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1 **Seed coatings containing capsaicin reduce seed removal on temperate woody species**

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14 **Abstract**

15 Coating seeds in taste-averting chemical defenses (e.g., capsaicin from *Capsicum* spp.) can
16 reduce rodent seed predation, and thus might promote plant establishment and forest
17 regeneration. However, the efficacy of such seed coatings remains unknown for many woody
18 plant species, and seed coatings have not been evaluated across different habitats where
19 forest managers might seek to promote forest regeneration. We used two complementary
20 seed-removal experiments in closed-canopy forests (Michigan) and an old field undergoing
21 reforestation (New York) to examine whether coating seeds of four native tree species (*Acer*
22 *rubrum*, *Fagus grandifolia*, *Pinus banksiana*, *Pinus resinosa*) with chili powder reduces seed
23 removal by rodents. In all species and habitats, control seeds were removed more than seeds
24 treated with capsaicin (94% more in the closed-canopy forest, 17% more in the old field).
25 Seed coatings containing capsaicin may provide a generally effective tool to support native
26 tree recruitment and promote restoration success.

27

28 **Keywords:**

29 Chemical defense; Forest regeneration; Reforestation; Rodent; Seed coating

30

31 **Introduction**

32 Seed survival is an essential component of tree recruitment that ultimately impacts the
33 abundance, composition, and diversity of forest communities (Ward et al. 2018, Hansen and
34 Turner 2019, Hoecker et al. 2020, Magee et al. 2021). Promoting the seed-to-seedling transition
35 is often necessary to maintain resilient high-quality forests or reforest previously disturbed forest
36 habitats (Hansen and Turner 2019, Hoecker et al. 2020, Miller et al. in press). Accordingly,
37 broadcast seed sowing can be a cost-effective management option, but requires minimizing
38 barriers to seed survival to ultimately promote successful forest regeneration (Brooks et al.
39 2009). Seed predation by rodents may be one important factor limiting the establishment of tree
40 seedlings from seed (Sullivan 1978, Dylewski et al. 2020, Boone et al. 2022, Moore et al. 2022).
41 However, reducing rodent seed predation via fencing (e.g., Orrock et al. 2009), rodent trapping,
42 or rodent poisoning (Salmon and Dochtermann 2006), and diversionary feeding (Sullivan 1979)
43 can be costly, ineffective, and may have undesirable non-target effects on other species (Salmon
44 and Dochtermann 2006, Roos et al. 2021). Forest management and restoration efforts could
45 therefore benefit from strategies that reduce the negative effects of rodents on seed survival
46 (Sullivan et al. 2001), especially if those strategies can be executed at large spatial scales
47 necessary to meet management objectives.

48 One potential approach to reducing seed predation is to coat seeds with taste-averting
49 chemical defenses derived from other plants (Pearson et al. 2019). For example, capsaicin is the
50 naturally occurring compound in chili peppers (*Capsicum* spp.) that gives these fruits their
51 characteristic spice, which likely evolved in chilis to protect them from mammalian seed
52 predation (Tewksbury and Nabhan 2001). Seed coatings containing capsaicin can substantially
53 reduce both herbaceous and woody seed predation by rodents in temperate grasslands (Pearson et

54 al. 2019) and savannas (Nolte and Barnett 2000). However, little is known about whether seed
55 coatings containing capsaicin might similarly reduce seed predation on temperate North
56 American tree species. Captive feeding studies have shown that capsaicin can reduce both
57 herbivory and seed predation of tree species by a wide range of mammals commonly found in
58 temperate forests (including rodents and deer; Wagner and Nolte 2000, Willoughby et al. 2011).
59 However, it remains unclear whether capsaicin coatings reduce rodent predation on woody tree
60 seeds in ecological communities, including closed-canopy forests where tree recruitment is low
61 (Miller et al. in press) or early-successional habitats undergoing reforestation (Brooks et al.
62 2009). Addressing this knowledge gap by examining the effect of capsaicin coatings on seed
63 removal (which is often the first step in the process of seed predation; Brehm et al. 2019), in
64 multiple forest contexts could provide forest managers with new tools to promote the
65 regeneration of existing forests or to improve the efficacy of reforestation from seed.

66 Seed-removal studies often vary in their duration, which may affect the insight they
67 provide. A recent global meta-analysis of seed removal suggests that the median exposure time
68 used in seed removal studies was <20 days, with a maximum of 210 days, and that longer
69 exposure time generally leads to higher estimates of seed removal (Chen et al. 2021). Therefore,
70 conducting seed removal experiments with both long and short durations of exposure to seed
71 predators can provide important insight about the cumulative risk of seed removal over time (i.e.,
72 across multiple seasons; Moore et al. 2007, Guiden and Orrock 2021).

73 We evaluated whether coatings containing capsaicin (hereafter referred to as “capsaicin
74 coatings”) reduce seed removal in two independent, but complementary experiments. In the first
75 study, we assessed whether the effect of capsaicin coatings on seed removal differed among tree
76 species in existing closed-canopy forests. In the second study, we investigated whether capsaicin

77 coatings deter seed removal of a single woody species in an old field habitat undergoing
78 reforestation. We also examined in the second experiment whether the effect of capsaicin
79 coatings depended upon the duration of seed exposure. Combined, these two studies evaluate the
80 efficacy of capsaicin coatings in multiple species and habitats, providing insight into the
81 potential effectiveness of capsaicin coatings for increasing survival of woody tree species.

82

83 **Methods**

84 We conducted a series of seed removal experiments in two different habitat types to
85 evaluate the influence of capsaicin coatings, seed species identity, and time on seed removal.
86 In all trials, we used capsaicin powder from ghost pepper (*Capsicum chinense x frutescens*)
87 for our capsaicin coatings. This powder is readily available at a low cost and has a high
88 concentration of capsaicin (>1,000,000 Scoville Heat Units), making it a potentially effective
89 deterrent against rodents (Pearson et al. 2019).

90

91 *Seed removal of woody species in closed-canopy forests (Michigan study)*

92 The first seed removal experiment took place at five forest sites in Ypsilanti,
93 Michigan (mean annual temperature: 9.1°C mean annual precipitation: 801 mm; Fick and
94 Hijmans 2017). Michigan forest sites were continuous forest patches nested within a larger
95 urban matrix. At each forest site, three plots (i.e., seed removal stations) were established.
96 Plots within a forest site were separated by a minimum of 150 meters and plots were located
97 a minimum of 15 meters from the forest edge. Forest canopy dominants at all Michigan sites
98 included oaks (*Quercus* spp.), sugar maple (*Acer saccharum*), red maple (*Acer rubrum*), and
99 associated conifers (e.g., *Pinus strobus*, *Pinus resinosa*).

100 We examined the effects of capsaicin on the seed removal of red maple (*Acer rubrum*),
101 red pine (*Pinus resinosa*) and jack pine (*Pinus banksiana*), as these represent common native
102 woody species in southeastern Michigan. Samaras were present on *A. rubrum* seeds to mimic the
103 structure of natural dispersed seeds and not artificially alter seed handling time by granivores.
104 Using a spray bottle, we directly applied ~8 mL 50% pepper extract in solution with ethanol (see
105 Supplementary Material for details) to seeds of each species in 3.8 L white, translucent buckets.
106 The control seeds received ~8 mL of ethanol. We agitated the seed depots for 2 minutes to
107 ensure that the seeds were evenly coated with the pepper extract with a fan blowing directly into
108 the seed depot under full sun to promote rapid volatilization of the ethanol from the seed's
109 surface. The seeds were dry in 20-30 seconds and evenly coated in the pepper extract residue

110 To quantify the effect of capsaicin coatings on seed removal in closed-canopy forests, we
111 deployed 2 seed depots (i.e., buckets) at each plot (n = 30 depots total). Seed depots consisted of
112 translucent plastic 3.8 L plastic seed depots. Each seed depot had 5 × 5 cm holes cut into
113 opposite sides of the seed depot to permit rodent entry and was filled with a thin layer of sand. At
114 each site, we placed one pair of seed depots: one of the two seed depots received 30 ethanol-
115 treated seeds (10 seeds each of the 3 species), whereas the other seed depot in the pair received
116 30 capsaicin-treated seeds (10 seeds each of the 3 species coated with ghost pepper extract). Seed
117 depots were placed approximately 1 m apart and each seed depot was covered with a lid to
118 prevent disturbance from wind, rain, and larger animals. Seed depots were deployed in the field
119 from 3-June-2021 to 7-June-2021, at which time the remaining intact seeds in each seed depot
120 were counted and signs of seed consumption were noted (e.g., the presence of scat, seed coat
121 fragments).

122

123 *Seed removal of woody species in an old field (New York study)*

124 This study was conducted at a 17-acre old field habitat in the Hamilton College
125 Experimental Forest in Clinton, NY (average annual temperature: 7.5°C, average annual
126 precipitation: 1086 mm; (Fick and Hijmans 2017). Historically, the field was used for corn
127 and soybean row-crop agriculture until 2019, when soybeans were planted to increase soil
128 nitrogen before reforestation began in the summer of 2020. Common plant species included
129 wild rye (*Elymus* spp.), goldenrods (*Solidago* spp.), and asters (*Symphotrichum* spp.). We
130 divided the field into 9 blocks of approximately equal area to capture different microhabitats
131 present in the field (i.e., some blocks were closer to forest edge). Two study plots were
132 randomly placed in each block (n = 18 plots total). On average, the two study plots within
133 each block were separated by 30 ± 5 m (mean \pm 1 s.d.), while the distance between nearest
134 study plots in adjacent blocks was 77 ± 11 m. These distances far exceed the typical home
135 range of *Microtus pennsylvanicus* (Madison 1980, Bowers et al. 1996), which is the
136 dominant rodent species in this habitat. In June 2021, 250 saplings were planted on the
137 field's southwest quadrant in protective tubes as part of a reforestation project; four plots
138 were placed where seedlings were planted and the remaining 14 plots were placed among
139 exclusively herbaceous vegetation.

140 We coated seeds of American beech (*Fagus grandifolia*), a dominant late-
141 successional species in forests surrounding the study area, with capsaicin powder to quantify
142 the effect of capsaicin coatings on seed removal. Seeds were coated using a modified version
143 of the seed coating technique described by Pearson et al. (2019). 10 g of ghost pepper powder
144 was combined with 70 ml of a non-toxic seed moisturizer made from the pine resin (Wilt-
145 Stop; Bonide in Oriskany, NY), giving it adhesive properties. This was then mixed into a

146 slurry, in which half of the seeds were immersed overnight (“treated seeds”). The other half
147 of the seeds were treated similarly, but with only 70 ml of Wilt Stop and no capsaicin powder
148 (“controls”). The seeds were then set out to dry for 48 hours until dry.

149 To quantify seed removal, we placed two 3.8 L translucent plastic seed depots at each
150 plot (n = 36 seed depots), with paired depots approximately 2 m apart. Each seed depot had a
151 7 cm by 7 cm hole cut into it to allow rodents to enter. Each seed depot was filled with 3 cm
152 of sand, and 10 treated seeds and 10 control seeds were placed on top of the sand, leading to
153 a split-plot design. At each site, one of the seed depots was covered with a lid to prevent
154 access from larger mammals (e.g., deer) and birds. This allowed us to compare how allowing
155 access to multiple consumer guilds increased seed removal of treated versus control seeds.
156 The seed depots were placed in the field on October 29, 2021. One set of seed depots from
157 each of the plots was collected on November 17, 2021, after 19 days in the field. To test the
158 effect of capsaicin over longer timescales, the remaining seed depots were collected on
159 March 15th, 2022 after 137 days in the field. Once the seed depots were collected, we
160 counted the number of intact seeds remaining in each treatment. Capsaicin-treated seeds
161 remained visually distinct in all trials, as they were still covered with red powder.

162

163 *Data analysis*

164 All analyses were conducted using generalized linear mixed effects models (lme4) in
165 R version 4.1.2 (Bates et al. 2015, R Core Team 2021) with a binomial error structure. The
166 response variable in our models, unless otherwise stated, represents the proportion of seeds
167 removed from each seed depot. We present results as model estimated marginal means

168 (expressed as the proportion of seeds removed) obtained from the “emmeans” package and a
169 95% confidence interval (Lenth 2022).

170 For the Michigan dataset, we modeled the proportion of seeds removed from a seed
171 depot as a function of species identity (*Acer rubrum*, *Pinus banksiana*, *Pinus resinosa*), seed
172 coating (treated vs. control), and a species \times coating interaction. We included a random
173 intercept term for plot, nested within site, to account for potential non-independence among
174 data points at the same plot and site.

175 For the New York dataset, we modeled the proportion of seeds removed from a seed
176 depot as a function of seed coating (treated vs. control), cover treatment (seed depot covered
177 or uncovered), and duration in the field (short versus long). Our model included all possible
178 interactions, but we removed the insignificant three-way coating \times cover \times duration
179 interaction term from our model to increase model parsimony. We also included random
180 intercept terms for coating treatment nested within cover treatment nested within sampling
181 point to account for our split-plot design. In order to ensure that our replicates were spatially
182 independent, we also calculated Moran’s I (Valcu and Kempnaers 2010) using the mean
183 proportion of seeds removed in a study plot (averaged across covered and uncovered depots).

184

185 **Results**

186 *Seed removal of woody species in closed-canopy forests*

187 We monitored a total of 900 seeds over this experiment (300 seeds per species), 534 of
188 which were removed (59%). During our seed removal study conducted in closed-canopy forests,
189 the proportion of uncoated seeds removed (mean: 0.828, 95% confidence interval: 0.694 – 0.911)
190 was almost double the proportion of capsaicin-treated seeds removed (0.425, 0.261 – 0.608; $\chi^2 =$

191 104.07, $P < 0.001$, Figure 1), averaged across all species. There was also a strong effect of
192 species on seed removal: on average, *P. resinosa* had the lowest proportion of seeds removed
193 (0.403, 0.241 – 0.590), followed by *A. rubrum* (0.654, 0.469 – 0.802), followed by *P. banksiana*
194 (0.841, 0.708 – 0.920; $\chi^2 = 87.69$, $P < 0.001$). There was no significant species \times treatment
195 interaction ($\chi^2 = 3.61$, $P = 0.16$).

196

197 *Seed removal of woody species in an old field*

198 We monitored a total of 800 seeds over this experiment, 536 of which were removed
199 (67%). During our seed removal study conducted in an old field, the proportion of uncoated
200 seeds removed (0.809, 0.688 – 0.891) was 17% greater than the proportion of coated seeds
201 removed (0.691, 0.542 – 0.808; $\chi^2 = 4.17$, $P = 0.04$; Figure 2, Figure S5), averaged across cover
202 treatments and study duration. The duration seeds were left in the field also had a large effect on
203 seed removal, as the proportion of seeds removed in the long-term trial (0.888, 0.798 – 0.940)
204 was 62% greater compared to the proportion of seeds removed in the short-term trial (0.545,
205 0.395 – 0.688; $\chi^2 = 30.21$, $P < 0.001$; Figure 2, Figure S5). Whether seed depots were covered or
206 not also influenced seed removal, as the proportion of seeds removed in covered seed depots
207 (0.820, 0.701 – 0.898) was 21% greater compared to uncovered seed depots (0.675, 0.527 –
208 0.795; $\chi^2 = 5.17$, $P = 0.02$; Figure 2, Figure S5). We detected no significant effect of coating
209 treatment \times cover treatment interaction ($\chi^2 = 0.15$, $P = 0.69$), coating treatment \times duration
210 interaction ($\chi^2 = 0.25$, $P = 0.61$), or cover treatment \times duration interaction ($\chi^2 = 0.88$, $P = 0.34$).
211 We found no evidence of spatial autocorrelation in seed removal (Moran's I = -0.085, expected I
212 under complete spatial randomness = -0.111; $z = 0.229$, $P = 0.81$).

213

214 **Discussion**

215 Seed predation can significantly reduce the establishment of tree seedlings (Schnurr et al.
216 2002, Dylewski et al. 2020, Boone et al. 2022, Moore et al. 2022). Here, we show that coating
217 seeds of eastern temperate tree species in capsaicin significantly reduced seed removal, the first
218 step in the process of seed predation, in studies ranging from 4 to 137 days (Figures 1-2). This
219 protection from seed removal occurred consistently in four temperate forest tree species (*A.*
220 *rubrum*, *F. grandifolia*, *P. banksiana*, *P. resinosa*), suggesting that a diverse range of species can
221 benefit from capsaicin coatings. Moreover, we observed that capsaicin coatings consistently
222 reduced seed removal in both closed-canopy forests and old fields, regardless of the specific
223 coating technique used. Broadcast seed sowing can be a viable management intervention that can
224 promote native tree recruitment (Li et al. 2021, Greet et al. 2022) or accelerate reforestation in
225 previously degraded habitats (Di Sacco et al. 2021). Our results suggest that capsaicin coatings
226 might increase the success of broadcast seed sowing to meet both goals. Together these studies
227 show the consistent and lasting benefits of capsaicin seed coatings across several species,
228 different habitat types, and different geographic regions, supporting the idea that such coatings
229 could be a generally viable tool for habitat restoration (Pearson et al. 2019).

230 We found no significant interaction between capsaicin coating and study duration in the
231 old field experiment. This suggests that the effects of capsaicin seed coatings persisted
232 throughout winter and spring (Figure 2), seasons in which small-mammal seed removal can be a
233 significant source of seed mortality (Moore et al. 2007, Guiden and Orrock 2021). However, it is
234 important to note that the effect size of capsaicin coating appeared to be larger for seeds exposed
235 to seed removal for a short duration compared to seeds exposed to a long duration (Figure 2).
236 Therefore, the weak capsaicin coating \times duration interaction observed here could be due to low

237 statistical power, especially given the very strong main effect of study duration (i.e., mean
238 proportion of seed removal across all other treatments was 0.888 ± 0.035). More studies are
239 needed to understand how duration of exposure and weathering affect the efficacy of capsaicin
240 coatings (Pearson et al. 2019).

241 We also found strong differences in seed removal among the three species used in the
242 closed-canopy forest seed removal experiment. *Pinus resinosa* seeds were least likely to be
243 removed, followed by *Acer rubrum* seeds and then *P. banksiana* seeds (Figure 1). Possible
244 explanations for this interspecific variation in seed removal include differences in physical or
245 chemical traits influencing the net rewards of foraging gained by rodents (Dylewski et al. 2020,
246 Moore et al. 2022), as well as preferences of different small-mammal species (Cramer 2014).
247 Despite the differences in rodent preferences implied by these results, capsaicin coatings still
248 consistently decreased seed removal (Figure 1). Examining how capsaicin coatings affect large-
249 seeded species such as walnuts (*Juglans* spp.), oaks (*Quercus* spp.), or chestnuts (*Castanea* spp.)
250 will be an important extension of this work, as these species are often directly planted in
251 reforestation projects (Hall et al. 2019).

252 Our old field experiment also found that cover type significantly influenced seed
253 removal. While the cover treatment was designed to manipulate access from different
254 consumer guilds (e.g., rodents versus large mammals or birds), covered seed depots
255 experienced greater seed removal than uncovered seed depots. This was contrary to what we
256 would expect since the lids were designed to prevent additional seed removal, but instead
257 they experienced more. One potential explanation for this pattern could be that rodents
258 perceived lower predation risk under the cover of the seed depot, similarly to when they are
259 covered by vegetation, and therefore are more likely to spend time in covered seed depots

260 consuming seeds (Mattos and Orrock 2010). Interestingly, we did not observe an interaction
261 between cover treatment and capsaicin coating (Figure 2), suggesting that capsaicin coatings
262 increase survival even in microhabitats where we expected the highest seed removal. Given
263 the additive effects of capsaicin coatings and cover treatment, and the fact that predation risk
264 for rodents can exhibit substantial spatial variation within habitats (Guiden and Orrock 2017,
265 Gaynor et al. 2019), identifying higher-risk microhabitats and selectively adding capsaicin-
266 coated seeds to these sites may maximize seed survival and invite the potential for greater
267 seedling recruitment.

268 Our results raise several questions that highlight important future directions for studies of
269 seed removal. For example, seed removal is notoriously context-dependent (Maron et al. 2014),
270 as seed traits (e.g., chemical defenses, size; Dylewski et al. 2020), habitat conditions (e.g., rodent
271 community composition; Cramer 2014), and temporal variation (e.g., high- versus low-mast
272 years; Moore et al. 2022) may all affect seed removal. Capsaicin is also one secondary
273 compound among many that can deter seed predation: essential oils or activated carbon, for
274 example, can also effectively deter rodent seed predation (Taylor et al. 2020). Future studies that
275 measure removal of seeds with different experimental coatings could be replicated along these
276 dimensions, which will help determine the value of these chemical defenses in different
277 environmental contexts. Furthermore, applying these findings to bolster forest regeneration will
278 require testing the practical aspects of our methods. Some examples of these practical aspects
279 include comparing germination of coated versus uncoated seeds (Pearson et al. 2019), or testing
280 how coating techniques stand up to variation in weather (e.g., rain versus snow) to help
281 maximize land managers' returns on investment. Finally, the relationship between seed removal
282 and seedling establishment is complex. Seed removal might better reflect seed dispersal, rather

283 than seed predation, in some plant species (Vander Wall et al. 2005), implying that in some cases
284 increased seed removal might promote seedling establishment. Additionally, other filters on
285 community assembly, such as competition or environmental limitations, may mask the effects of
286 seed predation on seedling establishment, or vice versa (Brown and Vellend 2014). Pairing seed
287 removal studies with seed-addition studies, where seeds are sown or buried (Pearson et al. 2019,
288 Bogdziewicz et al. 2020, Dylewski et al. 2020), or tracking seed fate after removal (Vander Wall
289 et al. 2005, Guiden and Orrock 2017) will help clarify links between seed removal and
290 establishment. These future studies will be important for understanding whether the promising
291 results we present here will provide a cost-effective means for increasing tree recruitment and
292 promoting forest sustainability in the future.

293

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303

304 **Competing interests statement**

305 The authors declare there are no competing interests.

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Data availability statement

Data analyzed in this paper can be found on FigShare:
<https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.22773542.v1>

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- 431

432 **Figure Captions**

433 Figure 1:

434 The results of the closed-canopy forest seed removal experiment depicting the number of
435 treated (orange) and control (blue) seeds of each species removed at the end of the trial.

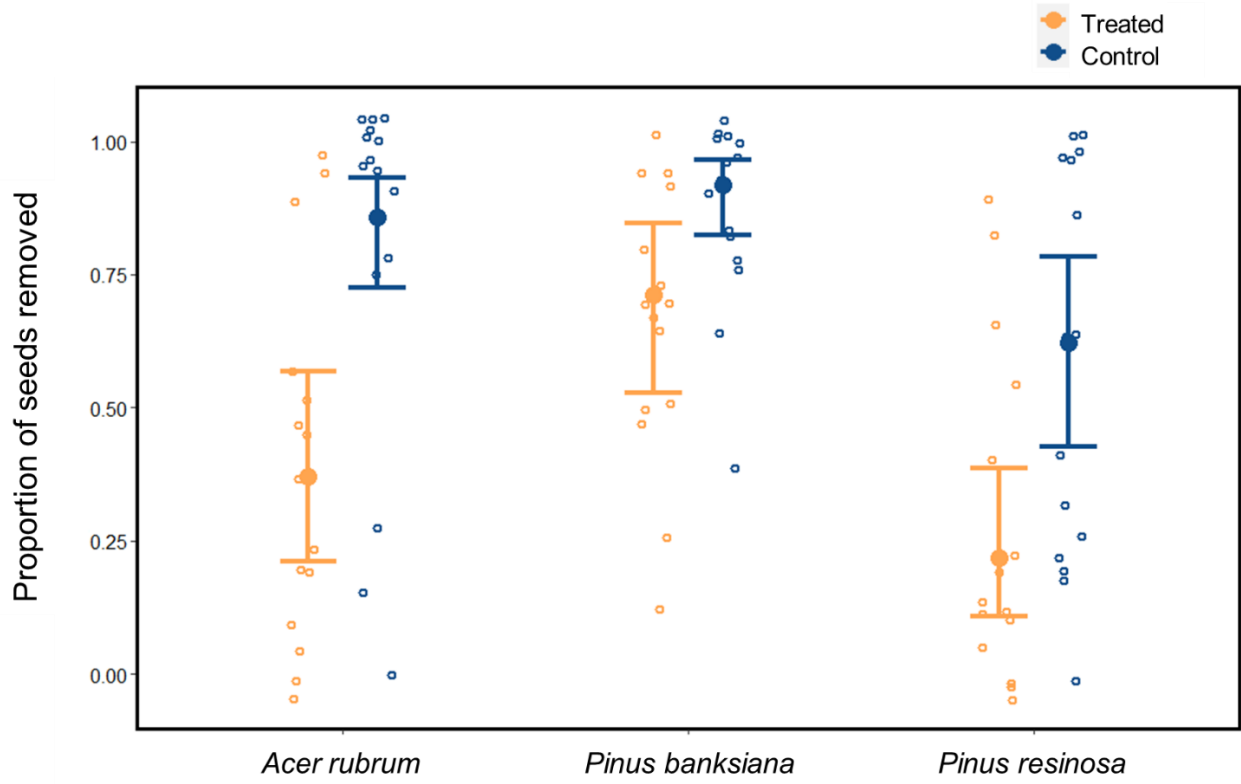
436 Small open points represent raw data. Large closed points represent estimated marginal
437 means predicted from our binomial generalized linear mixed model, and error bars represent
438 95% confidence intervals.

439

440 Figure 2:

441 The results of the old field seed removal experiment depicting the number of treated (orange)
442 and control (blue) *Fagus grandifolia* seeds removed at the end of both the short-term (19
443 days) and long-term (137 days) trials. Small open points represent raw data. Large closed
444 points represent estimated marginal means predicted from our binomial generalized linear
445 mixed model, and error bars represent 95% confidence intervals.

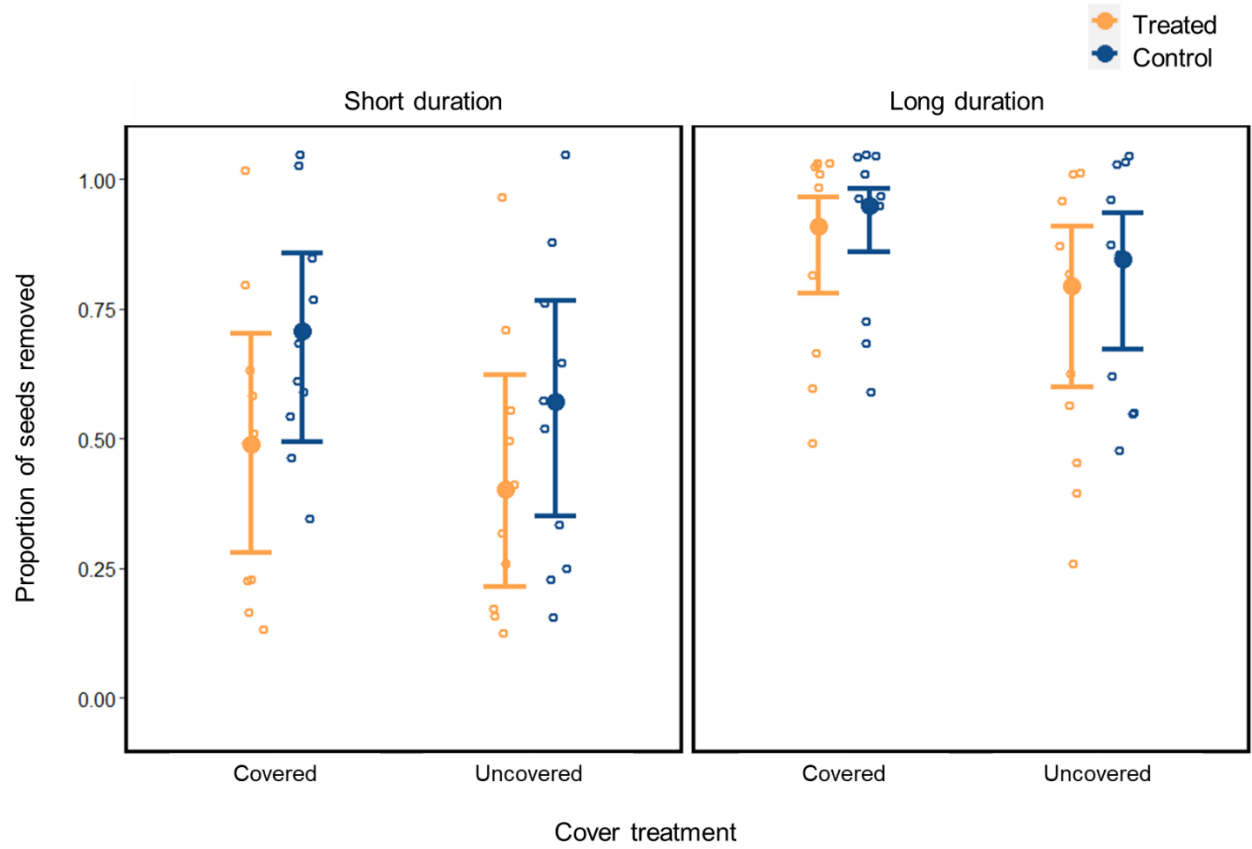
446



447

448 Figure 1

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450

451 Figure 2

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