Why lemmings have indoor plumbing in summer

Rudy Boonstra, Charles J. Krebs, and Alice Kenney

Abstract: The faeces and urine of microtine rodents are visible in ultraviolet light, and diurnal raptors, such as European kestrels (Falco tinnunculus) and rough-legged buzzards (Buteo lagopus), have the ability to see in ultraviolet light. It has been reported that in Fennoscandia, these raptors use this ability to concentrate their hunting activity in spring on areas where microtines are abundant. We hypothesized that in arctic tundra areas in summer, intense avian predation pressure and short vegetation should select for microtine behaviour that would minimize their exposure to these raptors. We dug up 62 collared lemming (Dicrostonyx groenlandicus) burrows in the Canadian Arctic and all had underground latrines. Latrines are not hidden underground in winter, when lemmings live under the snow, build nests above ground, and defecate above ground, nor does this occur in microtine species living in temperate areas, where summer vegetation growth is greater. Thus, high predation risk may influence not only where prey forage but also where they defecate.

Résumé: Les fèces et l'urine des rongeurs microtinés sont visibles à l'ultra-violet et les rapaces diurnes, tels le Faucon crécerelle (Falco tinnunculus) et la Buse pattue (Buteo lagopus), sont capables de voir à la lumière ultraviolette. En Fennoscandie, au printemps, on rapporte que ces rapaces utilisent cette propriété visuelle et peuvent concentrer leurs efforts de chasse dans les zones d'abondance des microtinés. Nous avons posé en hypothèse que, dans les zones de toundra arctique, en été, l'importante pression de prédation par les oiseaux et la végétation courte devraient favoriser un comportement propre à minimiser l'exposition aux rapaces chez les microtinés. Nous avons déterré les terriers de 62 Lemmings variables (Dicrostonyx groenlandicus) dans l'Arctique canadien et découvert que tous avaient des latrines intérieures. Les latrines ne sont pas cachées à l'intérieur en hiver, quand les lemmings vivent sous la neige, construisent leur nid au-dessus du sol et défèquent au-dessus du sol; cette situation ne se retrouve pas non plus chez les espèces de microtinés qui vivent en zone tempérée où la végétation d'été et plus touffue. Les risques élevés de prédation n'influencent donc pas seulement l'endroit où les proies iront se nourrir, mais également l'endroit où elles iront déféquer.

[Traduit par la Rédaction]

Introduction

Where animals decide to forage is under strong selection pressure that involves a trade-off between predation risk and food intake (e.g., McNamara and Houston 1987; Ludwig and Rowe 1990; Matsuda and Abrams 1994). In rodents and lagomorphs this generally results in a preference for cover that minimizes exposure to avian and mammalian predators (e.g., Brown and Morgan 1995; Hik 1995). In the same way, where animals choose to defecate and urinate may also be under strong selection pressure, particularly if their presence influences the hunting location and effort of their predators. Viitala et al. (1995) report that the faeces and urine of voles (Microtus agrestis) are visible in ultraviolet (UV) light and that European kestrels (Falco tinnunculus) and rough-legged buzzards (Buteo lagopus), both diurnal raptors, can "see" UV light. In contrast, Tengmalm's owl, a nocturnal owl, could not "see" UV light in similar laboratory experiments (M. Koivula, E. Korpimäki, and J. Viitala, unpublished data).

Received February 23, 1996. Accepted May 30, 1996.

R. Boonstra.¹ Division of Life Sciences, Scarborough Campus, University of Toronto, 1265 Military Trail, Scarborough, ON MIC 1A4, Canada.

C.J. Krebs and A. Kenney. Department of Zoology, University of British Columbia, 6270 University Boulevard, Vancouver, BC V6T 1Z4, Canada.

Author to whom all correspondence should be addressed (e-mail: boonstra@lake.scar.utoronto.ca). Diurnal raptors use this ability to concentrate their hunting in areas where voles are abundant. Viitala et al. (1995) argue that in Fennoscandia, this ability of diurnal raptors permits them to scan large areas in a short time, especially after population crashes in the voles cause the raptors to disperse widely.

If the ability to detect UV light is shared by all diurnal raptors, there may be strong selection pressure on microtines (lemmings and voles) to "hide" their faeces and urine to avoid detection. There is no evidence in voles (most species of which live in non-tundra regions of the world) that this occurs at any time in Fennoscandia or elsewhere, and there may be two reasons for this. First, mammalian predators are thought to be the major agent influencing multi-annual vole fluctuations, particularly during the declines (e.g., Henttonen et al. 1987; Korpimäki et al. 1994; Hanski and Korpimäki 1995), and thus mammalian predators would likely have a greater evolutionary impact in shaping vole adaptations than avian predators. In contrast, because of their ability to move rapidly over wide areas, raptors appear to have a stabilizing influence on microtine fluctuations (Korpimäki and Norrdahl 1991; Hanski and Korpimäki 1995). Second, the vole runways, in which the urine and faeces are deposited, are most evident from the air for only a short period after snowmelt in spring but before growth of vegetation (Viitala et al. 1995). At all other times in the growing season, dense vegetation may serve to limit visibility of waste products at ground level. In general, net primary productivity in north-temperate areas is relatively high, 400-800 g/m² (Whittaker 1975). Thus, voles give away their position to aerial predators for a relatively short window of time and selection pressure to deal with the avian threat may be less than that to deal with the mammalian threat. In contrast, in arctic tundra areas, vegetation grows little during the summer, is always relatively short, as net productivity is low $(40-55 \text{ g/m}^2)$; Muc 1977; Svoboda 1977; Reid 1995), and the ground is readily visible from the air throughout the growing season in most habitats. In addition, predation pressure from a number of avian predators, some of which appear to be obligate lemming predators (Pitelka et al. 1955; Reid et al. 1995), may make the threat from avian predators in summer more similar to that from mammalian predators. In this paper we report on a behaviour of the collared lemming, the building of underground summer latrines, which is consistent with the argument for the significance of the intensity of avian predation risk in the Arctic and which has defied explanation till now.

Materials and methods

From 1987 to 1989, we dug up over 62 lemming burrows at Pearce Point, N.W.T., Canada (69°48'N, 122°40'W), to capture both adult and juvenile collared lemmings (*Dicrostonyx groenlandicus*). Active burrows were located either by radiotelemetry (lactating females) (Krebs et al. 1995) or by a powdered slide technique (lemmings captured for breeding studies and transported to the University of Toronto) (Boonstra et al. 1992). We attempted to livetrap the lemmings first, but if we were unsuccessful we excavated the burrow.

Results and discussion

All active burrows had small side chambers (latrines) full of faeces, and faeces were not noticed above ground. Similar observations have been made by others who have excavated burrows of lemmings of both genera (*Dicrostonyx* spp. and *Lemmus* spp.) throughout the arctic tundra regions of the northern hemisphere (Barkalow 1952; Chernyavskii 1969; Brooks and Banks 1973; Banfield 1974). Until now, no hypothesis has been put forward to explain this peculiar behaviour. Latrine building does not occur in winter, when lemmings live under the snow, build nests above ground, and defecate above ground.

Given the evidence provided by Viitala et al. (1995), the most plausible explanation for this phenomenon is that lemmings hide their faeces in latrines underground to avoid detection by aerial predators. We do not know if collared lemmings also urinate in their tunnels, but given where they defecate, we predict that they do.

The following evidence indicates that predation pressure by raptors may be extremely intense in the Arctic. First, a large diversity of raptors (hawks, jaegers, diurnal owls) prey on lemmings in the Arctic summer (Pitelka et al. 1955). Second, the elimination of aerial predation by using monofilament lines strung above the tundra has recently been shown to significantly improve lemming survival (Reid et al. 1995). Third, radiotelemetry studies indicate that lemmings spend up to 95% of their time in burrows in summer (Brooks 1993). This behaviour is likely to be energetically very expensive, as the burrows must be near 0°C, given that the permafrost is within 30 cm of the surface over much of the Arctic (note that microtines in temperate latitudes often nest above ground in summer; e.g., Boonstra and Craine 1986; Lambin 1994). Finally, at summer solstice at high latitudes, there is no night

and lemmings are active at all hours. However, when periods of darkness occur again at the end of summer, lemmings rapidly shift their activity to these periods, presumably to minimize predation risk from diurnal aerial predators (Peterson and Batzli 1975). In addition, underground latrines may possibly increase predation in summer by mammalian carnivores such as foxes because latrines will concentrate lemming odour and foxes have an extremely good sense of smell (Artois 1989). This suggests that any additional predation cost to lemmings from mammalian carnivores because of the concentration of their waste in underground latrines is outweighed by the benefits. Thus, the remarkable adaptation of diurnal raptors to detect microtines by focusing on their waste appears to have been met by a counteradaptation of arctic lemmings to avoid detection by hiding their faeces and urine.

The building of underground latrines may also explain the high frequency (up to 92%) of infection in the conjunctival sacs of arctic lemmings by a nematode, *Pelodera strongyloides* (Cliff et al. 1978). This species is saprophagic, living particularly in decaying piles of faeces and vegetation. The immature form of this species can be found swimming over the eyes of lemmings (personal observation), but apparently causes no harmful effects to the lemmings and simply uses them as a dispersal vehicle.

Acknowledgements

We thank M. Kanter and J. Serensits for field assistance in the Arctic, J. Ostrick and D. Sherstone of the Science Institute of the Northwest Territories and the Polar Continental Shelf Project of the Department of Energy, Mines and Resources of Canada for field support, the Inuvialuit Land Administration for permission to work on their land, and the Natural Sciences and Engineering Research Council of Canada for financial support.

References

Artois, M. 1989. Le Renard roux (Vulpes vulpes L., 1758): encyclopédie des carnivores de France. SFEPM, Erde.

Banfield, A.W.F. 1974. The mammals of Canada. University of Toronto Press, Toronto.

Barkalow, F.S., Jr. 1952. Life history of ecologic observations on the tundra mouse (*Microtus oeconomus*) and lemmings (*Lemmus trimucronatus* and *Dicrostonyx groenlandicus*) at Barter Island, Alaska. J. Elisha Mitchell Sci. Soc. 68: 199-206.

Boonstra, R., and Craine, I.T.M. 1986. Natal nest location and small mammal tracking with a spool and line technique. Can. J. Zool. 64: 1034-1036.

Boonstra, R., Kanter, M., and Krebs, C.J. 1992. A tracking technique to locate small mammals at low densities. J. Mammal. 73: 683-685.

Brooks, R.J. 1993. Dynamics of home range in collared lemmings. *In Biology of lemmings*. *Edited by N.C. Stenseth and R.A. Ims.* Academic Press, London. pp. 355-386.

Brooks, R.J., and Banks, E.M. 1973. Behavioural biology of the collared lemming (*Dicrostonyx groenlandicus* (Trail)): an analysis of acoustic communication. Anim. Behav. Monogr. 6.

Brown, J.S., and Morgan, R.A. 1995. Effects of foraging behavior and spatial scale on diet selectivity: a test with fox squirrels. Oikos, 74: 122-136.

Chernyavskii, F.B. 1969. Ecological observations on Siberian (Lemmus sibiricus) and collared (Dicrostonyx torquatus) lemmings

- on Wrangel Island. [In Russian, with English abstract.] Zool. Zh. 48: 752-756.
- Cliff, G.M., Anderson, R.C., and Mallory, F.F. 1978. Dauerlarvae of *Pelodera strongyloides* (Schneider, 1860) (Nematoda: Rhabditidae) in the conjunctival sacs of lemmings. Can. J. Zool. 56: 2117-2121.
- Hanski, I., and Korpimäki, E. 1995. Microtine rodent dynamics in northern Europe: parameterized models for the predator-prey interaction. Ecology, 76: 840-850.
- Henttonen, H., Oksanen, T., Jortikka, A., and Haukisalmi, V. 1987. How much do weasels shape microtine cycles in the northern Fennoscandian taiga? Oikos, 50: 353-365.
- Hik, D. 1995. Does risk of predation influence population dynamics? Evidence from the cyclic decline of snowshoe hares. Wildl. Res. 22: 115-129.
- Korpimäki, E.E., and Norrdahl, K. 1991. Do breeding nomadic avian predators dampen population fluctuations of small mammals? Oikos, 62: 195-208.
- Korpimäki, E.E., Norrdahl, K., and Valkama, J. 1994. Reproductive investment under fluctuating predation risk: microtine rodents and small mustelids. Evol. Ecol. 8: 7-12.
- Krebs, C.J., Boonstra, R., and Kenney, A.J. 1995. Population dynamics of the collared lemming and the tundra vole at Pearce Point, N.W.T. Oecologia, 103: 481-489.
- Lambin, X. 1994. Sex ratio variation in relation to female philopatry in Townsend's voles. J. Anim. Ecol. 63: 945-953.
- Ludwig, D., and Rowe, L. 1990. Life-history strategies for energy gain and predator avoidance under time constraints. Am. Nat. 135: 687-707.
- Matsuda, H., and Abrams, P.A. 1994. Timid consumers: self-

(a 200

- extinction due to adaptive change in foraging and anti-predator effort. Theor. Popul. Biol. 45: 686-707.
- McNamara, J.M., and Houston, A.I. 1987. Starvation and predation as factors limiting population size. Ecology, 68: 1515-1519.
- Muc, M. 1977. Ecology and primary production of sedge—moss meadow communities, Truelove Lowland. In Truelove lowland, Devon Island, Canada: a High Arctic ecosystem. Edited by L.C. Bliss. The University of Alberta Press, Edmonton. pp. 157-184.
- Peterson, R.M., Jr., and Batzli, G.O. 1975. Activity periods and energetic reserves of the brown lemming in northern Alaska. J. Mammal. 56: 718-720.
- Pitelka, F.A., Tomich, P.Q., and Treichel, G.W. 1955. Ecological relations of jaegers and owls as lemming predators near Barrow, Alaska. Ecol. Monogr. 25: 85-117.
- Reid, D.G. 1995. Factors limiting population growth of non-cyclic collared lemmings at low densities. Ph.D. thesis, University of British Columbia, Vancouver.
- Reid, D.G., Krebs, C.J., and Kenney, A.J. 1995. Limitation of collared lemming population growth at low densities by predation mortality. Oikos, 73: 387-398.
- Svoboda, J. 1977. Ecology and primary production of raised beach communities, Truelove Lowland. In Truelove lowland, Devon Island, Canada: a High Arctic ecosystem. Edited by L.C. Bliss. The University of Alberta Press, Edmonton. pp. 185-216.
- Viitala, J., Korpimäki, E., Palokangas, P., and Koivula, M. 1995. Attraction of kestrels to vole scent marks visible in ultraviolet light. Nature (London), 373: 425-427.
- Whittaker, R.H. 1975. Communities and ecosystems. 2nd ed. Macmillan, London.