

Impact of habitat loss on the diversity and structure of ecological networks between endosymbiont nematodes and spur-thighed tortoises (*Testudo graeca* L.)

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Habitat loss and fragmentation are recognized as affecting the nature of biotic interactions, although we still know little about such changes for reptilian herbivores and their hindgut nematodes, in which endosymbiont interactions could range from mutualistic to commensal and parasitic. We investigated the cost and benefit of endosymbiont interactions between the spur-thighed tortoise (*Testudo graeca* L.) and nematodes in scrublands of southern Spain. For this, we assessed the effect of nematode species richness and abundance on tortoises' growth rates across levels of habitat loss (low, intermediate and high). Furthermore, by using ecological networks, we evaluated the effect of habitat loss on the diversity and structure of interactions. Nematode richness and abundance showed contrasting relationships with growth rates across levels of habitat loss. At low habitat loss, nematode infestation was positively associated with growth rates (suggesting a mutualistic nematode-tortoise relationship), but the association became negative at high habitat loss (suggesting a parasitic relationship). In addition no relationship was observed when habitat loss was intermediate (suggesting a commensal relationship). The network analysis showed that the nematode community was not randomly assembled but significantly nested, revealing a structured pattern for all levels of habitat loss. The diversity of interactions was lowest at low habitat loss, but the intermediate level showed the greatest specialization, which indicates that individuals were infested by less abundant nematodes in this landscape, whereas at high habitat loss individuals were the most generalized hosts. Related to the latter, connectance was greater at high habitat loss, reflecting a more uniform spread of interactions among nematode species. We conclude that habitat loss affects the complex interactions between tortoises and their nematode endosymbiont species with negative, neutral and positive

consequences for tortoise growth rates. Ecological network analysis can help in the understanding of the nature of such changes in tortoise-nematode interactions by showing how generalized or specialized such interactions are under different environmental conditions and how vulnerable endosymbiont interactions might be to further habitat loss.

1 **Impact of habitat loss on the diversity and structure of ecological networks**
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3 **L.)**

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24 ABSTRACT

25 Habitat loss and fragmentation are recognized as affecting the nature of biotic interactions,
26 although we still know little about such changes for reptilian herbivores and their hindgut
27 nematodes, in which endosymbiont interactions could range from mutualistic to commensal and
28 parasitic. We investigated the cost and benefit of endosymbiont interactions between the spur-
29 thighed tortoise (*Testudo graeca* L.) and nematodes in scrublands of southern Spain. For this, we
30 assessed the effect of nematode species richness and abundance on tortoises' growth rates across
31 levels of habitat loss (low, intermediate and high). Furthermore, by using ecological networks,
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33 richness and abundance showed contrasting relationships with growth rates across levels of
34 habitat loss. At low habitat loss, nematode infestation was positively associated with growth
35 rates (suggesting a mutualistic nematode-tortoise relationship), but the association became
36 negative at high habitat loss (suggesting a parasitic relationship). In addition no relationship was
37 observed when habitat loss was intermediate (suggesting a commensal relationship). The
38 network analysis showed that the nematode community was not randomly assembled but
39 significantly nested, revealing a structured pattern for all levels of habitat loss. The diversity of
40 interactions was lowest at low habitat loss, but the intermediate level showed the greatest
41 specialization, which indicates that individuals were infested by less abundant nematodes in this
42 landscape, whereas at high habitat loss individuals were the most generalized hosts. Related to
43 the latter, connectance was greater at high habitat loss, reflecting a more uniform spread of
44 interactions among nematode species. We conclude that habitat loss affects the complex
45 interactions between tortoises and their nematode endosymbiont species with negative, neutral
46 and positive consequences for tortoise growth rates. Ecological network analysis can help in the

47 understanding of the nature of such changes in tortoise-nematode interactions by showing how
48 generalized or specialized such interactions are under different environmental conditions and
49 how vulnerable endosymbiont interactions might be to further habitat loss.

50

51 **Key words:** Antagonism, biotic interactions, commensalism, habitat degradation, mutualism,
52 parasitism.

53

54 **Introduction**

55 As a consequence of diverse human activities, habitat loss and fragmentation in terrestrial
56 ecosystems have been considered as the main threats to the maintenance of biodiversity
57 worldwide (Brooks et al., 2002; Faharig, 2003). This is because native species are susceptible to
58 habitat degradation through local extinctions and the reduction in the size of their populations.

59 One aspect of land use change that could have an important impact on wild populations and
60 biodiversity is the local extinction of native species caused by changes in the nature of biotic
61 interactions, including both mutualistic (e.g., pollination and seed dispersal) and antagonistic
62 (e.g., pests and pathogens) interactions (Harvell et al., 2002; Patz et al., 2004; Aguilar et al.,
63 2006; Aguirre & Tabor, 2008; Trumbore et al., 2015; Pringle, 2016). The ecological costs of
64 these changes constitute the loss of species and populations and ecosystem degradation (Harvell
65 et al., 2002; Rizzo et al., 2002; Patz et al., 2004; Aguilar et al., 2006; Aguirre & Tabor, 2008;
66 Vurro et al., 2010; Trumbore et al., 2015; Pringle, 2016). There are other biotic interactions,
67 however, that have been little explored in the context of habitat loss, such as commensal
68 interactions in which one species benefits whilst the other receives neither benefit nor damage. In
69 some reptiles, for instance, the symbiotic relationships with hindgut nematodes (endosymbionts)

70 have been categorized as commensal, mutualistic and/or parasitic (O'Grady et al., 2005;
71 O'Grady & Dearing, 2006). In fact, for herbivorous reptiles, hindgut nematodes might be
72 parasitic but might also play a positive role in the digestion and assimilation of plant matter
73 (O'Grady & Dearing, 2006).

74 Habitat loss and fragmentation influence resource availability and also the distribution,
75 abundance and behaviour of wildlife species and could therefore change the ecology of parasite
76 and/or endosymbiont transmission (Kareiva, 1987; Patz et al., 2004; Aguirre & Tabor, 2008;
77 Fuentes-Montemayor et al., 2009; Suzán et al., 2012; Benítez-Malvido et al., 2016; Pringle,
78 2016). Furthermore, there is evidence that habitat loss and fragmentation reduce individual
79 fitness for several animal species through changes in individual body size, as well as decreased
80 growth and reproduction, for example (Fuentes-Montemayor et al., 2009). In disturbed habitats,
81 less vigorous and stressed individuals are more vulnerable to parasite infection, whereas an
82 infected individual is more prone to be infected by secondary pathogen species concurrently
83 (Beldomenico & Begon, 2009).

84 In this study, we used the nematodes present in the hindguts of spur-thighed tortoises,
85 *Testudo graeca* L. (F. Testudinidae) in scrublands of southeastern Spain as a research model to
86 determine whether the level of habitat loss (low, intermediate and high) is associated with the
87 incidence of nematodes and individual body traits as indicated by growth rates. The available
88 information has shown that the abundance of *T. graeca* within its original distribution range is
89 strongly associated to environmental factors, such as rainfall and temperature, because as
90 ectotherms, terrestrial tortoises tend to react strongly to environmental factors (Kaspari &
91 Valone, 2002; Anadón et al., 2006, 2012 a, b). Furthermore, such factors have shown strong
92 shifts in fragmented landscapes when compared to continuous natural habitats in different

93 ecosystems elsewhere (Anadón et al., 2006, 2012 a, b; Fuentes-Montemayor et al., 2009;
94 Laurance et al., 2017).

95 Ecological networks are increasingly being used as a valuable tool to study the
96 complexity of biotic interactions at a community level, including both mutualistic and
97 antagonistic interactions (Bascompte et al., 2003; Bascompte & Jordano, 2007; Benítez-Malvido
98 & Dáttilo, 2015; Zarazúa-Carbajal et al., 2016; Hernández-Martínez et al., 2018). Within a given
99 community, different organisms and animal species can interact with each other generating
100 complex ecological networks (Bascompte & Jordano, 2007). A large number of studies have
101 found non-random structures in ecological networks, including nestedness (Bascompte et al.,
102 2003; Bascompte & Jordano, 2007). A network is considered nested if species with fewer
103 interactions (specialists) are connected with species with the most interactions (generalists) in
104 cohesive subgroups (i.e., more generalized networks) (Guimarães et al., 2006; Bascompte &
105 Stouffer, 2009). Despite the importance and increased knowledge of ecological networks in the
106 literature, most studies have focused on mutualistic interactions (e.g., pollination and seed
107 dispersal; Bascompte & Jordano, 2013), whereas antagonistic and commensal interactions
108 involving animals and their pathogens and endosymbionts have received less attention (however,
109 see Kareiva, 1987; Benítez-Malvido & Dáttilo, 2015; Zarazúa et al., 2016; Hernández-Martínez
110 et al., 2018).

111 The southeastern Iberian Peninsula, as well as other Mediterranean peninsulas, has been
112 an important speciation hot spot and refuge for the survival of several plant and animal species
113 (Hewitt, 2011). Nevertheless, these peninsulas have historically been subjected to different
114 human pressures for centuries so that several native species are greatly threatened at present
115 because of increased conversion of natural habitats to agricultural and other land uses (Sánchez-

116 Zapata & Calvo, 1999; Anadón et al., 2006, 2012 a, b; Hewitt, 2011; Rodríguez-Caro et al.,
117 2017). The general aim of this study was the following: (1) to assess if the level of habitat loss
118 alters the local abundance, species composition, richness, and the diversity and structure of
119 ecological networks of nematodes associated with *T. graeca*, as well as (2) to determine the
120 interaction type between tortoises and nematodes (i.e., mutualistic, commensal and/or parasitic)
121 as indicated by the tortoises' growth rates. We expected that the growth rates, nematode
122 communities and host-nematode interactions to diverge with the level of habitat loss, with
123 landscapes of high habitat loss showing the greatest divergence (Patz et al., 2004; Qian &
124 Ricklefs, 2006; Fuentes-Montemayor et al., 2009; Suzán et al., 2012). It is clear that habitat
125 degradation affects the nature of biotic interactions and ecosystems' function; for herbivore
126 reptiles, however, there is a limited understanding of the role that hindgut nematodes have on
127 them. Furthermore, conventional community descriptors have not always been successful in
128 distinguishing among habitats with different levels of degradation, which indicates that
129 alterations of the structure and function of ecological communities might be unnoticed in
130 conservation research that does not document and quantify species interactions through an
131 ecological network approach (Kareiva, 1987; Tylianakis et al., 2007; Kaiser-Bunbury &
132 Blüthgen, 2015).

133

134 **Material & Methods**

135 **Study area**

136 The study region covering the southeastern *T. graeca* Spanish population comprises
137 approximately 2600 km² of semiarid coastal mountains between the Almeria and Murcia
138 provinces (longitude N38° 23 to N36° 20' and latitude W0° 30 to W2° 20'; Fig. 1). The climate

139 of the region is semiarid with mild winters, hot summers and low rainfall (200 to 350 mm/year)
140 during the cooler months of the year. This region has been subjected to human intervention for
141 centuries (Hewitt, 2011). Land-use practices are among the most important factors, together with
142 climate, relief and lithology, for determining *T. graeca* presence within its distribution range in
143 southeastern Spain (Anadón et al., 2006). Such practices include traditional agricultural crops
144 (dry crops known as secanos), heavily intensified irrigated agricultural lands, and highways
145 (Anadón et al., 2006). Intensified agricultural practices and fires, as well as habitat reforestation
146 with pines, have been shown to negatively affect *T. graeca* growth and survival (Anadón et al.,
147 2006; Sanz-Aguilar et al., 2011; Rodríguez-Caro et al., 2013, 2017). Furthermore, in this mosaic
148 of land use practices, tortoise populations require scrubland patches larger than ≥ 1 km² or 75 %
149 scrubland cover at the landscape level to remain viable and prevent local extinctions (Anadón et
150 al., 2006). The study sites were located in landscapes with different levels of land use
151 intensification, habitat loss and fragmentation. Nevertheless, traditional agricultural crops
152 (secanos), when not extensive, are recognized as suitable habitats for *T. graeca* populations, and
153 therefore the level of habitat loss was established according to the proportion of suitable habitat
154 for tortoises in the landscape. In this sense, the landscapes with low habitat loss (sampling sites
155 in Villaltas, Galera and Marinica) comprised on average 95 % of suitable habitat, including
156 84.59 % scrubland and 10.75 % of traditional agriculture. Landscapes with intermediate habitat
157 loss (Bas Norte, Sierrecica and Chinas) comprised 81.60 % of suitable habitat, including 62.21 %
158 scrubland and 19.39 % traditional agriculture. Finally, landscapes with high habitat loss (Palas,
159 Bas Sur and Misiripalme) encompassed 76.26 % of suitable habitat, including 40.71 % scrubland
160 and 35.54 % of traditional agriculture (Fig. 1).

161

162 **The spur-thighed tortoises and the prevalence of nematodes**

163 The Dirección General de Gestión del Medio Natural de la Junta de Andalucía (SGB/FOA/AFR)
164 and the Delegación General de Medio Natural de la Comunidad Autónoma de la Región de
165 Murcia (AUT/ET/UND/48/2010) granted the permission to sample the tortoises. The spur-
166 thighed tortoise (*T. graeca*) is a midsized (up to 30 cm in length) terrestrial tortoise and one of
167 the most widely distributed species of terrestrial tortoises. Although most of its distribution area
168 is principally North Africa, the Middle East and part of Eastern Europe, there are some small
169 isolated populations in Western Europe (Graciá et al., 2017; Fig. 1). This tortoise species is
170 typically present in arid and semiarid scrublands. The diet of *T. graeca* is based on several parts
171 (i.e., leaves, flowers, fruits and twigs) of wild plants such as alfalfa (*Medicago sativa*), thistles
172 (e.g., *Carthamus* and *Carlina*), dandelion (*Taraxacum*), rosemary (*Rosmarinus officinalis*), etc.
173 (Andreu et al., 2000; El Mouden et al., 2006). Furthermore, tortoises may disperse the seeds of
174 the consumed plant species (Cobo & Andreu, 1988; Andreu et al., 2000). Tortoises' diet also
175 includes animal carcasses, slugs and insects, mainly at early life stages. Currently, wild
176 populations of *T. graeca* are severely threatened throughout their whole distribution range
177 because of habitat loss and fragmentation as well as over-collection, principally in southeastern
178 Spain (Anadón et al., 2006, 2012 a, b; Pérez et al., 2012).

179 From mid March to mid June of 2010, at nine different localities (three for each level of
180 habitat loss), the wild tortoises sighted were captured within standardized transects. Each of the
181 nine sites was visited five times; the sampling time lasted for approximately 2 hours 30 minutes
182 along ca. 1750 m individual transects. After sampling, specimens were marked, and the
183 following individual traits were recorded without harming the tortoises: sex, age estimated from
184 the carapace growth ring (Rodríguez-Caro et al., 2015), body weight (g) and carapace length

185 (mm). Thereafter, a growth rate score per individual was calculated (Rodríguez-Caro et al.,
186 2013). Growth rate scores (mm year^{-1} , k) were calculated using recapture data analysed through
187 the von Bertalanffy model, the most used to describe chelonians' growth (Zivkov et al., 2007;
188 Macale et al., 2009). For further details, see Rodríguez-Caro et al. (2013).

189 For the study of nematode communities, individual freshly voided faecal samples were
190 obtained immediately following the handling of the animal or from the cloth bag where animals
191 were placed until they defecated, for details on nematode sampling see Chávarri et al. (2012).
192 Thereafter, individuals were released in their capture sites. We sampled a total of 66 wild
193 tortoises from areas with low (26 individuals), intermediate (20 individuals), and high (20
194 individuals) habitat loss. In landscapes with low habitat loss, we recorded the following: 14 adult
195 females, seven adult males, four subadults and two juveniles. In landscapes with intermediate
196 habitat loss, we recorded: three adult females, six adult males, seven subadults and three
197 juveniles. Finally, for the landscapes with high habitat loss we recorded: nine adult females, four
198 adult males, five subadults and two juveniles. Adults were considered as those individuals > 8
199 years old, and subadults were those individuals 5-8 years old. In addition juveniles were all those
200 tortoises 1-4 years old (Sanz-Aguilar et al., 2011).

201 Details on parasite isolation and identification can be found in Chávarri et al. (2012).
202 Previous coprological analysis in these tortoise populations revealed the presence of oxyurid and
203 ascarid nematodes (adults, larvae and eggs). Overall, 14 adult nematode species
204 (Pharyngodonidae) have been isolated in wild populations of *T. graeca*, including the following:
205 *Tachygonetria dentata*, *T. longicollis*, *T. macrolaimus*, *T. conica*, *T. pusilla*, *T. numidica*, *T.*
206 *robusta*, *T. setosa*, *T. palearcticus*, *T. seurati*, *Alaeuris numidica*, *Mehdiella stylosa*, *M. uncinata*
207 and *M. microstoma*. The number of Ascarididae and Oxyuridae eggs and the number of

208 nematode larvae present in faeces were not considered in this study because the lack of
209 taxonomical identification at these immature stages. Previous studies have shown that for captive
210 *T. graeca* individuals, ascarid infections are associated with carapace deformities and symptoms
211 of upper respiratory tract disease, and that oxyurid infections and prevalence increase with age;
212 by contrast, for wild populations, the prevalence of nematodes has shown no association with
213 negative health symptoms so far (Chávarri et al., 2012). The role of nematodes as a limiting
214 factor of tortoise populations is not well understood. Nematodes are the main helminths infecting
215 terrestrial chelonians, and most of them belong to the orders Oxyurida and Ascaridida, which are
216 transmitted by the orofaecal route and sexual contact (Chávarri et al., 2012). There are few
217 reports of tortoise mortality associated with ascarid infestations (Rideout et al., 1987); oxyurids,
218 on the other hand, can be highly prevalent and are considered to have an almost commensal
219 relationship with their hosts (Roca, 1999).

220

221 **Statistical analysis**

222 Because the levels of nematode infection and prevalence increase with age (Chávarri et al.,
223 2012), we performed the statistical tests by pooling all sampled individuals and, thereafter, we
224 concentrated on adult tortoises exclusively. Firstly, to test if the level of habitat loss affected
225 tortoise body traits and nematode species number and abundance, we used a one-way ANOVA.
226 Body weight and carapace length are strongly correlated to tortoise's age (Rodríguez-Caro et al.
227 2013), whereas age classes were not homogeneously distributed across landscapes; therefore,
228 weight and carapace length were not used further in the analyses related to the impact of
229 nematode infestation on body traits across habitat types.

230 Secondly, to test if tortoise growth rates were related to nematode species richness and
231 abundance across habitat loss categories (categorical predictor variable with three fixed factors),
232 we compared the linear regression slopes among habitats by using one-way ANCOVAs, with
233 tortoise growth rates as the dependent variable and nematode species richness and abundance as
234 the independent variables (covariates). In total, we performed four one-way ANCOVAs, one for
235 each of the two covariables (nematode species richness and abundance), again initially pooling
236 all life stages and then for adults only. For all analyses, the number of nematode species and
237 abundance were $\log(x + 1)$ transformed, as well as body traits values, except for growth rates.
238 All statistical tests were performed with the program Statistica 7, and significance was set at the
239 $\alpha = 0.05$ level.

240

241 **Parasite species dominance**

242 To test whether the level of habitat loss affected nematode species relative abundance and/or
243 dominance, we constructed rank-abundance plots for the nematode communities present in
244 tortoises at each of the scrubland landscapes (low, intermediate and high habitat loss). For each
245 level of habitat loss, we plotted the relative abundance of each nematode species on a logarithmic
246 scale against the species' rank, ordered from the most to the least abundant species (Magurran
247 2004). To assess whether nematode species were evenly distributed (ecological evenness) across
248 the levels of habitat loss, we compared the slopes of the rank/abundance plots by means of an
249 ANCOVA. The species evenness of a given community is reflected in the slope of the line that
250 fits the rank-abundance plot (i.e., logarithmic series relationship). A steep slope indicates low
251 evenness since the high-ranking species have greater abundances than the low-ranking species. A

252 gentle slope indicates higher evenness because species abundances are more similar (Magurran
253 2004).

254

255 **Patterns of species interactions by using a network approach**

256 Not all sampled tortoises presented adult nematodes in their faeces. Therefore, only individuals
257 with nematodes were considered in the interaction network analysis, mainly adults and subadults.
258 Firstly, we included the presence of different nematode species infecting individuals of *T. graeca*
259 in each of the landscapes (low, intermediate and high habitat loss) as independent interaction
260 networks. We thus constructed three networks, one for each of the habitat loss conditions. Each
261 individual-based tortoise-nematode network was built by an adjacency matrix A , where a_{ij} =
262 number of interactions from an individual tortoise j by the nematode species i , or otherwise zero
263 (i.e. absence of interaction). Thus in these networks, nematode species and tortoises are depicted
264 as nodes, and their interactions are represented by links describing the use of tortoise individuals
265 by nematode species.

266 Firstly, we tested if such networks were nested, a pattern in which nematode species with
267 fewer interactions (specialists) are connected with tortoise individuals with the most interactions
268 (generalists) in cohesive subgroups. We used the *NODF* metric (Almeida-Neto et al., 2008) to
269 estimate the nestedness value of the networks by using the ANINHADO software (Guimarães &
270 Guimarães, 2006). This metric ranges from zero (no nestedness) to 100 (perfect nestedness). The
271 *NODF* metric reduces the chance of overestimating the degrees of nestedness in ecological
272 networks and is less prone to Type I statistical error (Bascompte & Jordano, 2013). To assess if
273 the nestedness value observed was different from that expected by random interaction patterns,
274 we tested the nestedness of each network with 1000 networks generated by Null Model II. In this

275 null model the probability of an occurrence of a new interaction is proportional to the number of
276 interactions of a given species (Bascompte et al., 2003).

277 Secondly, we considered other network parameters in the analysis as follows: (i)
278 connectance (the proportion of realized links of the total possible in each network, defined as the
279 sum of links divided by the number of cells in the matrix); and (ii) interaction diversity (based on
280 the Shannon diversity index) (DI) for each of the three networks. This metric is derived from the
281 Shannon diversity index and ranges from 0 (no diversity) to infinity (Blüthgen et al., 2006).
282 Finally, we considered (iii) specialization index or resource selectivity at the network level
283 (H_2'). This selectivity index ranges from 0 (extreme generalization) to 1 (extreme specialization)
284 and is highly robust regarding changes in sampling intensity and the number of interacting
285 species (Blüthgen et al., 2006). Network features were estimated with the Bipartite package
286 (Dormann, Gruber & Group, 2011). Network plots were obtained by using Bipartite in 'R'
287 (Dormann, Gruber & Group, 2011; R Development Core Team, 2014).

288

289 **Results**

290 Overall, we found that the level of habitat loss affected some aspects of the complex tortoise-
291 nematode interactions with consequences for tortoise growth rates. Not all sampled individuals,
292 however, were infested with adult nematodes, but the majority of tortoises presented nematodes
293 in their faeces (72 %). The frequency of nematode species varied across tortoises, varying
294 between 1 to 10 species, whereas nematode abundance per tortoise varied between 0 to 5245
295 individuals.

296

297 **Habitat loss, body traits and prevalence of nematodes**

298 On the one hand, the one-way ANOVAs showed that the level of habitat loss had no significant
299 effect on tortoise body traits, nor on nematode richness and abundance, by pooling all life stages
300 and comparing adults only (Table 1). On the other hand, when used as covariables, both the
301 number of species and nematode abundance significantly affected growth rates according to the
302 level of habitat loss, both by pooling all life stages and then focusing on adults. The ANCOVA
303 tests showed a significant, positive effect of nematode species richness on growth rates, but only
304 in landscapes with low habitat loss, as shown by the *habitat loss level x nematode species*
305 *richness* interaction term (richness, $F_{2,58} = 3.46$, $P = 0.038$) (Fig. 2 a). Considering adult
306 tortoises only, contrasting effects of nematode infestation on growth rates across habitat types
307 were detected. In landscapes with high habitat loss, tortoises sustained greater growth rates than
308 those with low and intermediate habitat loss (richness, $F_{1,2} = 6.39$, $P = 0.0042$; abundance, $F_{1,2}$
309 $= 4.42$, $P = 0.019$), whereas the *habitat loss level x nematode infestation* interaction term was
310 significant for both species richness ($F_{2,35} = 6.17$, $P = 0.0051$) and nematode abundance ($F_{2,35}$
311 $= 4.24$, $P = 0.022$) (Fig. 2 b). While growth rates were positively related to nematode infestation
312 in landscapes with low habitat loss, the opposite was found in landscapes with high habitat loss;
313 at intermediate habitat loss, no relationship existed between the two variables (Fig. 2 b).

314

315 **Nematode species dominance in fragmented landscapes**

316 The nematode community for the three levels of habitat loss followed a log series model of a
317 small number of abundant species and a large proportion of rare species. The dominant
318 nematodes infecting tortoises throughout the landscapes were *T. dentata* and *T. longicollis* (Fig.
319 3). The following patterns emerged in the rank-abundance plots: (1) all levels of habitat loss
320 showed the same dominant nematode species; (2) although rare species changed ranks across the

321 three levels of habitat loss, rare species were the same elsewhere; and (3) the landscapes with
322 high habitat loss presented one exclusive species, *T. seurati*, whereas *T. palearticus* was absent
323 from this landscape type (Fig. 4). The slope analysis in the ANCOVA showed that nematode
324 relative abundance differed significantly across habitats with more rare species at low habitat
325 loss ($F_{2,33} = 28.28, P < 0.001$). Furthermore, the slope at low habitat loss is significantly steeper
326 than the slopes at intermediate and high habitat loss, as shown by the *habitat loss level x species*
327 *rank* interaction term ($F_{2,33} = 13.93, P < 0.001$), indicating that nematode species are more
328 evenly distributed in the landscapes with intermediate and high habitat loss than in the
329 landscapes at low habitat loss (Fig. 3).

330

331 **Network structure**

332 The size of our networks (hereafter referred to as tortoise-nematode networks) was similar in the
333 number of nematode species among landscapes, suggesting that *T. graeca* maintains a stable
334 community of nematodes at the three levels of habitat loss (Table 2 and Fig. 4). Network metrics
335 showed the lowest value of diversity of interactions (*DI*) at low habitat loss, indicating lower
336 community stability. In contrast, connectance was greater in the landscapes with high habitat
337 loss, reflecting a more uniform spread of interactions among nematode species in the community
338 (Table 2). Finally, the intermediate level of habitat loss showed the greatest specialization level
339 (H_2'), indicating that individuals were infested by less abundant nematodes in these landscapes,
340 whereas at high habitat loss individuals were the most generalized (higher functional
341 redundancy), which agrees with the higher connectance in them. The three levels of habitat loss
342 showed a significant nested pattern of interactions, though the landscapes with high habitat loss
343 exhibited the greatest nestedness values (Table 2). Nevertheless, for the three levels of habitat

344 loss, low ($NODF = 54.04, P < 0.0001$), intermediate ($NODF = 62.80, P < 0.0001$) and high
345 ($NODF = 64.43, P < 0.0001$), nestedness values were lower than those expected by random
346 interaction patterns, as is typical for antagonistic interactions (Table 2).

347

348 **Discussion**

349 Overall, the level of habitat loss was found to affect some aspects of the ecological interactions
350 between the spur-thighed tortoises and their nematodes, with differential impacts on the hosts'
351 growth rates. These changes were evident in spite of the similar nematode communities in terms
352 of species richness and composition across landscapes. In general, the impact of nematode
353 infestation on growth rates was related to the level of habitat loss, ranging from positive to
354 neutral, to negative, for landscapes encompassing low, intermediate and high habitat loss,
355 respectively.

356

357 **Habitat loss and the costs and benefits of nematode infestation**

358 The modification of the original vegetation by anthropogenic activities produces strong shifts in
359 the spatial configuration of the natural landscapes, as well as on their physical (e.g., rainfall and
360 temperature) and biological environments (e.g., vegetation structure, species diversity and
361 resources availability) (Patz et al., 2004; Qian & Ricklefs, 2006; Suzán et al., 2012). These
362 environmental shifts may occur at multiple spatial and temporal scales, which affect complex
363 species interactions, including host-nematode interactions of any kind (parasitic, commensal
364 and/or mutualistic) in the case of herbivorous reptiles (Harvell et al., 2002; Tylianakis et al.,
365 2007; Benítez-Malvido et al., 2016, 2018; Hernández-Martínez, et al., 2018).

366 Although our findings represent the standing incidence of nematodes in *T. graeca*
367 tortoises (i.e. a single observation in time), we detected that changes in landscape configuration,
368 exemplified by the amount of suitable habitat, influenced some aspects of host-nematode
369 interactions as revealed by differences in nematode infestation levels, nematode species
370 ecological evenness, tortoises' growth rates and by differences in the networks' structure. There
371 is evidence showing that the most disturbed and homogenized landscapes (e.g., highly degraded
372 landscapes) are more susceptible to pest and pathogen invasions because human activities
373 facilitate the movement of exotic/invasive species to new areas and provide the conditions for
374 their establishment. An additional reason is hosts might change their behavioural ecology (Patz
375 et al., 2004; Qian & Ricklefs, 2006; Suzán et al., 2012). Therefore, the type of endosymbiont
376 interaction (mutualistic, antagonistic and/or commensal) between tortoises and hindgut
377 nematodes seems to depend on the environmental context, in which differences in resource
378 availability across habitats could be driving the observed variations among them (Pringle, 2016).

379 Large nematode infestation negatively affected growth rates for adult tortoises in
380 landscapes at high habitat loss, suggesting a more parasitic interaction (Fig. 3). Our results also
381 showed, however, that high nematode species richness and abundance in tortoises is positively
382 related to growth rates at low habitat loss, which suggests that nematode infestation could play a
383 positive role in the digestion and thus assimilation of plant matter suggesting a mutualistic
384 interaction (O'Grady et al., 2005; O'Grady & Dearing 2006). Finally, tortoises within landscapes
385 at intermediate habitat loss showed no significant relationship between nematode infestation and
386 body traits, suggesting a commensal interaction in which nematodes had no apparent influence
387 on tortoises' growth rates.

388 Nevertheless, overall growth rates were greater at high habitat loss for adult tortoises than
389 at low habitat loss. In this context, some native animal species are able to persist in degraded
390 lands through morphological, physiological and behavioural adjustments (Isabirye-Basuta &
391 Lwanga, 2008). Terrestrial tortoises are ectotherms and therefore may strongly react to
392 environmental changes (Kaspari & Valone, 2002; Anadón et al., 2006). It is possible that
393 reduced scrubland vegetation cover (greater canopy openness) in landscapes with high habitat
394 loss aid tortoises in more effectively regulating their body temperatures (Row & Blouin-Demers,
395 2006; Sato et al., 2014). In addition, in some reptile species, an adequate thermoregulatory
396 behaviour has been found to optimize the digestive performance, which in turn can affect growth
397 rates (Avery et al., 1993; Anguilletta et al., 2002). Further studies should consider other
398 indicators of habitat loss on resource availability for tortoises and impact on their populations,
399 such as survival and reproductive success.

400 There is evidence showing that any habitat fragment, regardless of its size, is likely to
401 support long-term viable *T. graeca* populations (Hailey & Willemsem 2003). For the present
402 study region, however, habitat loss and fragmentation have been found to negatively affect the
403 persistence of tortoise populations, but also that the presence of scrubland habitat in the
404 vegetation matrix enables *T. graeca* to persist in anthropogenic landscapes (Anadón et al., 2006).
405 There are no base-line studies, however, that help us to precisely determine the overall impact of
406 land-use change in *T. graeca* populations because the study region has been historically modified
407 for centuries by anthropogenic activities of distinct magnitude and intensity (Hewitt 2011).
408 Therefore, long-term studies on *T. graeca* population dynamics and nematode infestation
409 dynamics and their consequences (in survival, growth rates and reproduction) are crucial for
410 understanding habitat loss processes in population's viability, as well as the wide-ranging role of

411 nematode endosymbiotic interactions on tortoises.

412 Furthermore, it has been pointed out that long-term studies are crucial for understanding
413 the impact of sporadic natural disturbances and/or catastrophic events (e.g., flooding, fire and
414 drought) on disease emergence, virulence and transmission (e.g., infection cycles) and on overall
415 host health (Baldemonico & Begon, 2009; Zarazúa-Carbajal et al., 2016; Hernández-Martínez et
416 al., 2018). The latter might apply as well for nematode endosymbionts. This information is
417 relevant for the management of wild *T. graeca* populations and cannot be obtained in short term
418 studies, such as the present one. For instance, the information gathered in the present study was
419 obtained during the spring months when resource availability is high (i.e., several plant species
420 are blooming and fruiting). There is no information, however, on the prevalence and intensity of
421 nematode infestation during seasons when food sources are scarce, nor between years, nor on the
422 consequences for tortoise populations.

423

424 **Ecological networks in the management of spur-thighed tortoise populations**

425 The nematode community infesting *T. graeca* populations was not randomly assembled but
426 nested, revealing a structured pattern for all levels of habitat loss. Tortoise–nematode network
427 properties appear to be maintained in landscapes with contrasting levels of habitat loss, despite
428 differences in species dominance as well as host number and quality (tortoises' sex, age and
429 size). Our study contributes to the understanding of the structure of ecological interactions in
430 contrasting landscapes. Within the same host population, we can often find both more selective
431 (those individuals colonized by a few nematode species) or more opportunistic (those individuals
432 colonized by many nematode species) individuals. Some network distribution metrics, such as DI
433 and H_2' , may be suitable indicators for detecting human-induced changes in some endosymbiotic

434 interactions (e.g., mutualistic, commensal and antagonistic), including tortoise-nematode
435 interactions (Kareiva, 1987; Tylianakis, et al., 2007; Kaiser-Bunbury & Blüthgen, 2015). We
436 found that as habitat loss increases, host specificity decreases, in other words hosts are infested
437 by a wider array of nematodes, making tortoises more vulnerable in an already resource-limited
438 environment in the case the nematode infestation turns out to be parasitic. The greater nested
439 pattern in landscapes with intermediate and high habitat loss may also imply that nematodes can
440 be more easily transmitted through the entire network, something that would be less likely if the
441 network had a more modular structure (i.e. consisting of very specialized host-nematode
442 interactions).

443

444 **Conclusions**

445 We aimed to understand the ways habitat loss affected spur-thighed tortoise populations and to
446 link habitat loss and tortoise-nematode interactions by using a network approach. Our findings
447 indicate that the level of habitat loss affected growth rates and host-endosymbiont interactions; in
448 this sense, this study is the first to provide the structure of such networks. Animals, at any stage
449 of their life cycles, are subject to infestation by many different organisms that may modify,
450 improve or interrupt their vital functions that affect their fitness (Patz et al., 2004; Aguirre &
451 Tabor, 2008; Suzán, et al., 2012; Pringle, 2016). On the one hand, the rapid degradation of
452 natural habitats might cause a large proportion of species and populations to be vulnerable to
453 disease, and native and exotic pathogens could become a threat for both plant and animal
454 communities (Anderson et al., 2004; Patz et al., 2004; Vurro et al., 2010; Benítez-Malvido et al.,
455 2018). On the other hand, habitat degradation might also cause the loss of mutualistic and
456 commensal interactions. Therefore, it is essential to understand the nature and dynamics of

457 symbiotic interactions, the life histories of the animal hosts and the effects of the local
458 environmental conditions on all of them.

459

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463

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641

643 **Figure legends**

644 Figure 1. The map shows the distribution of the spur-thighed tortoise (*Testudo graeca*) in the
645 Mediterranean basin. The wild populations sampled for the present study and their localities are
646 indicated with dots, where: Villaltas, Galera and Marinica, correspond to landscapes with low
647 habitat loss for tortoises; Bas Norte, Sierrecica and Chinas, landscapes with intermediate habitat
648 loss; and Palas, Bas Sur and Misiripalme, landscapes with high habitat loss. These wild Spanish
649 populations of *T. graeca* cover approximately 2600 km² of semiarid coastal mountains between
650 Almeria and Murcia provinces.

651

652 Figure 2. Best-fit linear regressions between nematode infestation (i.e., species richness and
653 abundance) and tortoise's (*Testudo graeca*) growth rates in scrubland landscapes, Southern
654 Spain. Tortoises were present in landscapes sustaining different levels of habitat loss (low,
655 intermediate and high), where: (a) refers to tortoise populations at all life stages, and (b) refers to
656 adult tortoises only. Significant relationships are indicated by, *P < 0.01 an/or **P < 0.001.

657

658 Figure 3. Rank/abundance plots for the nematode community infesting tortoises (*Testudo*
659 *graeca*) in scrubland landscapes with different levels of habitat loss (low, intermediate and high)
660 in Southern Spain. For each landscape, the relative abundance of each nematode species is
661 plotted on a logarithmic scale against the species' rank, from the most to the least abundant
662 species. Nematode species: *Alaeuris numidica* (A_num), *Mehdiella stylosa* (M_styl), *M.*
663 *uncinata* (M_unci), *M. microstoma* (M_micro), *Tachygonetria longicollis* (T_long), *T. dentata*
664 (T_dent), *T. conica* (T_coni), *T. robusta* (T_rob), *T. macrolaimus* (T_mac), *T. numidica*
665 (T_numi), *T. setosa* (T_set), *T. palearticus* (T_pale), *T. pusilla* (T_pusi), and *T. seurati* (T_seur).

666 Nematode species not found under all habitat loss conditions are in **bold**.

667

668 Fig. 4. Tortoise–nematode interaction networks including the interactions observed in landscapes
669 encompassing different levels of habitat loss (low, intermediate and high) in Southern Spain. For
670 each landscape, only tortoises (*Testudo graeca*) with nematode infestation were included in the
671 networks. The bar size represents the number of interactions each nematode species (black) has
672 with each individual tortoise in the population (grey), and the linkage width represents the
673 proportion total number of nematode individuals involved in such interactions.

674

Figure 1(on next page)

Map of the study region

The map shows the distribution of the spur-thighed tortoise (*Testudo graeca*) in the Mediterranean basin. The wild populations sampled for the present study and their localities are indicated with dots, where: Villaltas, Galera and Marinica, correspond to landscapes with low habitat loss for tortoises; Bas Norte, Sierrecica and Chinas, landscapes with intermediate habitat loss; and Palas, Bas Sur and Misiripalme, landscapes with high habitat loss. These wild Spanish populations of *T. graeca* cover approximately 2600 km² of semiarid coastal mountains between Almeria and Murcia provinces.

Figure 1.

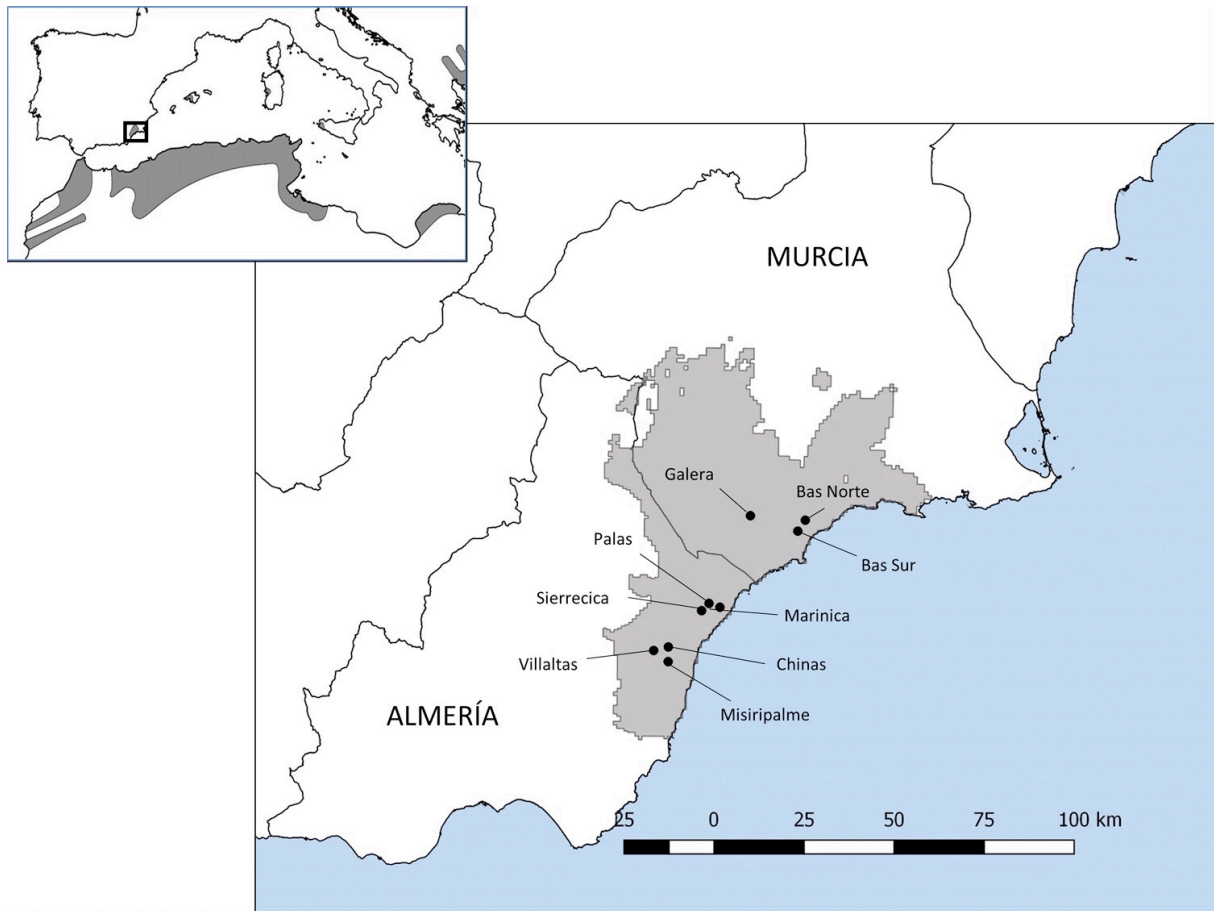


Figure 2 (on next page)

Tortoises' growth rates and nematode infestation

Best-fit linear regressions between nematode infestation (i.e., species richness and abundance) and tortoise's (*Testudo graeca*) growth rates in scrubland landscapes, Southern Spain. Tortoises were present in landscapes sustaining different levels of habitat loss (low, intermediate and high), where: (a) refers to tortoise populations at all life stages, and (b) refers to adult tortoises only. Significant relationships are indicated by, *P < 0.01 and/or **P < 0.001.

Figure 2.

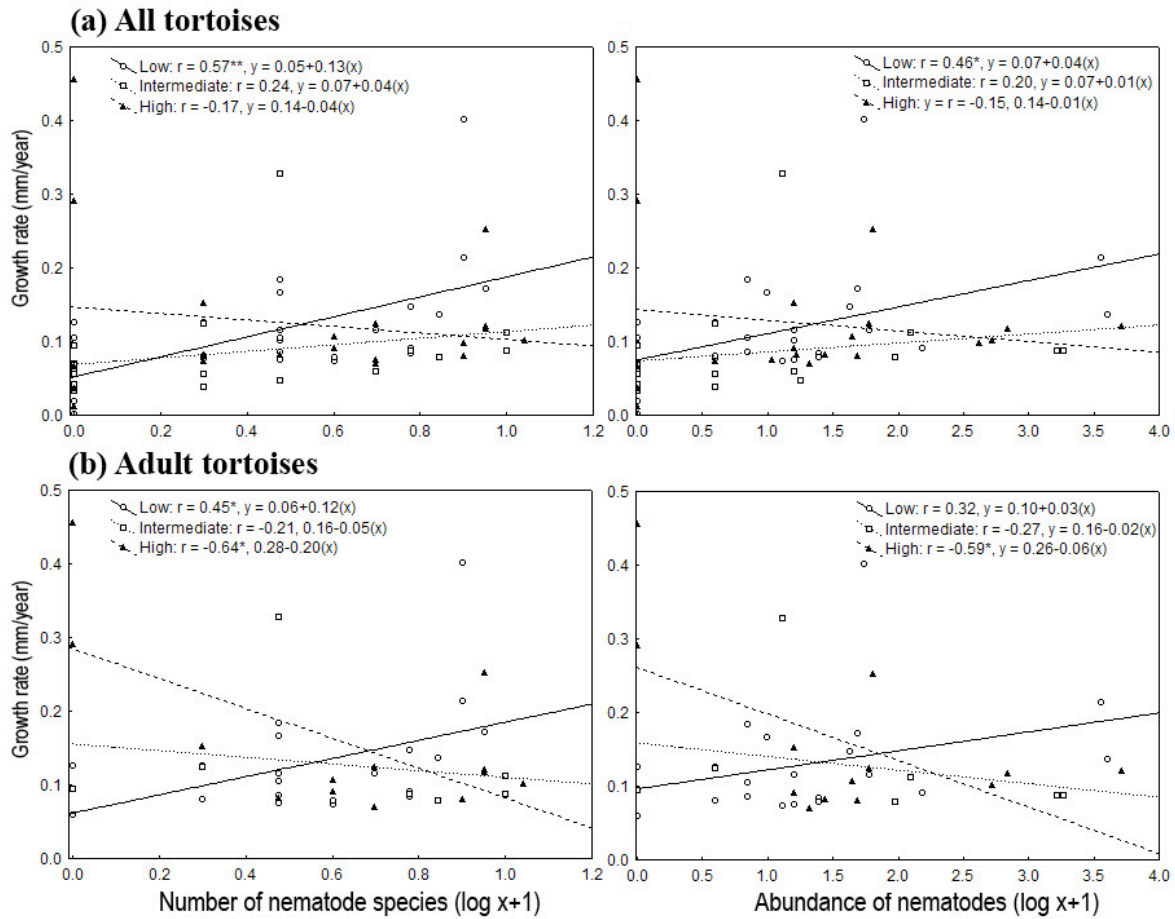


Figure 3(on next page)

Rank-abundance netamatode species curves

Rank-abundance plots for the nematode community infesting tortoises (*Testudo graeca*) in scrubland landscapes with different levels of habitat loss (low, intermediate and high) in Southern Spain. For each landscape, the relative abundance of each nematode species is plotted on a logarithmic scale against the species' rank, from the most to the least abundant species. Nematode species: *Alaeuris numidica* (A_num), *Mehdiella stylosa* (M_styl), *M. uncinata* (M_unci), *M. microstoma* (M_micro), *Tachygonetria longicollis* (T_long), *T. dentata* (T_dent), *T. conica* (T_coni), *T. robusta* (T_rob), *T. macrolaimus* (T_mac), *T. numidica* (T_numi), *T. setosa* (T_set), *T. palearcticus* (T_pale), *T. pusilla* (T_pusi), and *T. seurati* (T_seur). Nematode species not found under all habitat loss conditions are in **bold**.

Figure 3.

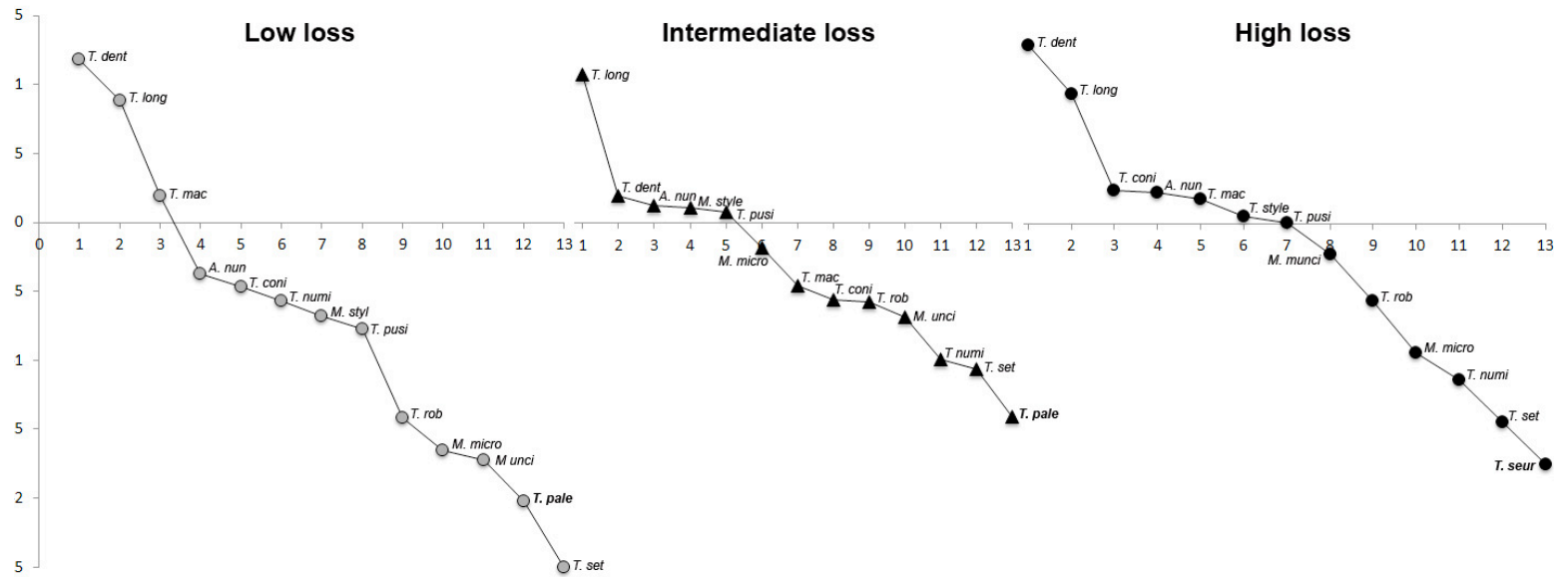
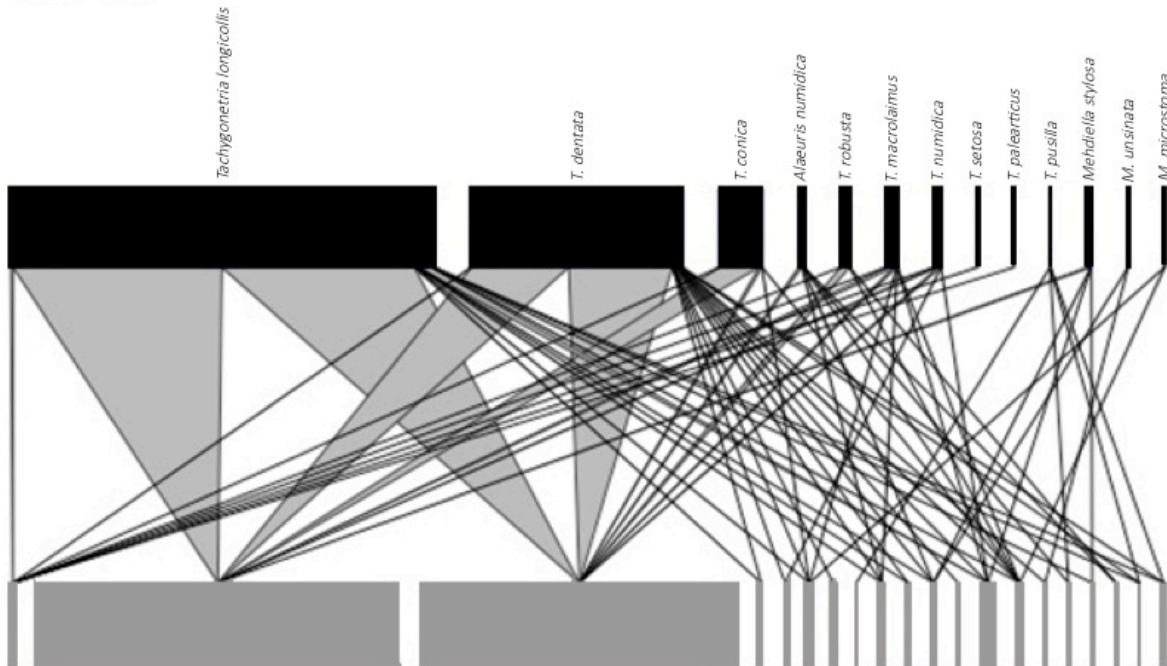


Figure 4(on next page)

Tortoise-nematode ecological networks

Tortoise–nematode interaction networks including the interactions observed in landscapes encompassing different levels of habitat loss (low, intermediate and high) in Southern Spain. For each landscape, only tortoises (*Testudo graeca*) with nematode infestation were included in the networks. The bar size represents the number of interactions each nematode species (black) has with each individual tortoise in the population (grey), and the linkage width represents the proportion total number of nematode individuals involved in such interactions.

Figure 4.
Low loss



Intermediate loss

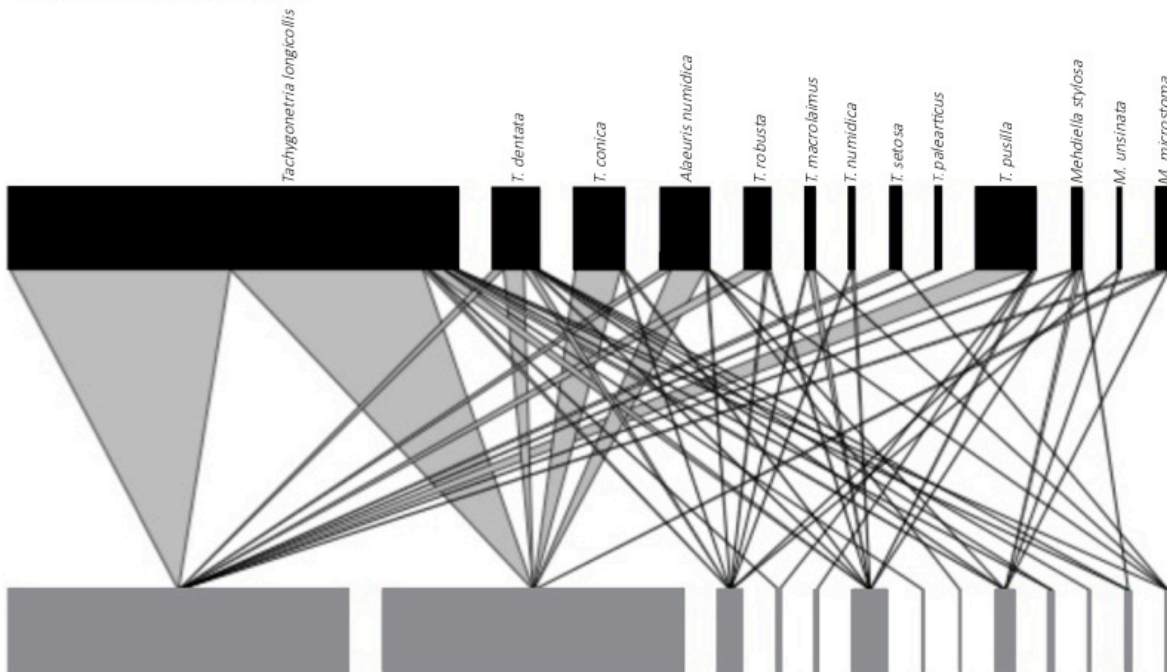


Figure 4. continued

High loss

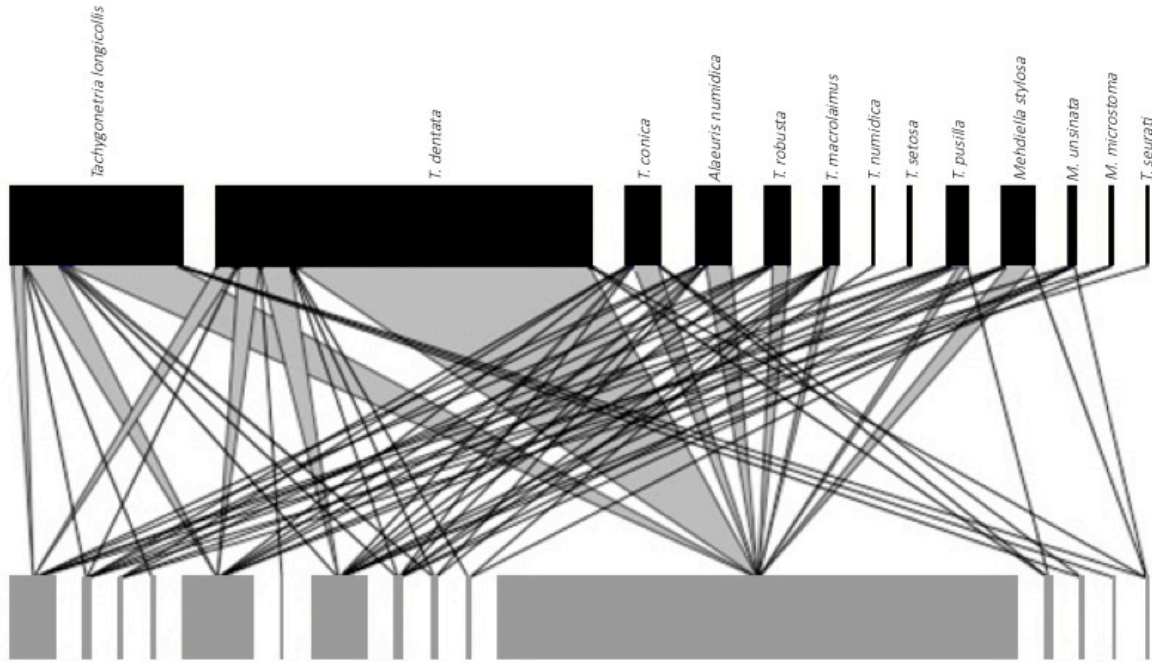


Table 1 (on next page)

Body traits and nematode infestation of tortoise populations (*Testudo graeca*) at scrubland landscapes with different levels of habitat loss, Southern Spain.

Body traits (mean \pm SE) and nematode infestation of spur-thighed tortoise populations (*Testudo graeca*) at scrubland landscapes with different levels of habitat loss, Southern Spain. The values in **bold** are those exclusively from adult tortoises. There were no significant differences among levels of habitat loss on any variable (one-way ANOVA, Tukey HSD test, $P > 0.05$).

1 Table 1. Body traits (mean \pm SE) and nematode infestation of spur-thighed tortoise populations
 2 (*Testudo graeca*) at scrubland landscapes with different levels of habitat loss, Southern Spain.
 3 The values in **bold** are those exclusively from adult tortoises. There were no significant
 4 differences among levels of habitat loss on any variable (one-way ANOVA, Tukey HSD test, P
 5 > 0.05).

Body traits and	Low	Intermediate	High
nematode infestation	(N = 26) (N = 21)	(N = 20) (N = 9)	(N = 20) (N = 13)
Weight (g)	431.79 \pm 83.04	267.36 \pm 59.41	410.10 \pm 91.13
	527.00 \pm 47.90	486.00 \pm 75.78	534.91 \pm 59.95
Carapace length	129.95 \pm 6.86	123.44 \pm 7.45	132.00 \pm 7.84
(mm)	131.12 \pm 4.01	127.10 \pm 6.14	128.45 \pm 5.45
Growth rate (mm	0.115 \pm 0.016	0.085 \pm 0.019	0.124 \pm 0.018
year ⁻¹)	0.131 \pm 0.0149	0.123 \pm 0.019	0.157 \pm 0.025
No. of nematode	2.59 \pm 0.567	2.60 \pm 0.66	3.55 \pm 0.66
species	3.82 \pm 0.54	5.57 \pm 1.31	5.27 \pm 0.90
Density of	303.63 \pm 184.20	200.05 \pm 214.01	360.30 \pm 214.01
nematodes	480.82 \pm 308.32	561.00 \pm 311.05	614.27 \pm 468.36

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Table 2 (on next page)

Tortoise-nematode ecological network attributes.

Tortoise-nematode ecological network attributes at different levels of habitat loss in scrubland landscapes of Southern Spain. Only individuals infested with nematodes were included.

1 Table 2. Tortoise-nematode ecological network attributes at different levels of habitat loss in
2 scrubland landscapes of Southern Spain. Only individuals infested with nematodes were
3 included.

Network metrics	Low	Intermediate	High
No. of tortoises	20	13	15
No. of nematode species	13	13	13
Nestedness (<i>NODF</i>)	37.23	45.90	43.696
Connectance (<i>C</i>)	0.269	0.308	0.364
Shannon diversity (<i>DI</i>)	2.034	2.371	2.397
Specialization index (H_2')	0.125	0.335	0.141

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