Seasonal variation in population and community structure of shrews in a tropical forest of Gabon

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Abstract: The composition, structure and reproductive phenology of a shrew community were investigated for 1 y at two neighbouring sites in an undisturbed African forest of south-western Gabon. We captured 717 shrews, belonging to four genera and 10 species. The data were analysed to answer three main questions: (1) to what extent does the shrew abundance vary seasonally? (2) is there a shift in species dominance over time? and (3) does the intensity of breeding activity vary seasonally? The number of species captured varied seasonally and tended to be least during the period of minimal trap success. Trap success for the four most abundant species (*Sylvisorex johnstoni, Crocidura batesi, Paracrocidura schoutedeni* and *Sylvisorex ollula*) varied seasonally with a minimum around the long dry season. *Sylvisorex johnstoni* remained the dominant species throughout the year. Seasonal variation in trap success of shrews might be related, at least partly, to their reproductive characteristics. Litter size, based on embryo counts, ranged from 1–4 among the species. Breeding occurred throughout the year, but its intensity was lower during the long dry season corresponding with the period of higher ecological constraints for shrews.

Key Words: Africa, community, dynamics, Gabon, reproduction, small mammals, tropical forest

INTRODUCTION

Rain forests are characterized by seasonal variation in several ecological parameters, including rainfall, relative humidity, leaf and fruit fall and leaf litter depth (Happold 1977). Correlated with these variations, many animals (insects, reptiles, birds, mammals) show a seasonal variation in abundance and breeding activity (Nicolas & Colyn 2003, Vazquez et al. 2000, Wolda 1983, Woodman et al. 1995). Seasonal variation in abundance is not always synchronized between species, even for phylogenetically close ones (Vasquez et al. 2000, Wolda 1983). Consequently, community composition and structure can also vary seasonally (Malizia 2001, Rabinowitz & Nottingham 1989, Willig & Gannon 1986). A precise knowledge of the patterns of these variations and of their causality is necessary to define appropriate temporal scales when conducting biodiversity surveys.

Since the end of the 1980s, shrews have been sampled at several central African localities (Barrière & Nicolas 2000, Brosset 1988, Colyn *et al.* unpubl. data, Goodman et al. 2001, Goodman & Hutterer 2004, Hutterer & Schlitter 1996, Hutterer et al. 1992, Lasso et al. 1996, O'Brien et al. in press). These studies gave information on species richness and composition and showed that shrews represent an important part of the mammal species richness in tropical Africa, with 6-18 species per locality. To date, there is little published information about seasonal pattern in population dynamics and community structure of Afro-tropical shrews. Trap success of shrews was shown to vary seasonally in two west Central African rain forests (Barrière & Nicolas 2000, Lasso et al. 1996), with a minimum around the dry season, but the causality of this variation was not investigated. It could be due to a seasonal variation in population size, resulting from the net effects of recruitment and survival, or in the probability of capture of individuals, correlated to movement activity (Slade & Blair 2000). According to the literature, breeding could occur throughout the year in several crocidurine populations inhabiting tropical regions and its intensity could reach a peak at certain periods of the year, usually coinciding with environmental conditions (Churchfield 1990, Yu et al. 2001). But this has not been tested for tropical Africa. In the course of a World Wildlife Fund project conducted in

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the Monts Doudou forest (Gabon) to assess the biodiversity of this region, shrews were surveyed for 1 y at two neighbouring study sites. Data were analysed to answer three main questions: (1) to what extent does shrew abundance vary seasonally? (2) is there a shift in species dominance over time? and (3) does the intensity of breeding activity vary seasonally? Finally, we also present data on population structure (age class, sex ratio).

METHODS

Our study was conducted in the eastern part of the Aire d'Exploitation Rationnelle de Faune (AERF) des Monts Doudou ($02^{\circ}09'S$, $10^{\circ}30'E$), south-western Gabon, in an undisturbed lowland forest (110 m asl).

We sampled both murid rodents and shrews, and results obtained for rodents have been previously published (Nicolas & Colyn 2003). Study area characteristics, sampling periods, trapping methods and methods of analysis are the same as in Nicolas & Colyn (2003) and only brief notes are given here. Most of the study area was covered by dryland forest (87% of the surface), but small patches of flooded forest (riparian or swamp forests) were also surveyed. The forest canopy was approximately 35–45 m high and dominated by trees of the families Caesalpiniaceae and Mimosaceae, The understorey was open and *Dichostemma glaucescens* (Euphorbiaceae), *Meiocarpidium lepidotum* (Annonaceae) and a large variety of *Diospyros* species (Ebenaceae) were frequently encountered (Sossef *et al.* 2004).

The average annual rainfall recorded near this area (at Mouila) is about 2300 mm (Saint-Aubin 1963), with a short rainy season from March to May and a long one from October to December. The long dry season occurs from June to September and the short one in January–February. Temperature is more or less uniform throughout the year, with mean monthly minima between 19° and 23° , and maxima between 24° and 29° C.

Trapping methods

We trapped in two 875×1000 -m study sites (sites A and B), 2500 m apart, which were located at the same altitude (110 m asl) and subject to similar climatic conditions. Rainfall was measured each trapping day with a standard rain gauge. At both sites, small mammals were surveyed monthly, from April 2000 to March 2001, with (1) three traplines (each 1 km long) of 200 traps baited with manioc (*Manihot esculenta*, Euphorbiaceae), a widely cultivated plant in tropical Africa. Each trapline was composed of 100 Sherman live traps ($7.5 \times 9 \times 23$ cm) and 100 metal snap traps (10×15 cm) spaced at 5-m intervals (one Sherman and one snap trap alternatively). Traplines were

set 25 m apart and each trapline was set for 7 d per month; (2) one pitfall line (300 m long) with plastic drift fences, comprising 30 10-litre plastic buckets placed at 5-m intervals. Trapping sessions lasted 21 d consecutively per pitfall line. All traps were checked daily.

Although pitfall-trapping is known to be the most effective protocol to collect shrews (Kalko & Handley 1992, Kirkland & Sheppard 1994, Maddock 1992, Williams & Braun 1983), some individuals were also captured in Sherman and snap traps. In this study, results obtained for the two types of device (pitfall lines and traplines) are presented.

Owing to the existence of sibling species, all animals captured were euthanased, by cervical dislocation, for cranial preparation and species identification. All collected samples were deposited at the Station Biologique de Paimpont (France). A previous study showed that removal trapping, with similar conditions as those employed in our study, did not adversely affect local population numbers and shrew species richness (Nicolas *et al.* 2003). Since all animals were removed from the study area, traplines were relocated monthly at a distance of 300 m for neighbouring pitfall lines and 25 m for neighbouring traplines.

Species identification

Species identification, performed by PB, was based on external morphology and cranio-dental characteristics, and confirmed for several specimens by molecular analyses (16S rRNA sequencing). Identification was based on the most recent advances in the knowledge of shrew taxonomy, but several complexes of species are still in need of revision (Quérouil *et al.* in press).

Methods of analysis

Because community structure and monthly trapping effort differed between dryland and flooded forest (Nicolas & Colyn 2003), in this paper we only took into account results obtained in dryland forest. We pooled results obtained at both sites when no significant difference between sites was apparent.

Trap success (T = number of individuals caught per 100 trap-nights, TN), coefficient of variation (CV = [SD/m] × 100, where SD is the standard deviation and m is the mean monthly trap success) and species relative abundance (p_i = number of individuals of the ith species caught per 100 individuals) were calculated. The Renkonen index of similarity (P_R) was calculated for all possible combinations of communities: $P_R = \Sigma$ minimum (p_{1i}, p_{2i}), where p_{1i} is the relative abundance of species i in community 1 and p_{2i} is the relative abundance of species i in community 2. This index ranges from 0 (no similarity) to 100 (complete similarity).

Results obtained using Sherman traps, snap traps and pitfall traps were used for the estimation of species richness, but only the results obtained with pitfall traps were used in trap success and species abundance calculations because trap success of shrews using other types of traps was low. Tooth-wear patterns, based primarily on the amount of wear on the fourth premolar and the two first molars of the left upper maxillary, were employed as a coarse estimation of relative age. Toothwear classes were determined using a six-state scale, adapted from Dippenaar (1977), from which classes 2 and 3 were subdivided in two (TW2A-2B, TW3A-3B). The specimens of the first two classes were considered as subadults (TW1-TW2A) and those of higher class (TW2B-TW4) as adults. Females were considered as breeding when they were pregnant or lactating.

Chi-square tests on contingency tables were used for trap success comparisons and to study the interactions between sex ratio and age (because of the small sample size, tooth-wear classes 4 and 5 were combined in the statistical analysis). Chi-square tests also were used to investigate seasonal variation in the proportion of young individuals and sex ratio. We used seasons rather than months in the analysis of population dynamics to ensure the large sample sizes needed for statistical analysis.

RESULTS

Community composition and structure

Global results. In total, 717 shrews belonging to four genera and 10 species were captured: Crocidura batesi Dollman, 1915 (n = 86 in pitfall lines; n = 13 in traplines), C. crenata Brosset, Dubost & Heim de Balsac, 1965 (51; 1), C. dolichura Peters, 1876 (22; 0), C. goliath Thomas, 1906 (15; 19), C. grassei Brosset, Dubost & Heim de Balsac, 1965 (31; 2), C. cf. nigrofusca Matschie, 1895 (1;0), Paracrocidura schoutedeni Heim de Balsac, 1956 (81; 3), Suncus remyi Brosset, Dubost & Heim de Balsac, 1965 (7;0), Sylvisorex johnstoni (Dobson, 1988) (300; 1), S. ollula Thomas, 1913 (79; 5). Trap success was 4.61 individuals per 100 TN for the whole sampling period. Sylvisorex johnstoni, one of the smallest species of the shrew community, was the most abundant one $(p_i = 45\%)$, followed by Crocidura batesi (13%), Paracrocidura schoutedeni (12%), Sylvisorex ollula (12%) and C. crenata (8%). Other species were rare (< 5%) and a single specimen of C. cf. nigrofusca was captured. Three species were collected only by pitfalls traps (C. dolichura, C. cf. nigrofusca and S. remyi) and six species were predominantly collected by this type of trap (more than 86% of individuals collected by pitfall). In contrast,

the largest species of the community (*C. goliath*) was the only one equally captured by pitfall and Sherman traps (55.9% collected in Sherman and none in snap traps).

Seasonal variation. The number of species captured varied monthly from three to nine at site A and from four to nine at site B. Minima were mainly observed from July–October, i.e. during the long dry season and at the beginning of the long rainy season.

Shrew trap success varied significantly throughout the year ($\chi^2 = 109$, P < 0.001; Figure 1a), with a minimum in the middle of the long dry season (July) and a maximum in the short rainy season (March–May). This was mainly due to the population dynamics of the dominant species (*S. johnstoni*; $\chi^2 = 42.4$, P < 0.001; Figure 1b). Trap success of the three other most abundant species (*C. batesi*, *P. schoutedeni* and *S. ollula*) also varied significantly during the year ($\chi^2 = 28.3$, 43.3 and 33.0 respectively, P < 0.01), with a minimum around the long dry season. Monthly fluctuations in trap success seemed greater for *C. batesi*, *P. schoutedeni* and *S. ollula* (CV = 64, 79 and 68% respectively) than for *S. johnstoni* (CV = 39%) even if the low monthly number of captures for the first three species may explain this result.

Even if the temporal variation in shrew trap success was rather synchronized between the two sites (cross correlation: 0.593), some differences were recorded: trap success significantly increased at site A from April to May 2000 and from February to March 2001; whereas, it decreased at site B, and the opposite was true from January to February 2001. Consequently, in May 2000, shrew trap success was significantly higher at site A than at site B ($\chi^2 = 10.6$, P = 0.001), while the reverse was true in February 2001 ($\chi^2 = 5.71$, P = 0.017). These differences were mainly due to differences in trap success of S. ollula, C. batesi and P. schoutedeni. The seasonal variation in trap success of S. johnstoni observed at the two sites was synchronized (cross correlation: 0.650) and whatever the month, no significant difference in its trap success was recorded between the two sites.

The four most abundant species were captured in nearly all months and their relative abundance varied during the year (Figure 2). However, *S. johnstoni* remained the dominant species throughout the year. Four species (*C. crenata, C. dolichura, C. goliath* and *C. grassei*) were trapped in most of the months but were never abundant ($p_i \mod s_1 = 10\%$), and two others (*C. cf. nigrofusca* and *S. remyi*) were trapped only in a few months and were always rare ($p_i < 5\%$).

Even if the monthly variation in species relative abundance was not always synchronized between sites, the overall community structure was similar between sites A and B throughout the year ($70\% < P_R < 88\%$), except in May ($P_R = 40\%$), July ($P_R = 67\%$), August ($P_R = 55\%$) and October ($P_R = 67\%$) 2000. Differences



Figure 1. Rainfall recorded from April 2000–March 2001, during the 21 d of each trapping session (histograms), and monthly trap success (line) of all species combined (a) and of the four most abundant species (b). Results of the two sites (A and B) are combined. SRS: short rainy season, LDS: long dry season, LRS: long rainy season, SDS: short dry season.

observed in July and August could have resulted from the low monthly number of captures (less than 14 per site), and those observed in October could be due to the low pitfall-trapping effort at site A during this month.

Reproduction

Mean litter size, based on embryo counts, varied between species: it was 1.71 ± 0.5 (range 1–2) for *P. schoutedeni*



Figure 2. Relative abundance of the four most abundant species, from April 2000–March 2001. Results of the two sites (A and B) are combined. For an explanation of abbreviations see legend to Figure 1.

(n = 7), 1.68 ± 0.8 (range 1–3) for *S. johnstoni* (n = 22) and 3.5 ± 1.05 (range 2–4) for *S. ollula* (n = 4). Only three pregnant females of *C. batesi* (with 1, 2 and 4 embryos respectively), *C. crenata* (3, 3, 3) and *C. goliath* (2, 2, 3) were sampled.

Breeding females of *S. johnstoni* were recorded in all months, except in October when only three females were collected, and their proportion (25% of females) did not vary significantly across seasons ($\chi^2 = 3.3$, P = 0.348).

Only the numerically dominant species, *S. johnstoni*, was captured in high enough numbers to permit analyses of breeding condition as a function of relative age. Females in breeding condition were found for the first five toothwear classes (TW1–TW3B). A single female of the last tooth-wear class (TW4) was captured and was not in a breeding condition.

Population structure

Sex ratio. Sex ratios (Male/Female) of *C. dolichura* (13/9), *C. grassei* (17/16) and *S. johnstoni* (140/148) were not significantly different from 1/1 ($\chi^2 = 0.727$, 0.030 and 0.222 respectively, P > 0.05), but those of *C. batesi* (79/19), *C. crenata* (35/16), *C. goliath* (24/10), *P. schoutedeni* (51/32) and *S. ollula* (67/16) were male biased ($\chi^2 = 36.7$, 7.0, 5.7, 4.3 and 31.3 respectively, P < 0.05).



Figure 3. Age structure related to tooth-wear classes of the four most abundant species in the forest of Monts Doudou. The individuals are grouped in tooth-wear classes and the relative share (%) of each tooth-wear class is represented by horizontal bars. Animals belonging to one tooth-wear class are divided into females (open horizontal bars) and males (black horizontal bars).

We found a significant interaction between sex ratio of *S. johnstoni* and tooth-wear classes ($\chi^2 = 16.8$, P = 0.002): sex ratio was female biased (31/52) for individuals of the first tooth-wear class (TW1), while it was male biased (42/21) for individuals of the last two tooth-wear classes (TW3A and TW4). For other species, the number of specimens captured per sex and tooth-wear class was too low for analysis.

Sex ratio of the four most abundant species did not vary with season $(1.4 < \chi^2 < 6.3, P > 0.05)$.

Tooth-wear composition. Amongst the males of *C. batesi* and *P. schoutedeni*, the youngest subadults (TW1) represented a relatively low proportion of the population (< 6%,

Figure 3). In contrast, among the females of *S. johnstoni*, *S. ollula* and *C. batesi*, the proportion of the youngest subadults was high (> 28%). For both sexes, old adults (TW3B and TW4) represented a low proportion of the population, except for the males of *S. johnstoni* for which the specimens of the fifth tooth-wear class were dominant in the male population.

Tooth-wear composition of the four most abundant species varied throughout the year (Figure 4). In the long dry season, the proportion of middle-aged to old adults (TW3A to TW4) increased for all species (P < 0.05). At the same time, the proportion of the youngest sub-adults (TW1) of *C. batesi*, *P. schoutedeni* and *S. ollula* decreased (P < 0.05): no TW1 specimen of *C. batesi* and *P. schoutedeni* was captured and the only one *S. ollula*



Figure 4. Percentage of individuals of both sexes in each tooth-wear class, from April 2000–March 2001. The number above each bar is the sample size for each season. For an explanation of abbreviations see legend to Figure 2.

was captured in June, at the early beginning of the long dry season. No significant difference in the proportion of TW1 individuals was recorded for *S. johnstoni* during the long dry season ($\chi^2 = 0.5$, P = 0.460), even if none was captured in May and June.

DISCUSSION

Seasonal variation in community structure

In the forest of Monts Doudou, we recorded 10 species of shrew. In this faunal region (South Ogooué; Deleporte & Colyn 1999) shrew species richness is known to vary between 6 and 14 from one locality to another (Colyn *et al.* unpubl. data, O'Brien *et al.* in press). Differences in species richness and species composition between localities could be mainly due to (1) the existence of species complexes still in need of taxonomic revision and (2) differences between studies, in the types of habitats surveyed or in trapping methods and trapping effort developed. In our two study sites, the number of species varied throughout the year and tended to be minimal during the period of minimal trap-success.

In agreement with the results obtained in other long-term surveys in west Central African rain forests (Barrière & Nicolas 2000, Lasso *et al.* 1996), trap success of shrews varied seasonally in Monts Doudou and was minimal around the dry season. In previous studies carried out in African rain forest, the causality of this variation was not investigated. It could be due to seasonal variation in population size or in the probability of capture of individuals (Slade & Blair 2000). Even if our trapping protocol does not allow us to separate probability of capture from population size, the age-structure and reproductive data give clues to the annual population dynamics in the species concerned.

During the long dry season, we noticed an ageing of the four most abundant populations (increased proportion of old adults and decreased proportion of young individuals) together with a decrease in their trap success. However, we did not observe a significant decrease in the proportion of breeding females for the dominant *S. johnstoni*. Two hypotheses may explain these contradictory results: the low number of females collected in the long dry season (5-9 per mo) could not give a reliable estimate of the proportion of breeding females; alternatively, there could be as many births in the long dry season as in other seasons but survival of young individuals could be reduced at that time. Periods of weaning and dispersal are often critical periods in the lives of European shrews because the young have low fat reserves and have to feed regularly to avoid starvation (Churchfield 1990). Arthropods constitute the main food resource for shrews in tropical Africa (Churchfield et al. 2004, Dudu et al. in press). Flying insects are known to be less abundant, in Gabon, during the long dry season (Charles-Dominique 1977). Thus, survival of shrews, especially young individuals, may be reduced at this season. Moreover, desiccation of leaf litter, at that time, can increase the visibility of shrews and may enhance their predation by small carnivores (Ray 1998, Ray & Hutterer 1996).

However, it is important to keep in mind that some of the observed variation in trap success could also be due to differences in probability of capture (Slade & Blair 2000), which are known to be influenced by weather (precipitation, temperature and moonlight; Kirkland & Sheppard 1994, Stokes et al. 2001), seasonality (Getz 1961, Shanker 2000, Stokes et al. 2001) or inherent characteristics of the individual such as sex, age and breeding status (Patric 1970, Schwarz & Seber 1999, Shanker 2000). Shrews have high metabolic rates resulting in high energy requirements and water loss (Churchfield 1990) and numerous studies have highlighted the capacity of crocidurine shrews to enter torpor, either spontaneously or during food shortages (Frey & Vogel 1979, Genoud 1981, 1988; Nagel 1994, Vogel 1978), to reduce energy requirement and water loss (Churchfield 1990, Nagel 1994). This phenomenon was mainly studied in temperate species but is also known to occur in several tropical ones (Vogel 1978) and was observed in the field for S. ollula (PB, pers. obs.). Thus, an increase of torpid behaviours during dry season, induced by low food or water resources, could explain low trap success at this period by reducing the movement activity of shrews. The male-biased sex ratio observed for most species, as well as the differences of sex ratio between tooth-wear classes for S. johnstoni, could reflect either real differences in the number of individuals of each sex or differences in their probability of capture, as mobility or ranging patterns are known to vary between sexes for several species (Churchfield 1990, Favre et al. 1997, Stockley & Searle 1994).

Seasonal variation in trap success was similar among species. Even if the magnitude of variation differed between species, specific relative abundance did not vary greatly throughout the year. Thus, *S. johnstoni* remained the dominant species during the whole survey period. This result contrasts with what was observed for murid rodents at the same locality (Nicolas & Colyn 2003), and for shrews and rodents in Ngotto forest (Barrière & Nicolas 2000), where shift in species dominance over time were recorded.

Reproduction

In tropical regions, breeding could occur throughout the year in several crocidurine populations and its intensity could reach a peak at certain periods of the year, usually coinciding with environmental conditions (Churchfield 1990, Yu *et al.* 2001). In this study, the seasonal proportion of breeding females of the dominant *S. johnstoni* confirmed the general pattern of a continuous reproduction. A lower breeding intensity around the long dry season, could also be possible, as indicated by the lower proportion of young individuals of the four most abundant species.

Females of *S. johnstoni* in breeding condition were found for the first five tooth-wear classes, indicating that, in agreement with previous studies on crocidurine shrews (Churchfield 1990, Innes 1994), this species could mature within a few months after weaning and then could breed throughout its life span.

Litter size varied from one species to another and between females of a given species. Mean litter size obtained for *P. schoutedeni* and *S. johnstoni* in this study is congruent with what was recorded for these two species at Makokou-Belinga in north-eastern Gabon (Brosset 1988, Dubost 1968). In contrast, mean litter size differed between the two localities for S. ollula (3.5 and 2.0 in Monts Doudou and Makokou-Belinga, respectively) as well as for C. batesi (2.3 and 3.0). As litter size could differ, for a given shrew species, between habitats (Dubost 1968), the observed differences could either be due to the low number of pregnant females available, or to the fact that they were collected in distinct habitats (primary forest in Monts Doudou; primary forest, secondary forest, crops and human settlements in Makokou-Belinga). Gestation period of crocidurine shrews is usually 22-31 d and females of several genera and species can undergo a postpartum oestrus (Innes 1994).

Altogether, these data on reproduction characteristics suggest that shrews have the ability to produce many young during their life span and that they can adjust their breeding intensity to changes in environmental conditions.

Regardless of the seasonal variation in the number of species of shrews captured and their variations in term of trap success, it seems obvious that surveys of small mammals restricted to a short sampling period could inaccurately estimate species richness and abundance. It is advisable to use data which cover an entire year when comparing shrew communities of different sites or habitats.

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