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Title	Camera traps reveal interspecific differences in the diel and seasonal patterns of cicada nymph predation
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Instructions for use

- 1 Camera traps reveal interspecific differences in the diel and seasonal activity patterns
- 2 of cicada nymph predation
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7 Abstract

8	Cicadas, a group of large-bodied insects, are preyed upon at both nymphal and adult
9	stages by diverse range of vertebrates such as birds and mammals. Although the
10	behavior of predators toward adult cicadas is well documented, there is a lack of
11	research on the predation on cicada nymphs. In this study, camera-traps deployed in
12	conifer plantations, in which high population densities of cicadas Lyristes bihamatus
13	emerge, were used to evaluate the seasonal and diel patterns of predation upon cicada
14	nymphs by three predator species, namely brown bears, red foxes, and jungle crows
15	from May to September in 2018 and 2019 in northern Japan. Among all three species,
16	cicada nymph predation occurred until early August when the final instar nymphs fully
17	emerged. Bears were observed to constantly dig for cicada nymphs until early August,
18	whereas foxes and crows were frequently observed foraging from late July to early
19	August, during the season of L. bihamatus emergence. In contract to the powerful
20	digging ability of bears, which facilitates efficient predation upon subterranean cicada
21	nymphs, it is generally difficult for foxes and crows with limited or no digging ability to
22	gain access these nymphs until the period of emergence. Cicada nymph predation by
23	bears and crows was observed primarily during the daytime, despite the typical

24	crepuscular/nocturnal emergence schedules of these insects. Contrastingly, the predatory
25	activities of foxes tended to be nocturnal during the period prior to the beginning of
26	cicada emergence, although subsequently became diurnal during the cicada emergence
27	period. These observations indicate that the temporal activity patterns of cicada nymph
28	predators are determined by interspecific differences in predation abilities and cicada
29	emergence schedules. Accordingly, the findings of this study provide evidence to
30	indicate that the timing and duration of trophic interactions between above- and
31	belowground communities might vary among predator species, depending on their
32	predation abilities.
33	Keywords
34	Aboveground-belowground linkage, circadian rhythm, Corvus macrorhynchos, digging,
35 36	Ursus arctos, Vulpes vulpes
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50 Introduction

51 The use of time is one of the most fundamental aspects in animal behavior (Bennie et 52 al., 2014; Fortin et al., 2002; Jones et al., 2001). Temporal patterns of predation are 53 determined by temporal changes in resource availability (e.g. resource phenology) and 54 the temporal foraging strategies of predators (e.g. circadian rhythms and seasonal dietary changes) (Monterroso et al., 2013; Stanek et al., 2017). Temporal patterns of 55 56 predation can determine the timing and duration of predator-prey interactions 57 (Cunningham et al., 2019; Monterroso et al., 2013). Thus, elucidating the temporal 58 patterns of predation can contribute to deepening our understanding of such 59 interactions. 60 Cicadas, a group of large-bodied insects, are preved upon at both the soil-dwelling 61 nymphal and ground-dwelling adult stages by a range of vertebrate species, including

62 birds and mammals (Pons, 2020; Williams and Simon, 1995). The predation on cicadas

63 can be considered a representative example of the phenomenon whereby subterranean

64 prey are actively sought and consumed by aboveground predators (Polis et al., 2003).

65 Adult cicadas are typically consumed by avian predators as resource pulses over short

66	periods of time (ca. ~1 month) (Koenig and Liebhold, 2005). For instance, during July
67	when raising nestlings, parent Mississippi kites (Ictinia mississippiensis) in North
68	America prey extensively on adult cicadas (Chiavacci et al., 2014; Glinski and Ohmart,
69	1983). Contrastingly, cicada nymphs, which remain belowground for several years prior
70	to eventual emergence, are available for predators for relatively longer periods of time.
71	In Mediterranean mixed pinewood, for instance, red foxes (Vulpes vulpes) have been
72	observed to consume cicada nymphs from April to August (Lovari et al., 1994), while
73	brown bears forage on cicada nymphs from May to July (Tomita and Hiura, 2020).
74	However, although predatory behavior toward adult cicadas is well documented
75	(Steward et al., 1988; Takakura and Yamazaki, 2007; Vandegrift and Hudson, 2009;
76	Williams and Simon, 1995), there are few studies that have examined the behavior of
77	cicada nymph predators (Lovari et al. 1994).

The availability of cicada nymphs for aboveground predators changes depending on the instar and emergence schedules. For example, whereas the highly nutritional final instar nymphs, which remain in surface soil immediately prior to emergence, can be easily captured by shallow digging, earlier instar nymphs inhabiting deeper soil are inaccessible to aboveground predators. During the cicada emergence period, a large

83	amount of final instar cicada nymphs emerge from the ground, during which time they
84	are readily accessible to a wide range of predators (Storm and Whitaker, 2007). Indeed,
85	some studies have reported that the predators of cicada nymphs consume only those
86	individuals in the final instar. (Storm and Whitaker, 2007; Tomita and Hiura, 2020).

87	Whereas predators that are suitably equipped for digging can prey on the
88	subterranean final instar nymphs before the beginning of cicada emergence, predators
89	that are poorly adapted for digging tend to be restricted to preying on the nymphs only
90	during the emergence period. Consequently, it might be anticipated that the seasonal
91	patterns of cicada nymph predation would differ among species, depending on their
92	respective predation abilities (i.e., digging). Cicadas typically emerge around twilight
93	zone, thereby largely escaping the attentions of diurnal predators, such as birds (Allard,
94	1937; Maier, 1982). Given the nocturnal peak of cicada emergence, the diel activity of
95	cicada nymph predators might similarly be expected to show a nocturnal pattern. Thus,
96	the diel patterns of cicada nymph predation might vary not only among predator
97	species, but also in response to cicada emergence schedules even for the same predator
98	species.

99	To elucidate the temporal activity patterns of cicada nymph predators, it is
100	necessary to monitor their activity at sites characterized by high levels of predation. In
101	this regard, camera trapping, which is among the most effective non-invasive survey
102	method for studying animal behavior and activity patterns, can provide continuous data
103	on the temporal activities of free-living animals (Burton et al., 2015; Rowcliffe et al.,
104	2014). In the Shiretoko World Heritage (SWH) site, I have found that brown bears dig
105	for cicada nymphs in conifer plantations in which high densities of the cicada (Lyristes
106	bihamatus) emerge (Tomita and Hiura, 2021). Camera-traps preliminarily detected that
107	jungle crows (Corvus macrorhynchos), red foxes and brown bears frequently visit larch
108	(Larix kaempferi) plantations to prey on cicada nymphs (Fig.1). Accordingly, in this
109	study, I evaluated the diel and seasonal patterns of cicada nymph predation by these
110	three predator species, using camera traps at high predation sites in the SWH (Fig. 1,
111	Online Resource; ESM_1-3). Previous studies that have reported cicada nymph
112	predation by these species have already reported (Asabu, 1999; Lovari et al., 1994;
113	Tomita and Hiura, 2020). There are differences in digging abilities among these species:
114	with crows being unable to dig, and brown bears being more effective soil excavators
115	than red foxes. It can be predicted that such interspecific differences in digging ability
116	might yield differences among these species with respect to the seasonal patterns of

117	predation on cicada nymphs. For instance, crows would be restricted to prey on cicada
118	nymphs only during emergence season. Moreover, given the differences in the diel
119	activity patterns of these predator species (Ikeda et al., 2016; Kondo et al., 2010), the
120	diel patterns of cicada nymph predation may also show interspecific variation.
121	Accordingly, I also examined interspecific differences in the diel patterns of cicada
122	nymph predation during the cicada emergence periods. Notably, the average density of
123	emerging cicadas in larch plantations in 2018 (20.20 \pm 18.71 / 100m ²) was lower than
124	that in 2019 (87.07 \pm 47.72 / 100m ²) (Tomita and Hiura, 2021), and thereby provided an
125	opportunity to focus on behavioral differences in cicada nymph predation between two
126	consecutive years in response to differences in the availability of cicada nymphs.

127 Methods

128 Study site

129	This study was conducted on the Horobetsu-Iwaobetsu plateau (total area = 860 ha,
130	44°09=N, 145°02=E) located in the western parts of the SWH (Fig. 2). The elevation
131	ranged from 120 to 220 m. The annual mean temperature at the study site was 6.2 °C.
132	and the monthly mean temperature ranged from -10.4 °C in February to 15.1 °C in
133	August (1981–2010). The UNESCO certified this area as a World Natural Heritage site
134	because it represents one of the richest northern temperate ecosystems in the world
135	(<u>http://whc.unesco.org/en/list/1193</u>). The natural forests on the site are conifer-
136	broadleaved mixed forests mainly consisting of Sakhalin fir (Abies sachalinensis),
137	Mongolian oak (Quercus crispula), and maple (Acer mono) (Suzuki et al. 2021). The
138	natural forests accounted for 82% of the forest area in the study site. The plantations
139	accounted for 18% of the total forest area. Sakhalin spruce (Picea glehnii), larch and
140	Sakhalin fir plantations account for 13%, 4%, and 1%, respectively (Tomita and Hiura,
141	2021). Two native cicada species, L. bihamatus and Yezoterpnosia nigricosta, only
142	occur in forest of the SWH and emerge during summer and spring, respectively. In the
143	larch plantations, the emergence densities of <i>L. bihamatus</i> were higher than those of <i>Y</i> .

144	nigricosta in both 2018 and 2019. The same investigation for evaluating the density of
145	L. bihamatus (Tomita and Hiura, 2021) revealed that the densities of Y. nigricosta
146	exuviae in the larch plantations in 2018 and 2019 were 2.06 \pm 3.36 / $100m^2$ and 3.67 \pm
147	3.60 / 100m ² , respectively (Tomita unpublished data). Thus, I assumed cicada nymph
148	predation occurring within the larch plantations was exclusively for L. bihamatus.
149	Hereafter, the term "cicada (s)" is in reference to L. bihamatus unless otherwise stated.

150	Information on the ecology of cicada nymph predators in this area is currently only
151	available for brown bears (Tomita and Hiura, 2021, 2020). Eleven individual bears,
152	including two sub-adults, two solitary female adults, and three females with cub(s) were
153	observed digging for cicada nymphs at the study site in 2018 (Tomita and Hiura, 2020).
154	In 2019, eleven individual bears, including one adult male, one sub-adult, two solitary
155	adult females, and three females with cub(s) were observed digging for cicada nymphs
156	at the study site. Individual identification by each year was based on color, marks, body
157	size, and family structure of the bears. In the study site, brown bear preys on the final-
158	instar nymphs of <i>L. bihamatus</i> , but not <i>Y. nigricosta</i> and the proportion of <i>L. bihamatus</i>
159	nymphs in bear scats was estimated to be 14.3% in 2018 (Tomita and Hiura, 2020).
160	Brown bears only dig for cicada nymphs in the plantation, and the frequency of digging

161	was the highest in the larch plantation compared to other plantation types such as spruce
162	and fir plantations (Tomita and Hiura 2021, Tomita and Hiura in press). The emergence
163	density of cicadas in the larch plantation was higher than that in the natural forest and
164	the spruce plantation, and approximately the same amount as that in the fir plantation
165	(Tomita and Hiura, 2021) . Accordingly, I established camera traps in the larch
166	plantations to evaluate the temporal patterns of cicada nymph predation.

167 **Camera-trap survey**

168	In 2017, I conducted a preliminary survey to determine the survey plots by setting
169	camera traps (Tomita & Hiura 2020). As a result, I found eight candidate larch stands
170	where brown bear digging had intensively occurred and cicada emergence density was
171	the highest around other forest stands. These forest stands had a high potential for
172	observing cicada nymph predation events by bears and other predators. From May 15 to
173	September 15 in 2018 and 2019, I set eight survey plots (5 m \times 10 m = 50 m ²) in these
174	larch plantations (Fig. 1) and two infrared-triggered cameras (LTL Acorn 5210a; LTL
175	Acorn Outdoors, Green Bay, Wisconsin, USA) in each plot. The plot size was
176	determined based on resolution of cameras to tolerate behavioral observation and the
177	ability of red infrared sensor (c.a. 5 m). I had already conducted a preliminary test for

178	quantifying these abilities of the used sensor cameras beforehand in this study. The
179	cameras were located at the opposite ends of the long side of the survey plot so that the
180	total area of the plot could be observed. The cameras were placed on a larch trunk 1.0 -
181	1.5 m above the ground and its effective height range is assumed to be about from 0 m
182	to 1.5 m because the camera trap survey was originally designed to observe brown bear
183	behavior. Most exuviae on a tree trunk could be observed under 2 m and, sometimes at
184	3 m, indicating that most cicadas molted under 2 m height of a tree (Tomita and Hiura,
185	2021). Thus, it is possible to underestimate the activity of crows over 1.5 m height
186	through overlooking a certain predation by crows outside the camera's range (i.e. over
187	1.5 m height) even though I can compare the relative values of crow activities among
188	years and seasons owing to the same methods among both years. All cameras were
189	programmed to take 30-second videos with 5-minute intervals to classify the behavioral
190	types of predators and acquire data on the detailed activity time. All videos provided the
191	recording date and time.

Behavior classification 192

193 Behavior of brown bear and red fox was categorized into three types: digging, 194 moving (i.e., only walking), and foraging on the ground (e.g. climbing tree and/or

195	capturing cicada nymphs on tree trunks). Given that the purpose of tree climbing in
196	foxes is predation on arboreal prey (Mella et al., 2018; Murdoch et al., 2004) and such
197	prey of red fox is only cicada nymphs in the study site (Tsukada and Nonaka 1996,
198	Tomita personal observation), this behavior was regarded as cicada nymph predation.
199	Crow behavior was categorized into two types: predation and searching for cicada
200	nymphs. Crows perching on a tree branch were regarded to be searching for cicada
201	nymphs. The reasons for this consideration were: (1) the crows several meter from the
202	ground could only be resting or searching for foods, because moving of crows is only
203	by flight and (2) the crows would not perch on a tree branch for rest, because crows
204	were captured by camera-traps only during the daytime (see Fig. 3e) and crows usually
205	rest at night (Kondo et al., 2010).

206 **Data analysis**

To assess the seasonal activity patterns of predation on cicada nymphs, I defined the following as independent events: (1) consecutive videos of different individuals of the same or different species, and (2) consecutive videos of individuals of the same species taken more than 0.5 hours apart (O'Brien et al., 2003). Event frequency was defined as the number of independent events per trap-night. I divided the survey period

212	into three seasons: the pre-emergence period (from May 15 to July 14), cicada
213	emergence period (from July 15 to August 9), and the post-emergence period (from
214	August 10 to September 15). Because the first observed dates of cicada exuviae are 13
215	July and 15 July in 2018 and 2019, respectively, I set the cicada emergence period as
216	14 July. This date are roughly consistent with Hayashi and Saisho (2011). Because
217	cicada emergence in Japan generally continues about 3-4 weeks (namely, 21-28 days)
218	(Hayashi and Saisho, 2011; Sato and Sato, 2015), I set the cicada emergence period
219	from 15 July to 9 August (25 days). One-way ANOVA and Tukey's multiple
220	comparison tests were used to compare the event frequencies across cicada emergence
221	periods. Multiple comparison was performed when the ANOVA indicated a significant
222	difference ($P < 0.05$). These analyses were applied to each behavior of each species.
223	To assess the diel patterns of cicada nymph predation, I calculated video frequency
224	(the number of videos per hour) as the index of animal activity levels (Ikeda et al.,
225	2016; Tobler et al., 2008). To consider the changes in daylength across seasons, I
226	divided the daily time periods into two categories: daytime (from sunrise to sunset)
227	and night-time (from sunset to sunrise) for each cicada emergence period according to
228	the information on the sunset and sunrise times provided by the National Astronomical

229	Observatory of Japan (<u>https://eco.mtk.nao.ac.jp/koyomi/</u>). During the pre-emergence
230	period, the average sunrise and sunset times are 3:45 (3:37 - 3:54) and 18:54 (18:34 -
231	19:02), respectively. During the cicada emergence period, the average sunrise and
232	sunset times were 4:02 (3:50 – 4:15) and 18:48 (18:31 – 18:56), respectively. For the
233	pre-emergence and cicada emergence periods, daytime and nighttime were defined as
234	4:00-19:00 and 19:00-4:00, respectively. I didn't perform statistical analysis for the
235	data on diel activity patterns during the post-emergence period because there were few
236	videos captured during this period (Table 2, 3). Data on diel activity patterns was
237	pooled between 2018 and 2019. Generalized linear mixed models (GLMMs) with log
238	link and Poisson error distribution, and with year as a random factor were used to
239	compare the video frequency between daytime and nighttime. These analyses were
240	applied to each behavior of each species. All statistical analyses were conducted using
241	R version 3.5.1 (R Core Team, 2018).

242 **Results**

243	In 2018, 411 videos and 311 events were recorded: 111 videos and 71 events for
244	brown bears, 299 videos and 239 events for red foxes, and 1 video for crows. In 2019,
245	369 videos and 321 events were recorded: 112 videos and 73 events for brown bears,
246	181 videos and 175 events for red foxes, and 76 videos and 68 events for crows. The
247	number of videos and event frequencies for each behavior across the three species in
248	2018 and 2019 are listed in Table 1. I did not perform statistical analyses on data on
249	brown bear foraging, behaviors of crows in 2018, and the diel activity patterns of all
250	species in the post-emergence period due to low video frequencies.

251 Seasonal patterns of cicada nymph predation

- 252 All species were mainly recorded during the pre-emergence and emergence periods in
- both survey years (Fig. 3).

254 **Brown bears**

- In 2018, the event frequency of digging was the highest in the pre-emergence
- 256 period (TukeyHSD, P < 0.05), but there was no significant difference in the frequency
- of this behavior across cicada emergence periods in 2019 (ANOVA, $F_{1,85} = 0.62$, P =

258	0.432; Fig. 3a, b). In 2018, there was no significant difference in the event frequency of
259	moving across cicada emergence periods (ANOVA, $F_{2,121} = 1.572$, $P = 0.212$), but the
260	frequency was higher in the emergence period than in the pre-emergence period in 2019
261	(ANOVA, $F_{1,85} = 10.20$, $P = 0.002$; Fig. 3a, b, Tables 2 and 3). There was a larger
262	proportion of digging behavior to the total event frequency in the pre-emergence period
263	than in the emergence period in both years. In 2018, this proportion in pre-emergence
264	and emergence periods was 0.81 and 0.55, respectively. In 2019, this proportion in pre-
265	emergence and emergence periods was 0.78 and 0.37, respectively.

266 **Red fox**

267 Digging occurred during the pre-emergence and emergence periods, and the event 268 frequency in the pre-emergence period was significantly higher than that in the 269 emergence period in 2018 (ANOVA, $F_{1,85} = 4.24$, P = 0.042; Fig.3c), but there was no significant difference in 2019 (ANOVA, $F_{1.85} = 0.48$, P = 0.491; Fig. 3d). The event 270 271 frequency of moving was the highest in the emergence period, and the difference in the 272 frequency of moving between the pre-emergence and post-emergence periods was not 273 significant in either year (TukeyHSD, P < 0.05). Foraging was observed only during the 274 emergence period. There was a larger proportion of digging behavior to the total event

275 frequency in the pre-emergence period than in emergence period. In 2018, this

proportion in pre-emergence and emergence periods was 0.32 and 0.02, respectively,

while in 2019, it was 0.29 and 0.03, respectively.

278 Jungle crow

279 The event frequency of foraging and searching was significantly higher in the

- 280 cicada emergence period than in the pre-emergence period (TukeyHSD, P < 0.05; Fig.
- 281 3e, Table 3). There were no videos of crows during the post-emergence period.

282 Diel patterns of cicada nymph predation

In both survey years, almost all videos of brown bears and jungle crows were
recorded during the daytime (Figure S1). The video frequencies of each behavior for

- both species was significantly higher during the daytime than the nighttime, regardless
- of the cicada emergence season (GLMM, P < 0.001; Fig. 4a,c). For red foxes, the
- 287 frequency of digging captured by video did not significantly differ between the daytime
- and nighttime during both periods (GLMM, P > 0.1). During the cicada emergence
- 289 period, the video frequency of fox foraging in the daytime was significantly higher than
- 290 the nighttime (GLMM, P = 0.031). The video frequency of foxes moving was

significantly higher in the daytime than the nighttime during the emergence period (GLMM, P < 0.001; Fig.4b). In contrast, the frequency was lower during the nighttime than the daytime during the pre-emergence period (GLMM, P < 0.001; Fig, 4b).

294 **Discussion**

295	In both survey years, brown bears, red foxes, and jungle crows were mainly
296	observed in study plots during the pre-emergence and emergence periods, and were
297	generally absent post-emergence period (Fig.3), thereby indicating that cicada nymph
298	predation continued until the end of cicada emergence. This would tend to confirm that
299	final instar nymphs, the most accessible prey across the cicada nymphal stages, are the
300	main targets of the three assessed predators. The seasonal predation patterns of foxes
301	were similar to those of crows, but differed from those of bears. Given their superior
302	digging ability, brown bears are able to gain access to the nymphs for longer periods
303	than other predators, whereas red foxes and jungle crows with limited or no digging
304	ability are typically restricted to preying on nymphs during the period of cicada
305	emergence. Thus, interspecific differences in the seasonal patterns of cicada nymph
306	predation tend to reflect interspecific differences in predation ability (i.e., digging). In

307	the case of brown bears and red foxes, the proportion of digging behavior to the total
308	event frequency during the emergence period was greater than that during the pre-
309	emergence period (Fig. 3a-d), indicating a temporal change in the mode of cicada
310	nymph predation from digging to predation on the ground in response to the sequence
311	of events in cicada emergence schedule.

312 Temporal patterns of cicada nymph predation by brown bears

313	In 2018, the event frequency of brown bears during the cicada emergence period
314	was lower than that during the pre-emergence period (Fig.3a), even though the energy
315	expenditure for predation on cicada nymphs might have the lowest during the cicada
316	emergence period, when bears could have readily preyed upon the nymphs without
317	digging. This seemingly counter-intuitive observation may be attributable to the lower
318	importance of nymphs for bears during the cicada emergence period compared with that
319	during the pre-emergence period. At the SWH site, from late July, brown bears start
320	foraging on nuts of the Japanese stone pine (Pinus pumila), which are present in
321	subalpine areas (at an elevation of approx. 600-1,100 m) (Shirane et al., 2021).
322	Accordingly, the main foraging habitat of bears may change from forests to subalpine
323	areas during the cicada emergence period; and consequently, there might be a reduction

324	in cicada nymph predation by bears during this period, even though the emerging cicada
325	nymphs would be readily accessible to bears. However, in 2019, the event frequency
326	during the cicada emergence period did not differ significantly from that during the pre-
327	emergence period (Fig.3b). Given that the cicada emergence densities at the study site in
328	2019 were higher than those in 2018 (Tomita and Hiura, 2021), I speculate that bears
329	may have prolonged the duration of cicada nymph predation in 2019 owing to the
330	higher availability of nymphs. Indeed, the foraging behavior of brown bears, which
331	consume diverse food items across multiple ecosystems, changes depending on the food
332	availability from coastal to alpine areas (Shirane et al. 2021). More detailed information
333	on food availability across ecosystems is required to deepen our understanding of how
334	bears utilize these resources.



341	However, human activities make the activity time of brown bears nocturnal (Kaczensky
342	et al., 2006; Wheat and Wilmers, 2016). Nevertheless, despite the fact that many people
343	visit the study site for sightseeing (Shimozuru et al., 2020) and most of the survey plots
344	are located near to roads that are frequently used by humans (Fig.2), I observed that
345	cicada nymph predation by bears occurred diurnally, coinciding both temporally and
346	spatially with human activities. Thus, it would appear that human activities at this study
347	site have yet to promote a temporal shift in bear foraging behavior. The potential reason
348	is human habituation. In Southeast Alaska, USA, for instance, the activity patterns of
349	human-habituated bears have become diurnal, whereas non-habituated bears are mainly
350	active during the night (Wheat and Wilmers, 2016). In the present study area, bears have
351	been released from hunting pressure following the designation of the site as a protected
352	area, even though park managers frequently drive away bears appearing along the
353	roadside into the forest (Shimozuru et al., 2020). Such a situation may lead to human
354	habituation of bears. Another plausible explanation for the observed diurnal activity of
355	brown bears is a sex-related difference in diel activity that females show a greater extent
356	of diurnal activity than males, which could be attributable to the avoidance of
357	infanticide by male bears (Schwartz et al., 2010). This sex difference in diurnal activity
358	of foraging behavior is consistent with the findings of Tomita and Hiura (2020), who

found that the brown bears observed digging for cicada nymphs mainly consist ofsolitary females or females accompanied by cubs.

361 Temporal patterns of cicada nymph predation by red foxes The foraging behavior of red foxes mainly consist of moving, which is inferred to 362 363 be indicative of searching for cicada nymphs, as the frequency of movement was 364 observed to be the highest during the period of cicada emergence and lowest during the 365 post-emergence period. Given that the home range size of red foxes at the study site has 366 been shown not to change from May to August (Tsukada, 1997; Tsukada and Nonaka, 367 1996), a higher event frequency in the cicada emergence period than that in the pre-368 emergence period can be interpreted as an increase in the intensity of cicada nymph 369 predation rather than an increase in their overall activity levels. The life history of red 370 foxes isn't likely to influence their seasonal patterns of cicada nymph predation because 371 juvenile foxes become independence from their parents during autumn and winter 372 seasons(Yoneda and Maekawa, 1982), which were not assessed in the camera trap 373 survey of the present study.

374 Whereas during the pre-emergence period, the diel patterns of red fox predation on

375	cicada nymphs were broadly consistent, predatory activity was observed to be
376	significantly higher during the daytime than at night during the period of emergence
377	(Fig. 4b). Given that cicada emergence is usually crepuscular and nocturnal (Allard,
378	1937; Maier, 1982), the nymphs would be readily accessible to ground-searching foxes
379	at these times of the day during the emergence period. However, even though cicada
380	emergence usually continues throughout night, the predatory activity of foxes tended to
381	be concentrated in the evening between 16:00 and 18:00, with the frequency of
382	predatory events decreasing thereafter. I speculate that foxes depend primarily on the
383	visual cues for predation on cicada nymphs and hence would be able to detect the
384	location of nymphs more accurately prior to sunset. Accordingly, the diel patterns of
385	cicada nymph predation by foxes might be determined by a combination of the
386	circadian patterns of cicada emergence and the sensory properties of foxes. Consistent
387	with this supposition, the diel activity patterns of red foxes in a Mediterranean mixed
388	forest in Italy have been observed to change in response to the circadian patterns of prey
389	animals (Lovari et al., 1994).

Temporal patterns of cicada nymph predation by jungle crows

391 Given that jungle crows forage exclusively during the hours of daylight (Kondo et

392	al., 2010), the diel patterns of cicada nymph predation by these crows are generally
393	consistent with their overall diel activity patterns. An increase in the event frequency of
394	jungle crows from pre-emergence to cicada emergence periods indicates that they
395	ambush the emerging cicada nymphs. Pons (2020) reported that the true cicadas
396	(Cicadidae) preyed upon by avian predators consist primarily of adults. However, final
397	instar cicada nymphs, which would be more readily captured than adults, could have
398	potential value as a food resource for birds. The use of final instar cicada nymphs as
399	prey by avian predators may be underestimated owing to the shorter periods during
400	which nymphs are available to birds compared with adult cicadas.

401	Interestingly, my camera traps captured crows only a single time in 2018 when the
402	cicada emergence density was lower than in 2019, although this might represent an
403	underestimate of the absolute frequency of predatory events, considering the likelihood
404	cicada nymph predation by crows at sites beyond the detection range of the installed
405	cameras. In North America, numerous avian predators, including American crows
406	(Corvus brachyrhynchos), only have the opportunity to prey on periodical cicadas once
407	every 13 or 17 years, and never prey on cicadas during the intervening non-emergence
408	years (Koenig and Liebhold, 2005). Although at the present study site, the temporal

availability of prey does not differ as markedly as that for avian predators of periodical
cicadas, jungle crows might plastically determine whether to prey on cicada nymphs in
response to annual fluctuations in cicada emergence density.

412 Importance of the seasonal use of plantations by insectivorous

413 vertebrates for evaluating their role as wildlife habitats

414 The findings of this study revealed seasonal changes in the frequency of plantation 415 visits by cicada nymph predators, namely brown bears, red foxes, and jungle crows. The 416 frequency of these visits was found to peak in the period between May and August, with 417 a subsequent reduction in visitations from August to September (Fig. 3). These 418 observations accordingly indicate that larch plantations serve as a foraging habitat for 419 cicada nymph predators over a limited period of the year from late spring to late 420 summer. Recently, there has been growing evidence that plantations are a more valuable 421 source of wildlife habitats than previously thought (Brockerhoff et al., 2008;

422 Lindenmayer and Hobbs, 2004). Nevertheless, although numerous studies have

423 indicated that plantations play an important role as foraging habitats for wildlife (e.g.,

424 Lantschner et al. 2012; Castaño-Villa et al. 2019; Tomita and Hiura 2021), there is

425 currently a lack of evidence regarding the effects of seasonal changes on this role.

Given a seasonal fluctuation of the availability of insects such as cicadas, the value of plantations for insectivorous vertebrates as foraging habitats would also be expected to change throughout the year. Accordingly, in term of evaluating the role of plantations as wildlife habitats the seasonal differences in the use of plantations by wildlife certainly warrants greater consideration.

431 **Do the timing and duration of aboveground-belowground trophic**

432 interactions vary depending on predator functional traits ?

433 Although energy flow from belowground to aboveground communities via

434 predation is a key process in terrestrial food webs (Bardgett and Wardle, 2010; Scheu,

435 2001), the associated temporal aspects such as the timing and duration of predator-prey

436 interactions across these communities are poorly understood (Bardgett et al., 2005).

- 437 Cicada nymph predation by aboveground predators is a form of aboveground-
- 438 belowground trophic interactions (Polis et al. 2003). This study found interspecific
- 439 differences in the seasonal patterns of cicada nymph predation, indicating that the
- timing and duration of aboveground-belowground trophic interactions differ among
- 441 predator species, depending on their predation abilities. Accordingly, to gain a more in-
- 442 depth understanding of the temporal aspects of trophic interactions between above- and

belowground communities, we should focus to a greater extent on the interspecific
differences among predator functional traits, such as body size and predatory ability
(e.g., digging).

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596

598 Tables

599 Table 1 The number of videos and the event frequency of each behavior of brown bears, red foxes,

600 and jungle crows in 2018 and 2019. The event frequency is defined as the number of independent

601 events. A row "Moving/Searching" represent "Moving" for bears and foxes, but for crows, it indicates

602 "Searching".

	Frequency	Year	Behavior			
Species			Digging	Foraging	Moving/ Searching	Total
	events	2018	53	0	18	71
Brown bear		2019	45	3	25	73
Ursus arctos	videos	2018	88	0	23	111
		2019	78	3	31	112
	events	2018	26	14	199	239
Red fox		2019	14	11	150	175
Vulpes vulpes	videos	2018	29	14	256	299
		2019	14	11	156	181
	events	2018	—	1	0	1
Jungle crow		2019	—	11	57	68
Corvus	videos	2018	-	1	0	1
macrornynchos		2019	—	15	61	76

603

Table 2 The event frequency in each behavior of the brown bear (*Ursus arctos*), the red fox (*Vulpes vulpes*), and the jungle crow (*Corvus macrorhynchos*) among cicada emergence schedules ((preemergence: May 15 to July 14, emergence: July 15 to August 9, post-emergence: August 10 to September 15) in 2018. The event frequency is defined as the number of independent events per trapnight.

Species	Behavior	Pre-emergence	Emergence	Post-emergence
	Digging	0.09426±0.15588ª	0.02885±0.10190 ^b	0.00338±0.02025 ^b
Brown bear Ursus arctos	Foraging	0	0	0
	Moving	$0.02254{\pm}0.05356^{a}$	$0.02404{\pm}0.05024^{a}$	0.00676 ± 0.02866^{a}
	Digging	0.04713±0.07625ª	0.01442 ± 0.04073^{b}	0
Red fox Vulpes vulpes	Foraging	$0.00205 {\pm} 0.01600^{a}$	$0.06250 {\pm} 0.12374^{b}$	0
, <i>mp</i> co , mp co	Moving	0.09836±0.1481ª	0.68269±0.53529 ^b	0.03041 ± 0.05437^{a}
Jungle crow	Foraging	0	0.00100±0.03175	0
Corvus macrorhynchos	Searching	0	0	0

610 Means ±SD are presented. Tukey test was used for a multiple-comparison correction. Different

611 superscript letters indicate significant differences in the event frequency of each behavior among

612 cicada emergence periods, tested by the multiple-comparison correction.

613 Table 3 The event frequency in each behavior of brown bears, red foxes, and jungle crows among the

614 cicada emergence schedules (pre-emergence: May 15 to July 14, emergence: July 15 to August 9, post-

615 emergence: August 10 to September 15) in 2019. The event frequency is defined as the number of

616 independent events per trap-night.

Species	Species Behavior Pre-emergence		Emergence	Post-emergence
	Digging	0.07172±0.14336 ^a	0.04808±0.07966ª	0
Brown bear Ursus arctos	Foraging	0.00205±0.01601ª	0.00962±0.03397ª	0
	Moving	0.01844±0.05513ª	0.07212±0.10108 ^b	0
	Digging	$0.02254{\pm}0.05356^{a}$	0.01442 ± 0.04073^{a}	0
Red fox Vulpes vulpes	Foraging	0	0.05289±0.08784	0
	Moving	$0.11271 {\pm} 0.12850^{a}$	$0.42789 {\pm} 0.37943^{b}$	0.02027 ± 0.05523^{a}
Jungle crow	Foraging	0.00615±0.02726 ^a	0.06731±0.20381 ^b	0
<i>corvus</i> macrorhynchos	Searching	0.05533±0.14528 ^a	0.1394±0.18482 ^b	0

617 Means ±SD are presented. Tukey test was used for a multiple-comparison correction. Different

618 superscript letters indicate significant differences in the event frequency of each behavior among619 cicada emergence periods, tested by the multiple-comparison correction.

621 Figure legends

622 Figure 1 Photographs associated with cicada nymph predation in the study site. (a) brown bear

623 digging for cicada nymphs; (b) jungle crows on tree branches and ground; (c) red fox digging

624 for cicada nymph; (d) red fox climbing on a *Larix kaempferi* tree for searching cicada nymphs

625 (e) a fox's scat containing exoskeleton of cicada nymphs. Photographs (a-d) were taken by

626 camera traps set in the *L. kaempferi* plantations.

Figure 2 Location of the survey plots superimposed on a map of the study site. Bold and thinlines indicate roadway and forest road, respectively.

Figure 3 The event frequencies of each behavior of brown bears (a-b), red foxes (c-d), and
jungle crow (e) among the cicada emergence periods (pre-emergence: May 15 to July 14,
emergence: July 15 to August 9, post-emergence: August 10 to September 15) in 2018 (a, c) and
2019 (b, d, e). Event frequency is defined as the number of independent events per trap-night.
For bears and foxes (a-d), black, dark gray and gray bars indicate digging, moving (only
walking), foraging on the ground (e.g., climbing tree and/or capturing nymph on tree trunk),

635 respectively. For crows (e), black and gray bars indicate searching and foraging behaviors,

636 respectively.

637 Figure 4 Diel activity patterns in brown bears (a), red foxes (b), and jungle crows (c) during the

pre-emergence (May 15 to July 14, left panel) and cicada emergence (July 15 to August 9, right

639 panel) periods. The video frequency was defined as the number of videos per hour. Dark shaded

640 areas indicate the nighttime (19:00-4:00) in the pre-emergence and cicada emergence periods.

641 For bears and foxes (a,b), black, dark gray and gray bars indicate digging, moving (only

642 walking), foraging on the ground (e.g., climbing tree and/or capturing nymph on tree trunk),

643 respectively. For crows (c), black and gray bars indicate searching and foraging behaviors,

644 respectively.

Figure 1



Figure 2









655 Figure 4

