#### 1 Biological integrity enhances the qualitative effectiveness of conditional mice-oak

## 2 mutualisms

## 3 Teresa Morán-López<sup>1</sup>, Jesús Sánchez-Dávila<sup>2</sup>, Ignasi Torre<sup>3</sup>, Alvaro Navarro-

- 4 Castilla<sup>4</sup>, Isabel Barja<sup>4, 5</sup>, Mario Díaz<sup>2\*</sup>
- 5 1 Laboratorio Ecotono, INIBIOMA-CONICET, Universidad Nacional del Comahue,
- 6 Black River, Argentina, 2 Department of Biogeography and Global Change (BGC-
- 7 MNCN-CSIC), National Museum of Natural Sciences, CSIC, c/Serrano 155bis, E-
- 8 28006 Madrid, Spain, **3** Museu de Ciències Naturals de Granollers (MCNG), E-08402
- 9 Granollers, Barcelona, Spain, 4 Departament of Biology, Unit of Zoology, Faculty of
- 10 Sciences, Universidad Autónoma de Madrid, C/Darwin 2, Campus Universitario de
- 11 Cantoblanco, 28049 Madrid, Spain, 5 Centro de Investigación en Biodiversidad y
- 12 Cambio Global (CIBC-UAM) Universidad Autónoma de Madrid, C. Darwin 2, E-28049
- 13 Madrid, Spain
- 14
- \* Correspondence: E-mail Mario.Diaz@ccma.csic.es; tel +34 91 782 21 02; fax +34
  91 564 08 00
- 17

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22 Supplementary files

#### 23 Abstract

Scatter-hoarding decisions by rodents are key for the long-term maintenance of 24 scattered tree populations. Decisions are determined by seed value, competition and 25 predation risk, so that they can be influenced by the integrity of the biological system 26 27 composed by trees, rodents, ungulate competitors, and rodent predators. We manipulate and model the oak-mice interaction in a Spanish dehesa, an anthropogenic savanna 28 system suffering chronic tree regeneration failure, and quantify the joint effect of 29 30 intrinsic and extrinsic factors on acorn dispersal effectiveness. First, we conducted a large-scale cafeteria field experiment, where we modified ungulate presence and 31 predation risk, and followed mouse scatter-hoarding decisions under contrasting levels 32 33 of moonlight and acorn availability. Then, we estimated the net effects of competition and risk by means of transition probability models that simulated mouse scatter-34 hoarding decisions according to the environmental context. Our results show that 35 suboptimal conditions for mice balance the interaction towards the mutualism as they 36 force mice to forage less efficiently. Under stressful conditions (predation risks and 37 presence of ungulates), lack of antipredatory cover around dehesa trees limited 38 39 transportation of acorns, but also precluded mice activities outside tree canopies. As a result, post-dispersal predation rates were reduced and large acorns had a higher 40 probability to survive. Our work shows that inter-specific interactions preventing 41 42 efficient foraging by scatter-hoarders benefitted seed dispersal. Therefore, the maintenance of the full set of producers, consumers, dispersers and predators in 43 ecosystems is key for promoting seed dispersal effectiveness in conditional mutualisms. 44



Keywords: synzoochory, scatter-hoarding, competition, risk, seed fate

46

## 47 Introduction

48	Scatter-hoarders are key dispersers in temperate and Mediterranean forests where acorn-
49	bearing trees (oaks) tend to be dominant [1-5]. Nut dispersal by scatter-hoarders
50	(synzoochory) is a classical plant-animal conditional mutualism. The outcome of the
51	interaction may be either mutualistic (dispersal) or antagonistic (predation) depending
52	on whether seeds are consumed or, alternatively, cached and not retrieved [6]. The
53	balance between mutualism and antagonism is contingent on intrinsic properties of
54	interaction partners (e.g. propensity of animals to store food) as well as on the
55	ecological setting in which the interaction occurs [5]. As a result, the net effects of
56	synzoochory can be highly dynamic in space and time making difficult to predict its
57	outcomes along environmental gradients and ecological timescales [7, 8].
58	Several mice species (Apodemus, Mus, Peromyscus) are the main scatter-hoarders in
59	landscapes where avian dispersers (corvids; [9]) are absent, scarce or inefficient [2, 10].
60	Two main external factors modulate mouse scatter-hoarding decisions: competition for
61	seeds and predation risks [11-13]. Intraspecific competition and the presence of
62	ungulates tend to encourage seed mobilization [6, 14-16]. Especially, when predating
63	seeds in situ is more time-consuming than storing them for later consumption [12] and
64	shrubs provide enough antipredatory cover during transportation [16, 17]. Even though
65	lack of antipredatory cover can limit dispersal [16], intermediate risks can promote
66	mobilization when mice carry away seeds to manipulate them in safer locations [12].
67	Risk perception, in turn, depends on factors that affect exposure to predators (e.g.
68	moonlight) and direct cues of their presence (e.g. scent) [19-24]. Overall, moderate level
69	of stress for foraging mice (i.e. competition and predation risk) tend to unbalance the
70	rodent-tree interaction towards its mutualistic side. In the absence of stress, rodents

usually act as efficient seed predators consuming, immediately or soon afterwards, seed
crops under the canopy of mother trees [5].

73 Beyond the environmental conditions of plant-animal encounters, seed size can affect 74 the initial outcomes of the interaction (selected, eaten or cached) as well as post-75 dispersal processes such as germination and seedling survival. Larger seeds are usually 76 selected and preferentially cached because they provide higher food rewards [3, 24-28]. 77 In addition, seed size enhances post-dispersal seedling survival and establishment [29], which is a key component of dispersal effectiveness [30] in scatter-hoarder animals [3, 78 5, 31]. Nonetheless, the strength and even sign of acorn size effects on mouse foraging 79 80 decisions are not unequivocal, but context-dependent. Larger acorns are most preferred when food is scarce [32-34], but may be avoided when longer handling times [27] 81 diminish their profitability [35, 36] or result in unaffordable predation risks during 82 manipulation [11, 12]. Therefore, a full picture of the location of mice in the 83 antagonism-mutualism continuum [4] requires accounting for seed size effects on 84 85 scatter-hoarding decisions as well as the influence of competition and risk. In this context, dehesas represent an excellent study system to assess the main factors 86 87 modulating mouse foraging decisions, and hence, dispersal. They are savanna-like habitats, simpler than natural forests but diverse enough to maintain all key elements 88 influencing the oak-mice conditional mutualism. In spite of this, dehesas, as well as 89 other man-made systems dominated by scattered trees, suffer from a chronic lack of tree 90 91 regeneration that compromises its long-term sustainability [37, 38]. Depending on the local intensity of management, nearby areas can have contrasting levels of shrub cover. 92 93 mice densities and competition with ungulates [39, 40]. In addition, the community of predators is simpler than in forest areas, facilitating the experimental manipulation of 94 direct cues of risks [24]. In this work we take advantage of a large-scale experiment of 95

96	ungulate exclosure in a Mediterranean dehesa to (1) quantify acorn size effects across
97	different stages of the dispersal process (from seed choices to initial fates); and (2)
98	evaluate if size effects are consistent across contrasting scenarios of predation risk and
99	inter- and intraspecific competition. In addition, we parameterized a transition
100	probability model that assembled all scatter-hoarding decisions by mice to quantify and
101	tease apart the net effect of competition and risk on acorn dispersal. Our integrated
102	approach combining field experiments and mechanistic modelling will allow testing
103	whether the key role of rodents as seed dispersers in scattered tree systems can be
104	enhanced by restoring the biological integrity of these systems [13].
105	
106	Methods
107	Study area and species
108	Field work was carried out in the holm oak Quercus ilex dehesa woodlands of the
109	Cabañeros National Park (Central Spain, Ciudad Real province, 39°24' N, 38°35 W).

110 Dehesas are savanna-like man-made habitats resulting from shrub removal and tree

thinning and pruning to enhance herb growth for livestock [41]. The studied dehesas

were opened in the late 1950s. Currently they have no livestock but wild ungulate

113 populations of red deer *Cervus elaphus* and wild boars *Sus scrofa*. Deer densities were

around 0.14 ind./ha [42] and boars are abundant but at unknown densities[43]. Acorns

fall from trees from mid-October to late November [44].

116 The study area covers around 780 ha, with two ungulate exclosures (made with wire

117 fences 2 m tall and 32 cm x 16 cm mesh) of 150 ha and 4.65 ha separated from each

other by 1500 m. The exclosures prevent the entrance of ungulates but not of

119 mesocarnivores (mainly common genets *Genetta genetta* and red foxes *Vulpes*;

120 pers. obs. based on scat searches) and raptors. Both areas have similar tree abundance

(average density 20.4 trees ha<sup>-1</sup>) and low shrub cover (<1%), as measured on aerial</li>
photographs and vegetation surveys both under canopies and outside them [24]. The
Algerian mouse is the most abundant scatter-hoarding rodent in the area [45], and it is a
common prey of genets and other generalist predators [46, 47].

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127

## 126 Experimental design

(23 × 7.5 × 9 cm; Sherman Co., Tallahassee, USA) baited with canned tuna in olive oil
mixed with flour and a piece of apple. Water-repellent cotton was provided to prevent
the cooling of the individual captured overnight. Traps were set during two consecutive
days during the new moon of January 2012. High capture probability of *M. spretus*(detectability: 0.88±0.03SE; [48]) allowed to consider false negatives in occupancy
unlikely. Among trees known to be occupied by Algerian mice, we randomly selected
ten trees inside and ten outside in each of the two exclosures (40 focal trees in total).

Tree occupancy by mice was established by means of live trapping using Sherman traps

We paired focal trees according to their proximity and we randomly assigned a predator scent treatment to one of them. Predator scent treatment consisted in placing fresh genet feces (10 g) mixed with distilled water close to a corner of the cages where acorns were placed [24]. Genets are generalist predators whose presence and scats are known to influence rodent behavior [17, 21, 23]. Fresh feces were collected from two captive common genets housed in the Cañada Real Open Center (Madrid, Spain).

Fresh acorns were collected from holm oaks growing near the study area in October 2011 and stored dry in a cooler (4 °C) until use. Sound acorns, with no marks of insect damage [45], were weighed with a digital balance to the nearest 0.01 g. Groups of 15 acorns in three categories were randomly selected (5 each, large, >10 g; medium-sized, 5-10 g, and small, 1-5 g). Acorns were placed under the canopy of each focal tree inside

a 50 cm  $\times$  50 cm x 15 cm galvanized-steel cage to prevent acorn consumption by birds 146 147 or ungulates [45]. A metal wire (ø 0.6 mm, 0.5 m length) with a numbered plastic tag was attached to each acorn [16]. After removing any naturally-present acorn within the 148 cages, we randomly placed acorns in the intersection of a 3 rows x 5 columns grid. To 149 track mouse choices, acorn size for each position was noted. Acorns were left exposed 150 151 to mice for three consecutive nights, then removed. Mobilized acorns were located by 152 looking at the plastic tags during the following days. To account for changes in night brightness and acorn availability [19, 22], the cafeteria experiment was repeated four 153 154 times during the full-moon and new-moon periods of November 2011 and February 155 2012. No official permits or protocol approvals were legally necessary since we did not manipulate individual mice except for checking whether trees were occupied or not by 156 means of live traps. We followed Guidelines of the American Society of Mammalogists 157 158 for the use of wild mammals in research [49]. We performed all manipulations with disposable latex gloves, to avoid effects of human odor on rodent behavior [50]. 159

160

#### 161 Mouse foraging behavior

A video-camera OmniVision CMOS 380 LTV (OmniVision, Santa Clara, USA) (3.6 162 163 mm lens) monitored mice foraging activity within each cage [17]. Cameras were set on 1.5 m tall tripods located 2.5 m from each cage, powered by car batteries (70 Ah, lead 164 acid) connected to a solar panel (ono-silicon erial P 20; 20 w). Video-cameras were 165 166 connected to ELRO recorders with dvr32cards (ELRO, Amsterdam, Netherlands) and took continuous record for three consecutive days autonomously (recorded in quality at 167 5 frames  $s^{-1}$ ). Events with rodent activity, from the entry of the individual into the cage 168 up to the exit from it, were located and separated using Boilsoft Video Splitter software 169 (https://www.boilsoft.com/videosplitter/)[17]. Within each event we noted which acorn 170

was manipulated and whether it was removed outside the cage. For removed acorns we
measured mobilization distance (cm) and noted its status (predated or not after
transportation).

174

#### **175 Data analysis**

176 To assess acorn choice by rodents, we fitted a hierarchical multinomial model. Our 177 response variable was acorn selection (yes/no). Our explanatory variables were: acorn size (g), moon phase (new/full), month (February, November), ungulate presence 178 (yes/no), predator scent (yes/no), acorn availability in the cage (g) and the two-way 179 180 interactions between size and environmental effects. Local acorn availability was measured as total acorn mass in the cage during the event. Both, acorn size and 181 availability were scaled previous to the analyses. Focal tree was introduced as a random 182 183 factor in the intercept term. To evaluate the effects of acorn size on the probability of 184 removal, we used a hierarchical logistic model. Our response variable was whether a 185 selected acorn was mobilized outside the cage or not (yes/no). Our explanatory variables and random effects were the same as in the multinomial model. 186 Subsequently, we analyzed the effect of acorn size and environmental covariates (and 187 188 their two-way interaction) on seed dispersal. Our response variables were mobilization distances (cm, log-transformed) and deposition status (viable or predated). We used a 189 hierarchical Gaussian model in the former case, and a hierarchical logistic model in the 190 191 latter. Our explanatory variables and random effects were the same as in the previous models. In all four models (selection, removal, mobilization distance and fate) we used 192 uninformative priors (Supplementary File 1). All analyses were performed employing a 193 Bayesian approach with JAGS 3.4.0 [51]. We checked for convergence for all model 194 parameters (Rhat < 1.1) and that the effective sample size of posterior distributions was 195

high (>800). We estimated mean and credible interval of posterior distributions,
calculated the proportion of the posterior distribution with same sign of the mean (f) and
evaluated the predictive power of our models by means of posterior predictive checks
(Supplementary Files 1 and 2).

200

## 201 Simulating scatter-hoarding decisions

202 To estimate the joint effect of seed size, competition and risk on acorn dispersal we designed a probability transition model in which simulated mice adapted their foraging 203 behavior to the environmental context (Supplementary File 3). Before model run, we 204 205 parameterized mouse scatter-hoarding decisions (from selection to initial fate) following the same scheme of regressions explained in the previous section. Nonetheless, here we 206 207 only used data from November, the period of peak acorn falling in our study system. 208 Consequently, we did not include month as a covariate. For each behavioral submodel (selection, removal and initial fate), we obtained posterior distributions of parameters by 209 210 running 50000 iterations in three chains (in all cases Rhat< 1.1, and Neff> 1000). 211 Model setup mimics our experimental design, 20 trees outside and 20 inside exclosures paired according to a predator scent treatment (presence vs. absence). Simulations begin 212 213 under new moon conditions with focal trees offering 15 acorns of large, medium and small sizes (5 each). Acorn size is sampled from empirical distributions of these size 214 categories. In each focal tree, the number of foraging events is drawn from a Poison 215 216 distribution with mean equal to the average number of events observed in the corresponding moon phase ( $\overline{\lambda_m}$ ). During each foraging event, simulated mice decide 217 which acorn to handle and whether to remove it or not. If removed, mice decide to 218 predate it or not after mobilization and acorn availability in the cage is updated. Once all 219

foraging events (of all trees) are simulated, acorn dispersal is modelled under full moonconditions (Supplementary File 3, Fig. S1).

For each model run we sampled parameter of behavioral submodels (selection, removal 222 and deposition) from posterior distributions fitted to data ( $\hat{\phi}_s$ , being s each behavioral 223 224 submodel and  $\Phi$  its parameter set). Thus, in our simulations, mice adapted their decisions to acorn size and availability (in the experimental cage), characteristics of the 225 focal tree (i.e. ungulate and predator scent presence), and the moon phase in which the 226 foraging event occurs (new or full moon). After each model run (dispersal under new 227 and full moon conditions), the program tracked the size and status of handled acorns 228 229 and the environmental covariates in which the foraging event occurred. We run the model 1000 times and plotted deposition rates of viable acorns and their size with 230 respect to the moon phase and tree characteristics (predator scent and ungulate 231 232 presence). See Supplementary File 3 for detailed model specifications and Fig. S1 for a summary of the process overview. 233

234

## 235 **Results**

Before setting the cafeteria experiments in November, we removed from cages 53.3

acorns/m<sup>2</sup> on average (range: 0-104). No acorn was found in February. We monitored

238 2280 acorns under 38 focal trees. We detected mouse activity in 18 and 26 trees in the

- new and full moon of November, and in 26 and 24 trees in the new and full moon of
- 240 February, respectively. Mice manipulated 1378 acorns. Out of them, 505 were

241 mobilized outside cages and 385 (76%) were relocated [26].

242

## 243 Foraging decisions in the focal tree: selection and removal

244	In general, mice selected larger acorns, but the positive effect of size was modulated by
245	environmental conditions. Size-driven selection preferentially occurred in the absence
246	of competition with ungulates (Fig. 1A) and predator scent (Fig. 1B). In addition, mouse
247	selectivity was enhanced under low local acorn availability (Table 1, selection). Among
248	selected acorns, mice preferentially removed smaller ones. Such selective behavior
249	occurred when risks were low due to reduced night brightness (new moon, Fig. 1C) or
250	lack of predator scent (Fig. 1D), as well as when ungulates were absent (Table 2). Acorn
251	availability at local and landscape scales did not modify size effects, although they
252	changed mobilization rates. Rates were higher in lean periods (13% in November vs 24
253	% in February) and when local availability was high (Table 2, removal).
254	
254 255	Foraging decisions during dispersal: mobilization distances and predation
	<b>Foraging decisions during dispersal: mobilization distances and predation</b> Mice mobilized acorns closer under new moon conditions (Fig. 2A) and when ungulates
255	
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# 265 Transition probability model for acorn dispersal

Under optimal conditions (new moon, no predator scent or ungulates), post-dispersal
predation rates were higher (Fig. 3A) and simulated mice preferentially consumed large
acorns (i.e. viable acorns were smaller, Fig. 3B-D, left bars). However, predation risks
and ungulate presence precluded acorn consumption after mobilization and attenuated
selection. As a result, the proportion of viable acorns increased and they were larger
(Fig. 3A and B-D, right bars).

272

# 273 **Discussion**

274 Overall, our results show that environmental stress unbalances the oak-rodent interaction towards the mutualism side. When relaxed, mice preferentially consumed 275 276 large acorns and removed small ones. Furthermore, mobilized seeds were more likely to 277 be predated. In contrast, under stressful conditions (predation risk and competition) 278 mice foraged opportunistically and reduced their activity outside tree canopies. As a result, predation rates after mobilization decreased, and larger acorns had a higher 279 probability to survive. This bolsters the idea that interactions with third-party players 280 281 can strongly affect seed dispersal effectiveness of scatter-hoarders [12, 15, 52]. Also, that intermediate stress can benefit plants by reducing the capacity of scatter-hoarders to 282 recover mobilized seeds. 283

As expected, larger and more valuable acorns were preferentially handled by mice, which adapted this behavior to the environmental context [12]. In line with previous work, mice foraged opportunistically in trees with predator scent, probably because they devoted more time to vigilant behaviors [17, 27] at expenses of acorn discrimination [22]. In contrast, acorn availability effects did not follow the expectations of increased selectivity in scenarios of food depletion [28, 52, 53]. Seed size effects were similar

between acorn fall peaks and lean periods. Furthermore, mice foraged randomly when 290 291 ungulates were present, while they selected larger seeds within exclosures. These unexpected results can be explained by some particularities of our system. Dehesas are 292 293 characterized by high acorn production and scarce shrub cover (<1%) around trees [41, 54, 55]. Under such circumstances, the effects of increased predation risks outside tree 294 295 canopies can outweigh those of competition leading to a rapid and random harvesting of 296 seeds [22]. In contrast, within ungulate exclosures, reduced grazing and soil compaction has promoted taller resprouts under canopies and increased cover of herbs and tussocks 297 around trees [56]. As a result, in the absence of ungulates mice can forage under shelter 298 299 and select the most profitable food items [17]. Taken together, these patterns point out that in dehesas, risk rather than competition modulates the effects of ungulate presence 300 on acorn selection. 301

Larger acorns tend to be carried away, mobilized farther and preferentially cached in 302 303 forests habitats [4, 26, 27, 34]. However, in our study larger acorns had a higher probability of being predated (in situ and after transportation) and seed size did not 304 affect mobilization distances. Again, these results highlight that environmental 305 306 conditions in dehesas are particularly harsh for rodents. In general, small seeds are 307 preferentially mobilized when the costs of carrying large ones result unaffordable [12]. In the presence of ungulates, low antipredatory cover and high trampling risks may have 308 309 triggered transportation costs [13, 57], deterring mice from carrying large seeds away. Again, seed size effects were not fixed, but depended on direct and indirect cues of risk. 310 311 Preferential removal of small seeds only occurred in trees with no predator scent or under new moon conditions, reflecting that only when risks are mild mice can take the 312 time to select among the seeds available [15, 22]. 313

Regarding post-dispersal survival, we expected higher predation when acorns were 314 315 deposited close to tree canopies [13, 16]. Nonetheless, this relationship blurred in our 316 system. Outside ungulate exclosures, larger acorns had a higher probability of escaping predation in spite of being mobilized nearby source trees. In dehesas, the pervasiveness 317 of open land cover forces mice to concentrate their activities beneath canopies [13, 24, 318 319 56], and decreases the likelihood that mobilized acorns are encountered and consumed 320 [58]. Taken together, our results suggest that intermediate levels of stress can enhance seed dispersal effectiveness by mice (as suggested by [52, 59]). Accordingly, in our 321 322 simulations, suboptimal conditions (due to increased risks or ungulate presence) 323 enhanced dispersal. Increased risks discouraged mice from investing time in selecting which acorns to carry away and from consuming seeds after mobilization. 324 325 Consequently, predation rates were reduced and larger acorns had a higher probability 326 of dispersal. In Mediterranean systems, seedlings from larger acorns are more resistant to summer drought [29, 60], which represents the main recruitment bottleneck for oak 327 328 regeneration [38, 61]. Thus, our simulation results suggest that suboptimal conditions 329 can enhance both, the quantity and quality component of dispersal effectiveness by 330 mice.

331 This work builds on previous research analyzing the effects of competition and risk on mouse foraging behavior in dehesas [17]. Here, by accounting for all stages of scatter-332 333 hoarding decisions (from initial manipulation to consumption after mobilization [4], and including the entire acorn fall season [27] as well as contrasting moon light conditions 334 335 [22], we obtained a more in-depth understanding of the main drivers of dispersal 336 effectiveness. Moreover, our transition probability model allowed us to assemble all stages of the scatter-hoarding process, and hence, to estimate the net effects of 337 338 competition and risks on initial seed fate. However, future work that analyzes the actual

probability of recruitment of mobilized seeds is needed. In the Mediterranean area,
seedling recruitment usually concentrates under the shade of shrubs, where conditions
are milder [62-64]. Thus, it remains an open question whether higher rates of seedling
dry out in dehesas (due to lack of shrub cover) can outweigh the benefits provided by
enhanced cache survival. Once information about long-term survival of caches and
seedling recruitment is available, it can be easily included in our model [65].

345

## 346 Concluding remarks

347 Our mechanistic approach provides new insights about the joint effect of habitat

348 structure, competition and risk on dispersal effectiveness in synzoochorus interactions.

349 In particular, we show that suboptimal conditions for scatter-hoarders can balance the

350 interaction towards the mutualistic side. High predation risks forced mice to forage less

efficiently resulting in a higher probability of post-dispersal survival of large acorns.

352 Our work points out that environmental stress can be an important factor modulating the

spatial and temporal dynamism of synzoochorous interactions [5]. Also, it supports the

view that biological integrity (presence of the full set of producers, consumers,

dispersers and predators) is key for ensuring seed dispersal effectiveness in

356 synzoochorous conditional mutualisms [5, 52]. This may be particularly important in

357 man-made habitats like dehesas, which depend on conditional mutualisms to ensure

their long-term sustainability [38, 55].

359

### **360** Supporting information

## 361 S1. Structure of models and priors

## 362 S2. Posterior predictive checks

## 363 S3. Specifications of transition probability model for acorn dispersal

- 364 S4. Code for the transition probability model
- 365 S5. Databases

366

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377

## 378 Author contributions

379 MD conceived and executed the field experiment with the aid of IT, IB, TM-L and AN-

380 C. JS-D compiled the data and performed preliminary analyses and drafts. TM-L

executed the final data analyses and proposed the final main focus of the paper. TM-L

- and MD wrote the final version of the paper on former versions drafted by JS-D and
- 383 contributed by all authors.

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544

**Table 1**. Summary table of the effects of size, moonlight, month, ungulate presence,

 predator scent and local acorn availability (and their interactions with size) on the

 probability of acorn selection and removal.

Process	<b>Fixed effect</b>	Mean	HPD1	f	
	Size	0.19	[0.09, 0.29]	1.00	**
	Moon (Full)	0.03	[-6.22, 6.35]	0.50	
	Month (February)	-0.03	[-6.12, 6.06]	0.50	
	Ungulate (Yes)	-0.05	[-6.27, 6.16]	0.51	
	Scent (Yes)	0.01	[-6.16, 6.28]	0.50	
Acorn selection	Availability	-0.02	[-6.32, 6.19]	0.50	
	Size*Moon	0.07	[-0.03, 0.17]	0.93	
	Size*Month	-0.06	[-0.16, 0.04]	0.88	
	Size*Ungulates	-0.13	[-0.23, -0.03]	0.99	**
	Size*Scent	-0.08	[-0.18, 0.01]	0.96	*
	Size*Availabiltiy	-0.04	[-0.09, 0.01]	0.95	*
	Size	-0.50	[-0.94, -0.07]	0.99	**
	Moon (Full)	0.07	[-0.27, 0.39]	0.65	
	Month (February)	0.77	[0.43, 1.11]	1.00	**
	Ungulate (Yes)	-0.22	[-0.96, 0.47]	0.73	
	Scent (Yes)	0.20	[-0.53, 0.93]	0.72	
Acorn removal	Availability	0.29	[0.12, 0.46]	1.00	**
	Size*Moon	0.29	[-0.02, 0.60]	0.96	*
	Size*Month	-0.09	[-0.41, 0.22]	0.71	
	Size*Ungulates	0.24	[-0.07, 0.55]	0.94	•
	Size*Scent	0.30	[0.00, 0.59]	0.98	*
	Size*Availabiltiy	0.10	[-0.07, 0.26]	0.88	

546

547 Mean of posterior distribution, highest posterior density interval (HPD) and percentage of the posterior

548 distribution with the same sign as the mean (f) are shown. Effects with  $f \ge 0.95$  are in bold. • depicts  $f \in$ 

549 [0.90, 0.95)

#### 551

**Table 2**. Summary table of the effects of size, moonlight, month, ungulate presence, predator scent and local acorn availability (and their interactions with size) on acorn mobilization distances and the probability that it is deposited in a viable status (vs predated).

Process	<b>Fixed effect</b>	Mean	HPD	f	
	Size	0.52	[-0.35, 1.38]	0.88	
	Moon (Full)	-0.78	[-1.49, -0.09]	0.99	*
	Month (February)	0.16	[-0.61, 0.91]	0.66	
	Ungulate (Yes)	-0.86	[-1.83, 0.18]	0.95	*
	Scent (Yes)	-0.01	[-0.99, 1.07]	0.52	
Aobilization distance	Availability	0.07	[-0.27, 0.42]	0.66	
uistance	Size*Moon	-0.19	[-0.84, 0.46]	0.72	
	Size*Month	-0.47	[-1.17, 0.22]	0.91	•
	Size*Ungulates	-0.02	[-0.69, 0.65]	0.53	
	Size*Scent	0.13	[-0.52, 0.78]	0.65	
	Size*Availabiltiy	-0.15	[-0.54, 0.22]	0.79	
	Size	-1.06	[-2.2, 0.03]	0.97	*
	Moon (Full)	0.37	[-0.53, 1.26]	0.80	
	Month (February)	-1.73	[-2.73, -0.77]	1.00	*
	Ungulate (Yes)	0.90	[-0.15, 2.04]	0.95	*
Viability	Scent (Yes)	-0.26	[-1.35, 0.8]	0.69	
after	Availability	0.37	[-0.12, 0.89]	0.93	٠
deposition	Size*Moon	0.42	[-0.46, 1.33]	0.82	
	Size*Month	0.28	[-0.65, 1.21]	0.72	
	Size*Ungulates	0.66	[-0.25, 1.63]	0.92	٠
	Size*Scent	0.27	[-0.6, 1.14]	0.73	
	Size*Availabiltiy	-0.11	[-0.69, 0.46]	0.65	

552 Mean of posterior distribution, highest posterior density interval (HPD) and percentage of the posterior

distribution with the same sign as the mean (f) are shown. Effects with  $f \ge 0.95$  are in bold. • depicts  $f \in$ 

554 [0.90, 0.95]

#### 556 Figure legends

557

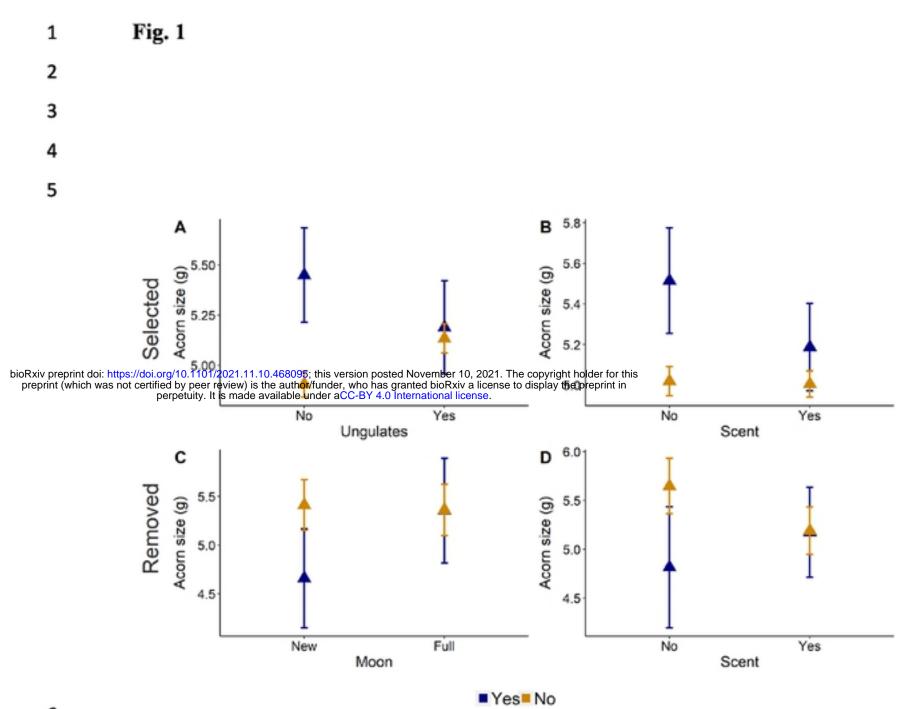
**Fig. 1.** Mouse foraging decisions during acorn selection and removal (upper and lower panels, respectively). Mouse preferentially selected larger acorns. However, such selective behavior only occurred when (A) ungulates were absent and (B) there was no predator scent. Among selected acorns, mouse tended to mobilize smaller ones. This selective behavior occurred when risks were low due to (C) new moon conditions or (D) lack or predator scent. Also, when ungulates were absent (Table 1). Points represent mean values, bars standard errors.

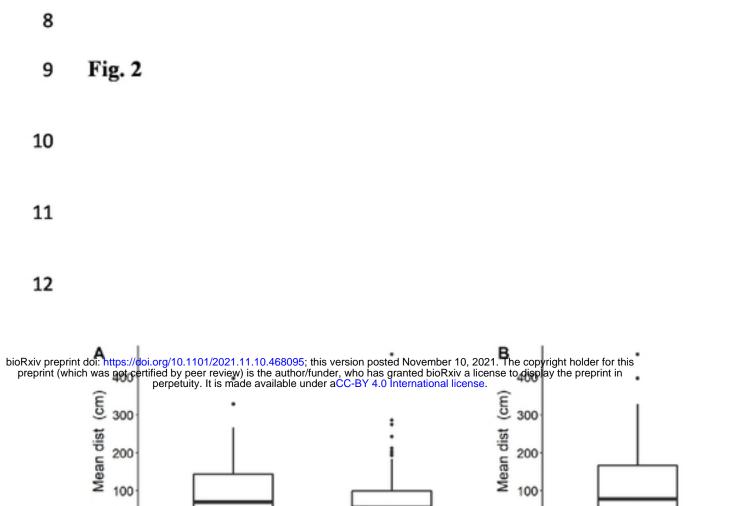
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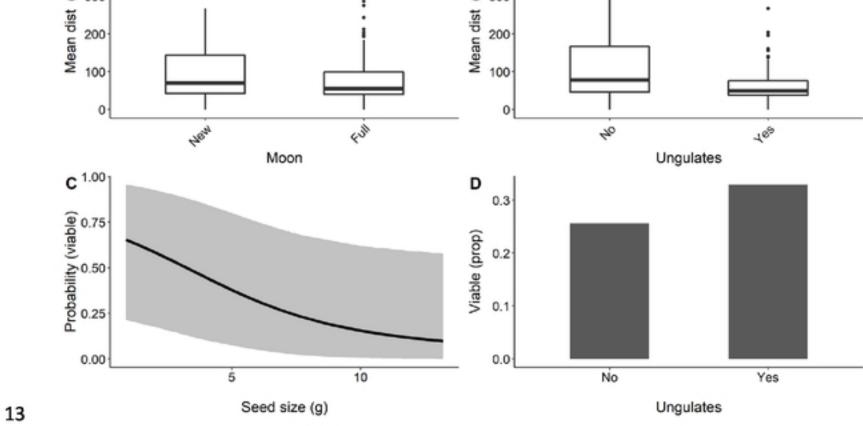
**Fig. 2.** Summary of mouse foraging decisions during and after mobilization. (A) Under full moon conditions and (B) in the presence of ungulates mice mobilized acorns closer. Regarding deposition, (C) larger acorns had a lower probability of escaping predation as well as (B) those mobilized in areas with ungulates. Black line in panel C represents mean effects of acorn size on the probability of escaping predation, and shaded area 0.95 credible intervals. Panel D, represents the proportion of viable acorns (after deposition) from trees inside and outside ungulate exclosures.

573

Fig. 3. Results from simulations of the probability transition model for acorn 574 dispersal. (A) Under more stressful conditions (black bars), the proportion of acorns 575 escaping predation increased. In general, mice tended to predate larger acorns under (B) 576 new moon conditions, (C) in the presence of predator scent and (D) when competing 577 with ungulates. Under more stressful conditions (Fig. B-D, right bars), mice were less 578 selective and consequently size effects on acorn predation were attenuated (B), 579 disappeared (C) or reversed (D). Bars represent mean values (±s.e.) across 1000 580 simulations. 581







- 19 Fig. 3

