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3	POST DISPERSAL SEED PREDATION IN PATAGONIA TEMPERATE FOREST DEPENDS				
4	ON HABITAT PATCHINESS AND SEED SPECIES				
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7 1	Luciana Motta*, Grupo de Ecología de Invasiones, INIBIOMA - CONICET, Universidad Nacional del				
8 (	Comahue, Av. de los Pioneros 2350, CP. 8400 Bariloche, Rio Negro, Argentina; CONICET, Parque				
91	Nacional Nahuel Huapi, CENAC - APN, Fagnano 244, CP 8400 Bariloche, Rio Negro, Argentina.				
10 0	Corresponding Author Email: ORCID: 0000-0001-5263-6885				
11					
12 A	Agustin Vitali*, Grupo de Ecología de Invasiones, INIBIOMA - CONICET, Universidad Nacional Del				
13 (	Comahue, Av. de los Pioneros 2350, CP 8400 Bariloche, Rio Negro, Argentina. ORCID: 0000-0002-				
14 (	0642-4520				
15					
16	Guillermo C. Amico, INIBIOMA, Universidad Nacional del Comahue-CONICET, Quintral 1250, CP				
17 8	8400, Bariloche, Rio Negro, Argentina. ORCID: 0000-0002-3709-3111				
18					
19 I	Daniel García, Departamento Biología de Organismos y Sistemas, Universidad de Oviedo, and				
20 I	Instituto Mixto de Investigación en Biodiversidad (IMIB, CSIC-UO-PA), 33071 Oviedo, Spain.				
21 (	Orcid: 0000-0002-7334-7836				
22					
23 I	Mariano A. Rodriguez-Cabal, Grupo de Ecología de Invasiones, INIBIOMA - CONICET,				
24 U	Universidad Nacional del Comahue, Av. de los Pioneros 2350, CP 8400 Bariloche, Rio Negro,				
25 A	Argentina. Rubenstein School of Environment and Natural Resources, University of Vermont,				
26 I	Burlington, Vermont, 05405 USA. ORCID: 0000-0002-2658-8178				
27					
28 *	*Both authors contributed equally to this work				
29	1 5				
30 A	Acknowledgments				

# 32 Abstract

33 Post dispersal seed predation is a key process regulating plant population dynamics and community 34 composition. Because food preference (i.e. seed species selection) can interact with habitat features 35 such as vegetation characteristics, integrating both is important for a better understanding of the 36 processes that drive plant community structure. In order to study how forest habitat patchiness and seed 37 species influence post dispersal seed predation, we monitored seed predation of native common 38 understory plant species in Patagonia temperate forests. By performing a cafeteria-style experiment, we 39 assessed consumption on the three most common understory seed species, in forest interior and forest 40 gaps. We found that seed predation by rodents differed between habitats and, independently, between 41 seed species. Seed predation was more than 2x higher in forest gaps than in forest interior, and medium 42 sized species were the least preved-upon. Although counterintuitive, given that granivores such as 43 rodents usually prefer sheltered habitats to forage, these results highlight the importance of site-specific 44 variables in plant-granivore interactions.

45

46 **KEYWORDS:** rodent seed predators, cafeteria experiment,, habitat features, seed species.

47

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# 53 Conflicts of interest/Competing interests

54 Authors declare no conflict of interests

### 55 Availability of data and material

- 56 See Supplementary Material
- 57 Code availability
- 58 Not applicable
- 59 Ethics approval
- 60 Not applicable
- 61 **Consent to participate**
- 62 All persons entitled to authorship have been so named

63	Consent for publication
64	All authors have approved its submission for publication in Plant Ecology
65	Authors' contributions
66	DG, GCA and MAR-C conceived the study and carried out fieldwork. LM and AV conducted the
67	analyses and led the writing. All authors contributed substantially to the development of this
68	manuscript, contributed critically to the drafts and gave final approval for publication.
69	
70	
71	REMARK ABSTRACT
72	• We aimed to investigate how forest habitat (forest interior vs. forest gaps) and seed species influence
73	post dispersal seed predation.
74	
75	Patagonian temperate forests.
76	
77	• We assessed consumption by rodents on three different native seed species in forest interior and forest
78	gaps, by performing a cafeteria-style experiment.
79	
80	• Seed predation was more than 2x higher in forest gaps than in forest interior, and medium sized seed
81	species were the least preyed-upon.
82	
83	• Understanding how forest habitat heterogeneity and seed species affect seed predation is fundamental
84	to understand plant community dynamics in forest ecosystems.
85	

#### 86 **INTRODUCTION**

87

88 Post dispersal seed predation is a key process regulating plant population dynamics and 89 community composition (Hulme 1998; Bricker et al. 2010; Maron et al. 2012; Hegstad and Maron 90 2019). Seed predation can be highly variable and influenced by multiple factors including seed predator 91 abundance and behavior (Orrock et al. 2010), habitat characteristics and seed traits (Kollman and 92 Buschor 2003; García and Chacoff 2007; Moyano et al. 2019; Dylewski et al. 2020). Theory posts that 93 while foraging, rodents should avoid low-quality food patches in favor of high-quality ones 94 (MacArthur and Pianka 1966) and seek for safe patches while avoiding risky ones (the "foraging 95 dilemma", McArthur et al. 2014). On the one hand, habitats with complex structure can enhance 96 rodents foraging activity by offering shelter from predators (Morris and Davidson 2000; Kollman and 97 Buschor 2003). For example, habitat variables such as substrate and distance to nearest tree in 98 Mediterranean forests (Fedriani 2005), and grass and shrub cover in temperate northern forests 99 (Kollman and Buschor 2003) have better explained seed predation by rodents than seed phenotypic 100 traits. In temperate forest ecosystems, understory cover and patchiness have shown to be relevant in 101 driving seed predation patterns (Abe et al. 2001; Schnurr et al. 2004). On the other hand, seed traits 102 such as mass (Jansen et al. 2004), size (Dylewski et al. 2020) and volume (Moyano et al. 2019), have 103 explained rodents preference for seeds. Therefore, because food preference (i.e. seed selection) can interact with or overcome habitat features such as vegetation characteristics (Pons and Pausas 2007; 104 105 Booman et al. 2009; García et al. 2011) integrating both is important for a better understanding of the 106 processes that drive plant community structure (Larios et al. 2017).

107

108 Patchiness or forest cover variations are fundamental drivers of diversity and community dynamics in 109 forest ecosystems (e.g., Jackson and Wong 1994; Schnurr et al. 2004; Heinemman et al. 2006; Ushio et 110 al. 2010; Echeverria et al. 2014). Particularly, the regeneration and persistence of tree species in 111 southern temperate forests can depend on forest-clearing dynamics (Veblen 1985; Bustamante & 112 Armesto 1995; Pollmann 2003). Gutiérrez et al. (2004) found that small-scale disturbances (e.g., tree-113 fall originated gaps) increased the heterogeneity of the forest floor, producing microsites that favor the 114 coexistence of plants with different regeneration modes. Also, in forest gaps, seeds previous to 115 perturbation or seeds coming from adjacent patches are important for native vegetation to recover 116 (Armesto et al. 2001; Parkes et al. 2003; Guidetti et al. 2016). In this context, it is known that forest 117 cover variation can alter plant-animal interactions such as seed predation (Schnurr et al. 2004; Caccia et 118 al. 2006; Royo and Carson 2008) which can vary among habitats in response to biotic effects (e.g.,

119 direct and indirect predator cues; Sivy et al. 2011) or environmental drivers (e.g., vegetation context,

120 Booman et al. 2009; Pons and Pausas 2007; moonlight, Kotler et al. 2010). Therefore, it is reasonable

121 to expect that habitat change alter seed predation patterns (Diaz et al. 1999; García and Chacoff 2007),

122 which in turn can influence forest composition and regeneration (Schreiner et al. 2000; García et al.

123 2005; Caccia et al. 2006).

124

In order to understand how forest habitat patchiness (forest interior vs. gaps) and seed species influence post dispersal seed predation, we monitored seed predation of native common understory plant species in Patagonia temperate forests, by assessing consumption on three different native seed species in forest interior and forest gaps. Understanding how forest habitat heterogeneity affects seed predation is fundamental to understand plant community dynamics in forest ecosystems.

130

131 Methods

132

133 Study area

134 Our study was conducted in Llao-Llao Reserve, a 1220 ha area within Nahuel Huapi National Park in Patagonia – Argentina (41° 03 S, 71° 30 W), in Autumn 2005. Regional climate is humid in autumn-135 winter and dry in spring-summer, with 9°C average annual temperature and 1800 mm average annual 136 precipitation (Cabrera 1976). The native forest vegetation belongs to the Subantarctic biogeographical 137 138 region (Cabrera 1976), the dominant tree species being the evergreen southern beech (Nothofagus 139 dombeyi) and cordilleran cypress (Austrocedrus chilensis) (Mermoz and Martín 1986). Llao-Llao 140 Reserve has been protected since the 1960's but it was previously logged in certain areas, and canopy gaps of variable size have been generated by tree falls, giving the forest a patchy distribution (Amico et 141 142 al. 2008). These gaps present some of the common understory vegetation dominated by the native 143 shrub Aristotelia chilensis and native bamboo (Chusquea culeou) (Mermoz and Martín 1986). The 144 main post-dispersal seed predators in the area are Cricetidae rodents (~25 gr.) such as the long-haired grass mouse (Abrothrix hirta), long-tailed mouse (Oligoryzomys longicaudatus) and olive grass mousse 145 146 (A. olivacea) (Caccia et al. 2006; Nuñez et al. 2008; García et al. 2011). So far, there are no reports of 147 scatter-hoarding rodents, and the authors found no evidence of bird seed predation (no removed soiled 148 or bird excrements around seed depots). As the experiment was during Autumn, invertebrate or insect 149 predation can be negligible.

150

151 Cafeteria experiment

152 In order to study if post dispersal seed predation varied between forest interior and forest gaps

- 153 ("habitat") and if there was a preference for different seeds ("species") we established a cafeteria-style
- 154 experiment (Lobo et al. 2009; Pearson et al. 2014; Moyano et al. 2019). We selected 6 forest gap sites
- 155 distributed haphazardly inside the Llao-Llao Reserve, and 6 intact native forest interior sites, with gap
- and forest habitats differenced by the occurrence of tree canopy cover, forest having > 80% and gaps <
- 157 10% (see Figure 1a for a schematic representation). As for seeds, we chose the three most common
- 158 understory native species in these forests (García et al. 2011) and their seeds represent an optimal
- 159 gradient of size/mass, from larger to smaller: *Schinus patagonicus* (18.81 mm<sup>2</sup>  $\pm$  0.21mm<sup>2</sup>; 0.607 g  $\pm$
- 160 0.019 g); *Maytenus boaria* (4.95 mm<sup>2</sup>  $\pm$  0.03 mm<sup>2</sup>; 0.368 g  $\pm$  0.029 g) and *Aristotelia chilensis* (3.25
- 161  $\text{mm}^2 \pm 0.02 \text{ mm}^2$ ; 0.185 g  $\pm 0.017$  g) (Supplementary Material, Figure S1). These species are
- 162 representative of the understory (as pioneers of clearing colonization); unaffected by masting behavior
- 163 (enabling us to extrapolate to the medium-term), and endozoochorous (thus homogenizing the
  164 functional group and its implications in expected patterns of spatial distribution of deposition). Seeds
- 165 were obtained from fruits randomly collected on plants at the study site, in order to estimate specific
- 166 individual seed mass/size and to prepare a seed pool for experimental depots.
- 167

168 In the experiment, we offered seeds to predators in the field by attaching them to wooden popsicle sticks holding 3 seeds of each species (9 seeds total per stick, Figure 1c). Seeds were fastened to the 169 170 sticks in a random order, using non-toxic glue, wearing gloves to prevent human scent to impregnate them (García et al. 2011). At each forest and gap sites, we randomly placed seed depots (=set of 3 171 172 wooden popsicle sticks; Figure 1b, c) at a minimum distance of 25 cm each, nailed to the ground with a 173 wire staple over each stick center. Because understory cover is an important factor influencing seed predation rate (Caccia et al. 2009; Royo and Carson 2008) we placed seed depots under parental 174 175 species shrubs. This also controls for possible differences in real seed rain densities, usually expected to 176 be stronger under bush, than far from bush (especially in clearings; García et al. 2011). Initially, 10 seed depots were placed separated at least 30 m from each other, and sites were more than 200 m apart 177 178 (Figure 1b). We evaluated seed predation after 48 hs of installing the experiment, a period comparable 179 with previous studies in several environments (Hulme 1994; Kollman et al. 1998; Hulme & Borelli 180 1999; Orrock 2015). Both the seeds removed from the popsicle sticks and those damaged (with obvious 181 bite marks) but remaining in place were considered as predated.

182

183 Statistical analyses

184 To determine if seed predation (response variable) differed between "habitats" ("forest interior", "forest gaps") we used generalized mixed linear models (GLMM) (Figure 1). Seed predation was calculated as 185 the proportion of predated seeds after 48 hs. To evaluate if there was a preference for seed "species" we 186 187 included it as a predictive variable, with factors "Small" (A.chilensis), "Medium" (M.boaria) and 188 "Large" (S.patagonicus). We also considered the interaction between factors, in order to test if potential 189 differences between species depended on the habitat type. We assumed a binomial distribution, using a 190 GLMM based on Laplace approximation and a logit link function (lme4 package, glmer function, Bates 191 et al. 2015). Since our experimental design had different gaps immersed in a large native forest, we 192 tested and corroborated there were no differences amongst gap sites using a factorial analysis (Table 193 S1). Finally, since sticks within each depot are pseudo-replicates, we used "seed depot" nested in 194 "sites" as a random variable (Figure 1). During monitoring, we found variable numbers of seed depots 195 (minimum n = 3, maximum n = 10; blown, broken o lost), but GLMM's contemplate uneven number of 196 pseudoreplicates. To study the amount of total variation explained by each model, we used analysis of 197 deviance (*pseudo r2*, BabylorEdPsych package; Beaujean 2012). Additionally, we performed a False 198 Discovery Rate (FDR) post hoc test (Benjamini and Hochberg 1995) to compare the proportion of 199 predation among seed species. All analyses were performed using R 3.5.0 (R Development Core Team 200 2018).

201

### 202 **RESULTS & DISCUSSION**

203

204 We found that seed predation by rodents differed between habitats and, independently, between seed species, as shown by the non-significant interaction between factors (Table 1; Figure 3b; Table S2). 205 Seed predation was more than 2x higher in forest gaps than in forest interior (P < 0.001, Table 1; 206 207 Figure 2). This result may seem counterintuitive, given that higher seed consumption in areas such as 208 gaps would contradict "predation fear" behavior (Bleicher 2017). Several studies show evidence that 209 rodents prefer to forage in sheltered habitats providing refuge from predators (Kollman and Buschor 210 2003; Yang et al. 2016; Zhang et al. 2016). For example, Germain et al. (2013) showed that seed 211 predation varied spatially as seed predation decreased with decreasing vegetation cover. Yet, this 212 behavior might vary among individuals (McArthur et al. 2014) and also can be influenced by the 213 context (Steele et al. 2015) and the spatial scale considered (García et al. 2011). For instance, the ability 214 of some species to accurately perceive changes in predation risk (Sundell et al. 2004) and the presence 215 of other factors constraining foraging behavior (e.g., strong intra e interspecific competition; Yunger et 216 al. 2002, Dupuch et al. 2014) might lead rodents to forage in riskier habitats. Maybe the fact that the

217 'seeds are there (in the sticks)' make them more visible and available for the rodents. Because of the short period that seeds were exposed (Díaz et al. 1999), we assume that consumers were efficient in 218 219 finding the seeds offered. Why rodents make the tradeoff of searching for good food in risky places is 220 probably related to the fact that good food in safe places is harder to find (McArthur 2014). On the 221 other hand, although forest gaps from our study almost lacked tree canopy cover, they did present 222 understory vegetation (see *Study area* section), which has shown to enhance seed predation rates 223 (Kollman and Buschor 2003), as rodents suffer higher predation risk in areas with reduced vegetation 224 cover of low height (Booman et al. 2009; Pons and Pausas 2007). Such a positive effect on seed 225 predation has been in fact, previously reported for bamboo patches in forest gaps of the temperate 226 Patagonian region (Caccia et al. 2006). Complementarily, habitat differences may emerge from a higher 227 availability of fruits and seeds in forest gaps compared to forest interior, leading to positive responses 228 among seed predators (García et al. 2011). Thus, although the present study does not enable us to 229 discern a specific mechanism, we assume that both perception of risk and resource availability are 230 underpinning the present habitat effects on seed predation.

231

232 Besides higher predation in gaps than in forests, we also found that the proportion of predated seeds 233 depended on seed identity rather than on seed size (Table 1, Figure 3a, b). The biggest seed species (S. *patagonicus*) was 41% and 17% more predated than medium-sized seed species (*M. boaria*) (P < 0.05) 234 235 and the smaller, A. chilensis (P = 0.305) respectively (Figure 3; Supp. Mat., Figure S1, Table S3). In addition, we found no differences on the proportion of predated seeds between *M. boaria* and *A.* 236 *chilensis* (P = 0.101, Figure 3; Figure S1, Table S3). Although seed traits promoting foraging behavior 237 of rodents are controversial (Dylewski et al. 2020), several authors found that rodents prefer larger and 238 heavier seeds (Nuñez et al. 2008; Carrillo-Gavilán et al. 2010; Chen et al. 2017; Wang and Ives 2017). 239 240 However, consumption differences in our experiment mostly emerged between S. patagonicus and the 241 intermediate-sized *M. boaria*, suggesting that size is not the only seed trait determining rodent choices. 242 In any case, by making such "choices", rodents can generate interspecific differences in recruitment potential and influence forest regeneration dynamics (García et al. 2005; Larios et al. 2017 and 243 244 references therein; Hegstad and Maron 2019; Moyano et al. 2019). Whether seed predation by rodents 245 will finally leave an imprint in the composition of forest gaps will ultimately depend on the specific 246 responses of seed species to other post-dispersal forces (drought, frost and light tolerances; e.g., 247 Manríquez et al. 2016; Promis and Allen 2017).

249 Our results on habitat and seed species effects on seed survival are based on a short-term, single 250 estimation of seed predation, precluding somehow our ability to infer long-term and large-scale 251 predictable patterns (see also Caccia et al. 2006). This is especially true in the case of inter-specific 252 differences in seed predation, which may be affected by the occurrence of seed masting events, 253 especially from the highly erratic and low-frequency masting tree (e.g. Nothofagus dombeyii) or 254 understory species (e.g. Chusquea culeou; Kitzberger et al. 2007). In spite of this, none of these plant species was masting in the year of our study, suggesting that our results may be at least extrapolated to 255 256 the non-masting years. Regarding seasonal variability, it is also known that differential seed predation 257 may change according to the variable proportion of different species in the seed rain or to increasing rodent densities (e.g. Díaz et al. 1999; but see Kollmann et al. 1998). In our case, we set up our 258 259 experiment in the co-occurring peak of the fruiting season of the three fleshy-fruited plants under study, 260 and thus our findings relate to the maximum potential densities of these seed species in the field. Concerning the spatial extent of our findings, we consider it to represent one of the main environmental 261 262 conditions in forest ecosystems: forest vs. gaps. In fact, our additional factorial analysis revealed that 263 predation rates were similar across gaps (Table S1), suggesting that the strong inter-habitat differences 264 found here are generalized across the forest landscape.

265

266 Understanding how foraging activity of post-dispersal seed predator changes according to habitat patchiness and seed species identity is essential given their influence on forest composition and its 267 regeneration process (Côté et al. 2003, Caccia et al. 2006; Bricker et al. 2010, Hegstad and Maron 268 269 2019). Yu et al. (2014) tested whether rodent seed predation or dispersal was beneficial for gap regeneration, and found that scatter-hoarding rodents rarely retrieved seeds from forest gaps, 270 suggesting that rodent seed predation patterns contributed to the regeneration of the dominant species 271 272 in gaps. In our case, the higher seed predation found in forest gaps might negatively impact on the 273 recruitment of seedlings and slow down the forest regeneration of certain species. Our study then 274 remarks the importance of considering species identity, given the fact that our results cannot be 275 explained based on seed mass/size, and reinforce the idea that factors associated habitat use by rodents 276 at multiple spatial scales are important in mediating composition and regeneration of temperate 277 southern forest communities.

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# **TABLES**

**TABLE 1**. Anova of global factors effects and GLMM results. Statistically significant values are in bold.

Global fixed effects	Chisq	Df	P value	(pseudo) r2
Habitat	9.945	1	0.001	0.40
Seed Species	11.355	1	0.003	
Habitat*Seed Species	0.742	2	0.689	

478	FIGURES
479	
480	Fig 1 Schematic representation of experimental design, and model construction (please see
481	Methods section): <b>a</b> , <b>b</b> ) Forest-gap array, number of sites, replicates and model description; <b>c</b> ) popsicle
482	sticks with seeds attached and depot arrangement.
483	
484	Fig 2 Seed predation was higher in forest gaps. Proportion of seed predation in forest gap and forest
485	interior after 48 hours of field exposure. Letters mean significant difference between treatments ( $p <$
486	0.05); bars represent means $\pm$ standard error.
487	
488	Fig 3 S. patagonicus and A. chilensis were more predated regardless of habitat. a) Average
489	predation (proportion) of each seed species during the experiment. Letters mean significant difference

490 among treatments (p < 0.05); bars represent means ± standard error; **b**) Non-significant interaction **599** 



Model = Seed Predation ~ Habitat \* Seed species, random=(Site/Seed Depot), family=binomial

Figure 2







P = 0.003