

1 **Factors associated with the colonization of agricultural areas by**  
2 **common voles *Microtus arvalis* in NW Spain**

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23 outbreaks, range expansion.

24

25 **Short title:** climate, land uses and vole range expansion

26 **Abstract.**

27 The common vole, considered a rodent pest when overabundant in agricultural areas,  
28 was traditionally absent from the agricultural plains of Castilla-y-León, NW Spain.  
29 However, it rapidly invaded ca. 50.000 km<sup>2</sup> of agricultural land, where regular  
30 outbreaks have caused crop damages and conflict with farmers. To better understand the  
31 factors that triggered this massive invasion of previously unoccupied habitats, we  
32 studied the associations between the common vole range expansion and changes in  
33 climate and land uses in the region since the 1970s. We found long-term trends in  
34 climate, with some changes that could have helped the range expansion (increased fall  
35 precipitation and winter temperature) and other changes that may have impaired it  
36 (reduced precipitation and increased summer temperatures). Dramatic changes in land  
37 use also took place prior to and during the invasion period (marked increases in  
38 irrigated and green herbaceous crops such as alfalfa, which are amongst the most  
39 favourable habitats for voles). We found strong associations between changes in vole  
40 distribution and the extent of green crops (irrigated crops and alfalfa) at regional level.  
41 The probability of a given agrarian county to be colonized increased with the extent of  
42 green crops, particularly so when vole presence in neighbouring counties was lower,  
43 and tended to decrease with increasing livestock abundance. Land use changes,  
44 especially increases in irrigated crops and alfalfa, appear to be one of the main drivers  
45 behind the range expansion. We discuss these findings in relation to the social conflicts  
46 and management challenges that arose from the recent invasion of agricultural areas by  
47 crop-damaging common voles.

## 48 **Introduction**

49 Biological invasions refer to range expansions of species into new areas (Valéry *et al.*,  
50 2008). Although the term “invasive species” is often applied to species that appear in  
51 areas beyond major geographic barriers from their original distribution areas  
52 (Richardson *et al.* 2000; Collautti and MacIsaac, 2004), native species can also be  
53 invasive when they colonize new habitats (Thompson *et al.*, 1995; Davis and  
54 Thompson, 2000), particularly if they have major ecological impacts in the newly  
55 colonized habitats (Davis and Thompson, 2002). Both natural causes and human-  
56 mediated factors may lead to the disappearance of dispersal constraints and to  
57 colonization of new areas. Major distribution changes have occurred as a consequence  
58 of global transport and species trade (van der Velde *et al.*, 2006; Westphal *et al.*, 2008),  
59 climate change (Chen *et al.*, 2011; Hockey *et al.*, 2011) or human-driven land use  
60 changes (Okes *et al.*, 2008; Hockey *et al.*, 2011).

61 In Europe, the common vole *Microtus arvalis* (Pallas, 1778) is found in a wide  
62 variety of open habitats (meadows, forest steppes or agricultural areas) from sea level  
63 and up to 2600 m of altitude. The common vole is herbivorous and prefers the green  
64 parts of grasses and herbaceous vegetation (Jacob *et al.*, 2013). It is considered a rodent  
65 pest in most of its distribution range because of significant crop damage and associated  
66 economic losses during population outbreaks (Babinska-Werka, 1979; Jacob and  
67 Tkadlec, 2010). Until recently, the common vole distribution range in the Iberian  
68 Peninsula was restricted to mountain areas in the northern half of Spain, where it  
69 occupied stable habitats with high herbaceous or shrub cover (Gonzalez-Esteban *et al.*,  
70 1995). However, at the end of the 20<sup>th</sup> century, this species rapidly invaded the central  
71 plains of Castilla-y-León, a semi-arid agricultural area of ca. 50.000 km<sup>2</sup> located in  
72 north-central Spain (Luque-Larena *et al.*, 2013). Since the range expansion, common

73 vole population outbreaks in farmland areas have occurred regularly, causing significant  
74 economic losses to agriculture, as well as environmental impacts associated with the use  
75 of rodenticides for controlling vole populations, or zoonotic outbreaks of Tularemia  
76 (Luque-Larena *et al.*, 2013). In farmland areas of northern Spain, the common vole fits  
77 the definition of an invasive species (Davis and Thompson, 2002), as it greatly extended  
78 its range into a previously unoccupied region where it now has strong environmental  
79 impacts.

80         This study focuses on the factors that triggered this recent and massive invasion  
81 of agricultural areas. It is well known that rodents have the potential to rapidly respond  
82 demographically to climate or land use changes, with documented cases of fast range  
83 expansion when conditions are favourable (Singleton *et al.*, 2010). Climate is known to  
84 influence common vole abundance in continental Europe (e.g. Straka and Gerasimov  
85 1971; Tkadlec *et al.*, 2006; Esthera *et al.* 2014). All climate change scenarios for Spain  
86 predict a uniform increase in temperatures, particularly in summer, and a reduction in  
87 total annual precipitation, especially in spring and summer (Moreno, 2005). The  
88 recently invaded area is characterized by a climate that could be considered “a priori” as  
89 suboptimal for the species due to prolonged summer droughts, a major constrain for a  
90 rodent relying on green herbaceous vegetation. Models based on current climate change  
91 scenarios indeed predict a future shrinking of the common vole distribution range in  
92 Spain, which is expected to be increasingly restricted to the mountain ranges of the  
93 northern half of the Iberian Peninsula, or even just to the Cantabrian Mountains and the  
94 Pyrenees (Araujo *et al.*, 2011). Agricultural intensification has led to a homogenization  
95 of the agrarian landscape of Castilla-y-León, which has been proposed as a major factor  
96 promoting vole expansion (Gonzalez Esteban *et al.*, 1995). Simplified habitats, which  
97 usually have fewer predators (Delattre *et al.*, 1999), may be easier to invade by new

98 species (Ligtvoet and van Wijngaarden, 1994). However, other changes have occurred  
99 in the agro-environment during the same period, like changes in cultivated crops,  
100 livestock densities, increased mechanization, use of improved pesticides and fertilizers,  
101 or the development of non-tillage techniques, which may have also affected the  
102 availability of suitability habitats for voles. In France, common vole abundance and  
103 damage to crops are associated with areas with abundant grassland or with a highly  
104 connected grassy network (Delattre *et al.*, 1992; Delattre *et al.*, 1996; Delattre *et al.*,  
105 1999), while cereal is considered a sub-optimal agrarian habitat as compared to other  
106 crops, such as alfalfa (Delattre *et al.*, 1992; Jacob *et al.*, 2014). Land use changes  
107 potentially favourable to the common vole would be an increase of grassy multiannual  
108 crops, especially alfalfa, one of the preferred habitats of common voles (Janova *et al.*,  
109 2011; Jareño *et al.*, 2014), as well as an increase in irrigation, which would promote  
110 green vegetation cover and thus food availability, particularly during the dry summers  
111 that characterize the climate of NW Spain. By contrast, a reduction of fallows would  
112 reduce areas with natural vegetation, being potentially negative for the species. Changes  
113 in free-ranging livestock abundance could also affect common voles, as increased  
114 grazing pressure may reduce food availability for voles and increase predation risk.  
115 Livestock presence could also hamper the burrowing activity of voles due to soil  
116 compacting. Several studies in Europe have associated increases in sheep grazing  
117 pressure with reduced vole abundances (Steen *et al.*, 2005; Evans *et al.*, 2006; Wheeler,  
118 2008; Villar *et al.*, 2013), and this relationship has also been found in Spain between the  
119 common vole and cattle (Torre *et al.*, 2007).

120 In this study, we investigated the relative importance of both climate and land  
121 use changes as factors explaining the recent invasion of farmland areas by common  
122 voles in NW Spain (Luque-Larena *et al.*, 2013). We hypothesized that the rapid range

123 expansion by *M. arvalis* may have been triggered primarily by large-scale land use  
124 changes that took place in the newly colonized areas. We tested for temporal trends in  
125 climate and land uses, expecting the range expansion to be associated with changes *a*  
126 *priori* more favourable for voles (increases in winter temperature, spring-summer  
127 precipitation or reductions in summer temperature; increases in alfalfa and irrigated  
128 crops, reductions in livestock abundance). We discuss the implications of our findings  
129 for management of out-breaking vole populations in the recently invaded farmland  
130 areas.

131

## 132 **Material and Methods**

### 133 **Study area**

134 We studied changes in common vole distribution in the autonomous region of Castilla-  
135 y-León, an area of 9.422.100 ha located in the northern plateau of the Iberian Peninsula  
136 (Fig. 1). This region is divided in 9 administrative provinces and 59 agrarian counties  
137 (“*comarcas agrarias*”), holds the entire upper catchment area of the Duero river and  
138 includes central plains dedicated to agriculture (ca. 3.7 million ha) surrounded by  
139 mountain ranges (Fig. 1). Land uses changed over years (see results and Fig. S1).  
140 Towards the end of the study period (in 2010) they included mostly agricultural crops  
141 (37 % of the regional surface, with higher percentages in the central plains: e.g. 70 % in  
142 the central province of Valladolid), forests (31 % of the regional surface; higher  
143 percentages in provinces with mountain ranges, e.g. 49 % in the León province), and  
144 pasture land (25 % of the regional surface; with higher percentages in provinces with  
145 mountain ranges, e.g. 41 % in the Avila province; source: “Anuario de Estadística”  
146 2011, Spanish Ministry of agriculture).

147

148 **Common vole distribution data**

149 Scientific and technical information on vole distribution was reviewed for the whole  
150 region and consisted of presence-absence data at the agrarian county levels in the  
151 following years: 1973, 1978-79, 1988, 1993-1994, 2002 and 2007 (Luque-Larena *et al.*,  
152 2013, and references therein). In the early 1970s, common voles were present in 35 of  
153 59 agrarian counties. By 1993-94 most of the region was colonized, and colonization  
154 was complete by 2002 (Luque-Larena *et al.*, 2013). Based on the available information,  
155 we summarized common vole distribution data at two spatial levels: (1) at the regional  
156 level, by using the % of agrarian counties with common vole presence at a given time  
157 (hereafter referred as to “regional vole occupancy”); and (2) at the agrarian county level,  
158 using presence/absence data in each county at a given time. At this level, we focused for  
159 analyses on those counties where voles were originally absent and that were  
160 subsequently colonized in the time period 1973-1993 (Luque-Larena *et al.*, 2013). For  
161 each focal agrarian county, we estimated neighbouring vole occupancy prior to a  
162 potential colonization event, using the % of adjacent counties in which the common  
163 vole was already present (hereafter referred as to “neighbouring vole presence level”).  
164 We estimated colonization speed ( $\text{km}^2$  colonized per year) at different time intervals  
165 (1973-1979; 1979-1988 and 1988-1994) as the surface area (in  $\text{km}^2$ ) of newly colonized  
166 counties during each period, divided by the number of years of each interval. Because  
167 vole occupancy data at regional level were available at only six time intervals between  
168 1973 and 2007, we modelled regional vole occupancy in order to obtain a continuous  
169 yearly time-series of vole occupancy (see results) for further analyses.

170 **Climate data**

**Comentario [FM1]:** Podemos citar una fuente para las superficies de las comarcas??

171 The climate of Castilla-y-León can be characterized as Mediterranean with continental  
172 influence. Annual precipitation in the central plains ranges from 350 to 550 mm, mostly  
173 concentrated during winter and spring. Winters are cold while summers are typically  
174 dry and hot. Summers are characterized by a long drought period with reduced natural  
175 green vegetation, which lasts longer in central plains than in the mountain areas  
176 originally occupied by common voles. We obtained climate data for the period 1962-  
177 2002 from 70 weather stations located across the whole Castilla-y-León region (source:  
178 AEMET, National Meteorological Agency; <http://www.aemet.es/>). These climate data  
179 were summarized as seasonal average temperature (°C) and precipitation data (mm of  
180 rain) for winter (January-March), spring (April-June), summer (July–September) and  
181 fall (October-December). We selected the year 1962 as the beginning of the time series  
182 as this was the first year for which we had complete information on land use data (see  
183 below). We wanted to include climate and land use data prior to the beginning of the  
184 colonization to test for possible lagged effects (e.g. changes taking place prior to the  
185 colonization that may have set a favourable context for colonization to occur). The final  
186 year was 2002, when the regional colonization process by common voles was  
187 completed (Luque-Larena et al. 2013).

#### 188 **Land use data**

189 We obtained yearly land use data for the period 1962-2002 from the “Ministerio de  
190 Medio Ambiente y Medio Rural y Marino” of Spain (<http://www.magrama.gob.es/>), for  
191 each province and thus the whole region. This consisted of the surface area (in *ha*) of  
192 irrigated and non-irrigated crop types (alfalfa and cereal, ie. wheat or barley), of other  
193 herbaceous crops (mostly corn, sugarbeet, sunflower and potato, hereafter “others  
194 herbaceous crops”) and of non-irrigated fallow land. Land use composition changed

Código de campo cambiado

195 during the course of the study period (see results and Fig. S1). By the end of the study  
196 period (2010), wheat and barley were the most common crops (e.g. 48 % of the entire  
197 agricultural surface). In most agricultural areas, fallows are the only habitat with natural  
198 grassy vegetation (21 % of the agricultural surface in 2010), along with field margins  
199 and other small and dispersed uncultivated patches. Permanent and semi-permanent  
200 grasslands are common in the original distribution area, but scarce or absent in the  
201 newly invaded area, limited to mainly small and dispersed patches. Other herbaceous  
202 crops represented 27% of the cultivated area in 2010, and woody crops 2.5 %.

Comentario [BAL2]: Podríamos eliminar esto, suena un poco repetitivo (aunque no lo es)

203 We also obtained yearly data on livestock abundance for the period 1962-2002,  
204 specifically cattle, sheep and goat numbers, from the “Ministerio de Medio Ambiente y  
205 Medio Rural y Marino” of Spain. For the land use PCA (see below), we combined  
206 sheep and goat numbers due to their similar corporal mass and the presence of mixed  
207 flocks in Spain (Garcia *et al.*, 2013).

## 208 **Statistical analyses**

209 We used the R (R Development Core Team, 2011) and PAST (Hammer *et al.*, 2001)  
210 softwares for statistical analyses. We first modelled the trends in regional vole  
211 occupancy across time to get yearly occupancy estimates, by fitting a 4 parameters  
212 sigmoid curve [ $y=y_0 + a/(1+\exp(-((x-x_0)/b))$ ] using non-linear regression fitting  
213 implemented in R to estimate the parameters ( $y_0$ ,  $a$ ,  $x_0$  and  $b$ ). This allowed us to  
214 estimate vole occupancy data each year and to obtain a continuous time series of annual  
215 vole occupancy data at the regional level (“vole occupancy”), which was used for  
216 subsequent cross-correlation analyses with climate and land use annual data.

217 To reduce the number of climate variables (average precipitation and temperature data  
218 for spring, summer fall and winter) and of land use variables (surface area for each crop

219 type, livestock numbers), we conducted two separate Principal Component Analyses  
220 (PCA) for climate and land use variables, respectively. We considered Principal  
221 Components (PCs) that explained >10% of variance for subsequent analysis. We  
222 analysed trends in climate and land use data using linear regression models (to test for  
223 linear trends during the study period) and piecewise regressions (to test for possible  
224 changes in linear trends before and after a certain year or cut-off point). We present  
225 results of the model that best fitted the data. We tested for temporal associations  
226 between climate / land use variables and modelled annual vole occupancy data using  
227 cross-correlation analyses implemented with the PAST software (Hammer *et al.*, 2001).

228 At the agrarian county level, we tested whether the probability that a given county was  
229 colonized by common voles during a given time period depended on the “neighbouring  
230 vole presence level” (% of nearby agrarian counties already occupied by the common  
231 vole), the extent of agrarian habitats “a priori” most favourable to common voles  
232 (irrigated herbaceous crops and alfalfa, referred as to “green crops”, in % of the  
233 cultivated surface; Jareño *et al.* 2014), and livestock (cattle, sheep and goat) abundance  
234 prior to a potential colonization event (“a priori” unfavourable to common voles). For  
235 the latter two variables, we used data from the province where each agrarian county was  
236 located (because such information was not available at the agrarian county level). The  
237 dependent variable (colonization probability, coded as 0=not colonized, 1= colonized)  
238 was fitted to a mixed model using a binomial distribution of error and a logit link  
239 function, with the variable “county” included as a random factor. Initial models  
240 included “neighbouring vole presence level”, “green crop extent”, “livestock  
241 abundance” and all the two-way interactions between these variables. Non-significant  
242 variables were dropped sequentially starting with interactions following a stepwise  
243 backward procedure (using the drop1 function in R). This function compares models

Comentario [BAL3]: Algo así tenemos que decir ya que luego solo presentamos uno de los dos como nos pedía el referee

244 with and without variables/interactions with LR  $\chi^2$  tests on AIC variations of those  
245 models.

Comentario [BAL4]: No sé si merece la pena poner esto, pero puede que sí.

246

## 247 **Results**

### 248 **Vole range expansion**

249 At the regional level, the vole range expansion started in the second half of the 1970s  
250 and was almost completed by the mid-1990s. Colonization speed between 1973 and  
251 1994 averaged 2050 km<sup>2</sup>/year, and was faster at the beginning of that period than at the  
252 end (2866 km<sup>2</sup>/year during 1973-1979; 2175 km<sup>2</sup>/year during 1979-1988 and 1097  
253 km<sup>2</sup>/year during 1979-1994). Changes in vole occupancy fitted well a sigmoid growth  
254 pattern ( $F=812.4$ ,  $P<0.0001$ ;  $R^2=0.99$ ; Fig. 2), allowing us to model annual vole  
255 occupancy for the whole study period [ $\text{Occupancy}=0.435\pm 0.006 +$   
256  $0.572\pm 0.008/(1+\exp(-((\text{Year}-1978.520\pm 0.194)/6.126\pm 0.169))]$ . For subsequent analyses,  
257 we used these modelled vole occupancy data.

258

### 259 **Climate trends at the regional level**

260 The PCA conducted on seasonal climate data for 1962-2002 provided four climate  
261 Principal Components explaining more than 10% of variance (Table 1). Climate PC1  
262 explained 25.6% of the variance and contrasted warmer winters and autumns and wetter  
263 autumns (positive loadings) with dryer winters (negative loading). Climate PC2  
264 explained a further 20.5% of variance, and contrasted warmer springs and summers  
265 (positive loadings), with dryer springs (negative loading). PC3 explained a further

266 16.2% of variance, and contrasted wetter summers (positive loading) with colder  
267 winters and summers (negative loadings). Finally, PC4 contrasted wetter winters and  
268 autumns with dryer summers (Table 1).

269 We found significant temporal trends for climate PC1 and climate PC3, but not  
270 for climate PC2 or PC4 (Table 2). For climate PC1, a linear regression model indicated  
271 a significant positive trend for 1962-2002 (Table 2; slope  $\pm$  se =  $+0.07 \pm 0.02$ ; Fig. 3a).  
272 For climate PC3, no significant linear trend was found for 1962-2002, but the piecewise  
273 regression identified two trends with a cut-off point in 1978, with a positive trend for  
274 1962-1978 (slope =  $0.08 \pm 0.09$ ), followed by a drop in 1978 and a lesser positive trend  
275 (slope =  $0.04 \pm 0.04$  for 1978-2002; Table 2; Fig. 3b). In terms of climate trends, we  
276 therefore had evidence for a change in 1962-2002 towards relatively warmer winters  
277 and autumns, wetter autumns, and dryer winters, particularly after 1981. We also had  
278 evidence for a shift in climate PC3 after 1978, with relatively warmer winters and  
279 warmer and wetter summers during 1978-2002 as compared with 1962-1978. These  
280 climate trends were however weak (slope parameters close to zero).

### 281 Land use trends at the regional level

282 Marked changes in land uses occurred during the study period. Cultivated areas with  
283 non-irrigated and irrigated alfalfa increased 3- and 6-fold, respectively, those with  
284 irrigated and non-irrigated cereal increased ca. 1.5-fold, and those with other irrigated  
285 herbaceous crops increased 2-fold increase until the end of the 1980s (supplementary  
286 material, Fig. S1). By contrast, areas cultivated with non-irrigated herbaceous crops and  
287 fallows decreased (Fig. S1). In 1962-1992, the area occupied by non-irrigated cereals,  
288 irrigated cereals, and for other irrigated crops increased by 42%, 174% and 77%,  
289 respectively (Fig. S1). In 1962-1979, the surface area occupied by non-irrigated and

**Comentario [BAL5]:** Bueno, esto depende de las unidades usadas (si usaramos centésimas de grado no serian close to zero). Para comparar el strenght del pattern con los de land use tendríamos que usar datos estandarizados...

290 irrigated alfalfa increased by 398% and 230% respectively (Fig. S1). Cattle numbers  
291 increased during the study period, while sheep and goat numbers decreased until 1980,  
292 and increased afterwards until the end of the 1990s (Fig. S2).

293 We summarized yearly land use data using a PCA (Table 3). The first PC (land  
294 use PC1) explained 59.8% and variance, positively correlated with the extent of  
295 irrigated and non-irrigated cereal, the extent of other herbaceous irrigated crops, except  
296 alfalfa, and cattle numbers, and negatively correlated with the extent of fallows and  
297 non-irrigated other crops (Table 3). Land use PC2 explained a further 25.8% of  
298 variance, positively correlated with the extent of irrigated and non-irrigated alfalfa, and  
299 negatively correlated with the extent of non-irrigated other crops, sheep-goat and cattle  
300 numbers (Table 3). Analyses of trends in land uses, as summarized by land use PC1 and  
301 PC2, indicated statistically significant temporal increases, which were best described by  
302 piecewise regressions rather than by linear regressions (Fig. 4; Table 2). Land use PC1  
303 showed a marked increase in 1962-1992 (slope  $\pm$  se =  $+0.27 \pm 0.09$ ), followed by a  
304 continued but lessened increase in 1992-2002 (slope =  $+0.20 \pm 0.04$ ). Land use PC2  
305 showed a marked increase in 1962-1979 (slope =  $+0.22 \pm 0.03$ ) followed by a decrease  
306 in 1979-2002 (slope =  $-0.24 \pm 0.01$ ).

### 307 **Temporal associations between vole occupancy and climate or land use**

308 The cross correlation analyses between climate PC scores and regional vole occupancy  
309 data showed an association with climate PC1 only, with significant positive correlations  
310 for time lags between -8 to +2 years (correlation coefficients of 0.38-0.58; Fig. 5). The  
311 increase in vole occupancy appeared associated with a trend for increased winter and  
312 fall temperature, increased fall precipitation and reduced winter precipitations.

**Comentario [FM6]:** Indicate here the range of estimated correlation coefficients between climate PC1 and regional occupancy (approximately  $\approx 0.4-0.6$  ?)

313           The cross correlation between land use PC scores and regional vole occupancy  
314 data showed a strong positive association with land use PC1 for time lags between -16  
315 to +2 years, and with land use PC2 scores for time lags between -16 to -9 years (all  
316 correlation coefficients > 0.86, Fig. 5). In other words, the vole expansion appeared to  
317 have followed the changes in land uses summarized by land use PC1 scores (increases  
318 in irrigated and non-irrigated cereals, and in other irrigated crops), as well as those  
319 described by land use PC2 scores (increases in non-irrigated and irrigated alfalfa), but  
320 with a greater time lag for the latter.

321           We further looked at the association between the changes in the extent of “green  
322 crops”, i.e. those “*a priori*” most favourable to common voles (i.e. irrigated herbaceous  
323 crops and alfalfa, the crop types that had high positive loadings in the first two land use  
324 PCs; Table 3). At the regional level, the vole expansion appeared to have closely  
325 followed the increase in the extent of green crops (Fig. 4b), with positive cross-  
326 correlations for time lags between -15 to -1 years (all coefficients > 0.87, all P < 0.01).

### 327 **Vole colonization at the agrarian county level**

328           The probability of colonization of a given agrarian county by common voles was  
329 significantly explained by its “neighbouring vole presence level” ( $\chi^2=9.86$ ; df = 1; p =  
330 0.002) and by a significant interaction between the extent of green crops and the  
331 “neighbouring vole presence level” (green crops:  $\chi^2= 3.68$ ; df = 1; p = 0.055;  
332 interaction:  $\chi^2= 3.79$ ; df = 1; p = 0.045; Fig. 6). An association with livestock  
333 abundance was also marginally significant ( $\chi^2= 2.84$ ; df = 1; p = 0.092). For a given  
334 county to be colonized, common voles had to be already present in nearby adjacent  
335 county, and the greater the “neighbouring vole presence level”, the greater the  
336 probability of colonization (Fig. 6a). In addition, colonization probability increased with

337 the extent of green crops (Fig. 6b), particularly so when neighbouring vole presence  
338 levels was lower (Fig. 6d), and tended to decrease with increasing livestock abundance  
339 (Fig. 6c).

340

## 341 **Discussion**

### 342 **Climate, land use and common vole range expansion**

343 Our results support the hypothesis that the rapid range expansion and invasion of  
344 hitherto unoccupied farmland areas of Castilla-y-León by common voles was more  
345 closely associated with land use changes than with climate changes. The climate trends  
346 detected during the study period were overall weak, and the only observed climate trend  
347 that correlated with common vole occupancy data was a trend for increased winter and  
348 fall temperatures, increased fall precipitation and reduced winter precipitation (climate  
349 PC1). An increase in winter temperature and fall precipitation could increase vegetative  
350 growth during winter and thereby be favourable to common vole (Tkadlec *et al.*, 2006).  
351 Positive associations between common vole abundance and winter temperature have  
352 been found in the original distribution area (Fargallo *et al.*, 2009), as well as an  
353 association between rainfall and vole abundance (Veiga, 1986; Fargallo *et al.*, 2009).  
354 Winter temperature is considered a crucial element in vole demography, and the upward  
355 recent trend reported for this meteorological variable at continental scale in Europe has  
356 been associated with large-scale synchronous changes in vole demography (Cornulier *et*  
357 *al.*, 2013). On the other hand, increased fall precipitation could be associated with more  
358 frequent flooding, detrimental to common voles (Jacob, 2003). Other climate temporal  
359 changes observed included a trend towards warmer and dryer summers during the

360 expansion (as indicated by climate PC3 changes), which can be considered  
361 unfavourable for voles. Altogether, associations between climate changes and the vole  
362 expansion were weak and inconclusive, with some changes that could be favourable to  
363 voles as well as others that were most likely unfavourable. Therefore, climate trends  
364 alone do not appear to be sufficient to explain the fast vole expansion.

365         By contrast, we found significant and dramatic changes in land uses during the  
366 study period, which appeared more closely associated with the changes in vole  
367 occupancy. Most noticeably, a marked increase occurred in the surface areas used for  
368 cultivating “green crops” (alfalfa, irrigated cereal and other irrigated herbaceous crops),  
369 to the detriment of non-irrigated herbaceous crops and fallows, which could be the most  
370 important underlying cause of invasion of farmland areas by voles. The association  
371 between vole occupancy and green crop surface extent was apparent at regional and at  
372 agrarian county levels. Green crops could be particularly important for common voles  
373 during dry periods, particularly in summer, by providing them with food when it would  
374 be scarcest, either from the crop itself or from the improved green vegetation in  
375 irrigated field margins, which are a particularly important habitat for voles in this  
376 agricultural area (Jareño *et al.*, 2014). Moreover, alfalfa is one of the preferred habitats  
377 for the common vole in agricultural habitats in Europe (Janova *et al.*, 2011), as well as  
378 in the study region (Jareño *et al.*, 2014). Within alfalfa, voles find refuge, quality food  
379 and stability to build their colonies, since they are not ploughed during the 5-7 years  
380 production cycle. Green crops also include irrigated cereal fields, a suboptimal habitat  
381 because of recurrent disturbance by ploughing in summer after harvest (Jacob *et al.*,  
382 2014). However, cereal could also be an important temporal habitat until harvest or in  
383 years of high abundance (Bonnet *et al.*, 2013). More research would be needed to better

384 understand the importance of cereal fields for vole demography, and their role in the  
385 invasion of agricultural areas.

386 Other land use changes could also have facilitated vole expansion. For example,  
387 data from agrarian municipal censuses (carried out every 10 years, REF) show an  
388 increase in mean field size (Fig. S3), which suggests that the agrarian landscape became  
389 more homogeneous during the study period. Common voles are more abundant in  
390 homogeneous habitats (Fischer *et al.*, 2011). This may be because there are fewer  
391 refuges for predators and a reduced species richness overall (Benton *et al.*, 2003; Pereira  
392 *et al.*, 2010), which could facilitate vole expansion (Gonzalez Esteban *et al.*, 1995) or  
393 affect vole abundance fluctuations and thus colonization potential (Delattre *et al.*, 1999).  
394 On the other hand, increases in field size would imply a reduction of areas occupied by  
395 field margins, which are crucial for voles in the study area (Jareño *et al.*, 2014) as well  
396 as elsewhere (Delattre *et al.*, 1992; Delattre *et al.*, 1996; Delattre *et al.*, 1999). However,  
397 the reduction in the area occupied by field margins could have been compensated  
398 through the increase in the area occupied by irrigated fields improving habitat quality of  
399 remaining margins, a hypothesis that deserves further attention. Further studies on the  
400 effect of landscape scale changes in habitat structure (e.g. changes in field size and  
401 edges) that went along with the reported land use changes would also be useful to get a  
402 more precise idea of how predation may have interacted with land use changes in  
403 facilitating vole expansion (Kraehenbuehl *et al.*, 2010).

404 Finally, the reduction in sheep and goat numbers at the beginning of the study  
405 period, which mostly occurred in the northern and southern areas of Castilla-y-León  
406 (Fig. S2), i.e. in the original vole distribution areas, could have been favourable for the  
407 common vole expansion, as sheep grazing is known to reduce vole abundance (Steen *et*

408 *al.*, 2005; Evans *et al.*, 2006; Wheeler, 2008). Indeed, colonization probability was  
409 marginally lower with higher livestock abundance. The reduction in sheep abundance  
410 could thus have contributed to vole population increases in the original distribution  
411 areas, facilitating colonization through dispersal. By contrast, the overall increase in  
412 cattle numbers throughout the time period would have been negative, as free-ranging  
413 cattle abundance negatively affects common vole abundance (Torre *et al.*, 2007).  
414 However, most of this increase in the study area was feedlot cattle (Domínguez-Martín,  
415 2001; Garcia *et al.*, 2013), although the intensification was not so pronounced in the  
416 southern area (Milan *et al.*, 2006), where most of the overall increase occurred (Fig. S1  
417 & S2).

418 Finally, other factors not contemplated in this study could also have favoured the  
419 colonization, like for instance changes in the distribution or abundance of vole  
420 predators. Unfortunately, the lack of information at the required spatial and temporal  
421 scales prevented investigating the relative importance of this driver in the range  
422 expansion.

423

#### 424 **Conclusions and implications:**

425 Our results suggest that the common vole expansion in Castilla-y-León and the rapid  
426 invasion of hitherto unoccupied farmland areas was primarily associated with land use  
427 changes that took place prior to and during the colonization period, in particular  
428 increases in irrigated crops and alfalfa. Establishing such a link has implications for the  
429 management of voles and their outbreaks in farmland areas. As soon as the common  
430 vole colonized the agricultural plains of Castilla-y-León, regular crop damaging

431 outbreaks have occurred (Luque-Larena *et al.*, 2013). This has created serious social  
432 unrest among farmers, who have urged governments to find solutions to the problem.  
433 This has prompted occasional large-scale and/or intensive vole control campaigns  
434 (Jacob and Tkadlec, 2010; Luque-Larena *et al.*, 2013), which have been criticized in  
435 other sectors of society: e.g. the chemical control campaigns have caused undesirable  
436 environmental impacts, through the poisoning of non-target species (Olea *et al.*, 2009;  
437 Sanchez-Barbudo *et al.*, 2012). Partly, the expectation of farmers has been to “get rid”  
438 of the invasive species that caused the problem. However, the land use changes  
439 promoted by farming have modified the landscape turning it beneficial for the common  
440 vole, and this is unlikely to change. This is because these changes are associated with a  
441 more economic approach to agriculture, higher revenues, and higher demands of certain  
442 crops (e.g. yields were c.175% greater for irrigated than for non-irrigated alfalfa in  
443 2010). Therefore, current farming systems of Castilla-y-León are unavoidably  
444 concomitant with vole occurrence, and that these systems need to integrate long-term,  
445 sustainable, ecologically and economically viable ways of dealing with this species as  
446 part of the ecosystem. This study highlights that large-scale human-driven habitat  
447 changes may be key processes in driving biological invasions.

Comentario [FM7]: Ref. 1 asks to delete (speculative)

448

449

450 **Acknowledgments**

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457

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**Comentario [FM8]:** To check against references cited in text

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597

598 **Tables**

599

600 **Table 1.** Results of the Principal Component Analysis of regional seasonal climate data (1962-  
 601 2002). Climate PC5 explained only 8.5% of the variance and was not considered for subsequent  
 602 analyses.

	Climate PC1	Climate PC2	Climate PC3	Climate PC4
Winter Temperature	<b>0.378</b>	0.166	<b>-0.457</b>	0.040
Spring Temperature	0.299	<b>0.592</b>	0.074	0.026
Summer Temperature	-0.016	<b>0.336</b>	<b>-0.66</b>	-0.138
Fall Temperature	<b>0.493</b>	-0.253	-0.115	0.311
Winter Precipitation	<b>-0.436</b>	0.167	0.08	<b>0.554</b>
Spring Precipitation	-0.004	<b>-0.600</b>	-0.284	-0.291
Summer Precipitation	0.299	0.159	<b>0.463</b>	<b>-0.537</b>
Fall Precipitation	<b>0.496</b>	-0.176	0.186	<b>0.449</b>
Variance explained				
-Proportion:	0.256	0.205	0.162	0.136
-Cumulative	0.256	0.461	0.623	0.759
Eigenvectors	2.044	1.64	1.299	1.092

603

604

605 **Table 2.** Results of the analyses exploring temporal trends in climate or land use variables (PC  
606 scores – see Tables 1 and 3) for the period 1962-2002 for the whole Castilla-y-Léon regions.  
607 We tested for linear trends using linear regressions, and for potential changes in linear trends  
608 before/after a certain year using piecewise regressions. Significant trends are highlighted in  
609 bold.

	Linear			Piecewise		
	regression	P	R <sup>2</sup>	regression	P	R <sup>2</sup>
	F <sub>1,39</sub>			F <sub>3,37</sub>		
<b>Climate variables</b>						
Climate PC1	<b>18.7</b>	<b>&lt;0.001</b>	<b>32.41</b>			
Climate PC2	0.068	0.796		2.795	0.054	
Climate PC3				<b>3.122</b>	<b>0.037</b>	<b>20.20</b>
Climate PC4	0.249	0.620	-1.91	2.448	0.079	16.56
<b>Land use variables</b>						
Land use PC1				<b>346.3</b>	<b>&lt;0.001</b>	<b>96.56</b>
Land use PC2				<b>216.1</b>	<b>&lt;0.001</b>	<b>94.60</b>

610

611

612 **Table 3.** Results of the Principal Component Analysis of regional annual land use data (1962-  
 613 2002). Land use PC3 explained only 6.9% of the variance and was not considered for  
 614 subsequent analyses.

	Land use PC1	Land use PC2
Non-irrigated Cereal <sup>1</sup>	<b>0.392</b>	0.125
Irrigated Cereal <sup>1</sup>	<b>0.404</b>	-0.094
Non irrigated Other Crops <sup>2</sup>	<b>-0.362</b>	-0.258
Irrigated Others Crops <sup>2</sup>	<b>0.381</b>	-0.134
Non irrigated Alfalfa	0.296	<b>0.408</b>
Irrigated Alfalfa	0.196	<b>0.526</b>
Fallows	<b>-0.38</b>	0.272
Bovine cattle N.	<b>0.352</b>	<b>-0.335</b>
Sheep & Goat livestock N.	0.11	<b>-0.512</b>
Variance explained		
-Proportion	0.598	0.258
-Cumulative	0.598	0.856
Eigenvectors	5.39	2.32

<sup>1</sup>cereal= wheat or barley

<sup>2</sup>Includes maize, sugarbeet, sunflower, pea and oats.

615

616

617 **Figure legends**

618 **Figure 1.** Map of the study area (Castilla-y-Léon region, NW Spain) showing the boundaries  
619 (thickest black contour lines) and names of the 9 provinces, and the boundaries of agrarian  
620 counties (thinner black contour lines). The map also illustrates changes in vole occupancy at the  
621 agrarian county level for the period 1973-2002 (data from Luque-Larena et al. 2013).

622 **Figure 2.** Changes over time in vole occupancy (% of agrarian counties occupied by common  
623 voles) in the whole Castilla-y-Léon region. The dashed line shows modelled yearly vole  
624 occupancy data (see text).

625 **Figure 3.** Climate trends for the Castilla-y-Léon region in 1962-2002. The figure illustrates  
626 changes over time in climate PC scores for which significant trends were detected (PC1 and 3;  
627 see [Table 2](#)).

628 **Figure 4.** Changes over time in land uses within the Castilla-y-Léon region (a) as summarized  
629 by the first two land use PC scores (see [Table 3](#)); or (b) by the extent (surface area, in ha) of  
630 irrigated herbaceous crops and alfalfa (“green crops”). Modelled yearly vole occupancy data (%  
631 of agrarian counties occupied by common voles, thin dashed line; see Fig. 2) are also shown for  
632 comparison.

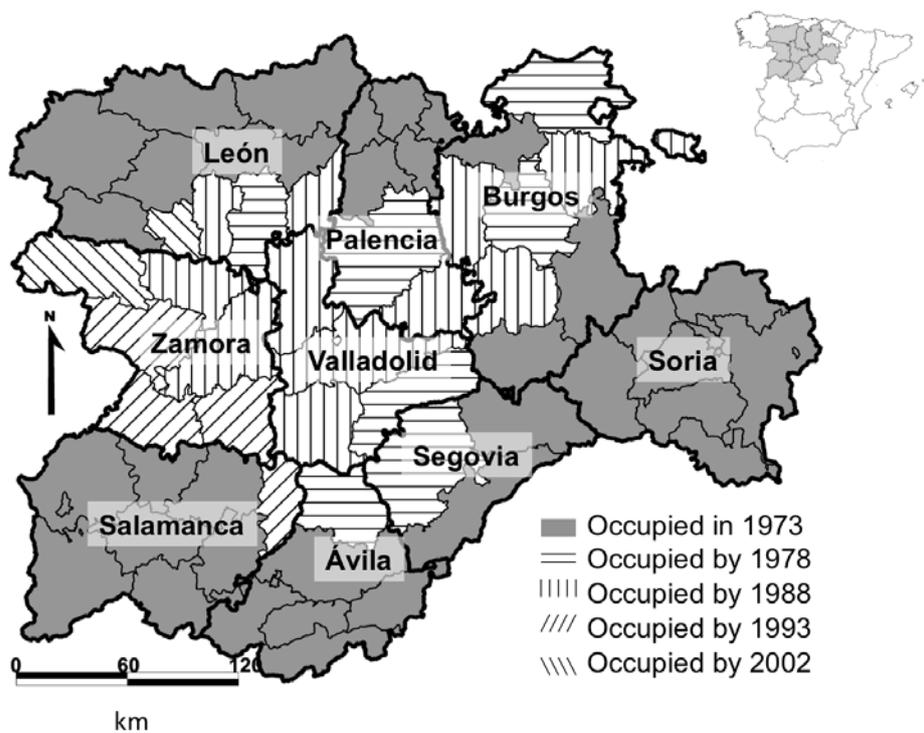
633 **Figure 5.** Results of the cross correlation analyses between the modelled annual vole occupancy  
634 data (% of agrarian counties occupied by common voles) and the annual climate data (top) or  
635 land use data (bottom). The significance of the correlations at different time lags is shown using  
636 bars of different colours (black:  $P < 0.001$ ; grey:  $0.001 < P < 0.05$ ; white:  $P > 0.05$ ).

637 **Figure 6.** Probability of colonization by common voles of an agrarian county according to (a)  
638 the neighbouring vole occupation level (the % of adjacent counties already occupied by voles)  
639 (b) the extent of “green crops” (irrigated herbaceous crops and alfalfa, in % of cultivated surface  
640 area), (c) the abundance of cattle and sheep within the province of the focal agrarian county, and  
641 (d) the interacting effects of neighbouring vole occupation level and of green crop extent. Grey  
642 shades denote SE at both sides of the predicted curves. In (a), (b) and (c), predicted probabilities

643 are plotted by varying one predictor while holding the other predictors constant at median  
644 values.

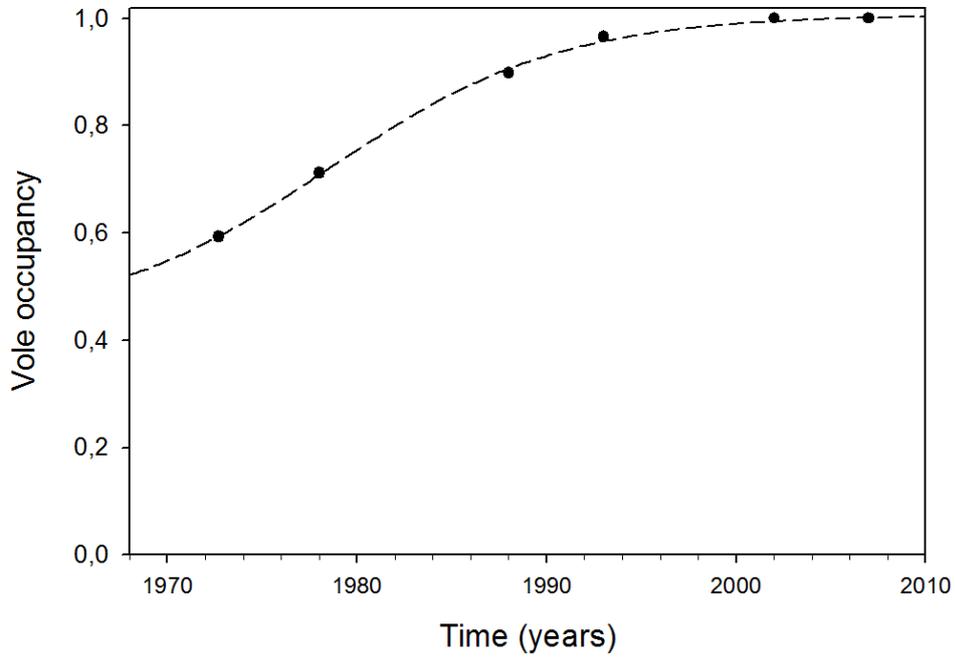
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646 Fig. 1.



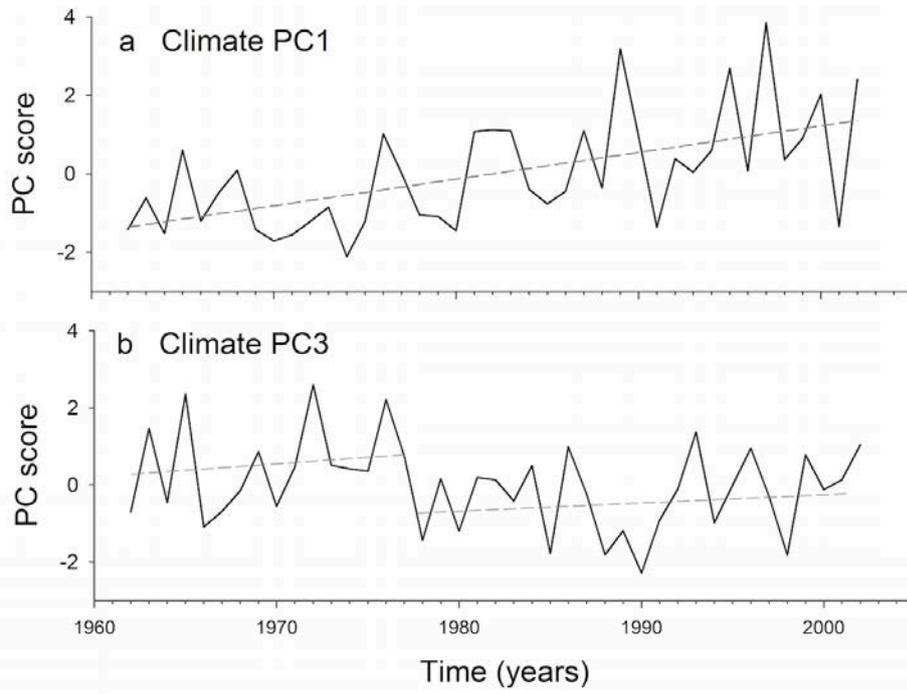
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649 **Figure 2.**  
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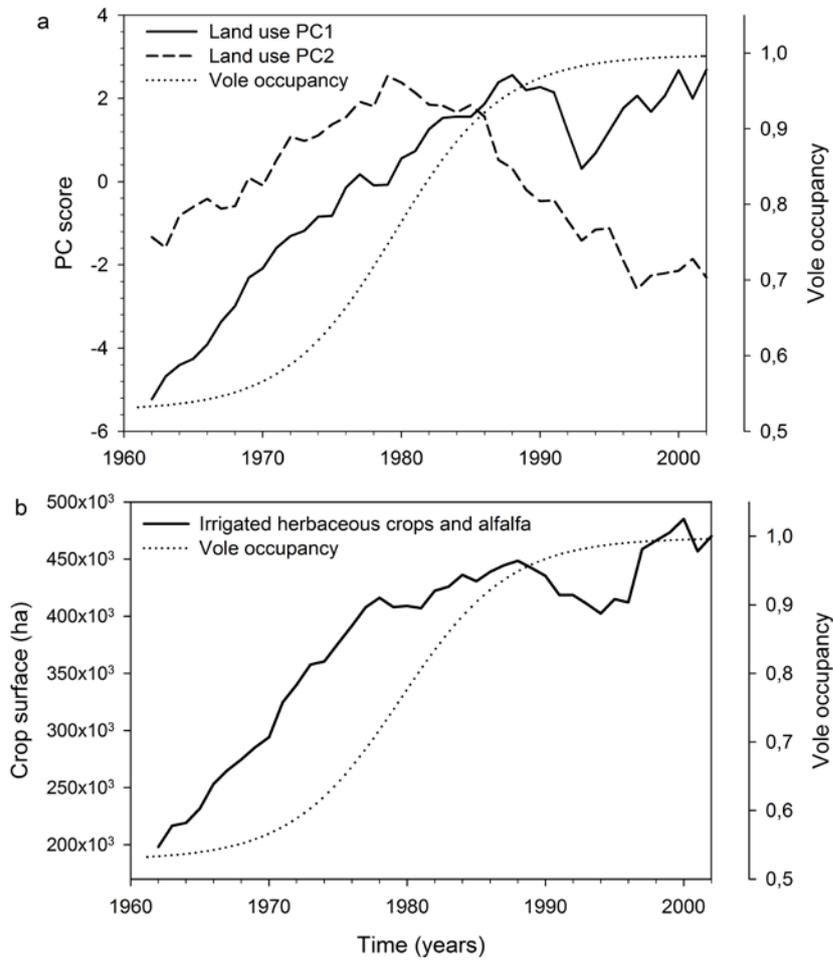
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653 **Figure 3.**



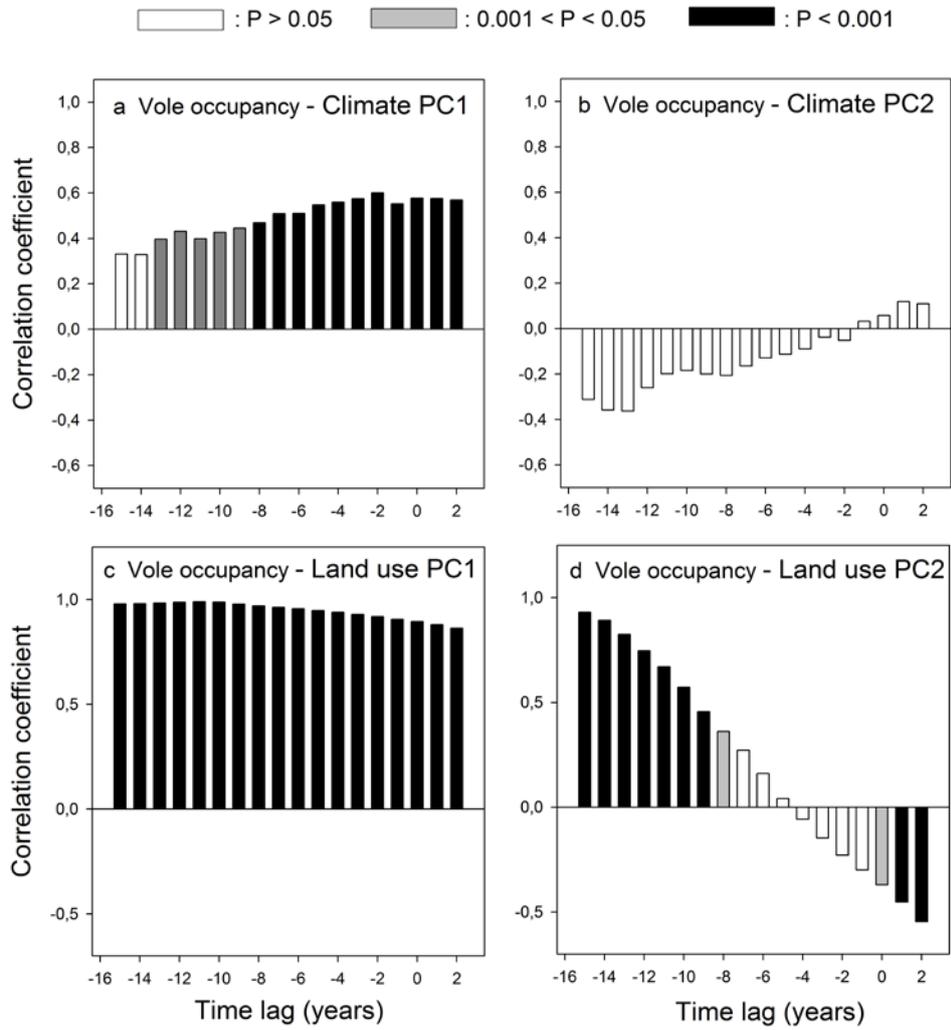
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656 **Figure 4.**



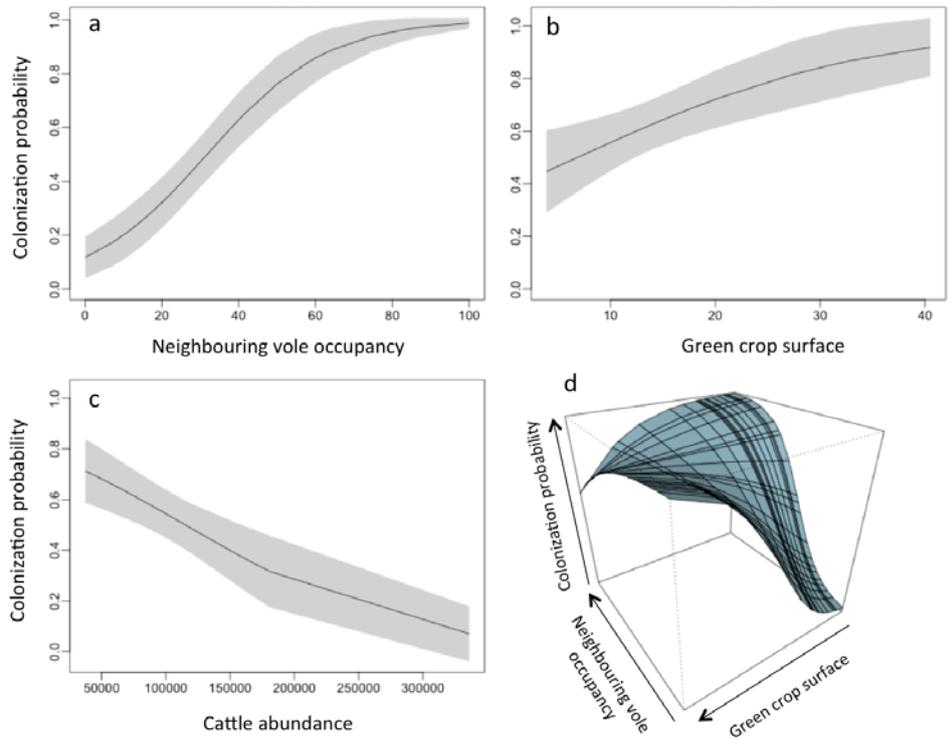
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660 **Figure 5.**



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663 **Figure 6**



664  
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666 **Supplementary Material**

667 **Figure S1.** Region-wide land use trends in Castilla-y-León and vole expansion. Modelled  
668 yearly vole occupancy data (% of agrarian counties occupied by common voles, thin dashed  
669 line; see Fig. 2) are also shown for comparison.

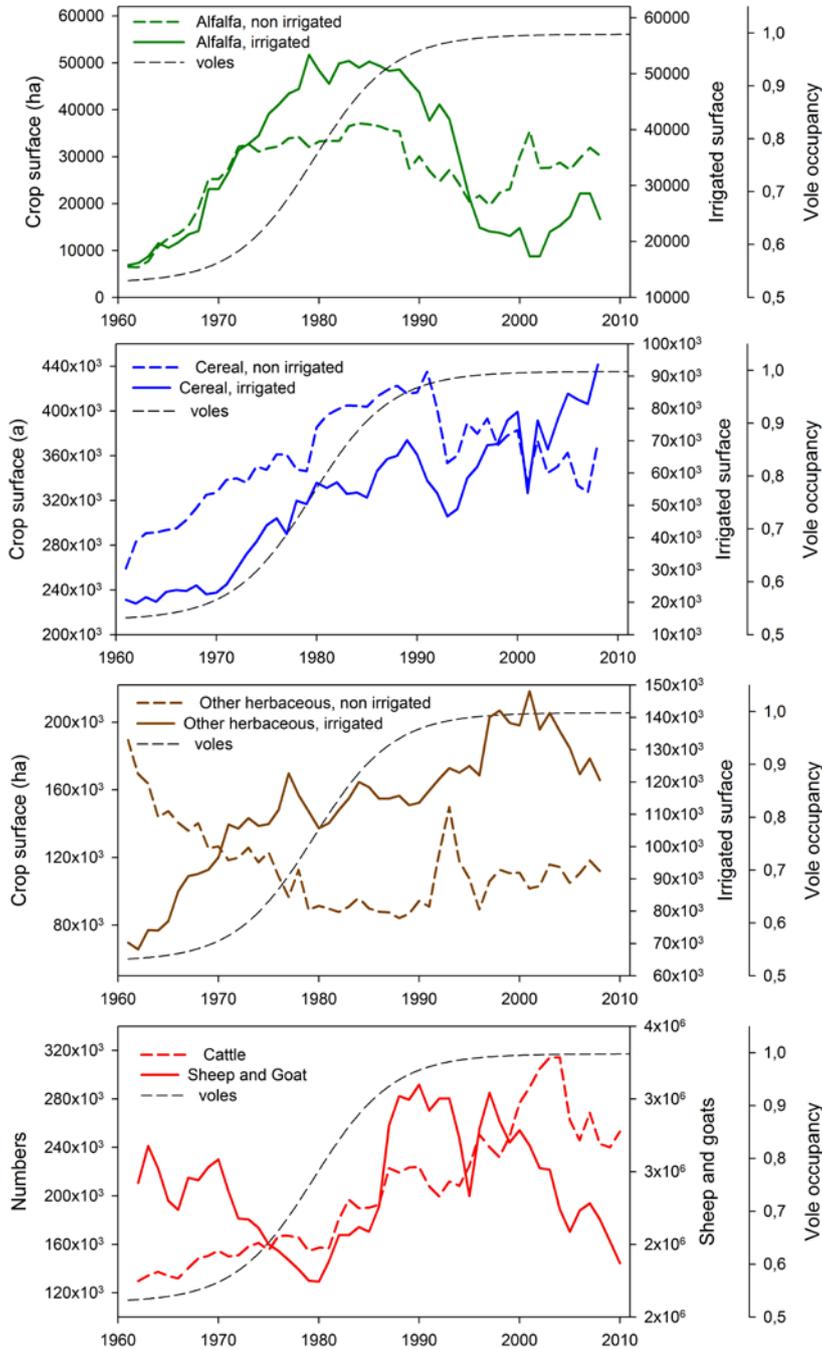
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671 **Figure S2.** Trends in livestock numbers (a: cattle; b: sheep and goats) in Castilla-y-León by  
672 zone. North (black line, includes the provinces of León, Palencia and Burgos), Central (blue  
673 line, includes Valladolid y Zamora) and South (red line, includes Salamanca, Ávila, Segovia  
674 and Soria).

675 **Figure S3.** Trends in average field size (total agrarian surface in each farm divided by total  
676 number of fields in each farm) at the regional level (Castilla-y-León). Data source: “Censos  
677 Agrarios de España”, Instituto Nacional de Estadística (<http://www.ine.es/>) available for the  
678 years 1962, 1972, 1982, 1989 and 1999.

679

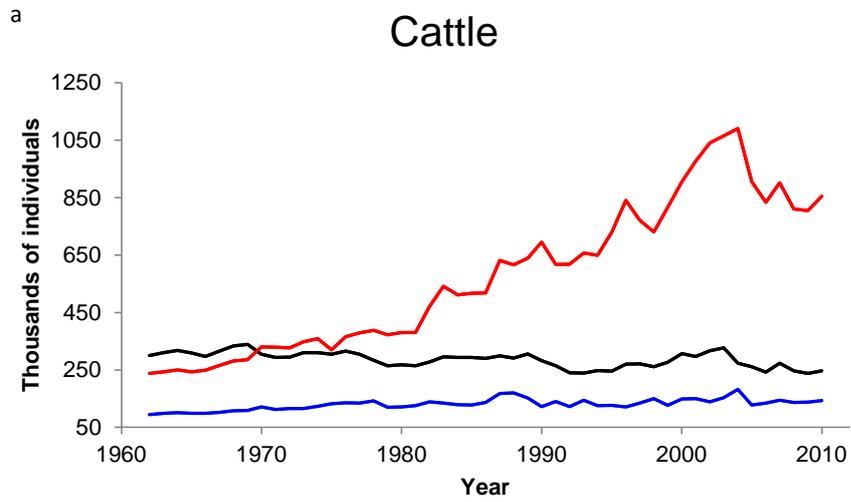
680 Figure S1.



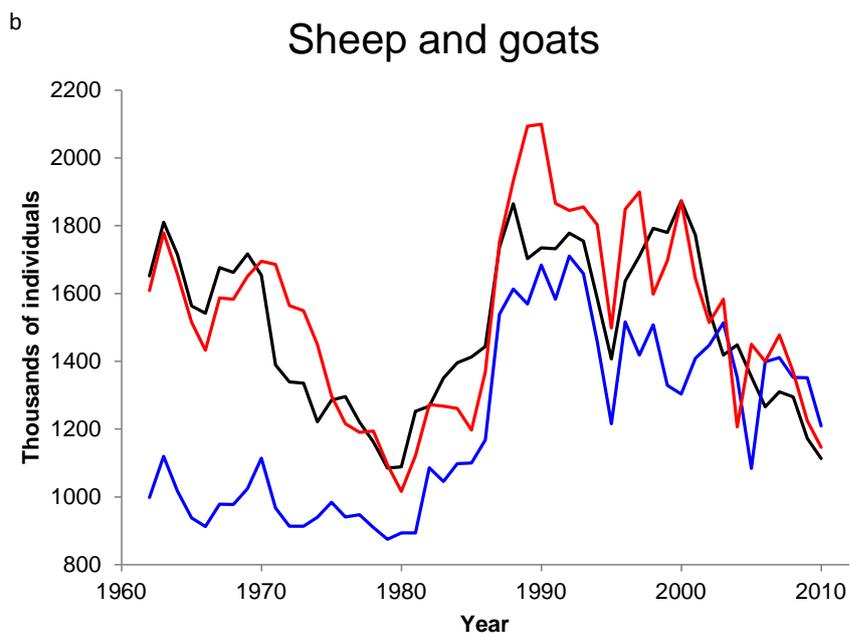
681

682

683 Figure S2.



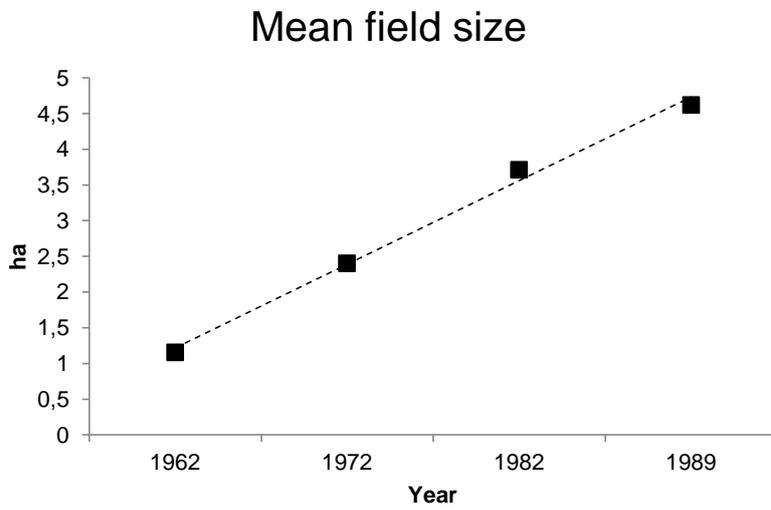
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687 Figure S3.



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