



**Murdoch**  
UNIVERSITY

## MURDOCH RESEARCH REPOSITORY

*This is the author's final version of the work, as accepted for publication following peer review but without the publisher's layout or pagination. The definitive version is available at*

<http://dx.doi.org/10.1071/ZO13030>

**Valentine, L.E., Anderson, H., Hardy, G.E.St.J. and Fleming, P.A.  
(2012) Foraging activity by the southern brown bandicoot  
(*Isoodon obesulus*) as a mechanism for soil turnover. Australian  
Journal of Zoology, 60 (6). pp. 419-423.**

<http://researchrepository.murdoch.edu.au/15738/>

Copyright © 2012 CSIRO

It is posted here for your personal use. No further distribution is permitted.

1 **Foraging activity by the southern brown bandicoot (*Isoodon obesulus*) as a mechanism**  
2 **for soil turnover.**

3

4 Leonie E. Valentine<sup>A,B,C</sup>, Hannah Anderson<sup>A</sup>, Giles E. StJ. Hardy<sup>A</sup> and Patricia A. Fleming<sup>A</sup>.

5

6 <sup>A</sup> Western Australia Centre of Excellence for Climate Change, Woodland and Forest Health,  
7 School of Veterinary and Biomedical Sciences, Murdoch University, WA 6150, Australia.

8 <sup>B</sup> Present address: ARC Centre of Excellence for Environmental Decisions, School of Plant  
9 Biology, University of Western Australia, Crawley, WA 6009, Australia.

10 <sup>C</sup> Corresponding author. Email: [leonie.valentine@uwa.edu.au](mailto:leonie.valentine@uwa.edu.au)

11

12 Running title: Soil turnover by the southern brown bandicoot

13

14 Citation for this article: Valentine, L.E., Anderson, A., Hardy, G. E. StJ. and Fleming, P.A.

15 (2013) Foraging activity by the southern brown bandicoot (*Isoodon obesulus*) as a

16 mechanism for soil turnover. *Australian Journal of Zoology* **60**: 419-423.

17

## 18 **Abstract**

19 Mammals that forage for food by biopedturbation can alter the biotic and abiotic  
20 characteristics of their habitat, influencing ecosystem structure and function. Bandicoots,  
21 bilbies, bettongs and potoroos are the primary digging marsupials in Australia, although the  
22 majority of these species have declined throughout their range. This study used a snapshot  
23 approach to estimate the soil turnover capacity, of the southern brown bandicoot (*Isoodon*  
24 *obesulus*, Shaw 1797), a persisting digging Australian marsupial, at Yalgorup National Park,  
25 Western Australia. The number of southern brown bandicoots was estimated using mark-  
26 recapture techniques. To provide an index of digging activity per animal, we quantified the  
27 number of new foraging pits and bandicoot nose pokes across 18 plots within the same area.  
28 The amount of soil displaced and physical structure of foraging pits were examined from  
29 moulds of 47 fresh foraging pits. We estimated that an individual southern brown bandicoot  
30 could create ~ 45 foraging pits per day, displacing ~ 10.74 kg of soil which extrapolates to ~  
31 3.9 tonnes of soil each year. The digging activities of the southern brown bandicoots are  
32 likely to be a critical component of soil ecosystem processes.

33 ***Additional keywords:*** biopedturbation, ecosystem engineering, soil movement.

## 34 **Introduction**

35 Mammals that move or manipulate soil for food or to create shelter (biopedturbation) can act  
36 as ecosystem engineers (Whitford 1999), creating disturbances that may be essential for  
37 maintaining ecosystem health (Eldridge and James 2009; Eldridge *et al.* 2009).

38 Mammalian biopedturbation creates small-scale disturbances via soil turnover (Eldridge *et al.*  
39 2012; Whitford 1999) and can subsequently alter the physical properties of soil, including  
40 soil compaction and water infiltration (Garkaklis *et al.* 2000; Garkaklis *et al.* 1998; Garkaklis  
41 *et al.* 2003). Several Australian marsupials dig, though the bettongs (*Bettongia* spp.,

42 *Aepyrymnus rufescens*), potoroos (*Potorous* spp.), bilbies (*Macrotis* spp.) and bandicoots  
43 (*Perameles* spp., *Isoodon* spp. and *Echymipera rufescens*) are the main marsupials in  
44 Australia responsible for creating foraging pits (Martin 2003). These marsupials are adapted  
45 to digging in soil, and use their strong forefeet and claws to create foraging pits while  
46 searching for food, such as invertebrates, tubers, seeds and fungi. The soil turnover capacity  
47 of these digging marsupials is impressive, with individual woylies (*Bettongia penicillata*)  
48 estimated to displace ~ 4.8 tonnes of soil each year (Garkaklis *et al.* 2004).

49  
50 Australian digging marsupials (here defined as bettongs, potoroos, bilbies and bandicoots) are  
51 all within the critical weight range and considered most at risk from introduced predators  
52 (Johnson and Isaac 2009), and the majority of these species have suffered drastic declines in  
53 mainland populations and substantial range contractions (Van Dyck and Strahan 2008). Of  
54 the 16 extant digging marsupial species, 11 are considered to be of conservation concern,  
55 while a third (5 species) are considered critically endangered or endangered (*Environment*  
56 *Protection and Biodiversity Conservation Act 1999*). Despite the grim conservation status of  
57 the majority of Australian digging marsupials, a number of species (e.g. *Isoodon macrourus*,  
58 *I. obesulus* and *Perameles nasuta*) persist within parts of their former range on mainland  
59 Australia, sometimes in highly modified environments (e.g. Hughes and Banks 2010).  
60 However, the potential ecosystem role of these species has not been investigated.

61  
62 The southern brown bandicoot (*I. obesulus*, Shaw 1797) is a medium sized omnivorous  
63 marsupial which occurs scattered across parts of eastern, southern and south-western  
64 Australia (Van Dyck and Strahan 2008). Home range estimates for the southern brown  
65 bandicoot vary from 0.5 – 6.0 ha (Lobert 1990); with males typically containing larger home  
66 ranges than females (Heinsohn 1966), and in areas of high density (and correspondingly high

67 food supply) home ranges are likely to overlap (Broughton and Dickman 1991). Although the  
68 eastern subspecies (*I. obesulus obesulus*) is listed as endangered (*Environment Protection and*  
69 *Biodiversity Conservation Act 1999*), in south-western Australia, the southern brown  
70 bandicoot (*I. obesulus fusciventer*) is the only persisting commonly occurring digging  
71 marsupial, especially within the urban-wildland interface. Foraging pits are created by  
72 bandicoots when digging with their strong forefeet for fungal fruiting bodies, invertebrates  
73 and subterranean plant material (Van Dyck and Strahan 2008). Previous observations have  
74 indicated that southern brown bandicoots may be prolific ‘diggers’ (Heinsohn 1966; Quin  
75 1985) .

76

77 The southern brown bandicoot occur in two distinct habitats in south-western Australia: open  
78 forest and dense vegetation around swamps and watercourses (Cooper 2000a; Cooper 2000b),  
79 and this mammal has consequently been identified as susceptible to declining groundwater  
80 and rainfall (Wilson *et al.* 2012). In the urban-wildland interface surrounding Perth,  
81 populations of the southern brown bandicoot persist in the bush fragments and conservation  
82 reserves, often without predator control. In this study, we quantified the physical structure of  
83 southern brown bandicoot (*I. obesulus fusciventer*) foraging pits and estimated soil turnover  
84 in a small area, to compare with other digging marsupial species and to assist in determining  
85 the potential role of the southern brown bandicoot in maintaining ecosystem processes.

## 86 **Materials and methods**

### 87 *Study Site*

88 This study was conducted at Martin’s Tank at the edge of Martin’s Lake, Yalgorup National  
89 Park on the Swan Coastal Plain IBRA region (Thackway and Cresswell 1995) in south-  
90 western Australia (32°50’54.52”S; 115°40’8.72”E). Yalgorup National Park (~12,888 ha)

91 has high regional biodiversity values based around the chain of ten coastal lakes, swamps and  
92 tuart (*Eucalyptus gomphocephala*) forests (Portlock *et al.* 1993). Although sections of the  
93 national park are baited with 1080 (sodium fluoroacetate) to assist in the control of the  
94 introduced red fox (*Vulpes vulpes*), the area surrounding Martin's Lake is not currently  
95 baited. The region has a Mediterranean-type climate with hot dry summers and mild wet  
96 winters and an average annual rainfall of 864 mm (Bureau of Meteorology, Lake Preston  
97 Lodge 2 Comp., #009679). Yalgorup National Park contains three major dune systems; the  
98 Quindalup, Spearwood and Bassendean Dunes (Portlock *et al.* 1993). Our research focussed  
99 on foraging activity and soil turnover of bandicoots within a small section of the National  
100 Park, consisting of a 2 ha area (200 m x 100 m) in the vegetation running parallel to the  
101 Martins Lake. Our study site was located on Spearwood Dunes, where soils were  
102 predominantly yellow-phase Karrakatta sands. Vegetation in the study area included lake-  
103 fringing vegetation dominated by *Melaleuca preissiana*, *M. raphiophylla* and interspersed  
104 with tuarts, with a dense understorey of sedges (mostly *Gahnia trifida*) transitioning to a  
105 combination of tuart trees, peppermint (*Agonis flexuosa*) and paperbark (*M. raphiophylla*),  
106 and a tuart, jarrah (*E. marginata*) and marri (*Corymbia calophylla*) overstorey with a mid-  
107 storey layer of scattered *Banksia grandis*, *B. attenuata* and grasstrees (*Xanthorrhoea* spp.),  
108 and an open understorey of zamia palms (*Zamia* spp.) and various herbaceous species (e.g.  
109 *Jacksonia sternbergiana*, *Hibbertia hypericoides*) (Portlock *et al.* 1993).

110

#### 111 *Estimating soil turnover by the southern brown bandicoot*

112 Bandicoot foraging activity was assessed for 18 plots (each 10 m x 10 m), with plots  
113 haphazardly stratified along the vegetation gradient described above, with each plot separated  
114 from each other by a minimum of 30 m. We counted the number of new foraging pits and  
115 nose pokes created within each plot during a 24 hour period in June and in August 2011. A

116 bandicoot 'foraging pit' was defined as having a clear point at the bottom of the pit and a  
117 spoil heap adjacent to the pit (where displaced soil was accumulated via the digging activities  
118 of the bandicoots). A 'nose poke' was defined as an obvious movement of the ground debris  
119 and soil but without a defined point or adjacent spoil heap. Due to rain occurring in the days  
120 prior to examining foraging activity (but not during the sample period), new foraging pits and  
121 nose pokes were easily identified during both sampling sessions (as rain in the previous day  
122 had left impressions in the spoil of existing foraging pits).

123

124 After counting foraging pits (described above), we used mark-recapture trapping (three nights  
125 in June and August 2011) to estimate the number of southern brown bandicoots potentially  
126 responsible for creating the foraging pits in the 2 ha study area. A transect of ten cage traps  
127 (sheffields: 20 cm x 20 cm x 56 cm) were spread evenly across the study area. All traps were  
128 baited with universal bait (a combination of peanut butter, rolled oats, sardines and truffle  
129 oil). Hessian bags and pieces of tarpaulin were placed over all cage traps to provide shelter  
130 and to prevent rain entering the cage. The traps were open in the afternoon each day and  
131 checked within three hours of sunrise the following morning. All animals captured were  
132 weighed, measured (head length and long pes), sexed and individually marked using ISO  
133 FDX-B microchips (OzMicrochips, NSW) inserted subcutaneously under the skin on the  
134 nape of the neck. Re-trapped animals were detected using the RT100 ISO Scanner (Real  
135 Trace, NSW). In this study we have not assessed home range sizes for the southern brown  
136 bandicoot, although previous work in south-western Australia indicates home ranges are ~  
137 2.3 ha for males and ~ 1.8 ha for females, but they may overlap (Broughton and Dickman  
138 1991). As we did not estimate the spatial range of the animals at Martins Tank, we used the  
139 total number of animals capture (both trapping sessions combined) as our estimate of the  
140 number of bandicoots creating foraging pits within the 2 ha area.

141  
142 The number of foraging pits was quantified by averaging the number of new foraging pits per  
143 plot counted in June and August 2011 and extrapolating this value to a per hectare estimate.  
144 Plaster of Paris (Diggers Plaster of Paris, South Australia) was poured into 47 fresh bandicoot  
145 diggings that were representative of the range of foraging pit sizes observed in plots. We  
146 measured the width (at soil surface) and depth of the plaster moulds and the volume of each  
147 mould (ml) was estimated by water displacement (1,200 ml graduated cylinder).  
148 Measurements reported are the average  $\pm$  standard error. Soil density ( $1.25 \text{ g cm}^{-3}$ ) was  
149 estimated as the average density obtained from four soil core samples of known volume  
150 ( $\sim 1021 \text{ cm}^3$ ) that were oven-dried for 72 hours (K. Ruthrof, unpublished data). The amount  
151 of soil displaced by one bandicoot in a night was calculated as:

152 Soil displaced ( $\text{g individual}^{-1} \text{ 24 hour period}^{-1}$ ) = (number of new foraging pits bandicoot $^{-1} \text{ 24}$   
153 hour period $^{-1}$ ) x (foraging pit volume) x (soil density)

154 This figure was also then expressed as tonnes individual $^{-1} \text{ year}^{-1}$ .

155

#### 156 *Limitations to this study*

157 Our study provides a snap shot approach at estimating the soil turnover capacity of the  
158 southern brown bandicoot, and has several limitations that should be considered. 1. We used  
159 a single location, Martins Tank, to obtain our estimates of foraging activity and foraging pit  
160 dimensions for the southern brown bandicoot. These values may vary depending on location,  
161 habitat, soil type and bandicoot density. 2. To estimate the number of bandicoots creating the  
162 foraging pits, we have used the total number of bandicoots captured within the 2 ha area.  
163 Given our uncertainty of the spatial range of foraging bandicoots, the foraging pits within our  
164 study area may have been created by one or several bandicoots. Using the total number of  
165 captured bandicoots may overestimate the number of bandicoots creating the foraging pits



166 and thus could represent a conservative estimate of the soil turnover capacity of this species.

167 3. Our estimates of foraging activity are based on two nights data collection and the  
168 extrapolation to an annual estimate of soil turnover does not reflect seasonal differences in  
169 foraging behaviour and intensity.

170

## 171 **Results**

172 A total of eight bandicoot individuals were captured in the 2 ha area over 60 trap nights (June  
173 and August sessions combined). Six bandicoots (two female, four male) were captured in  
174 June and recaptured in August, along with an additional two individuals (one male, one  
175 escaped before it was sexed). Males were typically larger and heavier ( $n = 5$ , mean  $\pm$  SE:  
176 body mass  $1,724 \pm 107$  g; head length  $93.2 \pm 2.1$  mm, pes length  $65.0 \pm 1.3$  mm) than females  
177 ( $n = 2$ , mean  $\pm$  SE: body mass  $\pm$  SE:  $1,165 \pm 15$  g, head length:  $85.1 \pm 6.0$  mm, pes length  
178  $60.6 \pm 2.0$  mm). The eight individuals were all in visibly good condition, with no fur loss,  
179 scratches or other signs of fighting.

180

181 Across the 18 survey plots there were 36 new foraging pits and 88 new nose pokes in June  
182 and 32 new foraging pits and 122 new nose pokes in August, with a range of 0 – 6 foraging  
183 pits and 0 – 21 nose pokes observed per plot in both sampling periods. The mean number of  
184 new foraging pits  $\text{day}^{-1}$  averaged to  $1.8 \text{ plot}^{-1}$  (10 x 10 m) which extrapolated to 180 new  
185 foraging pits  $\text{ha}^{-1}$  in a 24 hour period. For the purposes of this study, we have assumed that  
186 all eight individual southern brown bandicoots created the foraging pits (i.e. 4 individual  
187 bandicoots  $\text{ha}^{-1}$ ), which equates to 45 foraging pits  $\text{day}^{-1}$  individual bandicoot $^{-1}$ .

188

189 Moulds of 47 fresh foraging pits indicated that foraging pits were fairly consistent in their  
190 physical size. Foraging pits were conical in shape, measuring  $100.9 \pm 3.9$  mm across at the  
191 soil surface with a mean depth of  $69.6 \pm 3.2$  mm (depth range 35–135 mm). The mean  
192 volume of these foraging pits was  $191 \pm 15$  ml. In a single night of our study, the soil  
193 displaced by one bandicoot at Martins Tank was therefore estimated as  $8,595 \text{ cm}^3$  or 10.74 kg  
194 (calculated as follows:  $10,743.75 \text{ g soil displaced individual}^{-1} \text{ 24 hour period}^{-1} = 45 \text{ foraging}$   
195  $\text{pits bandicoot}^{-1} \text{ 24 hour period}^{-1} * 191 \text{ ml soil displaced} * 1.25 \text{ g cm}^{-3} \text{ soil density}$ ).  
196 Assuming no seasonal differences in foraging activity, this value can then be extrapolated to  
197 an annual turnover of  $3.14 \text{ m}^3$  or 3.92 tonnes for each individual.

198

## 199 **Discussion**

200 Southern brown bandicoots are opportunistic omnivores that forage for a variety of food,  
201 consuming invertebrates, fungi, plant material and occasionally small vertebrates, with diets  
202 reflecting seasonally and locally abundant food items (Heinsohn 1966; Quin 1988; Van Dyck  
203 and Strahan 2008). Foraging of bandicoots via nose pokes may assist bandicoots in  
204 detecting subterranean prey items (Quin 1992) and/or target invertebrates (e.g. cockroaches,  
205 crickets, spiders) which commonly occur in the leaf litter layer (Hattenschwiler *et al.* 2005).  
206 In Tasmania, a single wild bandicoot was observed digging 21 foraging pits within 36  
207 minutes (Heinsohn 1966), while bandicoots in captivity have been observed digging up to 32  
208 foraging pits in an evening (Quin 1985). In our study, we estimated that a single bandicoot  
209 dug ~ 45 foraging pits each day, representing a considerable impact in terms of soil turnover.  
210  
211 Bettongs and potoroos forage principally upon fruiting bodies of underground fungi (Van  
212 Dyck and Strahan 2008) and may create higher numbers of foraging pits while searching for

213 food (eg. woylie: 38 - 114 foraging pits individual<sup>-1</sup> (Garkaklis *et al.*(2004) compared to  
214 southern brown bandicoot: ~45 foraging pits individual<sup>-1</sup>). Although we did not examine the  
215 density of foraging pits throughout seasons, previous research has indicated that the densities  
216 of foraging pits of digging marsupials may vary throughout the year potentially in relation to  
217 the availability of hypogeal fungal fruiting bodies (Claridge *et al.* 1993). As the diet of the  
218 southern brown bandicoot varies seasonally (Quin 1988), the number of foraging pits created  
219 by this species is also likely to vary seasonally. Foraging pits created by the greater bilby and  
220 burrowing bettong are ~ 80 mm in depth (James and Eldridge 2007), similar in size to the  
221 southern brown bandicoot (~ 70 mm). The long nosed potoroo (*P. tridactylus*) creates  
222 foraging pits that vary in depth from 56 – 120 mm (Claridge *et al.* 1993), while the woylie  
223 creates deeper foraging pits (100 - 115 mm; Garkaklis *et al.* 2004).

224

225 Although our research is restricted to a small area and represents a ‘snapshot’ of foraging  
226 activities of the southern brown bandicoot, our study is the first to estimate soil turnover rates  
227 of the southern brown bandicoot, with an individual bandicoot (average body mass 1.6 kg)  
228 turning over approximately 10.74 kg a day. This value equates to ~ 3.9 tonnes of soil per  
229 bandicoot per year and falls within the range of soil displaced (2.7 – 9.7 tonnes per year) by  
230 the similar-sized woylie (body mass: 1.0–1.5 kg) (Garkaklis *et al.* 2004). Marsupials that  
231 burrow for food and live underground produce even greater soil turnover. For example, in  
232 predator-free enclosures in arid zones, where bilbies and burrowing bettongs are held  
233 together (therefore values are for both species combined), these animals excavate ~ 30 tonnes  
234 of soil per individual per year (Newell 2008).

235

236 The loss of once widespread digging mammals in Australia is likely to have major  
237 ramifications for ecosystem processes. Further research on the foraging activities of the

238 southern brown bandicoot, preferably over a longer time frame and across a number of sites,  
239 is necessary to elucidate the soil turnover capacity of this digging marsupial. Although the  
240 range and population of the southern brown bandicoot has declined since European  
241 settlement (Abbott 2008), these animals persist in urban, peri-urban and rural regions of  
242 south-western Australia where they are likely to be playing an important role in ecosystem  
243 processes, contributing to the health and function of our woodlands and forests.  
244 Understanding the role of these animals may therefore contribute towards conservation  
245 management decisions. Since the southern brown bandicoot appears to be more resilient to  
246 human-mediated disturbances compared to other digging marsupials (e.g. woylie), they  
247 provide us with an ideal opportunity to reintroduce them into landscapes where soil turnover  
248 is required for ecosystem health and function.

#### 249 **Acknowledgements**

250 We gratefully thank the Department of Environment and Conservation – Swan Coastal  
251 District for their support with this project, especially Craig Olejnik, Paul Tholen and Alan  
252 Wright. We also thank three anonymous reviewers for substantially improving this  
253 manuscript. Our work was funded by the WA State Centre of Excellence for Climate  
254 Change, Woodland and Forest Health and the ARC Centre of Excellence for Environmental  
255 Decisions, and was carried out with a Murdoch University Animal Ethics Committee permit  
256 (W2341/10) and the WA Department of Environment and Conservation permit (Regulation  
257 17: SF001280).

#### 258 **References**

259 Abbott, I. (2008). Historical perspectives of the ecology of some conspicuous vertebrate  
260 species in south-west Western Australia. *Conservation Science Western Australia* **6**, 1-214.  
261

- 262 Broughton, S. K., and Dickman, C. R. (1991). The effect of supplementary food on home  
263 range of the southern brown bandicoot, *Isoodon obesulus* (Marsupialia: Peramelidae).  
264 *Australian Journal of Ecology* **16**, 71-78.  
265
- 266 Claridge, A. W., Cunningham, R. B., and Tanton, M. T. (1993). Foraging patterns of the  
267 long-nosed potoroo (*Potorous tridactylus*) for hypogean fungi in mixed-species and regrowth  
268 eucalypt forest stands in southeastern Australia. *Forest Ecology and Management* **61**, 75-90.  
269
- 270 Cooper, M. L. (2000a). Random amplified polymorphic DNA analysis of southern brown  
271 bandicoot (*Isoodon obesulus*) populations in Western Australia reveals genetic differentiation  
272 related to environmental variables. *Molecular Ecology* **9**, 469-479.  
273
- 274 Cooper, M. L. (2000b). Temporal variation in skull size and shape in the southern brown  
275 bandicoot, *Isoodon obesulus* (Peramelidae: Marsupialia) in Western Australia. *Australian*  
276 *Journal of Zoology* **48**, 47-57.  
277
- 278 Eldridge, D. J., and James, A. I. (2009). Soil-disturbance by native animals plays a critical  
279 role in maintaining healthy Australian landscapes. *Ecological Management and Restoration*  
280 **10**, S27-S34.  
281
- 282 Eldridge, D. J., Koen, T. B., Killgore, A., Huang, N., and Whitford, W. G. (2012). Animal  
283 foraging as a mechanism for sediment movement and soil nutrient development: evidence  
284 from the semi-arid Australian woodlands and the Chihuahuan Desert. *Geomorphology* **157-**  
285 **158**, 131-141.  
286
- 287 Eldridge, D. J., Whitford, W. G., and Duval, B. D. (2009). Animal disturbances promote  
288 shrub maintenance in a desertified grassland. *Journal of Ecology* **97**, 1302-1310.  
289
- 290 Garkaklis, M., Bradley, J., and Wooller, R. D. (2000). Digging by vertebrates as an activity  
291 promoting the development of water-repellent patches in sub-surface soil. *Journal of Arid*  
292 *Environments* **45**, 35-42.  
293

- 294 Garkaklis, M. J., Bradley, J. S., and Wooller, R. D. (1998). The effects of woylie (*Bettongia*  
295 *penicillata*) foraging on soil water repellency and water infiltration in heavy textured soils in  
296 southwestern Australia. *Australian Journal of Ecology* **23**, 492-496.  
297
- 298 Garkaklis, M. J., Bradley, J. S., and Wooller, R. D. (2003). The relationship between animal  
299 foraging and nutrient patchiness in south-west Australian woodland soils. *Australian Journal*  
300 *of Soil Research* **41**, 665-673.  
301
- 302 Garkaklis, M. J., Bradley, J. S., and Wooller, R. D. (2004). Digging and soil turnover by a  
303 mycophagous marsupial. *Journal of Arid Environments* **56**, 569-578.  
304
- 305 Hattenschwiler, S., Tiunov, A. V., and Scheu, S. (2005). Biodiversity and litter  
306 decomposition in terrestrial ecosystems. *Annual Review of Ecology, Evolution and*  
307 *Systematics* **36**, 191-218.  
308
- 309 Heinsohn, G. E. (1966). Ecology and reproduction of the Tasmanian bandicoots (*Perameles*  
310 *gunni* and *Isoodon obesulus*). *University of Californian Publication of Zoology* **80**, 1-96.  
311
- 312 Hughes, N. K., and Banks, P. B. (2010). Heading for greener pastures? Defining the foraging  
313 preferences of urban long-nosed bandicoots. *Australian Journal of Zoology* **58**, 341-349.  
314
- 315 James, A. I., and Eldridge, D. J. (2007). Reintroduction of fossorial native mammals and  
316 potential impacts on ecosystem processes in an Australian desert landscape. *Biological*  
317 *Conservation* **138**, 351-359.  
318
- 319 Johnson, C. N., and Isaac, J. L. (2009). Body size and extinction risk in Australian mammals:  
320 back to the Critical Weight Range. *Austral Ecology* **34**, 35-40.  
321
- 322 Lobert, B. (1990). Home range and activity period of the southern brown bandicoot (*Isoodon*  
323 *obesulus*) in a Victorian heathland. In 'Bandicoots and Bilbies.' (Eds. J. H. Seebeck, P. R.  
324 Brown, R. L. Wallis and C. M. Kemper) pp. 319-325. (Surrey Beatty and Sons: Sydney.)  
325

- 326 Martin, G. (2003). The role of small ground-foraging mammals in topsoil health and  
327 biodiversity: Implications to management and restoration. *Ecological Management and*  
328 *Restoration* **4**, 114-119.
- 329
- 330 Newell, J. (2008). The role of the reintroduction of greater bilbies (*Macrotis lagotis*) and  
331 burrowing bettongs (*Bettongia lesueur*) in the ecological restoration of an arid ecosystem:  
332 foraging diggings, diet and soil seed banks. PhD Thesis, School of Earth and Environmental  
333 Sciences, University of Adelaide, Adelaide.
- 334
- 335 Portlock, C., Koch, A., Wood, S., Hanly, P., and Dutton, S. (1993). Yalgorup National Park  
336 Management Plan. Department of Conservation and Land Management, Perth, Western  
337 Australia.
- 338
- 339 Quin, D. G. (1985). Aspects of the feeding ecology of the bandicoots *Perameles gunnii* (Gray  
340 1838) and *Isoodon obesulus* (Shaw and Nodder 1797) (Marsupialia: Peramelidae) in southern  
341 Tasmania. University of Tasmania, Hobart.
- 342
- 343 Quin, D. G. (1988). Observations on the diet of the southern brown bandicoot, *Isoodon*  
344 *obesulus* (Marsupialia: Peramelidae), in southern Tasmania. *Australian Mammalogy* **11**, 15-  
345 25.
- 346
- 347 Quin, D. G. (1992). Observations of prey detection by the bandicoots, *Isoodon obesulus* and  
348 *Perameles gunnii* (Marsupialia: Peramelidae). *Australian Mammalogy* **15**, 131-133.
- 349
- 350 Thackway, R., and Cresswell, I. D. (1995). An interim biogeographic regionalisation of  
351 Australia: a framework for establishing the national system of reserves. Australian Nature  
352 Conservation Agency, Canberra.
- 353
- 354 Van Dyck, S., and Strahan, R. (2008). 'The mammals of Australia - 3rd edition.' (Reed New  
355 Holland Publishers Pty Ltd: Sydney, Australia.)
- 356
- 357 Whitford, W. G. (1999). Biopedturbation by mammals in deserts: a review. *Journal of Arid*  
358 *Environments* **41**, 203-230.
- 359

360 Wilson, B. A., Valentine, L. E., Reaveley, A., Isaac, J., and Wolfe, K. M. (2012). Terrestrial  
361 mammals of the Gnangara Groundwater System, Western Australia: history, status and the  
362 possible impacts of a drying climate. *Australian Mammalogy* **34**, 202-216.

363

364

365