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1 **The ghosts of ecosystem engineers: Legacy effects of biogenic modifications**

2 Lindsey K. Albertson^{1†}, Leonard S. Sklar², Benjamin B. Tumolo¹, Wyatt F. Cross¹, Scott F.
3 Collins³, and H. Arthur Woods⁴

4
5 Author affiliations

6 ¹Department of Ecology, Montana State University, USA

7 ²School of Environmental Science, Simon Fraser University, Canada

8 ³Department of Natural Resources Management, Texas Tech University, USA

9 ⁴Division of Biological Sciences, University of Montana, USA

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12 †corresponding author: Lindsey Albertson; lindsey.albertson@montana.edu

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25 (Albertson et al. 2022).

26

27 Author contributions

28 *LKA conceived the idea; All authors designed the research; LKA and BBT collected the data;*

29 *LKA led the writing of the manuscript; All authors contributed significantly to the writing,*

30 *critically evaluated the drafts, and gave final approval for publication.*

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47 **Abstract**

- 48 1. Ecosystem engineers strongly influence the communities in which they live by modifying
49 habitats and altering resource availability. These biogenic changes can persist beyond the
50 presence of the engineer, and such modifications are known as ecosystem engineering
51 legacy effects.
- 52 2. Although many authors recognize ecosystem engineering legacies, and some case studies
53 quantify the effects of legacies, few general frameworks describe their causes and
54 consequences across species or ecosystem types.
- 55 3. Here, we synthesize evidence for ecosystem engineering legacies and describe how
56 consideration of key traits of engineers improves understanding of which engineers are
57 likely to leave persistent biogenic modifications .
- 58 4. Our review demonstrates that engineering legacies are ubiquitous, with substantial effects
59 on individuals, communities, and ecosystem processes. Attributes that may promote the
60 persistence of influential legacies relate to an engineer's traits, including its body size,
61 lifespan, and living strategy (individual, conspecific group, or collection of multiple co-
62 occurring species).
- 63 5. Additional lines of inquiry, such as how the recipients respond (e.g., density or richness)
64 or the mechanism of engineering (e.g., burrowing or structure building), should be
65 included in future ecosystem engineering legacy research.
- 66 6. Understanding patterns of these persistent effects of ecosystem engineers and evaluating
67 the consequences of losing them is an important area of research needed for
68 understanding long-term ecological responses to global change and biodiversity loss.
69

70 Keywords: abandoned, habitat, persistence, resource, temporal, traits

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72 **1. Introduction**

73 Legacies are ideas, objects, or processes that originate in the past and persist into and
74 influence the future. Legacies sometimes arise from extraordinary actions that can change the
75 course of history as well as expectations for what is possible (Miller et al., 2009; Wittenberg,
76 2013; Wohl, 2019). For example, most people are familiar with the legacy of Michael Jordan,
77 who redefined what is possible in basketball. In nature, we also recognize legacies, such as those
78 left by abiotic events like hurricanes, heat waves, earthquakes, and retreat of glaciers, which can
79 have striking and persistent effects on physical and chemical conditions long after these events
80 have ceased (Connell, 1978; Dunson & Travis, 1991; Hughes et al., 2019). In addition,
81 anthropogenic activities such as nutrient pollution and mining leave well-recognized contaminant
82 legacies that continue to influence water quality over many decades (Basu et al., 2022; Lima et
83 al., 2016). Less appreciated, however, are the legacies left by the myriad organisms that
84 influence the availability and character of habitat and resources in ecosystems (Cuddington,
85 2011).

86 Ecosystem engineers are organisms that alter the abiotic environment, producing changes
87 to habitat and resource supply that govern community assembly, ecosystem processes, and niche
88 construction (Table 1; Gutiérrez & Jones, 2006; Jones et al., 1994; Wright & Jones, 2006).

89 Modifications can arise from activities of individuals, groups of conspecifics, and assemblages of
90 co-occurring organisms, and they often last longer than the organisms themselves. Such
91 modifications are known as ecosystem engineering legacies (Table 1; Cuddington, 2011;
92 Hastings et al., 2007). Our definition of an ecosystem engineer extends the classical definition

93 (Jones et al. 1994) by including organisms that modify the environment in any of the following
94 ways: the presence of their own bodies (autogenic; e.g, corals); activities that transform the state
95 of local materials or chemicals and often result in an extended phenotype (Table 1; allogenic;
96 e.g., nest building); and simultaneous physical, other non-consumptive, and trophic modification
97 (e.g., salmon disturbing riverbed sediment and organic matter; Prugh & Brashares, 2012; Rex et
98 al., 2014; Wilby et al., 2001). Despite the substantial – and often long-lasting – influence of biota
99 on the environment, appreciation of ecosystem engineering legacies as a significant factor
100 shaping the structure and function of Earth’s ecosystems has been relatively slow to develop
101 (Dietrich & Perron, 2006; Naylor et al., 2002; Rice, 2021). In addition, frameworks that identify
102 the general traits of engineers that are likely to leave legacies are still scarce (Frauendorf et al.,
103 2021; Hastings et al. 2007).

104 Because ecosystem engineering effects are widespread, it is increasingly important that
105 legacies are included in understanding maintenance of ecosystems and in predicting the biotic
106 outcomes of anthropogenic change more broadly (Estes & Vermeij, 2022; Frauendorf et al.,
107 2021). Here, we review the evidence for ecosystem engineering legacies in nature using four
108 approaches. First, we set the stage by describing select case studies of legacies in the literature
109 and the trajectory of ecosystem engineering legacy knowledge. Second, we use a conceptual
110 framework designed around underlying organismal phenotypes to compare legacies across
111 different engineering taxa. Third, we use a synthesis to demonstrate how the conceptual
112 framework applies to published legacy examples. And finally, we discuss directions for
113 continued development of metrics that will advance understanding of ecosystem engineering
114 legacies and the roles that organisms play in influencing the structure and function of
115 communities and ecosystems.

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2. Review of ecosystem engineering legacies

2.1 Examples of ecosystem engineering legacies

Legacies may last for milliseconds to millennia and their spatial footprint can be small or large. For instance, crawling slugs (ca. 2 cm length) leave behind mucous residues that provide a surface and resources for microbial colonists (Table 2; Theenhaus & Scheu, 1996) that is relatively small and persists for a short period of time. Other legacies are especially large and long-lasting, with the potential to influence the system long after the engineer is gone (Table 2). For example, monitor lizards (ca. 1.5 m length) construct burrows that are used by amphibians and arthropods (Doody et al., 2021); individual spawning salmon disturb riverbeds at small spatial and temporal scales (Collins et al., 2011) yet the collective effects of salmon populations and spawning behavior on riverbed geomorphology have broad consequences for watershed evolution (Fremier et al., 2018). Casts from bioturbating worms in marine tidal flats leave behind evidence that is visible in the sedimentary record over geologic time (Cribb & Bottjer, 2020; Kristensen et al., 2012). In addition, microbial communities in marine environments that formed stromatolites fostered the rise of different chemical pathways over evolutionary time (Altermann, 2008; Paterson et al., 2008), and photosynthetic organisms associated with these features created the atmosphere on which we and all aerobic organisms depend (Blankenship, 2010). Together, these select examples illustrate the potential for many different organisms to participate in ecosystem engineering legacies over a very wide range of temporal and spatial scales.

139 2.2 Fundamental attributes of biogenic modifications

140 Attributes that are often used to determine the magnitudes of ecological legacies,
141 including ecosystem engineering legacies, are duration, spatial extent, and frequency through
142 time and space (Figure 1). The magnitude of a physical drought legacy in a forest, for example,
143 can depend on a suite of attributes, including the duration, spatial location, and timing of the
144 current drought, as well as the time elapsed (1/temporal frequency) since other recent droughts
145 (Kannenberget al., 2020). Along with duration and spatial extent, frequency in space is
146 especially salient for ecosystem engineering legacies. Consider soil dwelling organisms, which
147 can have engineering effects on soil properties and on communities of arthropods and plants.
148 Many ants, for example, construct below-ground nests, into which colonies introduce terrestrial
149 organic matter (e.g., leaf-fungus farmed by leaf-cutting ants; Schoenian et al., 2011). High
150 densities of nests may transform soil properties over large spatial scales, even though each
151 individual nest affects a limited area. Likewise for earthworms – although individual worms have
152 limited capacity to alter soils, large populations can have profound effects on soil properties
153 across large areas, with wide ranging effects on other soil arthropods and local plant
154 communities (Eisenhauer, 2010; Holdsworth et al., 2007).

155 Like those that are frequent in space, legacies that are frequent in time will often be more
156 important than those that occur rarely. For example, the ability of marine invertebrates to move,
157 as well as to obtain nutrients and gases from their environment, is influenced by the persistent
158 presence of surface-fouling ecosystem engineers growing on the invertebrate itself. Sea spiders
159 (pycnogonids) obtain oxygen from seawater via pores in their cuticles (Lane et al., 2018), but
160 oxygen availability can be blocked by surface fouling organisms. Some kinds of fouling, like
161 biofilms, are ubiquitous and the invertebrate must contend with their growth and subsequent

162 respiratory effects on a daily basis by spending a substantial proportion of their time grooming
163 their surfaces with specialized appendages. Other kinds of fouling, like colonies of bryozoans or
164 large barnacles, could have large effects but they occur much less frequently than do biofilms
165 (Lane et al., 2016). So, the consistently present biofilms are more likely to matter to the sea
166 spider's biogeochemical environment than are rarely present bryozoans or barnacles.

167 Temporal frequency and spatial extent may be directly or indirectly related to one
168 another. Whales for example, often fall after death to the ocean floor, where their carcasses
169 engineer the local environment by supporting diverse communities of other organisms that
170 occupy and feed on them (Roman et al. 2014; Smith et al., 2015). In this context, 'spatial extent'
171 refers to the body size of the dead whale. Larger carcasses probably occur less frequently than do
172 small ones because not as many individuals survive to later life stages, but they nevertheless can
173 leave large-magnitude legacies by persisting for long periods of time (sometimes decades to
174 centuries; Smith et al., 2015).

175

176 2.3 Legacy in the eye of the beholder

177 A component of a legacy's importance depends on the impact it has on recipient
178 individuals, species, and biological processes, as well as environmental context. In some
179 instances, legacies affect one or a few individuals, without broader effects on populations,
180 communities, or ecosystems (Farji-Brener & Werenkraut, 2015). These legacies may be
181 considered less influential. However, if those single or few individuals belong to an endemic,
182 endangered, or keystone species, then the impact of that legacy is amplified. Beyond ways in
183 which legacies affect individuals, ecosystem engineering activities that modify habitat or

184 resources in ways that propagate to the community- or ecosystem-level could leave particularly
185 impactful legacies.

186

187 *2.3.1 Community level responses*

188 Multiple, co-occurring engineering species can create collective legacies (Caliman et al.,
189 2013; Thomsen et al., 2018; see section 3.3). For example, trees modify habitats that foster
190 epiphytes, and these epiphytes also provide habitat to other organisms (Thomsen et al., 2010).
191 Such effects often can persist even when the engineers are no longer living, but generally to a
192 lesser extent than when they are alive (Bologna & Heck, 1999). Collective legacies also manifest
193 at the community level when multiple species are influenced by and respond to the legacy. As a
194 result, a legacy that affects one recipient may be considered less important than one that affects a
195 diverse suite of species or a whole community (Thomsen et al., 2018). For example, a large
196 number (up to 28) of different species of springtail (Collembola) can live in soil patches created
197 by mobile earthworms (Lavelle, 2002; Loranger et al., 1998). Sometimes the recipient taxa are
198 ecosystem engineers themselves (i.e., a ‘facilitation cascade’), whereby the presence of one
199 engineer promotes the presence of others even after that original engineer is gone (Thomsen et
200 al., 2010), an idea that parallels the conceptual framework of succession and replacement of
201 species as the environment is altered by the previous occupants (Drury & Nisbet, 1973; Odum,
202 1969). Finally, some engineers may leave legacies that could extend across ecosystem
203 boundaries. For instance, freshwater mussels increase the productivity of emergent aquatic plants
204 by increasing water-column phosphorous, and the plants in turn attract and provide resources for
205 terrestrial herbivores (Lopez et al., 2020). Because mussel shells continue to affect the
206 environment after the mussels are dead, this cross-boundary effect may persist through time.

207

208 *2.3.2 Ecosystem level responses*

209 Besides influencing communities, legacies can also generate persistent effects on
210 ecosystem and biogeochemical processes. These effects are evident when engineering activities
211 have lasting effects on material resources (e.g., nitrogen and carbon) or environmental conditions
212 (e.g., light, temperature, and redox potential; Gutiérrez & Jones, 2006). Nitrogen fixation by
213 many early successional or invasive plant species, for example, can fuel primary production of
214 other taxa long after they are gone (Chapin et al., 1994). Von Holle et al. (2013) found that
215 nitrogen pools remained elevated at least 14 years following the removal of nonnative N₂-fixing
216 black locust trees. Other ecosystem engineers such as beavers or earthworms often reconfigure
217 the amount and structure of river sediments or forest soils for many years following their
218 disappearance (Naiman et al., 1988). In the case of beaver, although many of the engineered
219 changes may be reversed over 5-10 years, some may last much longer (Wohl, 2021). For
220 instance, Laurel and Wohl (2018) found that the effects of beavers on river geomorphology
221 persist for >30 years after the beavers stop maintaining a dam. Their influence on the storage of
222 organic carbon in floodplains – and associated carbon turnover and mineralization (Naiman et
223 al., 1986) – may persist for even longer.

224 Biogenic legacies can also drive ecological feedbacks that enhance their persistence. This
225 may be particularly evident if legacies change the character of natural or anthropogenic
226 disturbance regimes. In western North America, forest insect outbreaks can have lasting effects
227 on ecosystem properties (e.g., soil moisture, surface fuel accumulation) that may alter
228 susceptibility to future wildfires (Meigs et al., 2016). Such changes have the potential to feed
229 back and influence subsequent insect outbreaks (Bergeron and Leduc, 1998). Grazing by large

230 herbivores, together with fire, can produce and maintain African savannah ecosystems by
231 removing trees and woody vegetation. Grassland conditions persist beyond the lifespan of the
232 herbivores and promote future grazing and fire that reinforces the savannah state (Lenton et al.,
233 2021; Marshall et al., 2018).

234

235 *2.3.3 Directional responses by the recipients*

236 Ecosystem engineers inevitably create conditions that are better for some organisms or
237 ecological processes than for others; thus legacies can be simultaneously positive or negative
238 (Daleo et al., 2006; Gribben et al., 2013). For example, ecosystem engineering kangaroo rats
239 (*Dipodomys ingens*) create networks of burrows that decrease bird and plant diversity potentially
240 through soil disturbance but increase invertebrate diversity potentially through increased habitat
241 availability or food subsidies (Prugh & Brashares, 2012). Another important avenue by which
242 directionality mediates a legacy occurs when ecosystem engineers alter their surroundings
243 through multiple, co-occurring processes that may leave differing positive or negative effects.
244 Spawning salmon, for example, may beneficially engineer streams by disturbing sediments and
245 enriching nutrients, but they may also detrimentally engineer streams by transporting pollutants
246 (Baker et al., 2009; Gerig et al., 2016). Indeed, decomposing fish tissues may fertilize streams
247 while also leaching persistent organic contaminants, which can bioaccumulate in the tissues of
248 other organisms (Baker et al., 2009; Gerig et al., 2016; Morrissey et al., 2012).

249

250 *2.3.4 Environmental disturbance*

251 Engineering effects have the greatest potential to leave legacies when the modifications
252 are resistant to environmental disturbances or when these disturbances are rare or small in

253 magnitude (Johnstone et al., 2016). The strength of pairwise interactions between species, such
254 as an engineer and the recipient of the modified environment, is very likely affected by
255 environmental context (Germain et al., 2018). For example, dead animal flesh, bone, and
256 cartilage each provide a resource legacy that attracts scavengers (hours to days) or slowly
257 releases phosphorus (months to years) into soil or water until the animal remains are gone.
258 However, any legacy effect could be negated if those remains are washed away by waves,
259 flooding, or another form of disturbance (Cortés-Avizanda et al., 2012; Laidre & Greggor, 2015).

260 Although extreme events are by definition rare, they may be large enough in magnitude
261 to erase existing modifications very rapidly. For example, when spawning salmon dig nests, they
262 scour river sediments, enrich biofilms, and dislodge macroinvertebrates in small patches (Collins
263 et al., 2011; Verspoor et al., 2011). Nests can withstand daily stream flows, but spring runoff can
264 disturb sediments and destroy a nest several months later. Thus, engineering effects can be robust
265 to daily fluctuations but destroyed by stronger events. As another example, a beaver can
266 construct a dam in a few months and maintain it for years (Cenderelli, 2000, Johnson-Bice et al.,
267 2022). The dam's structural integrity, and thus resilience, depends on features such as size and
268 construction material (Woo & Waddington, 1990). Although dams can withstand a range of
269 disturbances for years, intense precipitation, flooding, and collapse of upstream dam(s) – all
270 relatively unpredictable events – can destroy them (Cenderelli, 2000; Rutherford, 1953). In both
271 examples, legacy effects reflect a balance between buildup of the engineered structure and
272 erosion of it by the local disturbance regime. Legacy duration will thus depend strongly on the
273 frequency, extent, and severity of disturbances.

274 How recipients of the engineering modification perceive or use the legacy also relates to
275 environmental context. In harsh environments with large or frequent disturbances, recipients that

276 use the engineering modification may rely more heavily on the changes imposed by the engineer
277 (Bertness & Callaway, 1994). That is, the positive effect of the modification by the ecosystem
278 engineer will play an increasingly important role in creating suitable habitat or providing
279 valuable resources when an environment is otherwise highly disturbed.

280

281 2.4 Traits of the engineer

282 Another component of a legacy's importance relates to traits of the engineer itself. The
283 population density of an engineer, for example, should modulate the legacy. Earthworms offer a
284 clear example. Individual worms create soil casts that alter soil aggregation and oxygenation at
285 small spatio-temporal scales, equivalent to or less than that of an individual earthworm's own
286 body size and lifetime (Table 2). However, the collective effects of earthworm populations can
287 be realized at macroscales. As earthworms have expanded into northern forests, for example,
288 they have released large amounts of soil carbon through their casts with consequences for
289 ecosystem-level nutrient cycling and greenhouse gas emissions (Table 2; Frelich et al., 2019).
290 Another example of individually minor effects that become significant at high population
291 densities is soil disturbance by mammals. A single wallow made by a bison, for example, may
292 only have a 4-meter diameter and last 25 years, but in places like Yellowstone National Park,
293 where the bison population has grown from 500 individuals in the 1970s to 5,000 today, the
294 cumulative effects of all wallows on the landscape persist for many decades and shape physical,
295 chemical, and biological processes (Nickell et al., 2018).

296 Behavioral traits can also affect legacies (Gribben et al. 2013). How conspecifics interact
297 with one another is an important behavioral consideration that likely determines legacy
298 magnitude. For example, some species have individuals that are solitary (e.g., a rabbit), while

299 other species have individuals that live in extremely close proximity groups (e.g. mussels).
300 Additionally, some legacies emerge from the combined effects of multiple species (Bétard,
301 2021). As such, collective legacies can arise from either multiple individuals of the same species
302 acting together to modify the environment or from multiple, coexisting and interacting species,
303 and these often shift the abiotic environment to a new stable state. One example of this type of
304 collective legacy is the formation of soil. For coherent rock to be transformed into a porous
305 matrix of disaggregated minerals and organic material typically requires the joint actions of
306 microorganisms, invertebrates, large plants, and even mammals. The soils that blanket the well-
307 studied mountains of the Luquillo National Forest of Puerto Rico are created in part by bacteria
308 (*Cupriavidus*; Liermann et al., 2015; Napieralski et al., 2019) that oxidize iron-bearing minerals,
309 Tabonuco trees (*Dacryodes excelsa*; Scatena & Lugo, 1995) that root in and break apart rock and
310 contribute some of their own biomass, and worms (*Pontoscolex corethrurus*; Lavelle et al., 2007)
311 that mix soils and leave nutrient-rich castings. None of the species alone creates soil from rock,
312 but each contributes this pervasive alteration of the physical environment.

313 The step-pool morphology of travertine rivers provides another example of a collective
314 legacy that illustrates how diverse assemblages of organisms can shift the abiotic environment to
315 a new stable state (Fuller et al., 2011). Fallen trees and large-woody debris catalyze travertine
316 dam formation in streams, by causing high velocity overflow that drives CaCO_3 precipitation
317 from super-saturated spring-fed baseflow (Viles & Pentecost, 1999). Nascent dams trap floating
318 algal mats and leaf litter, which provide surface area for travertine crystals to precipitate
319 (Compson et al., 2009; Merz-Preis & Riding, 1999), a process enhanced by microbial
320 photosynthesis which raises local pH (Ferris et al., 1995; Pentecost, 2005; Takashima & Kano,
321 2008).

322 The temporal magnitude of collective legacies cannot be easily quantified at the scale of
323 the individual species, whose lifespans range from hours (bacteria) to centuries (trees). For soils,
324 travertine, and other collective legacies created by multiple co-occurring engineers, the relevant
325 time-scale would capture how long the effect would persist if all organisms abruptly ceased their
326 work. For long-lived legacies, the potential decay time should scale with the residence time of
327 the bio-mediated material at steady-state. For example, the soils produced by collective
328 ecosystem engineering legacies described previously in the mountain forests of Puerto Rico are
329 in an approximate steady state, in which soil production from rock below is balanced by soil
330 erosion into down-slope river channels. Using representative values of soil depth (~1 m) and soil
331 production and long-term erosion rate (10^{-4} m/yr), a steady-state residence time, and thus
332 potential legacy time scale would be 10,000 years (Willenbring et al., 2013). In other geologic
333 and climatic settings, where soils are both thicker and produced more slowly, residence times can
334 be orders of magnitude longer (Almond et al., 2007).

335 Another important behavioral consideration is how the engineer carries out the activity
336 that alters habitat or resources. Organisms that alter the environment through their own physical
337 presence (autogenic engineers; e.g., tree stumps) operate differently than organisms that actively
338 transform the environment external to their own physical presence (allogenic engineers; e.g.,
339 burrows made by crayfish). Movement presents an additional challenge in quantifying legacy
340 effects. On one hand, movements expand the spatial scope of engineering because individual
341 organisms can create multiple modifications across the landscape (Booth et al., 2020;
342 VanBlaricom, 1982). On the other hand, sessile foundational species, such as coral reefs, leave
343 large, persistent legacies in single locations that are much easier to quantify. Legacies can
344 certainly be left by organisms that are not yet dead if they engineer their environments locally

345 but then move on. While this idea has not traditionally been included in legacy science because
346 the effect occurs within the lifespan of the engineer, a growing body of literature highlights the
347 need to further develop theory and experimental evidence to demonstrate how these types of
348 effects fit into the scope of legacies. In freshwater streams, diel movements of bioturbating
349 Sonora sucker (*Catostomus insigni*) resuspend and redistribute sediments and organic matter
350 downriver as they feed during the night (Booth et al., 2020). In saltwater environments, stingrays
351 excavate depressions in local tidal flats. Once abandoned, these divots provide temporary habitat
352 for other marine fauna (Takeuchi & Tamaki, 2014). Other impressive examples include bison
353 and wildebeest, which migrate during the growing season to browse on vegetation just as it
354 greens up. In doing so, however, large ungulates also engineer the food resources through their
355 browsing activity by delaying plant maturation and altering soil compaction and moisture as they
356 graze, thereby prolonging availability of young, more nutritious vegetation on the order of weeks
357 to months (Gass & Binkley, 2011; Geremia et al., 2019; McNaughton, 1976). Whether a legacy
358 resulting from movement combines with or replaces a legacy resulting from death remains an
359 exciting area for future research.

360

361 2.5 Trajectory of ecosystem engineering legacy research

362 A growing body of literature has described and quantified ecosystem engineering legacies,
363 including those in the preceding sections. That legacies can arise from the activities of ecosystem
364 engineers has been formally recognized since the seminal work by Jones et al. (1994). However,
365 it is only recently that studies on ecosystem engineering legacies have appeared regularly in the
366 literature. To assess the status of this research, we performed a systematic literature search in
367 October 2021 (Appendix A; Gurevitch et al., 2001). A list of data sources used in the study are

368 provided in the Data sources section. The number of published papers on ecosystem engineering
369 legacies has increased steadily since the late 1990s, with a substantial increase in the past decade
370 (Figure 2A). Although an average of 3.1 papers/year were published from 1994 to 2009, nearly
371 13 papers/year were published from 2010 to 2020. Interestingly, many studies did not apply the
372 term ‘legacy’ but rather used other related terms like ‘persistence,’ ‘abandoned,’ and ‘temporal’
373 (Figure 2B; Appendix A). We argue that all of these terms can be usefully subsumed under the
374 concept of ‘legacy.’ Divergent terminology likely arises, in part, from discipline-specific choices
375 (Hodges 2008). Ecologists studying how an ecosystem engineer changes resources for
376 communities, or landscapes, or ecosystems could all be studying legacies but might describe
377 these alterations in different ways, such as niche construction, spatial patterns, or elemental
378 cycling, respectively, yet all would be studying ecosystem engineering legacies. Clearly, there is
379 large variation in ecosystem engineering legacies, and as knowledge continues to be built, we
380 need additional synthesis and theory for identifying the ecological and environmental attributes
381 that promote meaningful ones.

382

383 **3. Toward conceptualization of legacy importance**

384 Although recent syntheses have begun to describe ecosystem engineering effects
385 (Albertson et al., 2015; Albertson et al., 2021; Romero et al., 2015; Woods et al., 2021),
386 determining the importance of a legacy is complex. A legacy’s importance is influenced by non-
387 mutually exclusive considerations of (i) the modification itself (e.g., duration), (ii) traits of the
388 engineer (e.g., mass), and (iii) the impact on and response of the recipients that use the modified
389 conditions (e.g., density change). In this section, we explore how to link attributes of the
390 modification, such as duration and spatial extent, with traits of the engineer. This approach can

391 provide new, general insights into ecosystem engineering legacies across taxa and ecosystems
392 using a non-dimensional framework to compare different ecosystem engineers and the scale of
393 their modifications relative to their own scaling traits.

394

395 3.1 Engineer traits determine legacy magnitude

396 Traits of engineering taxa will influence the characteristics of their legacy (Albertson &
397 Allen, 2015). For example, engineers like corals that build structure or termites that have group
398 living strategies may leave larger legacies compared to those that modify chemical properties,
399 like salt marsh plants, or solitary organisms, like tortoises. However, it is worth noting that many
400 traits are correlated (Boersma et al. 2016). Behavioral traits of sociality are inextricably linked to
401 population density in termite mounds; and body size correlates to density based on resource
402 availability and metabolic constraints (e.g., high densities of smaller bodied organisms; Elton
403 1927). Legacies arise from a surprisingly large number of different ecosystem engineering taxa
404 that vary substantially in their lifespans and body sizes. Below we explore a framework that links
405 three key traits, living strategy, lifespan, and body size, to the duration and spatial extent of the
406 environmental modification.

407

408 *3.1.1 Engineer living strategy*

409 Categorizing engineers into those that work as individuals (e.g., a tortoise burrow), as
410 conspecific groups (e.g., a termite mound), or as collectives illustrates what engineering
411 characteristics lead to relatively large legacies (Figures 3). Arguably, the ecosystem engineers
412 with the longest, and most profound legacy are the groups and collectives of cyanobacteria that
413 produced the first free oxygen in the Earth's atmosphere during the Proterozoic era, more than

414 2.3 billion years ago (Lyons et al., 2014). Although cyanobacteria are still present, their current
415 contribution to maintaining atmospheric oxygen is negligible; terrestrial plants and marine
416 phytoplankton now produce most of the current atmospheric oxygen (Catling & Claire, 2005).
417 This shift suggests a distinction between the legacies of engineers that cause regime shifts in
418 biogeochemistry, and those that subsequently maintain the stability of the system. For the case of
419 modern oxygen producing organisms, the temporal magnitude of their legacy could be
420 represented by the 5,000 year residence time of oxygen in the atmosphere (Walker, 1980), with
421 concentrations relatively stable over millions to 100s of millions of years (Figure 3).

422

423 *3.1.2 Engineer body size*

424 Engineer body size should be positively correlated to the spatial extent of the
425 modification. If decay rate relates linearly to modification size, then larger modifications last
426 longer and leave a bigger legacy because they have more material to remove. As such, larger
427 bodied organisms likely leave bigger legacies. However, it should be noted that larger
428 modifications may also act as bigger targets for advective forces such as wind and wave action,
429 which could result in relatively short legacies.

430

431 *3.1.3 Engineer lifespan*

432 Engineer lifespan also contributes to legacy magnitude. Engineers that live for a long
433 time can continually fortify the modification they make, which should result in increased
434 duration of the modification after the engineer is gone. Longer lived organisms also have the
435 opportunity for frequent actions through time, which may strengthen their legacy. Longer
436 lived organisms also have larger body sizes, on average, which may lead to large legacies

437 (Speakman, 2005). We found that long- and short-lived organisms act as ecosystem engineers.
438 For example, engineers that modify sediment by consolidating it or transporting it can live
439 anywhere from fifty years (e.g, echidnas) to just one (e.g, worms; Table 2).

440

441 3.2 Synthesis of ecosystem engineering traits and legacies

442 We gathered data from a representative subset of the engineers identified in our literature
443 search to compare engineering activities across different species and to quantify engineering
444 legacies after accounting for engineer, body size, lifespan, and living strategy. We found several
445 interesting patterns (Figure 4a; Appendix A). Several incredibly different species have similar
446 magnitude legacies. For example, puma and earthworms have a 10-fold difference in body size
447 and lifespan, yet they have almost identical magnitude of spatial and temporal legacy relative to
448 their physical presence. Another example comes from conspecific groups of oysters and
449 cordgrasses. Despite one being animal and one being plant, both species leave similar magnitude
450 legacies.

451 Several species stand out as leaving especially large legacies. These include well-
452 recognized and iconic beaver, which have high non-dimensional spatial extent, likely because of
453 the strong response of the physical system (damming flow; trapping sediment). Coral is another
454 example of a large legacy, with high non-dimensional temporal extent; its high non-dimensional
455 temporal extent likely results from strong biogenic structure that can resist erosive forces.

456 In general, none of the engineers analyzed had both non-dimensional spatial and temporal
457 extents less than 1.0. This finding implies that to leave a legacy, a species needs to change its
458 environment in ways that are either as large as their body or last at least as long as their
459 occupation time. There is also asymmetry in the pattern below 1.0 ($\log_{10} = 0$; equivalent to the

460 body size or lifespan of the engineer) on the two axes. Many more taxa plot below 1.0 on the
461 spatial axis than on the temporal axis. This finding shows that ecosystem engineers can have a
462 meaningful legacy magnitude that is smaller than their body size (e.g. pit diggers such as
463 stingray or rabbits), provided that the modification lasts longer than their time of
464 occupation. However, the pattern does not hold in reverse. If the modification does not last long
465 compared to occupation time, the legacy is less meaningful even if its large relative to body size.
466 Finally, if additional studies follow the patterns we observe for these examples, we might expect
467 a temporal threshold for individuals, as suggested by plotting position generally to the right, and
468 a spatial threshold for groups, as suggested by plotting position generally to the top, but these
469 distinctions are less obvious and need further investigation. Ultimately, legacies scaled to the
470 traits of the engineer exist along a wide gradient (Figure 4b). More influential legacies are very
471 likely left by engineers that change their environment in ways that last a long time and are large
472 compared to their own lifespan and body size.

473

474 **4. Future research directions**

475 Because legacies have pervasive effects on biological processes, additional research will
476 be critical for understanding how changes in abundance and richness of species that leave
477 legacies may be altered by global change. Although legacies are increasingly studied, they still
478 only comprise a small fraction of papers within the topic of ecosystem engineering (5% of the
479 3,393 results for ‘ecosystem engineer’ provided data for a legacy effect; Appendix A; Data
480 sources section). Without considering these legacies, we may underestimate how biodiversity
481 loss will influence ecosystem services (Chapin et al., 2000; Valiente-Banuet et al., 2015). Below
482 we identify several exciting research directions ready for further development.

483

484 4.1 Incorporating ecological complexity

485 Additional considerations related to attributes of the modification, traits of the engineer,
486 and the impact on recipient's will need to be included in future work. The mechanism of
487 engineering, such as burrowing (loosening sediment), cementing (stabilizing sediment), or
488 geochemical alteration, could all differentially modulate how big of a legacy is left when an
489 engineer disappears. A previous meta-analysis shows that digging (bioturbation), for example,
490 does not have as strong of an effect on sediments in fluvial environments as does structure
491 building (Albertson & Allen, 2015). Bioturbation activities in particular are one obvious
492 mechanism of ecosystem engineering that did not show up as consistently as we expected from
493 the literature search given the well-recognized influence of bioturbating taxa such as worms or
494 shrimps on benthic ecosystems. This finding highlights the need for additional work on how to
495 quantify and describe bioturbation legacies, especially in marine and freshwater environments
496 (Kristensen et al., 2012; Wilkenson et al., 2009). Future research on trait-based ecosystem
497 engineering could assess when intraspecific engineering trait variation explains legacy size more
498 so than interspecific traits, especially for collective legacies (Des Roches et al., 2018). The
499 directionality of response by recipients could simultaneously be positive and negative, resulting
500 in no net change. The response variable measured (e.g., richness, biomass, density) is an
501 important consideration here. Recent work shows that interactions between organisms are
502 weaker when biodiversity is measured as the response variable compared to abundance or
503 biomass (Adams et al., 2022). As such, future research could explore how the response variable
504 measured can control the legacy magnitude. It is worth noting that the legacies described in this
505 paper reveal a potential observer bias. These legacies are apparent to us in part because we are

506 large-bodied and long-lived compared to most organisms. For organisms with much smaller
507 body sizes and shorter lifespans, more modest biotic effects in space and time qualify as
508 important legacies. In other words, legacies can likely be scaled usefully to the size and lifespan
509 of engineer as well as the recipients. The largest, longest-lived organisms are affected primarily
510 by the largest-scale and most persistent modifications, whereas smaller organisms are affected by
511 a set of smaller-scale modifications relative to their body sizes. We hope that ecosystem
512 engineering legacy research will continue to establish how to comprehensively incorporate and
513 weight the numerous factors that affect the magnitude and impact of an ecosystem engineering
514 legacy.

515

516 4.2 Scale of research approaches

517 Most experiments or monitoring programs cannot run long enough to evaluate legacies
518 on time scales that match the lifespan of the engineer or, even longer, the expected duration of
519 the modification. Additionally, many studies do not cover a time period long enough to
520 document the evolutionary consequences of an engineer altering the environment (Lenton et al.
521 2021; Odling-Smee et al., 2003). Rather, commonly measured responses are short-term changes
522 in density or biomass (Albertson et al. 2021). In addition, carrying out manipulative experiments
523 by adding or removing engineers, or experimentally altering their structures, is difficult,
524 especially for larger-bodied engineers; the easier path is to use natural variation in
525 presence/absence of engineers (in time or space), but those patterns can be confounded by other
526 unrecognized or uncontrolled variables (Coggan et al., 2018). Some legacies operate on geologic
527 time scales, where effects of now extinct taxa still persist but are not obviously associated with a
528 specific original engineer. For example, ancient burrows likely created by ground sloths or

529 armadillos are still visible today in South America (Frank et al., 2012; Lopes et al., 2017). Along
530 with extinction, removal of engineers, such as reef building oysters or burrowing grouper, from
531 the landscape can also result from anthropogenic threats such as overharvest or fishing bycatch
532 (Coleman & Williams, 2002). Extinction of key engineers, or shifts in the relative dominance of
533 engineering species, undoubtedly affects the role of legacies. Modeling may provide a solution to
534 some of these challenges.

535

536 4.3 Feedbacks and modeling

537 Models have frequently included relationships between the environment and the
538 engineer, but not in both directions simultaneously (Berke, 2010; Coggan et al., 2018). Such
539 models have also traditionally focused on how individuals or species respond to a legacy rather
540 than evaluating community or ecosystem level consequences to legacies (Berke, 2010;
541 Cuddington et al., 2007; Zhang et al., 2012). Mechanistic models that can incorporate engineer
542 movement and other behaviors will also be an important area of research moving forward
543 (Franco & Fontinari, 2017; Moore, 2006). These models may be able to identify, for example,
544 how repeated engineering activities that are more or less frequent through time can affect the
545 magnitude of legacies. Disciplines that link ecology with the physical sciences, such as
546 ecogeomorphology or ecohydrology, provide a novel way to place legacies into a theoretical
547 framework that incorporates feedbacks (Atkinson et al., 2018; Corenblit et al., 2011).

548 Additional areas in need of development, more experimental work, and better models
549 include projected future climate variability and facilitation (Dee et al., 2020; Silknetter et al.
550 2020; Vasseur et al., 2014). Global change may disrupt feedbacks between engineers and their
551 local environments. For example, oyster larvae settle and start to grow on the shells of dead

552 oysters, which promotes positive density dependence and the persistence of oyster beds (Moore
553 et al., 2018). However, these relationships can be influenced by pollution, warming, and erosion
554 of shorelines. Niche construction theory considers the ways that engineers facilitate diversity by
555 expanding suitable conditions for other organisms (Bulleri et al., 2016; Kylafis & Loreau, 2011;
556 Silknetter et al., 2020). Although both positive and negative outcomes for various taxa
557 responding to altered environments created by ecosystem engineers are appreciated (Jones et al.,
558 1997), directionality as it relates to ecological legacies remains poorly understood. For example,
559 beaver dams might increase invertebrate beta diversity but decrease fish movement (Larsen et al.
560 2021). Do ‘positive’ effects have longer legacies than ‘negative’ effects, or *vice versa*, and more
561 importantly, why? Do the processes that maintain positive legacies also maintain negative
562 legacies? And, how will more frequent climate extremes alter the decay rates of engineered
563 structures and their potential to support biodiversity and ecosystem processes?

564

565 4.4 Restoration and management

566 Restoration ecologists and land managers are capitalizing on ecosystem engineers as
567 tools for rehabilitation (Byers et al., 2006; Crain & Bertness, 2006; Johnson et al., 2020; Law et
568 al., 2017). Commonly used organisms include nearshore marine mollusks and large, grazing
569 mammals that are reintroduced to areas where they were historically prominent but have been
570 extirpated. Restored oyster beds, for example, influence availability of food resources that
571 stimulate production of higher trophic levels and create habitat for a vast suite of other species
572 (Borsje et al., 2011; Coen et al., 2007). Restored bison populations promote several ecosystem
573 services and their positive effects on biodiversity are highest in abandoned rather than active
574 wallows (Nickell et al., 2018; Wilkins et al., 2019). Effort and funding allocated to restoration

575 work that includes ecosystem engineers suggests that practitioners are hopeful and perhaps even
576 confident that this approach will create a persistent biogenic influence and maintain improved
577 conditions over time. Despite these important and exciting advances, however, understanding of
578 engineer persistence and ability to provide the anticipated restoration outcomes over the long
579 term is still in its infancy. In an era of biodiversity loss, understanding how the removal of key
580 ecosystem engineering organisms and their legacies will influence communities and ecosystem
581 processes is an important area for future research in conservation biology (Boogert et al., 2006;
582 Valiente-Banuet et al., 2015; Yeakel et al., 2020).

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1573 **Tables**

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1575 **Table 1.** Definitions of terminology.

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| Term | Definition | References |
|------------------------------|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|--------------------------------------------------------|
| Ecosystem engineer | Organisms that create, maintain, or modify physical habitat or resource flows . These effects feedback on the organism itself (a kind of niche construction) but also transform entire local ecosystems that other organisms experience. Commonly recognized examples include corals, beavers, and burrowing activities of, for example, earthworms (terrestrial) or polychaetes (marine). | Jones et al., 1994; Messmer et al., 2011 |
| Extended phenotype | Phenotypes of organisms that project beyond their surfaces into the surrounding environment. Extended phenotypes often are built structures, like nests, burrows, and dams, and they represent a kind of artifact arising from physiological or behavioral processes of the builder. | Dawkins, 1982; Edwards et al., 2020 |
| Ecosystem engineering legacy | Transformations of the environment that persist beyond the disappearance or death of the transforming organisms and that affect other organisms in the community. The legacy can be physical, biological, or chemical. | Hastings et al., 2007; Johnson-Bice et. al., 2022 |
| Niche construction | Activities or structures of organisms that influence the biotic or abiotic environments that they experience. Leaf-mining insects, for example, can raise or lower the temperatures that they experience by altering local leaf radiative and evaporative budgets. In turn, such altered environments can shape evolutionary pressures on, for example, critical thermal maxima. | Odling-Smee et al., 1996; Pincebourde & Casas, 2019 |

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1583 **Table 2.**

1584 Examples of ecosystem engineers and their legacies drawn from the studies identified by the
1585 literature search. The examples provided here were selected by the authors as an illustrative
1586 subset of the 174 studies (Appendix A). Taxa are arranged in alphabetical order. The symbol † in
1587 the Taxon column identifies autogenic engineers; no symbol identifies allogenic engineers.
1588 Abbreviations are: m = meter; ND = non-dimensional; Repro. = reproduction; yr = year.

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Table 2A: Individual Ecosystem Engineers

| Taxon | Latin name | Body size (m) | Lifespan (yr) | Modification | Purpose | Structure size (m) | Occupation time (yr) | Decay time (yr) | Frequency | ND Spatial | ND Temporal | Citation |
|--------------|-------------------------------|---------------|---------------|----------------|--------------|--------------------|----------------------|-----------------|-----------|------------|-------------|----------------------------|
| Albatross | <i>Diomedea exulans</i> | 1 | 50 | Nest | Reproduction | 1 | 0.19 | 1 | Bi-annual | 1 | 5.3 | Haupt et al., (2016) |
| Bandicoot | <i>Isodon fusciventer</i> | 0.5 | 3 | Pit | Food | 0.1 | 0.0027 | 0.5 | Daily | 0.2 | 183 | Valentine et al., (2018) |
| Bettong | <i>Bettongia lesueur</i> | 0.35 | 5 | Pit | Food | 0.1 | 0.0027 | 1 | Daily | 0.29 | 365 | Ross et al., (2020) |
| Bilby | <i>Macrotis lagotis</i> | 0.55 | 7 | Pit | Food/shelter | 2 | 1.15 | 30 | Daily | 3.6 | 26 | Dawson et al., (2019) |
| Bison | <i>Bison latifrons</i> | 2.5 | 10 | Wallow | Cleaning | 4 | 1 | 125 | Multiple | 1.6 | 125 | Nickell et al., (2018) |
| Caddisfly | Hydropsychidae | 0.02 | 1 | Net | Food | 0.02 | 0.083 | 0.17 | Monthly | 1 | 2 | Tumolo et al., (2019) |
| Echidna | <i>Tachyglossus aculeatus</i> | 0.3 | 50 | Pit | Reproduction | 0.2 | 0.55 | 1.5 | Annual | 0.67 | 2.7 | Eldridge & Koen, (2021) |
| Eider duck | <i>Somateria mollissima</i> | 0.5 | 20 | Fecal matter | Waste | 5 | 0.25 | 1 | Seasonal | 10 | 4 | Ebert et al., (2013) |
| Elephant | <i>Loxodonta africana</i> | 4 | 60 | Tree removal | Food | 60 | 1 | 7 | Seasonal | 15 | 7 | Pringle, (2008) |
| Kangaroo rat | <i>Dipodomys spectabilis</i> | 0.3 | 3 | Burrow | Shelter | 5 | 3 | 70 | Lifetime | 17 | 23 | Guo, (1996) |
| Lamprey | <i>Petromyzon marinus</i> | 1 | 4 | Redd | Repro. | 1 | 0.42 | 0.25 | Lifetime | 1 | 0.6 | Hogg et al., (2014) |
| Moth | <i>Pseudoltephusa</i> sp. | 0.01 | 1 | Leaf tie | Pupation | 0.05 | 0.038 | 0.33 | Lifetime | 5 | 8.5 | Lill & Marquis, (2003) |
| Puma | <i>Puma concolor</i> | 2 | 8 | Carcass | Food | 1 | 0.019 | 0.12 | Monthly | 0.5 | 6.3 | Barry et al., (2019) |
| Rabbit | <i>Oryctolagus cuniculus</i> | 0.4 | 9 | Pit | Breeding | 0.1 | 0.1 | 2 | Daily | 0.25 | 20 | James et al., (2011) |
| Salmon | <i>Oncorhynchus</i> sp. | 1 | 5 | Redd | Reproduction | 0.5 | 0.02 | 1 | Lifetime | 0.5 | 50 | Verspoor et al., (2010) |
| Shrub | <i>Noaea mucronata</i> | 1 | 5 | Soil chemistry | Growth | 2 | 5 | 5 | Lifetime | 2 | 1 | Stavi et al., (2021) |
| Stingray | Dasyatidae | 2 | 15 | Pit | Food | 0.5 | 0.0027 | 0.01 | Daily | 0.25 | 3.7 | D'Andrea et al., (2002) |
| Sunfish | Centrarchidae | 0.13 | 3 | Pit | Reproduction | 1.2 | 0.083 | 1 | Annual | 9.2 | 12 | Thorp, (1988) |
| Vole | <i>Microtus californicus</i> | 0.15 | 0.5 | Plant removal | Food | 0.5 | 0.5 | 7 | Daily | 3.3 | 14 | Huntzinger et al., (2011) |
| Woodpecker | <i>Dendrocopos major</i> | 0.2 | 5 | Tree hole | Nesting | 0.3 | 0.083 | 50 | Yearly | 1.5 | 600 | Catalina-Allueva & Martin, |
| Worm | Multiple | 0.1 | 1 | Cast | Waste | 0.05 | 0.17 | 1 | Daily | 0.5 | 6 | Zangerlé et al., (2014) |

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Table 2B: Conspecific Ecosystem Engineers

| Taxon | Latin name | Body Size (m) | Lifespan (yr) | Abundance | Modification | Purpose | Structure size | Decay time (yr) | ND Temporal | ND Spatial | Citation |
|--------------------------|--------------------------|------------------|---------------|-----------------------------------|------------------|---------------|-------------------|-----------------|-------------|------------|------------------------|
| Beaver | <i>Castor Canadensis</i> | 0.5 | 10 | 3/dam | Dam | Habitat, food | 100 m | 100 | 10 | 67 | Bush et al., (2019) |
| Biofilms | Multiple | 10 ⁻⁶ | 0.001 | 10 ⁻¹² /m ² | Binding sediment | Growth | 1 m ² | 0.003 | 3 | 1 | Friend et al., (2003) |
| Blue mussel [†] | <i>Mytilus edulis</i> | 0.1 | 10 | 25/m ² | Reefs | Food | 50 m ² | 30 | 3 | 2 | Commuto et al., (2019) |

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|--------------------------------|------------------------------|------------------|-----|------------------------|------------------|---------|------------------------|-----------------|-----------------|------|----------------------------|
| Coral [†] | Multiple | 0.01 | 10 | 750,000/m ² | Reef | Habitat | 5,000 m ² | 10 ⁶ | 10 ⁵ | 0.12 | Jackson-Bue'et al., (2021) |
| Cordgrass [†] | <i>Spartina</i> | 0.3 | 5 | 50/m ² | Sediment trap | Growth | 1 m ² | 4 | 3.3 | 0.47 | Smith et al., (2018) |
| Eastern oyster [†] | <i>Crassostrea virginica</i> | 0.04 | 5 | 3,000/m ² | Multiple effects | Food | 120,000 m ² | 10 | 2 | 0.46 | Reise et al., (2017) |
| Freshwater mussel [†] | Multiple | 0.06 | 5 | 20/m ² | Multiple effects | Food | 1 m ² | 5 | 1 | 3.7 | Ilarri et al., (2019) |
| Ground-creeping plant | <i>Carpobrotus edulis</i> | 0.1 | 20 | 20/m ² | Soil chemistry | Growth | 0.5 m ² | 1 | 0.05 | 2.2 | Novoa et al., (2013) |
| Leaf-cutting ant | <i>Atta</i> sp. | 0.002 | 0.2 | 10 ⁶ /mound | Mounds | Shelter | 70 m ² | 2 | 10 | 4.2 | Costa et al., (2018) |
| Mite | <i>Calacarus flagelliset</i> | 10 ⁻⁴ | 1 | 10 ⁴ /leaf | Leaf tie | Repro. | 0.4 m ² | 0.5 | 0.5 | 63 | Fournier et al., (2003) |
| Poplar [†] | <i>Populus nigra</i> | 10 | 50 | 0.4/m | Sediment trap | Growth | 25 m | 40 | 0.8 | 0.25 | Corenblit et al., (2014) |
| Termites | Multiple | 0.01 | 1 | 10 ⁶ /mound | Mounds | Shelter | 200 m ² | 4,000 | 4,000 | 1.4 | Joseph et al., (2018) |
| Vizcacha | <i>Lagostomus maximus</i> | 0.3 | 10 | 15/pile | Litter pile | Food | 5 m | 5 | 0.5 | 1.1 | Hierro et al., (2011) |

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Table 2C: Ecosystem Engineer Collectives

Soils of mountains of Luquillo National Forest, Puerto Rico; Thickness = 1 m; Soil production rate = 0.1 m/1000 yrs; Decay time = 10,000 years

| Taxon | Latin name | Body size (m) | Lifespan (yr) | Modification | Abundance | Citation |
|----------|--------------------------------|------------------|------------------|------------------------------------|--------------------|----------------------------|
| Bacteria | <i>Cupriavidus</i> sp. | 10 ⁻⁶ | 10 ⁻⁶ | Iron oxidation, mineral weathering | 10 ⁸ /g | Napieralski et al., (2019) |
| Worm | <i>Pontoscolex corethrurus</i> | 0.1 | 0.1 | Soil bioturbation, cast generation | 90/m ² | Lavelle, (2007) |
| Tabonuco | <i>Dacryodes excelsa</i> | 30 | 75 | Rock fracture, soil bioturbation | 200/ha | Scatena & Lugo, (1995) |

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Travertine dams and pools of Fossil Creek, Arizona; height = 3 m; growth rate = 0.01 m/yr; Decay time = 300 years

| Taxon | Latin name | Body size (m) | Lifespan (yr) | Modification | Abundance | Citation |
|-------------------------|--------------------------|------------------|---------------|---------------------------------------------|---------------------------------|---------------------------|
| Cyanobacteria | <i>Synechococcus</i> | 10 ⁻⁶ | 0.3 | Raise pH | 10 ⁷ /m ² | Takashima & Kano, (2008) |
| Water silk [†] | <i>Spirogyra</i> | 0.01 | 0.3 | Surface for CaCO ₃ precipitation | 10 ⁶ /m ² | Compson et al., (2009) |
| Cottonwood [†] | <i>Populus fremontii</i> | 10 | 50 | Blocking water flow | 100/ha | Viles & Pentecost, (1999) |

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1601 **Figure Legends**

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1603 **Figure 1.** (A) Ecosystem engineering organisms can leave legacies that range from small
1604 (green) to large (blue) duration (A) and spatial extent (B), and from low (green) to high (blue)
1605 frequency through time (C) and through space (D). These three attributes – duration, spatial
1606 extent, and frequency – of the modification contribute to the magnitude of the legacy.

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1608 **Figure 2.** Summary of ecosystem engineering papers studying legacy effects from 1994 to 2020;
1609 see Appendix A for additional information. (A) The number of papers studying legacy effects
1610 through time. Black circles show all papers identified by any of the search terms in panel A and
1611 gray circles show those papers identified using only the specific search term “legac*.” (B) The
1612 number of papers identified by each search term, ordered from highest to lowest. There were 28
1613 papers that matched with more than one of the search terms.

1614

1615 **Figure 3.** Duration of an engineered structure through time and its spatial extent determine
1616 legacy magnitude. Living strategies such as individuals (purple) or groups of organisms (orange)
1617 and collective actions of multiple organisms (grey), provide additional context for understanding
1618 ecosystem engineering legacies.

1619

1620 **Figure 4.** Non-dimensional framework for evaluating the strength of ecosystem engineering
1621 legacy effects. (A) Ecosystem engineering examples that illustrate the wide range of legacies
1622 documented in the literature, scaled by lifespan and body size of the engineer. Legacy effect is a
1623 function of structure duration (temporal extent relative to time of engineer occupation) and size

1624 (spatial extent relative to engineer body size). Living strategies of the engineer(s) may influence
1625 the relative importance of spatial versus temporal extent, as suggested by the differences in
1626 plotting positions of single individuals (purple) and conspecific groups (orange). We categorized
1627 each example as individual or group by taking cues from the language used by the author(s) of
1628 the original paper when the information was not explicitly stated; see Table 2 and Appendix A
1629 for additional information. (B) A general framework for relating legacy magnitude to the lifespan
1630 and body size of the engineer doing the work. Legacies fall along a gradient, where those that
1631 last as long or longer or are as large or larger than the engineer are stronger (blue), and those that
1632 are relatively brief or small are weaker (green) or negligible (grey).

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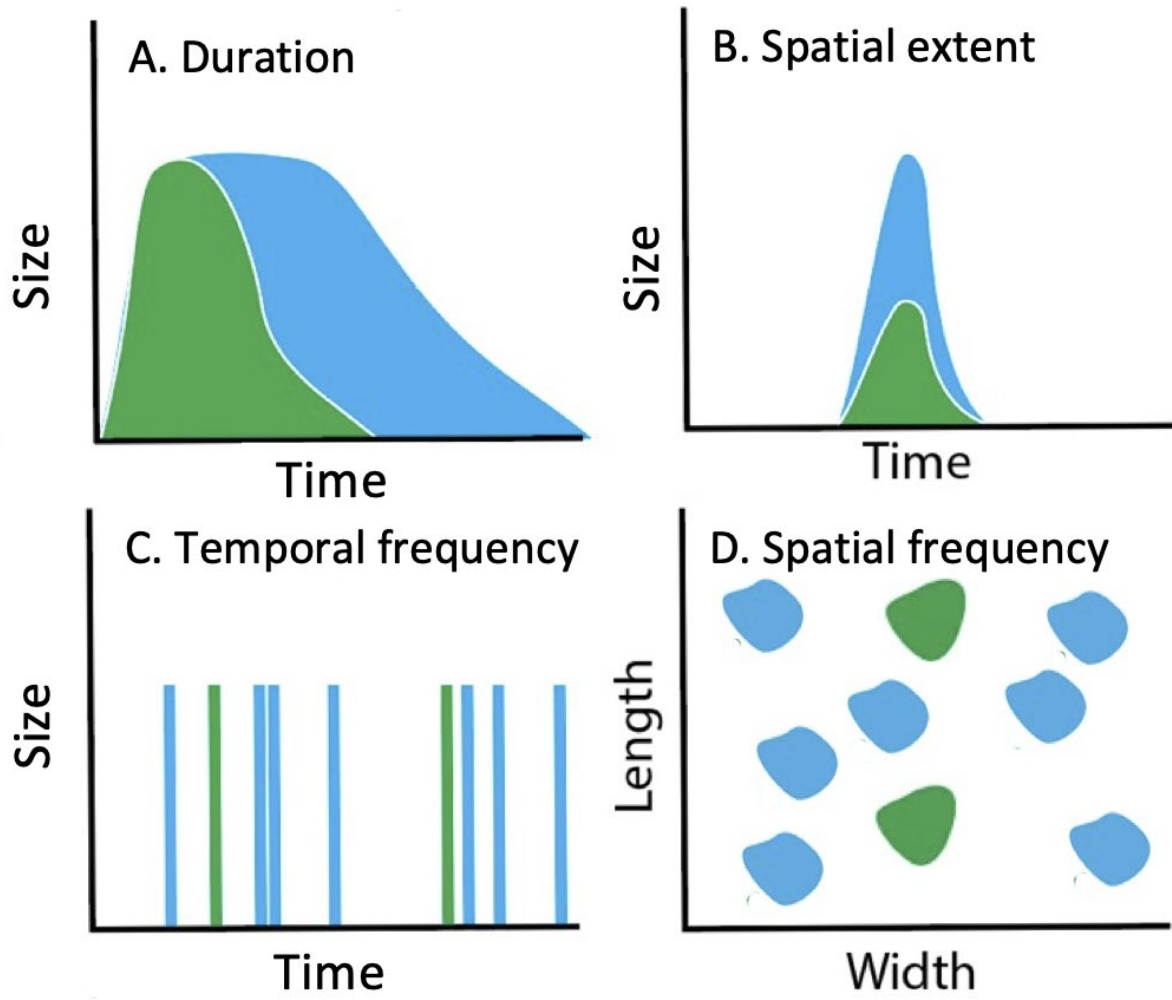
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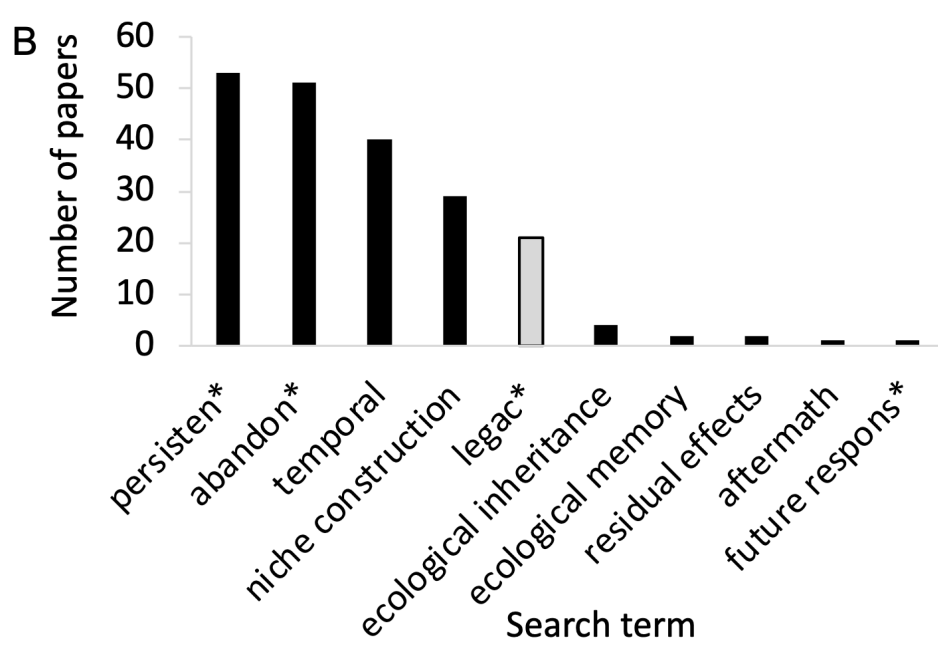
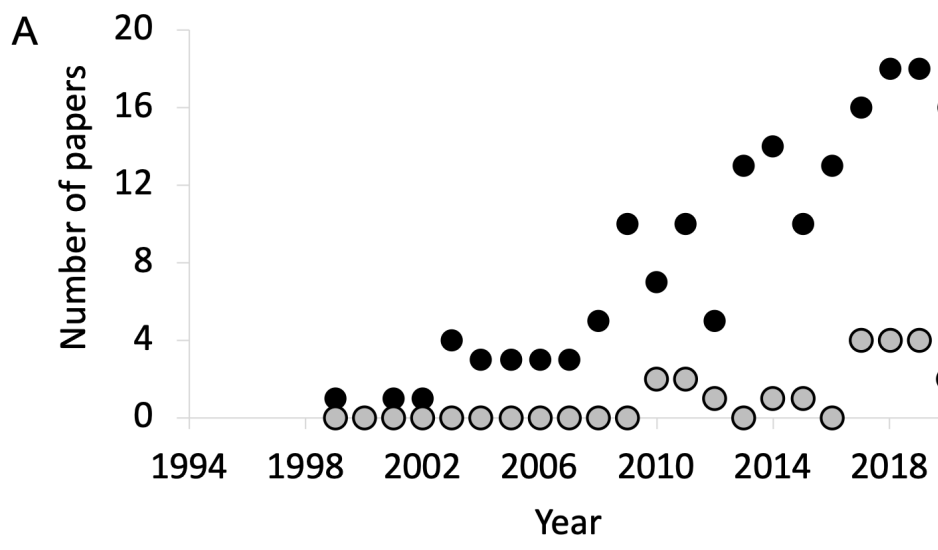
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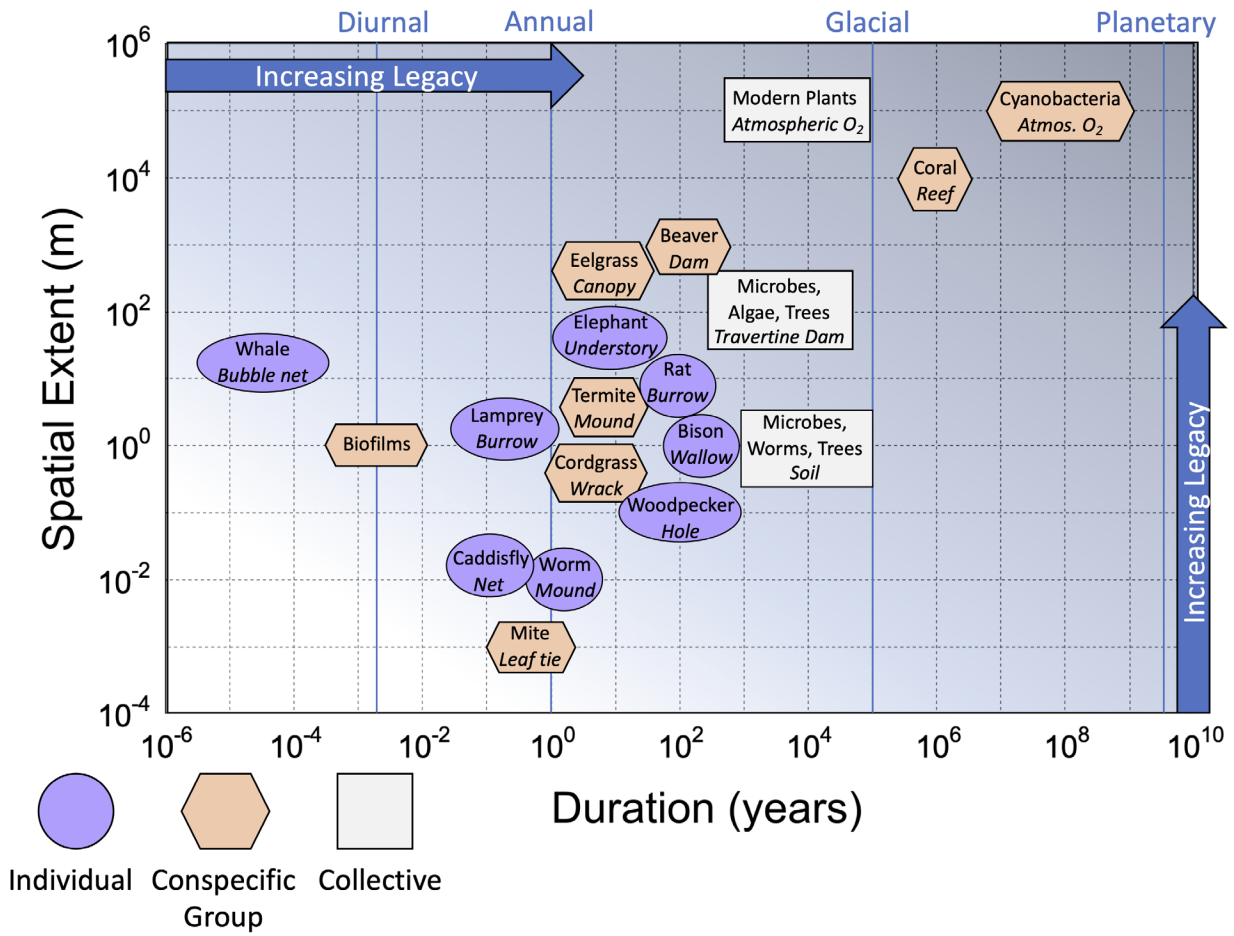


1648 Figure 1.



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1650 Figure 2.



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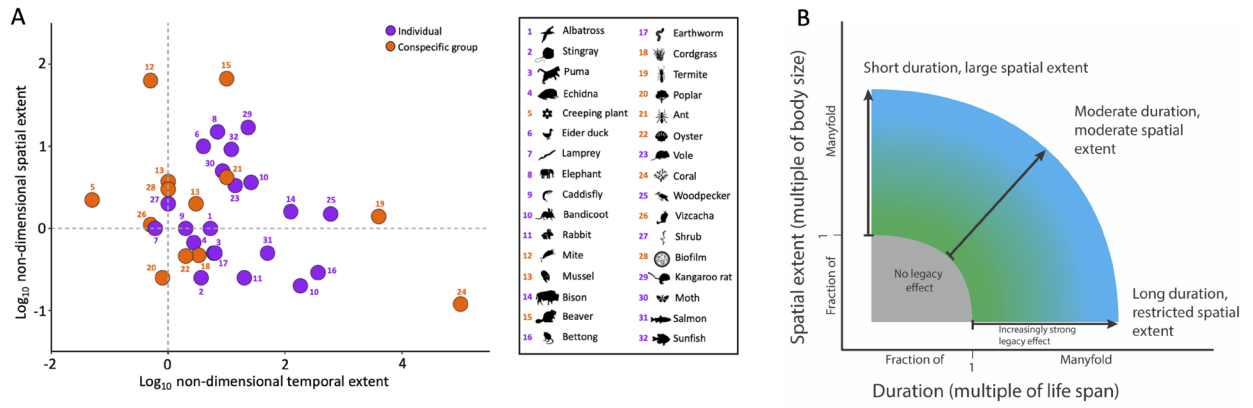
1653 Figure 3.

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1660 Figure 4.