

1     **Resourceful mice do not starve: feeding efforts and decision-making process under**  
2                                     **a restricted unknown food source**

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## 22 **Abstract**

23 Foraging decisions must balance the energy gained, the time investment and the  
24 influence of key environmental factors. In our work, we aimed to examine the  
25 importance of predation risk cues and experience in the feeding efforts and decision-  
26 making process when a novel food resource is presented. To achieve this, free ranging  
27 wood mice *Apodemus sylvaticus* were live-trapped in “Monte de Valdelatas” (Madrid)  
28 by setting 80 Sherman traps in 4 plots. Traps were subjected to two food access  
29 difficulties three-night consecutive treatments: open plastic bottles and closed bottles,  
30 both using corn as bait. To generate predation risk, we set fox faeces in half of the traps  
31 in each plot. Also, we considered indirect predator cues as the moon phase. We analyse  
32 whether mice had bitten the bottles and the area gnawed of each bottle was measured.  
33 We discovered that mice feeding decisions and efforts were driven by food access  
34 difficulty, experience and predation risk. The ability of mice to properly balance their  
35 energy budget was probed since they bit and performed bigger orifices in the closed  
36 bottles, hence, individuals can adapt the feeding effort when a new food source is  
37 available. Moreover, experience was determinant in the use of this new resource since  
38 recaptured mice gnawed the bottles more successfully and the skill was improved each  
39 time an individual was recaptured. Additionally, direct predation risk cues prompt mice  
40 to bite the bottles whereas the effect of different moon phases varied among the  
41 treatments. This is the first study that provides direct evidence of wild mice formidable  
42 efficacy to exploit a new nutrient resource while deepening in crucial environmental  
43 factors that shape decision-making procedure.

## 44 **Keywords**

45 *Apodemus sylvaticus*, food access, energy budget, predation risk, decision making,  
46 learning, moonlight

## 47 **Introduction**

48 Wild animals must cope with unpredictable environmental demands. In this  
49 particular setting, choices made by animals when selecting food and regulating intake  
50 aim to satisfy their specific levels of nutrient requirements [1, 2, 3]. The variable time  
51 and space food availability challenge animals to select the type of food which best  
52 meets their nutrient demands and to evaluate if it counterbalances the energetic effort  
53 they have to make to obtain it [4]. These changeable environmental conditions have led  
54 to the development of a wide array of adaptations to efficiently satisfy the energetic  
55 requirements of all life forms [5, 6, 7], making possible for them to exploit and utilize  
56 heterogeneous food sources. The mechanisms which underlay feeding choices are rather  
57 diverse, being both endogenous and environmental factors involved in the decision  
58 process [8, 9, 10, 11, 12]. It is known that animals possess the ability to learn about the  
59 characteristics of the items in their diet and that feeding choices are experience  
60 dependent [12, 13, 14, 15, 16]. In this manner, experience and learning can provide  
61 animals the key to quickly adapt to this ever-changing environment by displaying novel  
62 feeding strategies when new food sources are present.

63 On the other hand, there is persuasive evidence of predation risk influence on  
64 prey's behaviour [16, 17, 18, 19, 20, 21], complicating the decision-making process  
65 even more when it comes to feeding opportunities. Prey animals possess the ability to  
66 estimate predation risk and adjust their behaviour to reduce the probability of being  
67 preyed [22, 23, 24], which is critical in habitats where the magnitude of threats is  
68 spatially and temporally mutable [25, 26, 27]. Chemosensory cues are of vital  
69 importance for predation risk assessment in mice [16, 28]. These chemical signals are  
70 crucial for prey species since it can alert them of the presence of any potential predators  
71 and procure information about their activity and diet [29], modulating daily activity

72 patterns [21, 30, 31] and feeding habits of preys [32]. Moreover, perceived predation  
73 risk can vary depending on environmental factors such as habitat complexity and  
74 moonlight [21, 33, 34]. The influence of moonlight on mammal's behaviour and its  
75 relationship with predator-prey dynamics is well documented [35, 36, 37, 38, 39]. For  
76 rodents, bright nights increase detectability by predators and hence, predation risk. As a  
77 consequence, rodent species tend to decrease their activity near to full moon nights [20,  
78 40, 41, 42, 43]. Hence, for prey species, feeding strategies should be a trade-off between  
79 predation risk avoidance and the benefits of obtaining energy [19, 20, 44, 45, 46].  
80 However, behaviours that maximize food intake often increases exposure to predation  
81 risk, so preys must gather all the environmental information, decide how to allocate  
82 resources and pursue the option which maximizes their fitness [47]. Therefore, properly  
83 balancing the energy budget should be an important selective force for the evolution of  
84 life-history traits.

85         The aim of this study was to analyse feeding efforts under restricted food access  
86 conditions in the wood mouse (*Apodemus sylvaticus*). Concretely, we focused on  
87 studying mice feeding behaviour when facing a new food resource with limited access  
88 and unravelling the importance of experience testing the ability to learn and develop  
89 new effective strategies in a brief period of time to maximize food obtaining.  
90 Furthermore, we also evaluated if feeding efforts performed under different food access  
91 restriction were conditioned by predation risk cues (predator faeces and moonlight). On  
92 one hand, we predicted that mice feeding efforts would be certainly influenced by the  
93 difficulty of the food access. We expected that individuals only would spend energy  
94 trying to gain access to food if it is necessary. Thus, mice facing an easier food access  
95 restriction should spend less energy trying to reach the bait than those ones facing a  
96 more complicated food access treatment. On the other hand, it was expected that

97 recaptured individuals would have developed a more efficient feeding technique,  
98 allowing them accessing food in an easier way than those ones which do not have  
99 previous experience with this kind of food resources. Finally, we also expected  
100 diminished food efforts in those traps treated with fox faeces and during brighter nights,  
101 due to a higher perceived predation risk causes a decrease in the activity of mice [20].

102

### 103 **Materials and methods**

#### 104 *Study area*

105 The research was conducted in the “Monte de Valdelatas” (Madrid, Spain), a  
106 Mediterranean forest located at an altitude of 650 m a.s.l. The characteristic vegetation  
107 is forests of holm oak (*Quercus ilex ballota*) and scrubland (gum rock roses *Cistus*  
108 *ladanifer*, thyme *Thymus zygis* and umbel-flowered sun roses *Halimium umbellatum*).  
109 Wild predators are frequent in this habitat, being of importance the red fox (*Vulpes*  
110 *Vulpes*) and the common genet (*Genetta genetta*) [19, 48].

111

#### 112 *Live-trapping and data collection*

113 Fieldwork was performed in March 2017-2018 in four plots with similar vegetation and  
114 composition. The distance between plots was 35 m to ensure that they were independent  
115 and that they corresponded to different mice populations [16, 28]. In each plot, 20  
116 Sherman® live traps were set in in a 4 x 5 grid with 7 m of distance among them [16,  
117 28]. Total trapping effort was 960 traps-night (20 traps x 4 plots x 3 nights x 2 food  
118 treatments x 2 trapping sessions). All traps were hidden under vegetation cover to  
119 protect animals from adverse weather conditions and bait was provided inside traps (see

120 details below). Traps were opened at sunset and data collection was daily started after  
121 the sunrise.

122 All captured animals were identified to species by external morphology and each  
123 captured mouse was weighed with a scale (PESNET, 100 g, PESNET 60g). Sex and  
124 breeding condition were checked according to Gurnell and Flowerdew [46]. Sex was  
125 determined using the anal-genital distance, which is longer in males than in females. In  
126 breeding adult males, the testicles were bigger, whereas breeding adult females showed  
127 conspicuous nipples in the abdomen and thorax and the vaginal membrane appeared  
128 perforated. Harmless waterproof paints (Marking stick DFV, [www.divasa-](http://www.divasa-farmavic.com)  
129 [farmavic.com](http://www.divasa-farmavic.com)) were used to mark captured individuals in non-conspicuous areas (e.g.  
130 ears, toes and tail) for discriminating recaptures [49]. Finally, all captured animals were  
131 immediately released after handling in the same place of capture.

132

### 133 *Predation risk simulation*

134 To simulate predation risk, we used red fox faeces since this species is known to  
135 be present in the study area [19, 48] being one of the most common small mammal  
136 predators [50, 51]. Furthermore, red fox faeces have been previously demonstrated to  
137 elicit antipredatory responses effectively [19, 20, 28, 52]. Fresh faeces used for the  
138 treatment were obtained from captive red foxes (one male and one female) on a  
139 carnivorous diet from the Centro de Naturaleza Opennature Cañada Real (Peralejo,  
140 Madrid). We considered as fresh faeces only those ones with a layer of mucus, an  
141 elevated level of hydration and strong odour [53, 54], and all faecal samples were frozen  
142 at -20 °C until treatment preparation. Seasonal and individual factors are known to  
143 influence volatile compounds variation among individuals [55, 56, 57, 58] so, to

144 guarantee homogenization (providing a similar degree of predation risk in all the treated  
145 traps, and therefore) and avoiding possible result bias, all collected red fox faeces were  
146 properly mixed.

147 In each plot, half of the traps were subjected to a predator odour treatment  
148 consisting in 2 g of fresh fox faeces. Within the 4x5 grids set in each plot, predator  
149 treatment was set on two non-consecutive rows (10 traps) while the other two rows (10  
150 traps) acted as controls (i.e. without predator faecal cues). In order to avoid the  
151 influence of border effects due to treatment distribution, control and predator treatment  
152 rows were alternated in each plot. The faecal material was placed on one side of the trap  
153 entrance to avoid blocking the entry for rodents but close enough to act as a potential  
154 predation risk cue (i.e. 3 cm approximately). Predator treatment was replaced every day  
155 at sunset to guarantee odour effectiveness when mice are more active, i.e. two or four  
156 hours after the dusk [59].

157 Regarding indirect predation risk cues, since mice are known to be more active  
158 when moonlight is dim due to a reduced predation risk perception [20, 40, 41, 60], we  
159 avoided trapping during high illuminated conditions (i.e. full moon phase and closer  
160 nights). Thus, live-trapping sessions were carried out under low (< 25%, new moon)  
161 and medium (25-54%, waxing crescent phase to the beginning of the first quarter)  
162 moonlight conditions. Moon percent illumination corresponding to each sampling night  
163 was downloaded from the AEMet website (National Meteorological Service,  
164 [www.opendata.aemet.es](http://www.opendata.aemet.es)).

165

166 *Food access experiments*

167 All traps were subjected to two different consecutive food access treatments in which  
168 food access difficulty was experimentally manipulated using polyurethane plastic  
169 bottles of 6 cm length, 2,7 cm of total diameter and 2 cm of aperture diameter, baited  
170 with 5 g of toasted corn inside. First treatment (first three nights) consisted in opened  
171 plastic bottles inside all traps while for the second treatment (next three consecutive  
172 nights) all traps were provided with baited closed bottles (we performed ten 1 mm holes  
173 with a needle in order to allow mice to smell the bait).

174 After trapping sessions, plastic bottles from the experiments were analysed in  
175 the laboratory to determine mice feeding efforts. For each bottle, we firstly confirmed  
176 mice handling through the presence or the absence of bite marks made by individuals.  
177 To quantify feeding efforts, we measured the total area gnawed by each mouse (i.e. size  
178 of the orifice performed in the bottle). For this, gnawed areas were exactly transferred to  
179 translucent paper sheets and they were scanned. Later, to measure the gnawed area, we  
180 analysed the scanned sheets through the Adobe Photoshop CC® software in a similar  
181 way to [61], selecting the target gnawed area with the *magic wand* tool and using the  
182 image analysis tool to know the gnawed area size in pixels.

183 Finally, to determine the amount of food eaten by each individual, we collected  
184 the unconsumed bait from each trap. The remnant bait was dried at 80 °C in a heater for  
185 1 h to eliminate moisture and weighed with an electronic balance (C-3000/0.01 g CS,  
186 COBOS; precision 0.01 g). Thus, food intake by each individual was obtained by  
187 deducting the remnant bait weight to the initial 5 g of corn supplied inside each bottle.

188

189 *Statistical analysis*



190 Since model residuals were not normally distributed, behavioural responses were  
191 analysed using Generalized Linear Models (GLMs). Robust estimator (Huber/White/  
192 sandwich estimator) was used to correct homogeneous variances criteria deviations. To  
193 analyse factors triggering mice handling of plastic bottles we performed a binomial  
194 distribution logit link GLM being the response variable the presence or absence of bite  
195 marks in the plastic bottles. Furthermore, to assess feeding effort, we use a GLM with  
196 normal distribution and identity link, being the response variable the missing area  
197 gnawed by mice in each bottle measured in pixels. For both models, the explanatory  
198 variables considered were the same: food access (opened bottle/closed bottle), recapture  
199 (first captured/recaptured), moonlight (new moon/waxing crescent), predation risk  
200 (control/predator), reproductive status (breeding/non-breeding) and sex (female/male),  
201 including weight as a covariate. We also tested the interactions food access\*recapture  
202 and food access\*moonlight. Furthermore, we also conducted separate ANOVA tests to  
203 analyse whether the gnawed area varied through repeated consecutive recaptures.  
204 Finally, a nonparametric Spearman's correlation analysis was performed to check the  
205 relationship between the effort made by mice to obtain the bait (gnawed area) and food  
206 intake. Because mice did not need to gnaw open bottles to obtain the bait provided and  
207 due to the statistically significant relationship between food access with the extension of  
208 the gnawed area by mice, we only considered data from closed bottles for this  
209 correlation analysis.

210 Results were considered significant at  $\alpha < 0.05$ . Data are represented as mean  $\pm$   
211 standard error (SE). The software used to perform the statistical analysis was SPSS 23.0  
212 for Windows (SPSS Inc, Chicago, IL, USA).

213

214 **Results**

215 The total number of captures was 142, corresponding to 84 different individuals.  
216 Results of the binomial model showed that food access, recapture, predation risk and the  
217 interaction between food access and moonlight were the factors which explained the  
218 presence of bite marks in bottles (Table 1).

219 In open bottles (N= 89), only the 33.7% showed bite marks whereas in the  
220 closed bottles treatment (N= 53) the 90.6% of them were bitten by mice. The 75.9% of  
221 the recaptured mice bitted bottles (N= 58), while this percentage decreases to 40.5% for  
222 first-captured ones (N= 84). As for the predation risk influence, we found bite marks in  
223 67.5% (N= 51) of the bottles treated with fox faeces, being this percentage lower in the  
224 absence of predator cues (50.0%, N= 27). Regarding the interaction between food  
225 access and moonlight, we found that mice bite marks were particularly less frequently  
226 found in open bottles during new moon nights (27.8%, N=20), while this percentage  
227 was higher during waxing crescent (58.8%, N=10). By contrast, bite marks appeared in  
228 the majority of the closed bottles independently of the moon phase: new moon nights  
229 95.7% (N= 22) and 86.7% (N= 26) during waxing crescent nights.

230 Results of the GLM analysing mice feeding efforts (i.e. gnawed area) are  
231 showed in Table 2; main influencing factors were food access, recapture and moonlight.  
232 The average area gnawed by mice in open bottles was lower (6690.0 pixels  $\pm$  2141.0  
233 SE) than in closed ones (26277.4  $\pm$  4361.0). Overall, recaptured individuals gnawed an  
234 average area of 24864.3  $\pm$  4090.5 pixels, while a reduced area of 6499.8  $\pm$  2213.9 was  
235 performed by first-captured mice. Interestingly, separate analyses showed that the area  
236 gnawed by mice exponentially increased during consecutive recaptures ( $F_{4,48}= 7.641$ ,  
237  $p < 0.001$ ), but this significant effect was driven by individuals facing closed bottles  
238 ( $F_{4,48}= 3.226$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ) (Fig. 1).

239 Furthermore, the interaction between food access and moonlight showed that  
240 mice gnawed particularly broad areas in the closed bottles during new moon nights  
241 ( $45373.4 \pm 7735.7$ ) (Fig. 2). Finally, a correlation analysis showed that there was a  
242 positive correlation between the effort made (i.e. area gnawed) to obtain the bait and  
243 mice food intake (Spearman correlation,  $r = 0.805$ ,  $N = 142$ ,  $p < 0.0001$ ).

244

## 245 **Discussion**

246 To our knowledge, this is the first study which provides evidence of the importance of  
247 experience and perceived predation risk in wood mice feeding efforts and decision-  
248 making process. As expected, food access difficulty determined the presence of bite  
249 marks in the bottles, probing that mice understood the implications of the feeding  
250 devices since they tended to spend extra energy on food handling only if it was  
251 mandatory (i.e. closed bottles). Moreover, experience also determined mice choices in  
252 relation to bite or not to bite the food container. Naïve individuals were less inclined to  
253 gnaw the plastic bottles, demonstrating that experience is a decisive factor regulating  
254 wood mice feeding choices when a new source of food is available [12]. Predator cues  
255 also affected mice decision-making process, in this case, fox chemical signals seem to  
256 have a stimulating effect which prompted individuals to interact with the food  
257 containers. Predator scents have been previously demonstrated to modify food intake  
258 [16, 17, 19, 62], however, the direction of this association is not clear since there is  
259 evidence of both a rise and a decrease in the food intake. In our study, we hypothesise  
260 that traps could have provided mice a safe space to handle the food resources [16, 63],  
261 as a consequence, mice might have chosen to feed because they were sheltered against  
262 predator attacks. Alternatively, predation risk could have trigger physiological stress

263 response in mice [28] and the immediate mobilization of energy could have stimulated  
264 mice to bite the food containers.

265         Regarding the food access and moonlight interaction effect, while mice facing  
266 open bottles were more reluctant to try to get access to food during new moon nights,  
267 the moonlight did not influence mice behaviour when bottles were closed. When  
268 experience closed bottles, mice are compelled to bite the containers to obtain the food in  
269 spite of predation risk cues. In this particular setting, the prospect of obtaining a  
270 potentially highly nutritious food could counterbalance the risk of being detected [64,  
271 65]. On the other hand, when biting the food containers is not required to accomplish  
272 feeding, individuals behave different depending on indirect predator cues. During new  
273 moon nights, prey success to detect predators and competitors could be affected [66,  
274 67], thus, to be prepared to display fight or flight responses and to avoid unwanted  
275 interspecific interactions, mice could have decided to be more cautious and to save  
276 energy to cope with unpredictable events [32].

277         As for the feeding effort, in accordance with the previous result, food access  
278 difficulty determined the extent of mice feeding endeavour, demonstrating that  
279 individuals adaptively adjust their energy expenditure depending on food accessibility  
280 and avoid to waste energy. Experience and learning have proved to be excellent  
281 adaptive features when it comes to feeding [68, 69, 70, 71, 72], making individuals  
282 extremely resourceful and giving them the essential responses to survive in highly  
283 variable environments. Our study showed that experience prompted individuals to  
284 invest energy trying to gain food access and the skill of the procedure was more  
285 efficient, since they managed to perforate a wider area of the bottles. In addition, the  
286 positive correlation found between the gnawed area and food intake, confirm that the  
287 endeavour they performed was justified, spending more energy only if they can

288 counterbalance the feeding costs associated [73, 74, 75]. Our results indicate that mice  
289 are fast learners, improving their skill twofold with only a single previous encounter  
290 with the food containers. However, this endeavour was only significantly improved in  
291 mice facing closed bottles, demonstrating again the ability of individuals to make  
292 efficient energy budget decisions. The relevance of experience and learning upon mice  
293 feeding efforts is clear, providing mice the opportunity to exploit new food resources in  
294 a relatively short amount of time. Despite learning feeding techniques can have  
295 expensive associated costs in terms of energy and time [69], the highly variable natural  
296 living conditions could have induced the development of this remarkable evolutionary  
297 strategy by enhancing mice individual fitness [11, 76].

298         As for the influence of the interaction between food access and moonlight on  
299 feeding effort, new moon nights were associated with increased feeding efforts when  
300 individuals were dealing with the more arduous treatment (i.e. closed bottles). This  
301 result gives us direct insight of mice decision-process and the behavioural response  
302 elicited when a trade-off between predation risk and feeding is presented (see predation  
303 risk allocation hypothesis [77]). According to this theory, individuals would increment  
304 feeding effort during new moon phase when perceived predation risk is low, since  
305 moonlight can increase prey detectability and hence, hunting success for predators [78,  
306 79]. Thus, darker nights caused mice to feel safer, allowing individuals to spend energy  
307 in the device handling costs. On the contrary, a rise in perceived predation risk caused  
308 by the increase in the moonlight probably caused mice to keep a low profile and to  
309 choose survival over increasing their exposure handling the food resource, even though  
310 the energetic reward was high. Further, this result would be in accordance with previous  
311 studies that show how mice activity and food intake diminish with the increase in night  
312 luminosity [20, 42, 43). On the other hand, for opened bottle treatment, the feeding

313 effort remained low during both new moon and waxing crescent because it was not  
314 necessary to perforate the bottle to obtain the food, thus, it would be expected that  
315 animals did not spend energy when it was not required.

316 Contrary to our predictions, predator faecal cues did not affect mice feeding  
317 efforts. Nevertheless, this result would be in accordance with other studies that  
318 discovered no effect of predator cues on feeding behaviour [20, 21, 80]. As we  
319 suggested before, traps could have been perceived as a refuge against predators,  
320 allowing them to feed in a secure environment [16, 63]. Another plausible explanation  
321 would be that due to individuals remained several hours under the influence of this  
322 predation cues, they have to resume their feeding activity in order to not compromise  
323 their survival [77, 81].

324 Additionally, we found that individual variables, such as breeding condition, sex  
325 or weight, had no effect on feeding behaviour. It could be possible that the higher  
326 energetic demands of certain individuals were only reflected upon the food intake rather  
327 than having an influence on mice feeding efforts. Although this was not expected, the  
328 results clearly show that these factors were not determinant, and that experience and  
329 moonlight were the phenomena which modulated wood mice feeding choices and  
330 efforts when a new source of food is available. The wood mouse plays a key role in the  
331 ecosystems, being a pivotal part of the diet of many often endangered predators [82, 83,  
332 84, 85]. These results provide certain hope about the resilience and plasticity of mice  
333 populations, frequently subjected to human-induced changes that can modify food  
334 resources and its availability.

335

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339

## 340 **References**

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592 **Table 1.** Results of the binomial logit GLM analysing the effect of individual,  
593 environmental and experimental factors on the absence or presence of bite marks  
594 performed by mice in the plastic bottles.

<b>Factor</b>	<i>F</i>	df	<i>p</i>
Food access	14.113	1	0.000
Recapture	7.618	1	0.006
Moonlight	1.772	1	0.183
Predation risk	5.945	1	0.015
Reproductive status	0.022	1	0.883
Sex	2.627	1	0.105
Weight	0.242	1	0.623
Food access*Recapture	0.049	1	0.826
Food access*Moonlight	4.017	1	0.045

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600 **Table 2.** Results of the GLM testing the effect of individual, environmental and  
601 experimental factors on feeding effort (area gnawed by mice).

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	<b>Factor</b>	<i>F</i>	df	<i>p</i>
603	Food access	4.811	1	0.028
604	Recapture	16.588	1	0.000
605	Moonlight	0.751	1	0.386
606	Predation risk	0.849	1	0.357
607	Reproductive status	1.556	1	0.212
608	Sex	0.626	1	0.429
609	Weight	0.015	1	0.902
610	Food access*Recapture	1.328	1	0.249
611	Food access*Moonlight	16.483	1	0.000

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618 **Figure 1.** Mice feeding effort (mean area gnawed  $\pm$  SE) through consecutive captures of  
619 each individual depending on the food access treatment (open bottle / closed bottle).

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622 **Figure 2.** Mice feeding efforts (mean area gnawed  $\pm$  SE) in relation to food access  
623 (opened bottle or closed bottle) and moonlight (low, new moon / medium, waxing  
624 crescent).

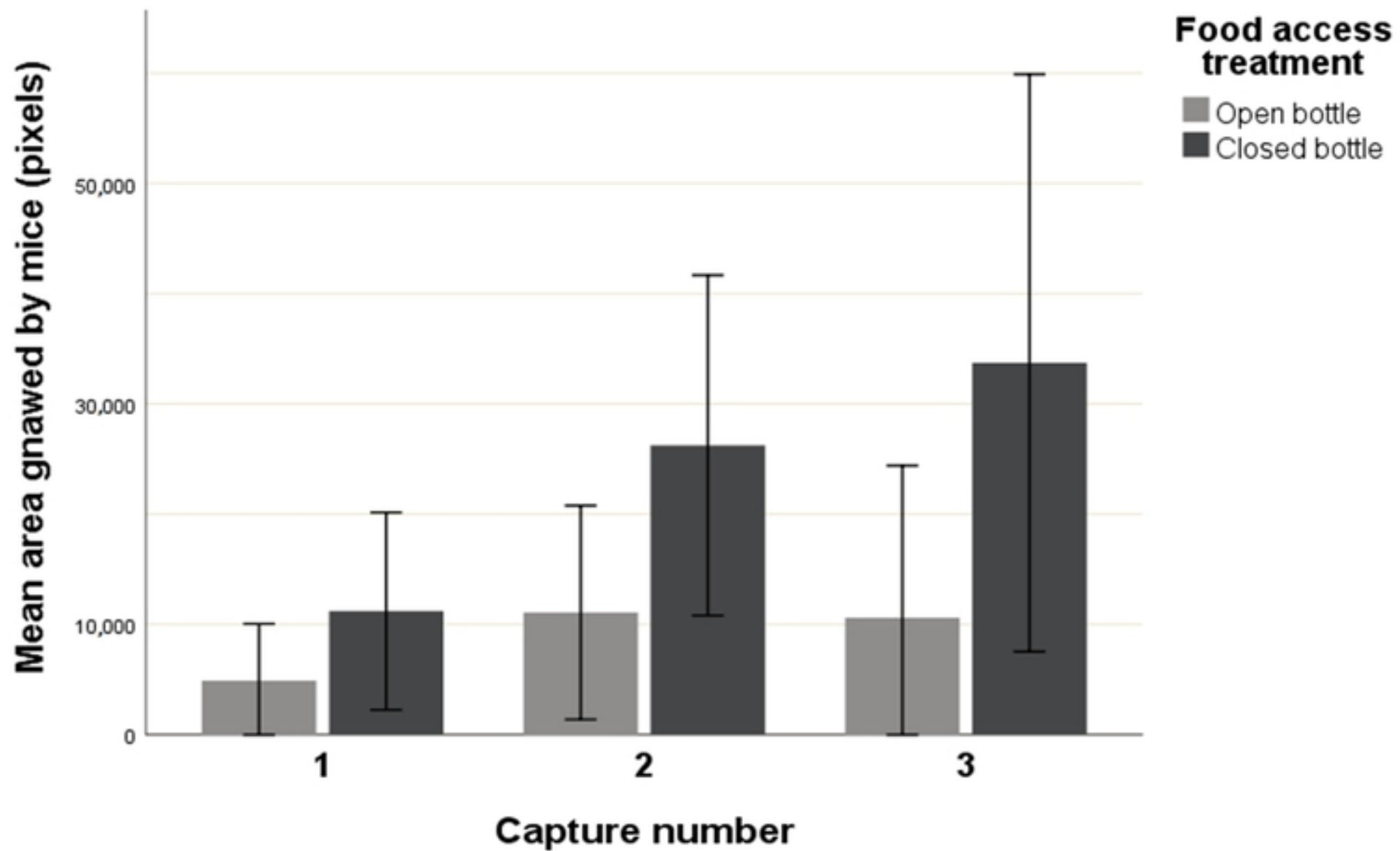


Figure 1

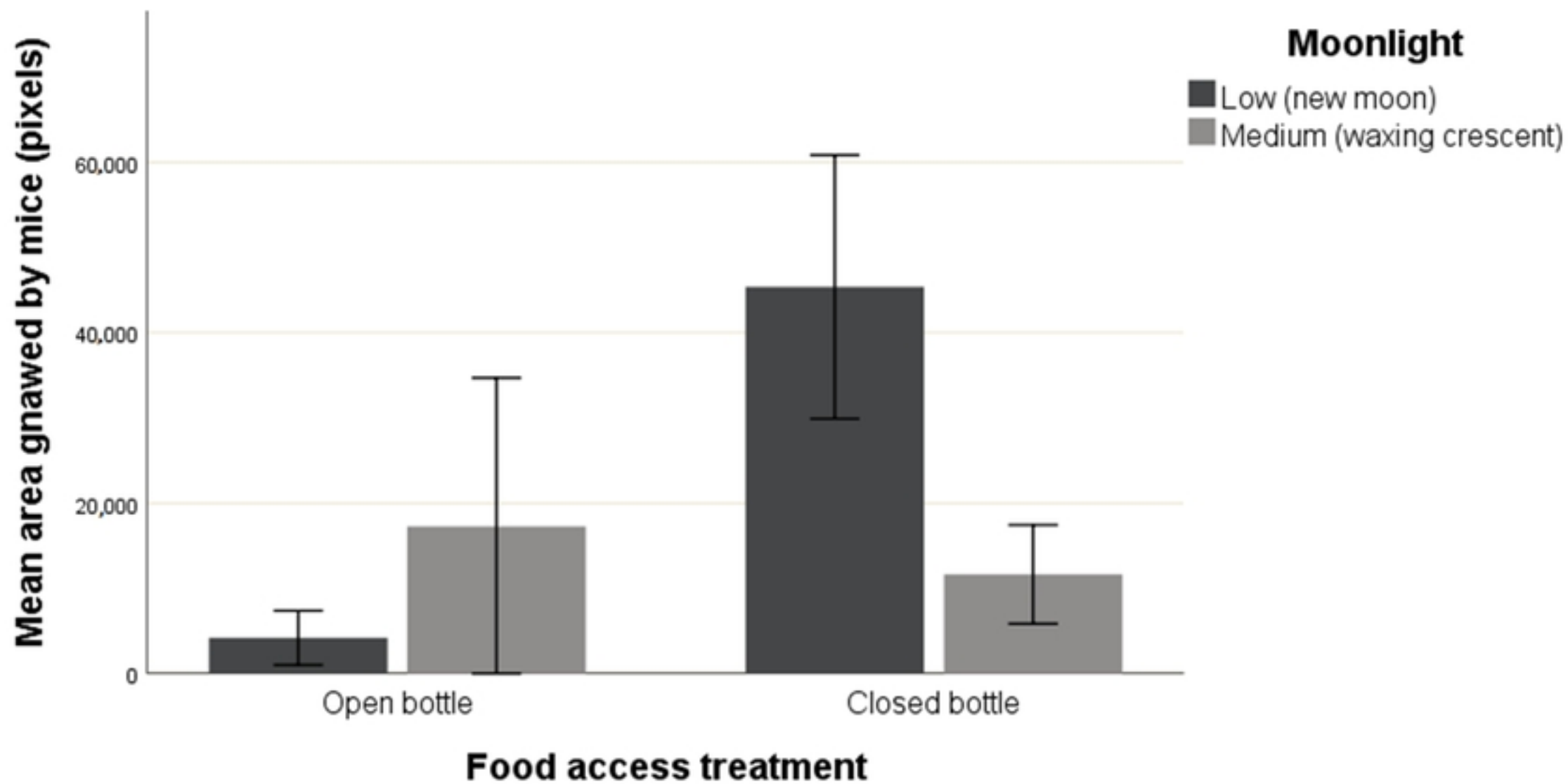


Figure 2