et al., 2014a),
233 where their visibility is the lowest (Lovari et al., 2017). Conversely, although woodland and
234 shrubs are also preferred by the badger (Tinelli and Tinelli 1980; Roper et al., 2001; Prigioni
235 and Deflorian, 2005), this small carnivore might locate its dens also in agricultural areas or
236 near human settlements (Neal and Roper, 1991; Balestrieri and Remonti, 2000; Remonti et
237 al., 2006).

238 Our study points out that the European badger showed a higher speed in recolonising
239 abandoned dens with respect to the crested porcupine. This behaviour may be due to the
240 higher adaptability (according to vegetation cover) of badgers in den site selection (Neal and
241 Roper, 1991; Monetti et al., 2005). Additionally, in our work, we observed that badgers
242 occupied also dens previously used by porcupines, possibly favored by the “time lag” of
243 porcupines in the occupancy rate and confirming the competitive supremacy of the large
244 rodent (e.g. Mori et al., 2014b; Mori et al., 2015). Differently from the crested porcupine
245 (Monetti et al., 2005), European badgers may stop the use of a den sett for short period, i.e.
246 mostly outside the birth period, then coming back (e.g. Revilla et al., 2001a; Roper et al., 2001;
247 Loureiro et al., 2007). However, we might exclude that this behaviour affected our
248 interpretations, because of the strong temporal relationship occurring between vegetation
249 removal and den abandonment.

250 Although crested porcupines and European badgers share communal den setts
251 (Pigozzi, 1986; Mori et al., 2015), during the reproductive period crested porcupines increase
252 the defence strategies inside and in the surroundings of the dens, attacking badgers and
253 obliging them to search for other burrows, to the extreme consequence to kill them (Mori et
254 al., 2014b; Mori et al., 2015).

255 In the last decades, damages to riverbanks and railway embankments due to European
256 badger and crested porcupine digging behaviour resulted in high economic losses (e.g.
257 Valdichiana Senese in the province of Siena, province of Modena: Orlandini et al., 2015; Mori,
258 unpublished), due to flooding and landslides. Electric fences and individual removal are
259 ineffective or show only a time-limited success (Massei et al., 2010; Laurenzi et al., 2016).
260 Despite most damages to riverbanks are due to digging by coypus *Myocastor coypus*
261 (Panzacchi et al., 2007), which burrows are sometimes used also by porcupine and badgers

262 (Sforzi et al., 1999; Mori et al., 2015), vegetation control (including mowing and wood cutting)
263 has been proposed as a management strategy to reduce the presence of both badgers and
264 porcupines (Sforzi et al., 1999). Our findings suggest that this management intervention, if not
265 constantly repeated or maintained, is not successful as both species in five years almost
266 completely recolonize formerly abandoned dens. Furthermore, vegetation disturbance may
267 affect a number of other native species and may strongly threaten the environmental (e.g.
268 riverbank) stability (Seymour and Simmons, 2008; Hubble et al., 2010). Thus, vegetation
269 control should be considered only as an extreme management decision, when prevention, e.g.
270 through fences partly buried, is not an effective strategy.

271

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273

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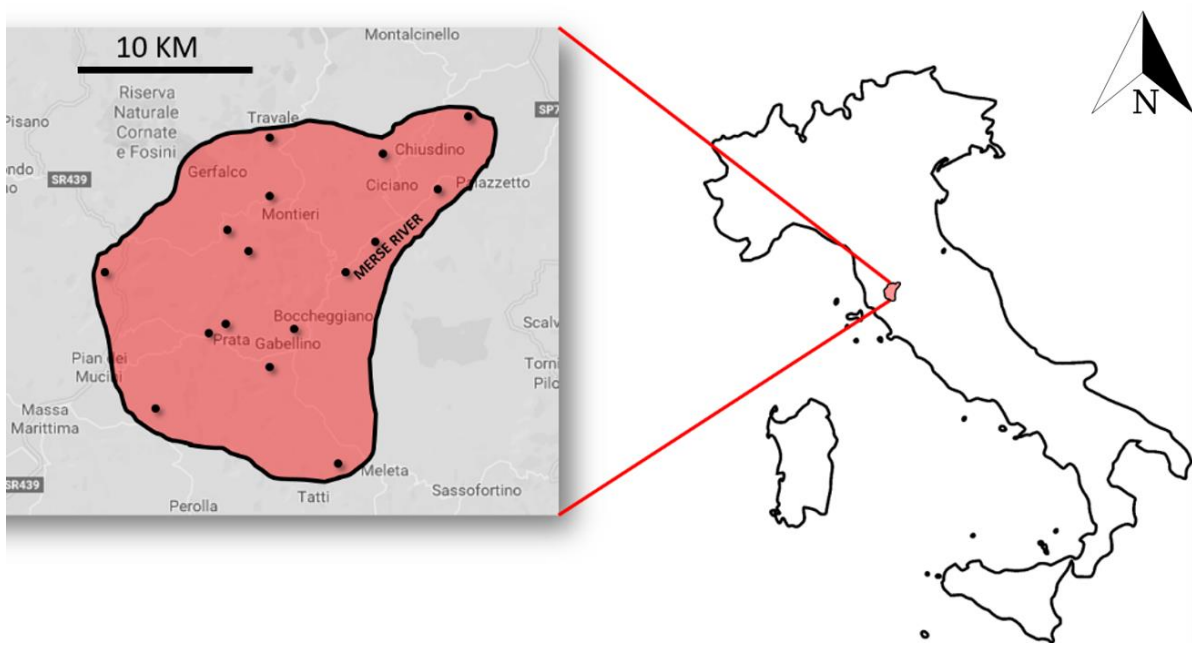
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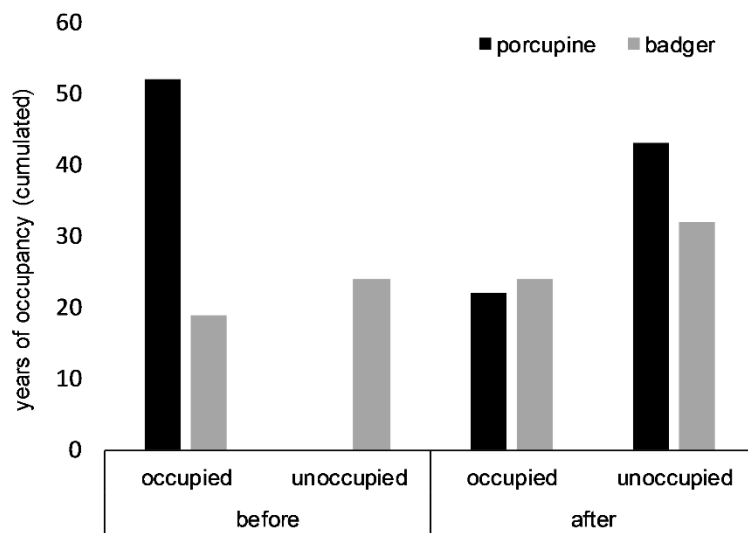
574 **Figures**



575

576 **Figure 1.** Location of the study area. Black dots show surveyed den setts.

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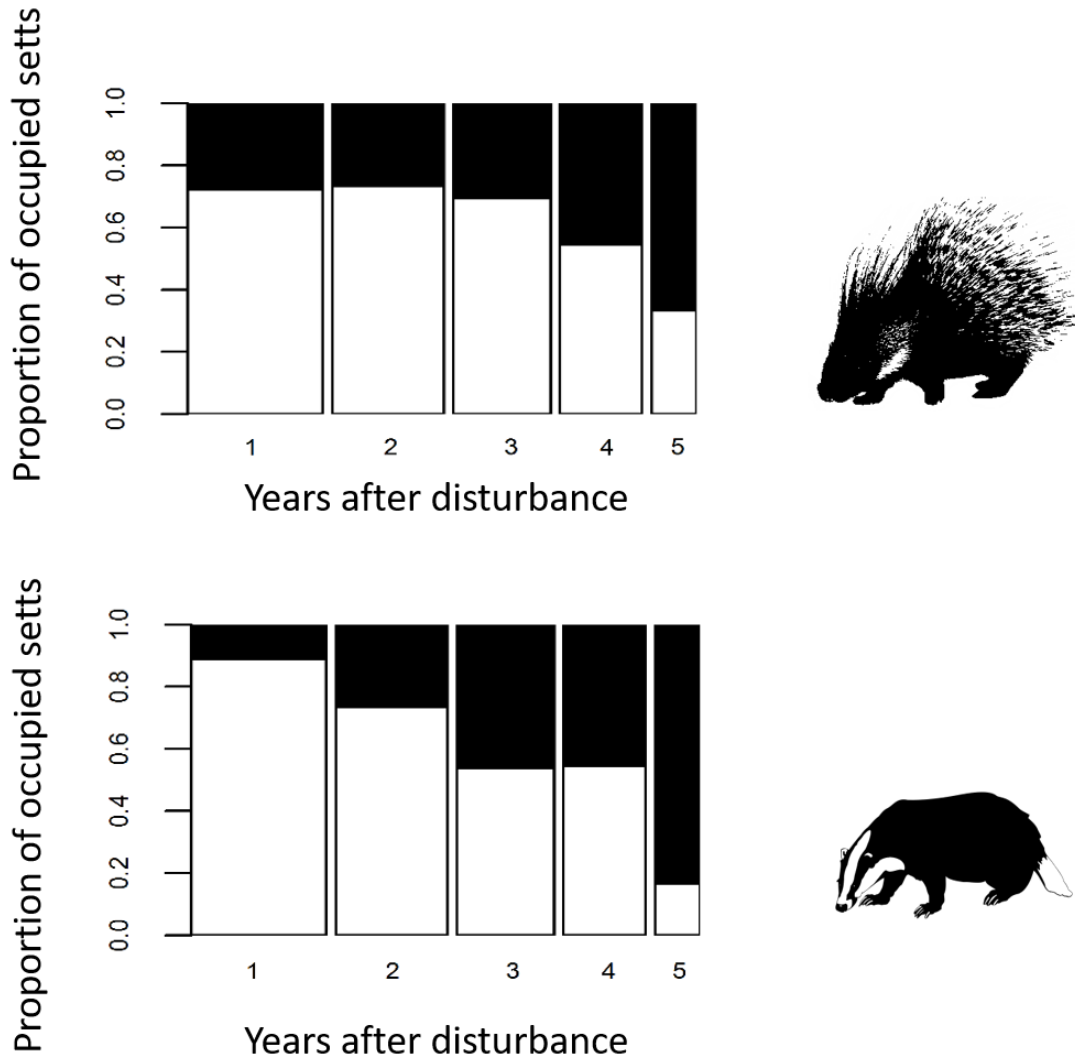


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579 **Figure 2.** Years of den sett occupancy (cumulated for all den sett) by crested porcupines and
 580 European badger before and after vegetation disturbance events.

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584 **Figure 3.** Proportion of dens occupied by crested porcupines (top) and European badgers

585 (bottom), from one year to five years after the ceasing of vegetation disturbance. White =

586 unoccupied; black = occupied. Bar width is proportional to sample size. $N_{\text{porcupine}}= 63,$

587 $N_{\text{badger}}=53.$

588