1	The importance of human activities, environmental conditions and biological
2	traits in modulating physiological stress levels in wild red deer
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35 Summary

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Identifying the ecological and anthropogenic processes that affect wildlife
 physiology and that may operate as chronic stressors, is of prime importance to
 implementing appropriate management and conservation strategies.

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41 2. Although advances have been made in understanding the physiological ecology of
42 wild ungulates, little is known of how multiple biological and ecological factors work,
43 either independently or synergistically, to modulate their stress responses.

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3. By using faecal glucocorticoid metabolites (FGM) as indicators of stress, a set of 45 environmental and human determinants affecting the stress physiology of wild red 46 47 deer (Cervus elaphus) was examined in the Mediterranean ecosystems of south-48 western Europe, where this species is subjected to contrasting weather regimes and 49 hunting management systems. Variation-partitioning techniques were also used to 50 estimate the comparative influence of factors related to an individual's biological 51 characteristics, environmental conditions and management practices in shaping 52 physiological stress levels.

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4. Our results show that factors related to hunting management were the main drivers of FGM variation in red deer, followed by those related to the environmental conditions and individuals' traits, and their effects were closely associated to spatiotemporal variability. Holding massive hunting events involving the use of hounds, as well as high population densities, were related to more long-term stress levels in the populations studied. Evidence was also found that supplementary feeding practices 60 may mitigate the negative effects of reduced food availability in overabundant deer 61 populations. Weather conditions were also significant factors explaining variation in 62 stress levels; accumulated precipitation and an increase in ambient temperatures 63 during the coldest months were associated with a decrease in stress hormone levels. 64 No differences in hormonal concentrations were found between males and females, 65 but higher levels of hormone metabolites were detected in younger animals in both 66 sexes.

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5. Synthesis and applications. Our findings provide an integrated perspective of how multiple factors impact on stress physiology in large wild herbivores and highlight the importance of considering management practices, as well as spatio-temporal variation, when assessing stress-inducing factors in wild populations. Given the broad implications of this study, it could also be an important basis to support wildlife management decisions.

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75 Keywords: *Cervus elaphus*, chronic stress, environmental variation, faecal
76 glucocorticoid metabolites, hunting management, individual factors, Mediterranean
77 habitats

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80 Introduction

81

82 During their evolutionary history, organisms have developed different adaptive 83 physiological and behavioural mechanisms to cope with adverse conditions or stressors (Bijlsma & Loeschcke 2005; Boonstra 2005). However, persistent exposure 84 85 to harmful stimuli can seriously affect their physiology and overall condition (Romero 86 & Butler 2007). Glucocorticoids (i.e., cortisol and corticosterone) are steroid 87 hormones that play a vital role in regulating a wide range of physiological processes, 88 including the stress response (Randall, Burggren & French 2002). In mammals and 89 other vertebrates, these hormones are synthesised and secreted by the adrenal cortex 90 following activation of the hypothalamus-pituitary-adrenocortical (HPA) axis (Ulrich-91 Lai & Herman 2009). Stress can be divided into acute or chronic, depending on the 92 duration of the exposure to the stressors. Of major relevance is chronic stress that can 93 have detrimental effects on the animals' health, growth, reproductive performance 94 (Boonstra 2005; Reeder & Kramer 2005; Wingfield & Sapolsky 2003), and ultimately 95 can compromise their survival (Pride 2005). Due to its potentially negative effects on 96 individuals' fitness, chronic stress has been proposed as having an important role in 97 the dynamics of wild populations (e.g., Bonier et al. 2009). 98 Recent advances in field endocrinology have made it possible to use new

99 techniques for stress assessment in wildlife (reviewed by Sheriff *et al.* 2011). Among 100 these, the quantification of glucocorticoid metabolites in faecal material has become a 101 valuable tool for conservation and management issues (Millspaugh & Washburn 102 2004; Wikelski & Cooke 2006), as it permits the monitoring of the physiological 103 status of both individuals and populations in a simple and non-invasive way (Keay *et al.* 2006). Moreover, because faecal glucocorticoid metabolite (FGM) levels represent **Comentado [u1]:** Podrías quitar alguna referencia y poner e.g.?

pooled fractions of the amount of hormones that have been secreted and metabolised
over a broad period of time (Wasser *et al.* 2000; Palme *et al.* 2005), they can provide
a long-term and integrated profile of the animals' physiology (Sheriff, Krebs &
Boonstra 2010). Owing to its great potential, FGM analysis has been increasingly
applied to monitoring stress responses in a wide variety of wild animals (Wasser *et al.*2000; Young *et al.* 2004; Chinnadurai *et al.* 2009).

111 Several factors may act as important sources of stress for mammals. Human 112 activities such as hunting (Bateson & Bradshaw 1997; Burke et al. 2008), tourism 113 (Zwijacz-Kozica et al. 2013; Rehnus, Wehrle & Palme 2014), or other recreational 114 events (Creel et al. 2002) can lead to increased stress levels in their populations. Land 115 use practices and the degree of human intervention in natural habitats can also affect species' physiology (Rimbach et al. 2013; Navarro-Castilla et al. 2014). Apart from 116 117 human-induced stressful situations, social factors (Creel et al. 2013), an elevated risk 118 of predation (Sheriff, Krebs & Boonstra 2009) as well as seasonal variations in the 119 ambient temperature or in the availability of food resources (Dalmau et al. 2007; 120 Beehner & McCann 2008) may also represent important environmental and 121 ecological stressors. These extrinsic factors can affect, either independently or 122 synergistically, individuals' physiological condition, and may also interact with 123 intrinsic factors (e.g., sex, life-history stage, reproductive status) in an integrated 124 fashion (Crespi et al. 2013; Dantzer et al. 2014).

Understanding how species cope with environmental or anthropogenic stressors and the physiological impact of such factors, is an increasingly relevant topic in ecological research and could be a very useful diagnostic tool for supporting wildlife management decisions. To date, little research has been conducted to investigate the factors that influence physiological stress in red deer (*e.g.*, Carragher, Ingram & **Comentado [u2]:** Usas 7 referencias en esta frase; por qué no quitas alguna y sólo pones las referencias al final [aquí] con un e.g.? 130 Matthews 1997; Ingram, Crockford & Matthews 1999; Huber, Palme & Arnold, 2003a), and even less was performed in the wild (e.g., Sauwerwein et al. 2004; 131 Corlatti et al. 2011). The aim of this study was to explore a set of environmental and 132 133 human determinants that may potentially explain FGM concentrations in red deer 134 populations under different environmental and management schemes throughout the 135 Iberian Peninsula and that may be, therefore, indicative of chronic stress in those 136 populations. We also used an integrated approach to explore the main drivers of FGM variability in this species. To our best knowledge, this is the first study addressing 137 138 these issues in Mediterranean ecosystems, where climatological, phenological, and 139 management regimes differ from those observed in central and northern Europe.

140

141 Materials and methods

142 STUDY AREAS

143 This study was performed at eight areas located in the Iberian Peninsula with 144 contrasting environmental conditions and game management practices, where wild 145 populations of red deer are present (Fig. 1): Lombada National Hunting Area and 146 Sierra de la Culebra Regional Hunting Reserve (LSC); Lousã Mountain (LOU); 147 Cubeira Tourist Hunting Area (CUB); Negrita Norte Tourist Hunting Area (NEG); 148 Doñana National Park (DN); Quintos de Mora (QM); Montes Universales Hunting 149 Reserve (RCMU); Caspe-Fraga Social Hunting Area (CF). All study areas share a 150 Mediterranean type climate, but present distinct temperature or precipitation regimes 151 (Fig. 1). Management practices also differ among the populations studied and depend 152 largely on the administrative authorities' or gamekeepers' objectives. The 153 characteristics of the study areas and red deer populations are summarised in Table 1. 154

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155 SAMPLING AND DATA COLLECTION

156 Sampling was carried out during three consecutive hunting seasons (September to February), from 2010-2011 to 2012-2013. Fresh faecal samples were collected 157 158 directly from the rectum of 289 hunted red deer for FGM determination (Table 1). 159 The collection, transportation and storage of samples were done according to Santos 160 et al. (2014). Biological traits such as the sex and age class of each sampled animal 161 were also recorded. Age determination was performed from the observation of tooth 162 eruption patterns in younger animals (Sáenz de Buruaga, Lucio & Purroy 2001) or by 163 counting incremental cementum layers on sectioned roots of the first incisors in 164 individuals older than 2 (Hamlin et al. 2000). The sampled animals were subsequently 165 grouped into four biologically relevant age categories as in previous studies with 166 Iberian red deer (e.g., Rodriguez-Hidalgo et al. 2010; Santos et al. 2013): calves (< 1 167 year old); yearlings (1 year old); sub-adults (2–3 years old); adults (\geq 4 years old).

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169 FGM CONCENTRATIONS

Faecal pellets (approx. 15-20 g per sample) were dried in a conventional oven at 170 171 60 °C for 48 h, ground in a cyclone-type mill to pass through a 1 mm screen, and then 172 analysed by near infrared reflectance spectroscopy (NIRS) to estimate FGM 173 concentrations. This analytical technique relies on the measurement of the amount of 174 energy absorbed by a sample when irradiated with near infrared light (NIR; 750-2500 175 nm), thus making it possible to determine its chemical composition through spectral 176 absorption bands. We used a subset of 78 samples (approx. 27% of the total sample 177 size) to calibrate and validate NIRS technology for predicting stress hormone 178 metabolite concentrations in red deer faeces (for details see Santos et al. 2014). Then, 179 the calibration equation developed by Santos et al. (2014) for oven-dried faeces was 180 used to convert the spectral information into quantitative data (expressed in ng/g of

- 181 dry matter, DM). The data processing was done using WinISI III (v.1.6) software.
- 182

183 ENVIRONMENTAL FACTORS

184 Daily maximum, minimum and average air temperatures (°C) and daily 185 precipitation (mm) were obtained from the weather stations closest to each study area 186 for the period from 2010 to 2013. The Spanish and Portuguese National Meteorology 187 Institutes provided all the data. For analysis, 12 variables for temperature and 3 188 variables for precipitation were defined a priori (Table 2). Because the proximate 189 factors that may influence FGM concentrations were the objective of our study, 190 meteorological variables on a short-time scale were selected. Based on the delay time 191 of approximately 24 h in FGM excretion reported for red deer (Huber et al. 2003b) 192 and elk Cervus elaphus canadensis (Wasser et al. 2000), the temperatures for time t - t193 1 day in relation to the date on which animals were culled (t) were determined. 194 Moreover, since FGM concentrations represent an integrated measure of 195 adrenocortical activity over several hours or a few days (Wasser et al. 2000; Dantzer 196 et al. 2014), the hypothesis that such concentrations might be indicative of the 197 cumulative effects of environmental determinants on a more long-term basis was 198 examined. Therefore, the average temperatures during the last t - 30, t - 60, and t - 90199 days were also calculated. Accumulated precipitations were calculated within the 200 same time intervals. Latitude and longitude of the study areas were used as a measure 201 of the geographic position of the populations studied (Table 2). Finally, based on life-202 history events and on seasonal patterns in glucocorticoid secretion (Huber et al. 203 2003a; Corlatti et al. 2011), the sampling months were grouped in two categories: 204 autumn (September to November) and winter (December to February) (Table 2).

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206 HUNTING MANAGEMENT PRACTICES AND OTHER HUMAN FACTORS

207 Data on the hunting management practices at the study site level were collected 208 using questionnaires and/or personal interviews with game managers. Hunting events 209 can have various physiological impacts at both individual and population levels 210 (Bateson & Bradshaw 1997; Burke et al. 2008). In the Iberian Peninsula, red deer are 211 typically hunted either by stalking, or through drive hunts or 'battues'. Such hunting 212 methods involve different levels of culling intensity and disturbance for animals, with 213 large drives with beaters and dogs having the highest expected impact on wild 214 populations, whereas stalking has the lowest. Thus, to account for the levels of 215 disturbance caused by the different hunting activities, our study areas were classified 216 according to the presence or absence of massive hunting events (Tables 1 and 2). 217 Additionally, three variables were used as relative measures of hunting pressure 218 among the study sites: i) number of red deer harvested per hunting season, ii) number 219 of deer harvested per surface area, and iii) proportion of the population harvested per 220 hunting season (Tables 1 and 2).

221 Supplementary feeding is a commonly used practice in areas managed for hunting. 222 In our study region, supplementary feeding is often associated with the maintenance 223 of artificially high population densities above the ecological carrying capacity 224 (Vicente et al. 2007a). However, the provision of supplementary food may also have 225 adverse effects on deer physiology; e.g., high densities and the aggregation of animals 226 at artificial feeding sites can operate as stress factors (Forristal et al. 2012). To 227 evaluate the effects of food provision on FGM concentrations, the study areas were 228 categorised as having, or not, a supplementary feeding regime during the regular 229 game seasons (Tables 1 and 2).

230 The extent of human-induced changes on natural habitats was also investigated as 231 a source of anthropogenic disturbance. For each study area, an index that measures 232 the potential land avoidance by wild ungulates in Mediterranean ecosystems was 233 calculated (Table 2). The 'Wild Ungulates Land Avoidance Index' (WULAI; see 234 Cassinello, Acevedo & Hortal 2006)) was determined by first assigning scores to land 235 use categories on a CORINE Land Cover map for 2006 (100 x 100 m resolution; 236 European Environment Agency, 2011). These scores are awarded to reflect the degree 237 of avoidance of ungulates to a particular habitat, and range from 0 (no avoidance) to 238 100 (total avoidance; Table 1).

239

240 ESTIMATION OF RED DEER POPULATION DENSITY

241 High population densities have been identified as a source of stress in many 242 mammalian species (Creel et al. 2013), including deer (Li et al. 2007; Forristal et al. 243 2012). To estimate red deer population density, line transect spotlight counts coupled 244 with distance sampling methods were conducted annually in each study area 245 (Acevedo et al. 2008). Field surveys were carried out during the rutting season 246 (September and October), when deer are more easily detected. Distance sampling 247 field measurements were analysed using Distance 6.0 release 2 (Thomas et al. 2010). For each population studied, the data from annual surveys was pooled to generate a 248 249 global detection function and the density estimates (expressed as deer/Km²) were 250 post-stratified by year. Due to the impossibility of carrying out field surveys in the 251 NEG hunting area, we used the density data from a neighbouring area with similar 252 characteristics, where the same survey methodology was applied (Lopes 2008).

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254 STATISTICAL ANALYSES

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255 A preliminary exploration of the data (variable distribution, outlier detection, and 256 collinearity diagnostics) was performed to obtain a better understanding of their 257 characteristics, and to avoid violating assumptions of statistical procedures (Zuur, 258 Ieno & Elphick 2010). Variance inflation factors (VIF) were checked to rule out 259 multicollinearity between explanatory variables. As some of the predictors had 260 multiple degrees of freedom (df), multicollinearity was assessed by checking adjusted generalised VIF values (GVIF_{adj} = GVIF^{1/2*df}, Fox & Weisberg, 2011). We used a 261 $GVIF_{adj} = 2.5$ as a cut-off value, that is, the predictor with the highest $GVIF_{adj}$ value 262 was dropped in a stepwise procedure until all the remaining predictors reached a 263 264 $\text{GVIF}_{\text{adj}} \le 2.5$ (Zuur *et al.* 2009).

265 Linear mixed models (LMM; McCulloch, Searle & Neuhaus 2008) were used to 266 investigate the environmental and anthropogenic determinants affecting FGM levels 267 in red deer. Because of the large number of potential explanatory variables, a forward 268 stepwise AIC-based procedure (Akaike 1974) was run to find the most parsimonious 269 model. For modelling purposes, the 'study area' was used as a random factor, while 270 the 'hunting season' was included as a fixed factor due to the small number of levels 271 available, which limits its use as a random factor (see Zuur, Ieno & Smith 2007). The 272 sex and age class of animals sampled were also included in the analyses to account for 273 potential differences in stress response and FGM excretion between males and 274 females (López-Olvera et al. 2007; Goymann 2012), as well as between young and 275 adult individuals (Millspaugh & Washburn 2004; Goymann 2012). Additionally, three 276 interaction terms were constructed and tested because of their potential biological or 277 ecological significance in red deer: sex*age class (e.g., Vicente, Pérez-Rodríguez & 278 Gortázar 2007b), season*temperature at time t - 1 day (e.g., Huber et al. 2003a; 279 Corlatti et al. 2011), and supplementary feeding*population density (e.g., Vicente et

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al. 2007a). The data exploration and statistical analyses were conducted with R statistical software, version 3.1.2 (R Core Team, 2014). The LMM were fit using the 'lme4' package, version 1.1-7 (Bates *et al.* 2014). Type III F-tests with Satterthwaite's approximation for degrees of freedom were used to assess significance level of predictors using the function 'anova' available in the 'lmerTest' package, version 2.0-20 (Kuznetsova, Brockhoff & Christensen 2014) for R. Statistical significance was set at $P \le 0.05$.

As a final step, variation-partitioning techniques (Borcard, Legendre & Drapeau 1992) were employed to assess the comparative influence of biological and ecological components on modulating FGM levels in red deer. To this end, the explanatory variables retained in the final model were grouped into four main components (*i.e.*, sets of related predictors): individual, environmental, human and spatio-temporal ('study area' and 'hunting season')(see Tables 3 and 4)Partitioning was carried out in a two-step procedure as follows:

294 1) How much variation of the final model was explained independently (pure 295 effects) and jointly (combined effects) by the 'spatio-temporal' component in relation 296 to the remaining set of variables was determined. In this step, two partial models were 297 developed (i.e., models adjusted independently with the variables related to each 298 component. Spatio-temporal: 'SpaTemp', and three main components: 'Main') and 299 the amount of variation of the final model (SpaTemp+Main), explained by each partial model, was calculated in terms of conditional R^2 (see below). Subsequently, 300 301 the R^2 values obtained for each model were subjected to subtraction operations in 302 order to separate out the different fractions of the variation explained by the final 303 model.

304 2) The amount of variation that was explained independently and simultaneously 305 by the three main components was estimated. Here, six partial models were built, i.e., 306 one for each main component (individual: Ind, environmental: Env, and human: 307 Hum), and also for each pair of components (Ind+Env, Ind+Hum, and Env+Hum), 308 and the amount of variation explained by each of them was calculated in terms of 309 marginal R^2 (see below). As in step 1, subtraction rules between the R^2 values 310 obtained for each partial model were applied in order to split the variation explained by each component into pure and combined fractions (see Fig. S1 in Supporting 311 Information for details on procedures; see also Acevedo et al. 2010; Legendre & 312 313 Legendre 2012).

The proportion of variation explained (R^2) by the abovementioned models was calculated according to Nakagawa & Schielzeth (2013). The marginal R^2 refers to the proportion of variation explained only by the fixed factors in a model, while the conditional R^2 describes the proportion of variation explained by both the fixed and random effects. The 'varPart' function (Barbosa *et al.* 2014) was used to generate Venn diagrams in the R package showing the single and shared contributions of the various components in the final model.

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- 322
- 323 Results
- 324

An average of 36.13 ± 4.40 (SE) faecal samples of red deer were collected per population studied over a three-year sampling period: 156 males and 133 females. Of these, 23 were calves, 52 yearlings, 42 sub-adults, and 172 adults. Throughout this study, FGM concentrations varied among study areas (Fig. 2). During data exploration, two FGM measurements were identified as extreme outliers (*i.e.*, more than 3 times outside the interquartile range) and therefore were excluded from subsequent analyses. Hence, the remaining 287 measurements were used for analytical purposes.

Thirteen variables of weather, three variables of hunting pressure and one variable 333 334 of geographic location that could explain FGM levels in red deer were excluded from 335 the initial set of predictors, to avoid multicollinearity (see Table 2). The final model 336 (Tables 3 and 4) included 10 predictors and three interaction terms (see Table S1 in 337 the Supporting Information for results of the stepwise model selection analysis). 338 Briefly, no significant differences were found in FGM concentrations between males 339 and females, but such concentrations differed significantly among age classes, with 340 younger animals showing higher levels of hormone metabolites when compared to 341 adult animals (Table 4). The interaction sex*age class had no significant effect on 342 FGM concentrations. On the other hand, no significant differences were observed 343 between the autumn and winter period, but a significant effect of season was found 344 when controlling for variation in the average temperature recorded one day before 345 sampling, as revealed by the significant interaction between these two predictors (Fig. 346 3). The precipitation accumulated one month before sampling was negatively 347 associated with FGM concentrations), whereas the latitude of the study areas had a 348 positive significant effect on the hormonal levels in red deer (Table 4). Supplementary 349 feeding and population density alone had no significant effects on FGM levels . 350 However, the interaction between these variables significantly affected FGM 351 concentrations in red deer. A negative association between FGM levels and 352 population density was observed in study areas where supplementary food is 353 provided, whereas an inverse pattern was found in areas where supplementary feeding practices do not exist (Fig. 4). The presence or absence of big hunting events also significantly affected FGM concentrations, with such concentrations being higher in areas where hunting methods involve the use of hounds and beaters (Table 4). In addition, a statistically negative relationship was found between hormone levels and WULAI.

359 The final model explained 51.2% of the total variation in FGM concentrations in 360 red deer (Fig. 5a). The results from variation-partitioning analysis showed that almost 361 42% of that variation was explained by the combined effect of the spatio-temporal 362 component with the remaining set of variables of the main components analysed, 363 while only a small fraction was explained by their pure effects (Fig. 5a). Regarding 364 the variation attributable only to the three main components, it was found that the 365 pure effects of the anthropogenic factors explained the highest percentage of that 366 variation (almost 90%) in FGM levels, followed by the pure effects of the 367 environmental (70.8%) and individual (51.5%) components (Fig. 5b).

368 Discussion

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370 As far as we know, this is the first study providing data on FGM concentrations in 371 free-ranging populations of red deer in Mediterranean ecosystems and therefore we do 372 not have directly comparable quantitative data for this species under such conditions. 373 However, an overall concordance was found between our FGM values and the levels 374 of hormone metabolites determined in other studies that have been conducted in 375 different environmental, management or experimental contexts with red deer/elk 376 (Huber et al. 2003a; Corlatti et al. 2011; Azorit et al. 2012; Forristal et al. 2012), roe 377 deer Capreolus capreolus (Dehnhard et al. 2001), fallow deer Dama dama (Konjević 378 et al. 2011), white-tailed deer Odocoileus virginianus (Millspaugh et al. 2002), Père

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379 David's deer *Elaphurus davidianus* (Li *et al.* 2007), and Pampas deer *Ozotoceros*380 *bezoarticus* (Pereira, Duarte & Negrão 2006).

381 Identifying the ecological and anthropogenic processes that act as sources of 382 physiological stress in wildlife is of prime importance to implementing appropriate 383 management and conservation strategies (Dantzer et al. 2014). Taken together, our 384 results demonstrate how multiple factors can work at different levels, either 385 independently or simultaneously, in modulating the FGM concentrations and physiological stress response in red deer. Of the various factors analysed, those 386 387 related to anthropogenic activities explained most of the variation in FGM 388 concentrations. The factors associated to environmental change and to individuals' 389 biological traits were also relevant in modulating stress levels, with the former 390 contributing more than the latter to explaining those levels. Moreover, it was found 391 that the effects of those factors were not fully independent from spatio-temporal 392 variability. The results of this research have also allowed us to identify some potential 393 sources of chronic stress for red deer in the Mediterranean habitats.

394

395 BIOLOGICAL TRAITS AND FGM CONCENTRATIONS IN RED DEER

396 Intrinsic factors such as sex and age are described as significant factors affecting 397 glucocorticoid levels, but sex- and age-related differences in glucocorticoid secretion 398 have not always been consistently demonstrated among vertebrates (Sands & Creel 399 2004; Wada et al. 2006; Crespi et al. 2013). In the present study, no differences were 400 found in the FGM concentrations between sexes in red deer. Similar results were 401 obtained for this species by Huber et al. (2003a) and also by Millspaugh et al. (2001) 402 for elk. Although our research focused exclusively on the autumn and winter periods, 403 those authors found similarities in FGM levels between both sexes among all the 404 seasons. Despite this, the absence of sex-specific differences in hormonal levels is, a 405 priori, unexpected, especially in a highly sexually dimorphic species such as red deer, 406 in which distinct physiological and energy requirements are predictable between 407 males and females (Clutton-Brock, Guinness & Albon 1982). However, a plausible 408 explanation for these results can be provided from an energetic viewpoint. 409 Glucocorticoids have important metabolic functions, helping animals to adjust the way energy is used in their bodies (Randall et al. 2002). As suggested by Key & Ross 410 (1999), in species displaying a highly developed sexual dimorphism, the energy costs 411 412 of gestation and lactation for the females can be equivalent to those of maintaining a 413 large body size for the males. Thus, energy trade-offs for maintaining different 414 physiological functions can help explain the similar results obtained in FGM levels 415 for males and females in our study.

416 An analogous reasoning might be valid for explaining the differences observed in 417 FGM levels among age classes, which were found to be higher in younger than in 418 adult animals in both sexes. Such results may reflect age-related differences in the 419 basal metabolic rate (i.e., amount of energy required to maintain basic cellular 420 functions), which is inversely related to body size (Randall et al. 2002). Moreover, the 421 extra energy demands associated with body growth and maintenance in younger 422 animals may impose increased physiological stress (Santos et al. 2013), leading to 423 increased levels of glucocorticoids. In contrast to our results, Sauwerwein et al. 424 (2004) did not find differences among age groups in glucocorticoid metabolite 425 concentrations measured in ileal digesta of red deer. However, a trend towards higher 426 hormone metabolite levels in young deer was observed in their study.

427 At the level of the individual, several other factors not analysed in this study, such 428 as diet and gut microbiota variability, may affect the relative composition of the 429 hormone metabolites formed and, consequently, their concentrations (reviewed by Goymann 2012). Inter-individual variability on the HPA axis response to stressful 430 431 events is also an important factor modulating glucocorticoid secretion (Federenko et 432 al. 2004). As red deer are social and gregarious animals (Putman 1988), probably 433 multiple psychosocial stressors affect the stress physiology in this species (Creel et al. 434 2013). The way animals cope with previous experiences has also been suggested as 435 being critical in determining different stress responses among individuals (Burke et al. 2008). 436

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438 Environmental factors and FGM concentrations in Red Deer

439 The modulation of basal and stress-induced glucocorticoid levels to environmental 440 challenges is relatively well documented in terrestrial vertebrates, and is often 441 associated with the energy costs of seasonal weather conditions and resource 442 limitations (Reeder & Kramer 2005; Bonier et al. 2009). Here, we observed a more 443 pronounced decrease in FGM concentrations with increasing ambient temperature 444 during the winter in relation to autumn. These results are coherent with bio-energetic 445 processes, since any increment in ambient temperature is expected to have a greater 446 proportional negative effect on metabolic rate during the winter, when the temperatures are generally lower (Randall et al. 2002). Accordingly, during cold 447 448 weather conditions, basal glucocorticoid secretion tends to be higher to stimulate 449 catabolic pathways, thus compensating for the effects of the increased energy 450 demands to maintain body homeostasis (Huber et al. 2003a; Corlatti et al. 2011; see 451 also Dalmau et al. 2007). Other studies have reported peaks of FGM concentrations in 452 the summer in North American elk (Millspaugh et al. 2001), or during the spring, 453 summer, and autumn in bighorn sheep Ovis canadensis, with the lowest values in the 454 winter (Goldstein *et al.* 2005), which may reflect the influence of specific local 455 conditions.

456 In environments where temperatures remain relatively constant throughout the year 457 (e.g., subtropical regions), seasonal fluctuations of FGM levels are mostly influenced 458 by precipitation regimes, which dictate the availability of food resources (Pereira et 459 al. 2006; Chinnadurai et al. 2009). In this study, a significantly negative relationship 460 between the accumulated rainfall one month before sampling and the FGM concentrations was found. Although we have no FGM data for the summer months, it 461 462 is thought that this result may be associated to the particular climatic conditions found 463 in our study region during that period. In Mediterranean areas, the summer drought is often long and intense, thus limiting plant growth and survival, which imposes 464 465 nutritional constraints on herbivores, including red deer (Bugalho & Milne 2003). For 466 this reason, the amount of precipitation that falls during the autumn and winter is 467 critical for plant regeneration (especially for herbaceous vegetation) and increased 468 food availability in these seasons (Bugalho & Milne 2003; Rodriguez-Hidalgo et al. 469 2010).

470 Finally, we obtained a significantly positive correlation between the latitude and 471 the FGM levels. Comparative studies exploring the influence of large-scale 472 geographic factors on glucocorticoid secretion patterns are not widely available, 473 especially for mammals. Most of the research addressing these issues has been 474 conducted with birds, amphibians and reptiles and, despite physiological differences 475 among groups, the results obtained to date have shown positive associations between 476 latitudinal variation and the basal levels of glucocorticoids (see Eikenaar et al. 2012). 477 Some hypotheses have been advanced to elucidate possible mechanisms underlying 478 physiological responses to macro-environmental conditions. An interesting and detailed discussion on this topic can be found in a recent paper by Eikenaar *et al.* (2012). Here, we suggest that the results obtained in this study could be explained by the 'preparative hypothesis' (*sensu* Romero 2002), which posits that levels of glucocorticoid secretion are seasonally modulated to respond to predictable stressful situations. Thus, considering that animal populations at higher latitudes are exposed to harsher weather conditions during the coldest months, one should expect to find higher levels of glucocorticoids in those populations.

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487 ANTHROPOGENIC FACTORS AND FGM CONCENTRATIONS IN RED DEER

488 Significantly higher levels of FGM were detected in red deer populations subjected 489 to hunting methods involving drive hunts with beaters and hounds, in comparison to 490 those where hunting is only performed selectively by stalking. This result makes 491 sense since drive hunts produce higher levels of disturbance for wildlife, with 492 proportionally larger effects when repeated throughout the hunting seasons. 493 Behavioural studies have already demonstrated that ungulates can perceive hunting 494 activities as a threat similar to that caused by natural predators (Stankowich 2008; 495 Grignolio et al. 2011). Other studies have provided evidence on the short- and long-496 term physiological effects of hunting activities on wild herbivores. For example, 497 Bateson & Bradshaw (1997) found marked differences in the post-mortem 498 physiological status of red deer hunted with hounds as compared to undisturbed deer 499 that have been shot by a single hunter. Cortisol levels and other physiological 500 measures were significantly higher in deer hunted with the aid of dogs, and further 501 increased with the increasing extent and duration of the hunts. Implicitly, these results 502 also suggest that physiological and psychological stress caused by hunting may persist 503 in the remaining population for some time after hunting events (Burke et al. 2008).

504 By contrast, other studies did not find any correlation between hunting activity and 505 FGM concentrations in elk (Millspaugh *et al.* 2001), and in Pyrenean chamois 506 (Dalmau *et al.* 2007). However, we suspect that the hunting methods applied and the 507 duration of hunting seasons may explain those results.

508 A very interesting finding, from the point of view of management, was that deer 509 population density and the presence of supplementary feeding interacted to explain 510 FGM levels: in non-supplemented populations the stress hormone concentrations 511 increased with increasing population density, whereas an inverse pattern was found in 512 food-supplemented populations. High population densities can strongly affect 513 adrenocortical activity, as they lead to increased intraspecific competition for 514 resources and/or promote aggregation and social interactions (reviewed by Creel et al. 515 2013). Under natural conditions, a reduction in food availability per capita, as a 516 consequence of increased density, leads to a depletion of body reserves and increased 517 nutritional stress more easily. On the other hand, the negative effects of high densities 518 on an animal's physiological condition are frequently mitigated by artificially 519 providing food (Vicente et al. 2007a). The expected negative effect of increasing 520 aggregation mediated by social stress, as population density increases, was not 521 observed (Saltz & White 1991). Perhaps the positive effects of high food availability 522 counteracted the increased social stress caused by higher population densities. As 523 contrasting situations are reported in the literature (see Forristal et al. 2012), this 524 balance may depend on specific local conditions and the strength of the effects.

The WULAI scores obtained for our study areas covered a small range of values, and evidenced low levels of human-altered landscapes. Even so, there was a significant negative correlation between the WULAI and the FGM concentrations. This relationship might reflect different responses to habitat quality and/or landscape structure by populations. However, future research including a wider range of
WULAI values, as well as other indicators of landscape alteration, may further
elucidate the real meaning of this relationship.

532 MAJOR FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS FOR RED DEER MANAGEMENT

In terms of the methodological approach, the usefulness of collecting fresh faeces from hunted deer to monitor their physiological condition was demonstrated. This procedure brings some advantages over faeces collected from the ground, as it makes it possible to obtain information on the sex and age class of individuals *in situ*, without additional costs. On the other hand, two of the major drawbacks are that this form of monitoring is limited to game species and restricted to hunting seasons.

539 From this research, it was possible to derive meaningful information of how 540 individual and ecological processes affect stress hormone levels in wild red deer, and 541 estimate their relative contribution in shaping those levels. Anthropogenic factors, 542 especially those related to hunting management, were identified as the main source of 543 variation in FGM concentrations, although environmental conditions and intrinsic 544 factors were also important drivers of FGM variation. Regarding anthropogenic 545 factors, two results, which may be considered of particular interest for red deer 546 management, stand out, because of their relevance as potential sources of chronic 547 stress. Firstly, the impacts of large hunts with hounds on deer physiology should be 548 noted and more studies targeted to evaluate their cumulative effects on individuals' 549 performance and population dynamics are recommended. Animal welfare concerns 550 are becoming increasingly relevant nowadays and they also apply to the context of 551 managing wild ungulates (see Ohl & Putman 2014), and should serve as a basis for 552 major improvements in management plans and policies. Secondly, this study may 553 serve as a warning concerning the negative effects of overabundant populations on the 554 stress levels of red deer. Although our results showed that the provision of 555 supplementary food may help minimize nutritional stress in dense populations, this 556 practice is not devoid of associated risks, e.g., disease transmission (Gortázar et al. 557 2006). For management assessment, FGM values per se were not indicative of the 558 management system, but our results indicate that it is fundamental to consider 559 management variables to interpret them, especially in open populations, whereas 560 other physiological indicators should be implemented in artificially fed deer 561 populations, at least in our study latitudes. At the level of the individual, it would be 562 appropriate to include, in further studies, other measures of physical condition (e.g., 563 fat reserves, parasite burdens, diet quality, reproductive status) and investigate their 564 relationship with stress hormone concentrations.

Finally, our findings strongly support evidence that the factors affecting physiological stress response in wild populations are dynamic, varying in space and time. Thus, on a large scale, it is crucial to consider geographic and temporal variation to correctly interpret the physiological responses of wildlife to anthropogenic and environmental stressors.

570

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572

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Table 1. Main characteristics of study areas regarding red deer *Cervus elaphus* management practices and landscape alteration levels. Measures of hunting pressure and red deer population densities are shown as average values (± SE) for the entire sampling period (game seasons from 2010–2011 to 2012–2013). Study areas correspond with those in Fig. 1 and sample size (n) is also indicated. For abbreviations, see materials and methods section.

Study area (n)	Surface (ha)	Type of management	Supplementary feeding	Massive hunting events	Harvested deer (N ± SE)	Harvested deer per surface area (N ± SE)	Population harvested (% ± SE)	Population density (deer/Km ² ± SE)	WULAI
LSC (16)	48,740	Public	Yes	No	40 ± 5.04	0.1 ± 0.01	2.7 ± 0.34	3.1 ± 0.08	0.85
LOU (44)	32,517	Public/Private	Yes	Yes	41 ± 3.48	0.1 ± 0.01	2.0 ± 0.20	6.3 ± 0.33	1.56
CUB (32)	1,561	Private	Yes	Yes	104 ± 5.21	6.6 ± 0.33	17.5 ± 1.86	36.5 ± 2.39	0.87
NEG (47)	1,722	Private	Yes	Yes	72 ± 12.66	4.2 ± 0.74	26.7 ± 4.69	$15.7\pm1.20^*$	1.02
DN (19)	50,720	Public	No	No	40 ± 0.00	0.1 ± 0.00	0.8 ± 0.07	10.1 ± 0.85	1.21
QM (41)	6,864	Public	No	Yes	419 ± 66.36	6.1 ± 0.97	21.9 ± 3.26	27.9 ± 1.85	0.79
RCMU (43)	49,778	Public	No	Yes	754 ± 28.02	1.5 ± 0.06	20.7 ± 0.44	7.3 ± 0.24	1.33
CF (47)	31,327	Private	No	Yes	517 ± 45.84	1.6 ± 0.15	26.3 ± 1.59	6.4 ± 0.89	7.75

1012 * Data obtained from Lopes (2008). See the text for details.

1014 Table 2. Explanatory variables used for modelling faecal glucocorticoid metabolite

1015 concentrations in red deer Cervus elaphus in the Iberian Peninsula during three

1016 consecutive hunting seasons (2010–11 to 2012–13). Temperature and precipitation

1017 variables were calculated in relation to the date (*t*) on which animals were culled.

1018 Variables excluded due to multicollinearity filters are indicated by ^(*).

Variables/Codes	Description	
Weather and climate		
TEMPAvg_24h	Average temperature (°C) at time $t - 1$ day	Comentado [u8]: Los codes no se usan en el texto ni en
TEMPAvg_m1 (*)	Average temperature (°C) of the last 30 days	las tablas (sólo WULAI), por qué no los quitas?
TEMPAvg_m2 ^(*)	Average temperature (°C) of the last 60 days	
TEMPAvg_m3 (*)	Average temperature (°C) of the last 90 days	
TEMPMax_24h (*)	Maximum temperature (°C) at time $t - 1$ day	
TEMPMax_m1 (*)	Average maximum temperature (°C) of the last 30 days	
TEMPMax_m2 (*)	Average maximum temperature (°C) of the last 60 days	
TEMPMax_m3 ^(*)	Average maximum temperature (°C) of the last 90 days	
TEMPMin_24h (*)	Minimum temperature (°C) at time $t - 1$ day	
TEMPMin_m1 ^(*)	Average minimum temperature (°C) of the last 30 days	
TEMPMin_m2 ^(*)	Average minimum temperature (°C) of the last 60 days	
TEMPMin_m3 ^(*)	Average minimum temperature (°C) of the last 90 days	
PRECIP_m1	Accumulated precipitation (mm) in the last 30 days	
PRECIP_m2 ^(*)	Accumulated precipitation (mm) in the last 60 days	
PRECIP_m3 ^(*)	Accumulated precipitation (mm) in the last 90 days	
Seasonality		
SEASON	Autumn = (Sep, Oct, Nov); Winter = (Dec, Jan, Feb)	
Geographic		
LAT	Latitude (decimal degrees)	
LONG (*)	Longitude (decimal degrees)	
Demographic		
D_deer	Population density (red deer/Km ²)	
Game management		
SUPPL	Supplementary feeding $(0 = absence; 1 = presence)$	
MASS_HUNT	Massive hunting events ($0 = absence; 1 = presence$)	
N_HARV (*)	No. of harvested deer per hunting season	
N_HARV_KM2 (*)	No. of harvested deer per surface area per hunting season	
PERC_HARV_POP (*)	Harvested population per hunting season (%)	
Landscape alteration		
WULAI	Wild Ungulates Land Avoidance Index	

1020	Table 3. Results of tests of fixed effects and their interactions in a linear mixed model
1021	explaining variation in faecal glucocorticoid metabolite (FGM) concentrations in red deer
1022	Cervus elaphus. The effects of variables related to individual traits, as well as environmental
1023	conditions and human activities, on FGM levels were analysed, with 'hunting season' as a
1024	fixed factor and 'study area' as a random factor. Significant results are highlighted in bold.

Component	Predictors	Num, Den	F	Р
Component	rreactors	df	value	value
	Hunting season	2, 267	1.935	0.146
	Sex	1, 267	0.018	0.893
Individual	Age class	3, 267	5.410	0.001
	Sex * Age class	3, 267	0.494	0.686
	Season	1, 267	0.068	0.794
	Average temperature on $t - 1$ day	1, 267	8.819	0.003
Environmental	Accumulated precipitation in last 30 days	1, 267	5.514	0.020
	Latitude	1, 267	35.944	<0.0001
	Season * Average temperature on $t - 1$ day	1, 267	4.048	0.045
	WULAI	1, 267	32.013	<0.0001
	Supplementary feeding	1, 267	2.719	0.100
Human	Red deer density	1, 267	0.061	0.805
	Massive hunting events	1, 267	4.158	0.042
	Supplementary feeding * Red deer density	1, 267	10.356	0.001

1027	Table 4. Results of parameter estimates* of the linear mixed-effect model explaining
1028	the influence of variables related to individual traits, as well as environmental
1029	conditions and human activities, on the variation of faecal glucocorticoid metabolite
1030	concentrations (expressed as ng/g of dry matter) in red deer Cervus elaphus. The
1031	variable 'hunting season' was used in the model as a fixed factor and the variable
1032	'study area' was included as a random factor. Significant results are highlighted in
1033	bold.

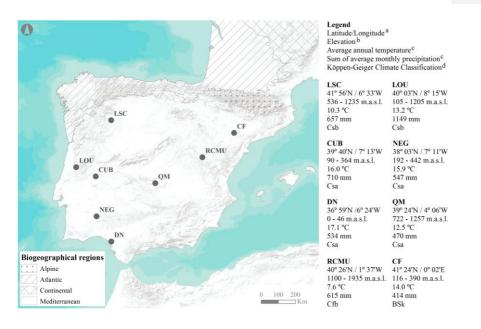
a b	Predictors		Std.	t	Р
Component		Estimate	Error	value	value
	Intercept	-927.66	189.85	-4.886	<0.0001
	Hunting season (2011-2012)	-12.00	9.09	-1.320	0.188
	Hunting season (2012-2013)	12.25	20.10	0.610	0.543
	Sex (Females)	-14.42	28.36	-0.508	0.612
	Age class (Yearlings)	26.81	19.10	1.403	0.162
	Age class (Sub-adults)	32.58	20.07	1.623	0.106
Individual	Age class (Adults)	8.49	16.44	0.517	0.606
	Sex (Females) * Age class (Yearlings)	11.60	33.20	0.349	0.727
	Sex (Females) * Age class (Sub-adults)	32.13	34.08	0.943	0.347
	Sex (Females) * Age class (Adults)	8.66	29.87	0.290	0.772
	Season (Winter)	-8.51	32.51	-0.262	0.794
	Average temperature on $t - 1$ day	2.09	2.13	0.984	0.326
Environmental	Accumulated precipitation in last 30 days	-0.25	0.10	-2.348	0.020
	Latitude	27.19	4.54	5.995	<0.0001
	Season (Winter) * Average temperature on $t - 1$ day	6.24	3.10	2.012	0.045
	WULAI	-25.02	4.42	-5.658	<0.0001
	Supplementary feeding (Yes)	-39.47	23.94	-1.649	0.100
Human	Red deer density	2.05	1.13	1.822	0.070
	Massive hunting events (Yes)	48.48	23.78	2.039	0.042
	Supplementary feeding (Yes) * Red deer density	-3.80	1.18	-3.218	0.001

1034 * Parameter estimates for the levels of fixed factors were computed by considering a

1035 reference value of 0 for: level '2010-2011' for hunting season; level 'Males' for sex; level
1036 'Calves' for age class; level 'Autumn' for season; level 'No' for supplementary feeding; and

1037 level 'No' for massive hunting events.

- 1039 Fig. 1. Location of the study areas in the Iberian Peninsula, within the Mediterranean
- 1040 biogeographic region (after European Environment Agency, 2011). Climatic and
- 1041 topographical features of each sampling site are also shown (right panel).



- ^a Centroid geographic coordinates (degrees, minutes). 1043
- 1044 ^b Elevation ranges (expressed as meters above sea level, m.a.s.l.) were derived either
- 1045 from the 25 x 25 m resolution Digital Elevation Model (DEM) produced by the
- Spanish Geographical National Institute (CNIG) or from the 1:25,000 topographic 1046
- maps (series M888) from the Portuguese Army Geographical Institute (IGeoE). 1047
- 1048 ^c Local temperature (°C) and precipitation (mm) regimes were obtained from 1049 WorldClim (v.1.4. release 3; Hijmans et al. 2005).
- ^d Köppen-Geiger climate classification (Kottek et al. 2006). 1050
- 1051 1052

Fig. 2. Average concentrations of faecal glucocorticoid metabolites (FGM, expressed
as ng/g of dry matter, DM) measured in the faeces of red deer *Cervus elaphus* during
three consecutive game seasons in eight study areas located in the Iberian Peninsula.
Deer populations are ordered by latitude, from south to north. Bars indicate standard
errors (SE).



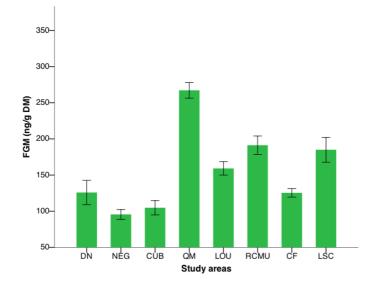


Fig. 3. Relationship between the average daily temperature (°C) and the concentrations of faecal glucocorticoid metabolites (FGM, expressed as ng/g of dry matter, DM) in red deer *Cervus elaphus* in the autumn and winter. The average daily temperature refers to the average temperature recorded one day before the date on which the animals were culled.

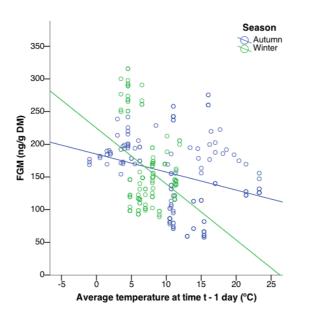
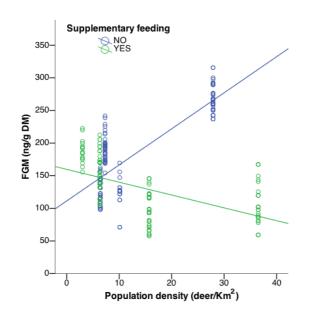




Fig. 4. Relationship between population density (calculated as deer/Km²) and the
concentrations of faecal glucocorticoid metabolites (FGM, expressed as ng/g of dry
matter, DM) in food-supplemented and non-food-supplemented populations of red
deer *Cervus elaphus*.



1076 Fig. 5. Venn diagrams showing (a) the percentage of variation explained by the 1077 spatio-temporal factors versus the remaining set of predictors included in the final 1078 model, as well as their overlaid effects; and (b) the percentage of variation explained 1079 by the individual (Ind), environmental (Env) and human (Hum) components, and their 1080 intersections, on the variation of faecal glucocorticoid metabolite concentrations in 1081 red deer Cervus elaphus. See Fig. S1 in Supporting Information for details of the 1082 procedures used to separate out the explained variation into their pure and shared 1083 effects.

