# Body mass and skull dimensions predict seed dispersal capacity in bats, primates and carnivores from tropical forests

Elise Sivault<sup>1</sup>, Kim McConkey<sup>2</sup>, François Bretagnolle<sup>3</sup>, Asmita Sengupta<sup>4</sup>, Joanna Lambert<sup>5</sup>, Eckhard Heymann<sup>6</sup>, Pierre-Michel Forget<sup>7</sup>, and Anthony Herrel<sup>7</sup>

August 3, 2020

#### Abstract

Endozoochory is an essential plant-animal interaction in tropical forests, involving the swallowing and defecation of seeds. To better understand whether anatomical traits (i.e. body mass and skull dimensions) are good predictors of seed dispersal in mammals we studied the relationships between morphology, fruit and seed size and seed dispersal distance across three orders: Chiroptera, Primates, and Carnivora. Our results revealed that body mass is an important driver of the size of ingested seeds for all orders and of the seed dispersal distance produced by Primates. In addition, the distance between the molars, jaw length, and jaw gape are good predictors of the size of ingested seeds. These results show how body mass and cranial anatomy constrain ingested seed size and dispersal distance across mammals and reinforce the importance of maintaining functional diversity in seed dispersers to maintain tropical forest structure and regeneration.

## Introduction

Most trees and woody lianas in tropical forests depend on animals for seed dispersal (zoochory), with many trees producing fruits that are attractive to animals (Howe & Smallwood 1982; Jordano 2000; Buitrón-Jurado & Ramírez 2014; Howe 2014). Frugivores disperse seeds by consuming the fruit pulp and spitting out the seeds after cleaning them from their pulp (synzoochory) (Howe & Kerckhove 1981; Corlett & Lucas 1990; Lobova et al. 2009), or they ingest fruits whole and the seeds are found intact in their feces (endozoochory) (Shilton et al. 1999; Tobler et al. 2010; Beaune et al. 2013). According to the Janzen-Connell hypothesis, the deposition of seeds away from the parent tree could be advantageous for the plant because the establishment and the survivorship of seedlings is affected by negative density dependent processes such as intraspecific competition, herbivores or pathogens (Janzen 1970; Connell 1971; Bell et al.2006; Mangan et al. 2010; Swamy et al. 2011). When endozoochory occurs, seed dispersal distances mostly depend on the transit time of the seed in the digestive tract and the movement of the animal (Traveset et al. 2007). Large-sized dispersers, like elephants for example, show long-distance movements and long gut retention times, thus generating a more diverse, long-distance dispersal pattern than smaller dispersers (Jordano et al. 2007; Nathan et al. 2008; Campos-Arceiz & Blake 2011; Bueno et al. 2013; O'Farrill et al. 2013; Gonzalez & Stevenson 2014; Fuzessy et al. 2017). Thus, body mass can be expected to be an important driver of seed dispersal distance.

The outcomes of interactions between plants and frugivores are influenced by both plant and animal traits

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>Biology Centre CAS Institute of Entomology

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>University of Nottingham - Malaysia Campus

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup>Université Bourgogne Franche-Comté

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup>Ashoka Trust for Research in Ecology and the Environment

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup>University of Colorado Boulder

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup>Deutsches Primatenzentrum GmbH - Leibniz-Institut für Primatenforschung

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>7</sup>Museum National d'Histoire Naturelle

(Dehling et al. 2016). Many traits of animals influence the quantity and quality of seed dispersal and consequently impact the seed-dispersal effectiveness (Schupp et al. 2010; Beckman & Rogers 2013). Avian body mass determines energy requirements, affecting foraging behaviour and consequently may constrain the size of fruit that can be ingested (Jordano 2000; Kitamura et al. 2002). Moreover, bill size or wing morphology in birds influence fruit handling and manoeuvrability for fruit access (Dehling et al. 2016). Nevertheless, no studies have explored the link between body mass or skull dimensions with the size of ingested seeds in mammals. Yet, body size and gape limitations can be expected to be important drivers of these relationships as they are for birds (Lord 2004; Godinez-Alvarez et al. 2020).

Here, we focus on mammals with a predominantly frugivorous diet across three orders: Chiroptera, Primates, and Carnivora. Frugivorous bats are represented by the Pteropodidae family of the Old World (Africa, Asia, Oceania) and Phyllostomidae of the New World (America). They are able to carry up to 1.5x their body mass in fruit (Mahandran et al. 2018) and some can ingest and defecate a large amount of small seeds (Lobovaet al. 2009). Frugivorous primates are represented by strepsirrhines, platyrrhines (New World monkeys) and catarrhines (Old World monkeys and apes). They constitute up to 25-40% of the biomass of frugivorous animals in tropical forests (Chapman 1995). These taxa show high interspecific variability in terms of seed treatment and therefore in seed dispersal efficiency (Lambert 1999; Gross-Camp & Kaplin 2011). Frugivorous carnivores are mainly represented by the Viverridae in the Old World and the Procyonidae in the New World. Viverrids represent the third largest group of frugivorous mammals in the Indo-Himalayan region (Kitamura et al. 2002). Even if they are much less studied than primates and bats, frugivorous carnivores are recognized as important dispersers (Alves Costa & Eterovick 2007; Zhou et al. 2008; Nakabayashi et al. 2016). They consume a wide variety of fruits of which they disperse a significant number of intact seeds (Alves Costa & Eterovick 2007; Chakravarthy & Ratnam 2015).

Using global data including Neotropics, Asia, Africa and Madagascar, we tested the following questions:

- 1. Do body mass and skull dimensions predict the size of ingested seeds and fruits? We expected a positive relationship between body mass and cranial dimensions with the size of consumed fruits and ingested seeds.
- 2. Do body mass and skull dimensions influence seed dispersal distance? We expect a positive relationship between body mass and seed dispersal distance in relation to digestion times, with longer transit times resulting in greater seed dispersal distances.

#### Materials and Methods

Body mass and skull dimensions

We carried out skull measurements of primates, carnivores and bats from the comparative anatomy collections of the Natural History Museums of Paris (MNHN) and London (NHM). All measurements (see Appendix S1 in supporting information) were made with an accuracy of 0.01 cm using digital calipers. Measurements of jaw length (A), and the jaw gape (B) allow us to estimate approximately the maximum opening of the jaw. The bicondylar width (C) and the projected jaw length (D) are correlated with the size of the animal and give an estimate of the shape of the mandible. Canine overlap (E) has been suggested to explain the maximal opening of the jaw and thus the size of the food that can be ingested (Hylander 2013). The jaw width (F) and the distance between molars (G) provide an estimate of the size of the food passage (size of the oral and pharyngeal tract). The coronoid height (H) indicates the size of the temporalis muscles and provides insights on bite force which may also be related to the size of the fruit and seeds ingested. The regular absence of teeth on the skulls of the specimens resulted in all measurements being taken at the base of the teeth. As far as possible, the skulls of two adult males and two adult females were measured for each species. Body mass data were derived from the open access database of the Encyclopedia of Life which lists the adult male and female body mass (https://eol.org/).

### Species

The species of bats, primates and carnivores selected for this study include at least 50 percent of fruit in their diet in some localities and throughout most of the year. Indeed, depending on the availability of resources,

even highly frugivorous species may include insects, other plant material or other vertebrates into their diet. Our data are derived from the results of observations or experiments (average dry mass of feces or stomach contents) presented in the literature (see Appendix S2). Our data set encompassed eight families of Primates including 48 species, two families of Chiroptera including 43 species and two families of Carnivora including 13 species (N = 104 species) (see Appendix S2).

#### Fruit and seed sizes

The fruit and seed sizes of the plants consumed by the three taxa studied were compiled to relate them to their morphology and the seed dispersal capacities. Seeds found intact in the feces are considered to be dispersed by endozoochory. These data were mainly obtained from existing databases (Forget et al. 2007; Bretagnolle et al.unpub.), a book (Lobova et al. 2009), journals (see Appendix S2), theses (Gompper 1994; Nakabayashi 2015) and through the help of M. Norconk, T. Gregory, D. Chakravarthy, A. Blackburn, O. Razafindratsima and M. Gompper. The dimensions measured on seeds and fruits are length and width (mm). Sometimes, these data are available for the same species at different locations. Thus, data from the locality where the species ingests the larger seeds were used because we were interested in the maximal seed or fruit size that can be ingested by an animal.

## Seed dispersal data

In order to explore the seed dispersal capacities of the species studied, we compiled data on transit times and seed dispersal distances. Unfortunately, these parameters are only variably present in the literature, thus we were not able to compile enough data for bats and carnivores. We obtained data for 16 species of Primates (see Appendix S2). We compiled average and maximum transit times of the food ingested but also the average and maximum seed dispersal distances estimated in the literature. For two species (i.e. Leontocebus nigrifrons and Saguinus mystax), only medians of seed dispersal distances were available instead of averages. The average transit time is the average of the measured durations between the ingestion of a food and its first defecation. The maximum transit time is the time to the defecation of the last element.

## Statistical analysis

In order to identify potential relationships between morphological data (body mass and skull dimensions) on one hand and seed and fruit sizes and seed dispersal distance data on the other hand we used a "two-block partial least squares" (2B-PLS) approach (Rohlf & Corti 2000). This method makes it possible to quantify the degree of association between two tables of data, recorded for the same species. It is a descriptive multivariate analysis robust to multicollinearity between variables and therefore suitable for the use of morphometric and dietary variables. These analyses generate axes that explain the covariance between two data tables. A PLS correlation coefficient ( $R_{\rm pls}$ ) and the covariance percentage for each axis produced are obtained using the function "pls2b" in R from the Morpho library (Schlager 2013). The result comes from a set of 1000 permutations. Next, a sampling distribution of coefficients is obtained by resampling. The  $P_{95}$ -value is calculated by comparison of the observed PLS coefficient to those obtained after resampling. The significance of each linear combination is assessed by comparing the singular value (PLS coefficient) to those obtained from permutated blocks. If the PLS coefficient is higher than those obtained from permutated blocks, then its associated  $P_{95}$ -value is considered as significant. For each significant analysis, a graph and histograms of the variables are generated by using the Geomorph library (Adams et al. 2013).

Species share a part of their evolutionary history and therefore cannot be treated as independent data points. Thus, we also conducted these analyses (2B-PLS phylogenetic) with the consideration of phylogeny. We used the "phylo-integration" function (Adams et~al.~2014) in R from the Geomorph library. This function allowed us to quantify the degree of covariance of two data tables but under the Brownian evolution model (Adams et~al.~2014). The blocks are phylogenetically corrected and the PLS coefficient (R<sub>pls</sub>) between the two blocks is evaluated.

As body mass is known to impact morphology, we ran Spearman correlation tests (non-parametric) and linear regressions of each of the skull dimensions as a function of body mass and extracted the residuals.

These were then used for 2B-PLS and phylogenetic 2B-PLS analyses to explore covariation between skull dimensions and fruit and seed size without the confounding effect of body mass.

We used R statistical environment (R core team (2019), version 3.5.2) for these analyses. All data were  $Log_{10}$ -transformed before analyses to assure normality and homoscedascity.

## Phylogeny

In order to integrate the phylogeny of the species into our analyses, we used the phylogenetic tree produced by Bininda-Emonds in 2007. It contains a significant number of mammalian species and it is the most complete tree to date (Bininda-Emonds *et al.* 2007). We checked the presence of our species in this tree with the function "treedata" and we reduced this tree by keeping only the species studied, using the geiger (Pennell *et al.* 2014) and ape (Paradis & Schliep 2018) libraries in R.

#### Results

Body mass and skull dimensions with fruit and seed sizes

Our analysis revealed significant covariations ( $R_{pls}=0.31$ ; P=0.008) between morphology and seed and fruit size ingested. We can observe that body mass drives the covariation with ingested seed and fruit sizes (average and maximum length and width) (see Fig. 1).

Spearman correlation tests showed that skull dimensions are strongly correlated to body mass (R > 0.9; P <<<0.001). Consequently, we reran our 2BphyloPLS analyses using residual data. These analyses showed that the distance between molars, the canine overlap, the projected and effective jaw length, and jaw gape covaried significantly with seed sizes. Moreover, the coronoid height, jaw width and bicondylar width covaried with fruit sizes ( $R_{pls}$ =0.44; P=0.001) (see Fig. 2).

To explore whether the overall pattern held within each clade we repeated this phylogenetic 2B-PLS analysis between seed and fruit sizes and residual skull dimensions for primates only and did not find any significant covariation ( $R_{\rm pls}=0.42;\ P=0.06$ ). A similar 2B-PLS phylogenetic analysis was also performed for the Chiroptera group and showed significant covariations ( $R_{\rm pls}=0.66;\ P=0.001$ ). The distance between molars, the canine overlap, the projected and effective jaw length, and the jaw gape covaried with the dimensions of the ingested seeds. Also, the coronoid height, jaw width and bicondylar width covaried with fruit sizes (see Fig. 3). For the carnivores the 2B-PLS analysis did not reveal any covariation ( $R_{\rm pls}=0.6;\ P=0.2$ ) likely due to the small sample size.

Body mass, skull dimensions and seed dispersal distances

Our analysis for primates only (N=16) detected significant covariation between body mass and seed dispersal distances and transit times, respectively ( $R_{pls}$ =0.73; P=0.01; Fig. 4). Small primates like e.g. tamarins (*Leontocebus nigrifrons* 11 Previously *Saguinus fuscicollis* (see Rylands *et al.*2016)) have short retention times and seed dispersal distances, while large primates such as gorillas (*Gorilla gorilla*) have a long retention time and disperse seeds further.

An analysis excluding the body mass revealed significant co-variations between the skull dimensions and seed dispersal distances ( $R_{pls}=0.78$ ; P=0.03). Coronoid height, the distance between molars, the projected and effective jaw length covaried with the transit times and seed dispersal distances (see Fig. 5).

# Discussion

Our data revealed a strong link between the average and maximum seed and fruit sizes consumed and the body mass of frugivorous mammals (see Fig.1). These data thus indicate that larger mammals generally consume larger fruits and ingest larger seeds. It is important to note that the largest seeds can only be ingested by large mammals (Forget et al. 2007), but the opposite is not true, large mammals can ingest many small seeds. Furthermore, seed size does not necessarily correlate with fruit size, e.g. Annona muricata, as large fruits can contain numerous small seeds.

Skull dimensions including jaw gape, jaw length, canine overlap, and the distance between molars also appear good predictors of the size of ingested seeds (see Fig.2). These measurements mainly reflect the food passage and maximal jaw opening (Hylander 2013). Consequently, cranial dimensions, especially those linked with food passage size constrain the size of seeds ingested. Moreover, coronoid height and jaw width appear predictors of the size of ingested fruits. These dimensions reflect the food passage and the bite force of the species. Nevertheless, these data suggest that the size of consumed fruits is less predictable than the size of seeds. Large-sized fruits can be broken into pieces or eaten without being detached from their support by some bats (Morrison 1980; Singaravelan & Marimuthu 2008). Carnivores sometimes drop large fruit to the ground to break it up (Howe 1986), while the dexterity of primates enables them to consume fruit larger than their gape (Peckre et al. 2019).

The same analysis was carried out only for Chiroptera and revealed co-variations similar to the multi-taxon analysis (see Fig. 2 and 3). Thus, also within Chiroptera the morphology of the cranium appears to limit the size of the seeds that can be ingested and dispersed. This pattern is relatively strong and reveal few different behaviours in the treatment of seeds by Chiroptera. Bats consume the pulp of the fruits, swallow small seeds, or drop them if they are too large to be swallowed (Forget et al. 2007; Lobova et al 2009). However, the same analysis was not significant for Primates. Although many of them swallow seeds, some primates consistently spit large seeds (Lambert 1999). It suggests that taxa with diverse handling behaviour (swallowing versus spitting) might not be well represented by this model.

Our analysis exploring relations between transit times, seed dispersal distances and body mass of primates did reveal covariation (see Fig. 4). Gorillas dispersed seeds further than tamarins, for example, showing that body mass is the principal driver of these covariations. This reflects the strong relationship between body mass and seed retention times suggested in previous studies (Wotton & Kelly 2012; Yoshikawa et al. 2019).

Our analysis exploring relationships between skull dimensions, seed dispersal distances and transit times of primates was significant. However, the covariations were quite variable and dependent on the species involved. A possible explanation can be the difference in group size among primate species. There is a positive correlation between primate body mass and group size (Clutton-Brock & Harvey 1977). Primates living in large groups travel further than species in small groups (Wrangham et al. 1993). Nevertheless, further studies exploring how primates and other mammals manipulate fruits and seeds are needed to better understand these relationships. Our limited database does not allow to test for this relationship at the moment, but this is an obvious issue for future studies.

Oral behaviours related to food acquisition and ingestion are reflected in the form of the skull, jaws and teeth. Consequently, based on cranial morphology, several examples show the possibility to infer feeding or dietary behaviour to museum specimens (Dumont 1997; Bargo 2001; Jungers et al. 2002). In addition, evidence shows that body size can be used as a strong indicator of seed retention time of extinct animals. This is suggested by a study using body mass of extinct Mesozoic dinosaurs to deduce their seed retention times that determines the spatial pattern of seed dispersal (Yoshikawa et al. 2019). The strong covariations that we observed, indicate that seed size ingested, retention times and seed dispersal distance could be inferred in extinct animals based on morphological measurements.

Significant gaps in our understanding of the diet in frugivorous carnivores were apparent. For example, data on seeds ingested by the binturong (Arctictis binturong) are based on a single individual (Nakabayashi et al. 2017). Consequently, we were able to gather data on ingested seeds for only a small number of species (N=13). Despite the few studies on carnivores, these animals have the potential to be excellent dispersers. For example, the civet (Paradoxurus hermaphroditus) can swallow and disperse disproportionately large seeds (Nakashima et al. 2010) and seeds can be retained for several hours in the digestive tract during which the animal can travel several hundreds of meters (Nakashima et al. 2010).

Our results demonstrate a tight link between seed traits and the skull dimensions and body mass in frugivorous mammals. In harvested forests for timber, the average seed size decreases because plants with large seeds (hardwood, commercial species) are often harvested (Markl et al. 2012) which can, in turn, impact large-bodied frugivores by modifying the availability of their food resources. Conversely, if large dispersers go extinct, e.g. through hunting, average seed size will also decrease given that size and cranial morphology appear tightly correlated to seed size dispersed. This is suggested by a study in South American forests, where the loss of large fruit-eaters has led to a reduction in the average seed size of *Euterpe edulis* palms (Galetti et al. 2013). Furthermore, it has been shown that defaunation also leaves its signature in the gene pool of plant populations (Pacheco & Simonetti 2000; Carvalho et al. 2016). Thus, the absence of seed dispersers does not only result in phenotypic changes but also affects allelic frequencies of plants, with unknown effects on the long-term persistence of plant species and entire communities.

In this study, we have shown that large mammals are essential for dispersing the seeds of large-seeded plants. Our results underline the importance of maintaining functional diversity in seed dispersers to maintain tropical forest structure and regeneration, because of morphological constraints on seed sizes consumed by different species. In addition, we have shown that morphological characteristics can be used to predict seed dispersal patterns of recent or extinct mammals which also provide a basis for predicting the consequences of frugivore extinction within tropical forests.

# Acknowledgments

This work is the result of significant collaboration with many people including M. Norconk, A. Blackburn, T. Gregory, D. Chakravarthy, O. Razafindratsima, M. Gompper, A. Albert who shared their data bases on seed and fruit size; A.-C. Fabre who provided significant conceptual input and practical help with the statistical analyses. We would like to thank the people in charge of the collections of the London and Paris museums: R. Portela-Miguez, C. Bens, G. Veron, and J.-M. Pons for providing us access to material. This research was supported by the National Natural History Museum of Paris and by the Research unit MECADEV CNRS/MNHN of Paris. Field data and R scripts are deposited in the Dryad Repository.

#### References

Adams, D. C., & Otarola-Castillo, E. (2013). Geomorph: a R package for the collection and analysis of geometric morphometric shape data. *Methods in Ecology and Evolution*, 4 (4), 393-399.

Adams, D. C., Collyer, M. L., Otarola-Castillo, E., & Sherratt, E. (2014). Geomorph: Software for geometric morphometric analyses. R package version 2.1. See https://cran.r-project.org/package=geomorph.

Alves-Costa, C. P., & Eterovick, P. C. (2007). Seed dispersal services by coatis (*Nasua nasua*, Procyonidae) and their redundancy with other frugivores in southeastern Brazil. *Acta Oecologica*, 32 (1), 77-92.

Bargo, M. S. (2001). The ground sloth Megatherium americanum: skull shape, bite forces, and diet. *Acta Palaeontologica Polonica*, 46 (2).

Beaune, D., Bretagnolle, F., Bollache, L., Bourson, C., Hohmann, G., & Fruth, B. (2013). Ecological services performed by the bonobo (*Pan paniscus*): seed dispersal effectiveness in tropical forest. *Journal of Tropical Ecology*, 29 (5), 367-380.

Beckman, N. G., & Rogers, H. S. (2013). Consequences of seed dispersal for plant recruitment in tropical forests: interactions within the seedscape. *Biotropica*, 45 (6), 666-681.

Bell, T., Freckleton, R. P., & Lewis, O. T. (2006). Plant pathogens drive density-dependent seedling mortality in a tropical tree. *Ecology letters*, 9 (5), 569-574.

Bininda-Emonds et al. (2007). The delayed rise of present-day mammals. Nature, 446 (7135), 507.

Bueno, R. S., Guevara, R., Ribeiro, M. C., Culot, L., Bufalo, F. S., & Galetti, M. (2013). Functional redundancy and complementarities of seed dispersal by the last neotropical megafrugivores. *PloS one*, 8 (2), e56252.

Buitron-Jurado, G., & Ramirez, N. (2014). Dispersal spectra, diaspore size and the importance of endo-zoochory in the equatorial Andean montane forests. Flora-Morphology, Distribution, Functional Ecology of

Plants, 209 (7), 299-311.

Campos-Arceiz, A., & Blake, S. (2011). Megagardeners of the forest—the role of elephants in seed dispersal. *Acta Oecologica*, 37 (6), 542-553.

Carvalho, C. S., Galetti, M., Colevatti, R. G., & Jordano, P. (2016). Defaunation leads to microevolutionary changes in a tropical palm. *Scientific Reports*, 6, 31957.

Chakravarthy, D., & Ratnam, J. (2015). Seed dispersal of *Vitex glabrata* and *Prunus ceylanica* by Civets (Viverridae) in Pakke Tiger Reserve, north-east India: spatial patterns and post-dispersal seed fates. *Tropical Conservation Science*, 8 (2), 491-504.

Chang, N. C., Su, H. H., & Lee, L. L. (2016). Effects of dietary fiber on gut retention time in captive *Macaca cyclopis*, *Macaca fascicularis*, *Hylobates lar*, and *Pongo pygmaeus* and the germination of ingested seeds. *International Journal of Primatology*, 37 (6), 671-687.

Chapman, C. A. (1995). Primate seed dispersal: coevolution and conservation implications. *Evolutionary Anthropology: Issues, News, and Reviews*, 4 (3), 74-82.

Clutton-Brock, T. H., & Harvey, P. H. (1977). Primate ecology and social organization. Journal of zoology, 183(1), 1-39.

Connell, J. H. (1971). On the role of natural enemies in preventing competitive exclusion in some marine animals and in rain forest trees. *Dynamics of populations*, 298, 312.

Corlett, R. T., & Lucas, P. W. (1990). Alternative seed-handling strategies in primates: seed-spitting by long-tailed macaques (*Macaca fascicularis*). *Oecologia*, 82 (2), 166-171.

Dehling, D. M., Jordano, P., Schaefer, H. M., Bohning-Gaese, K., & Schleuning, M. (2016). Morphology predicts species' functional roles and their degree of specialization in plant–frugivore interactions. *Proceedings of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences*, 283 (1823), 20152444.

Dumont, E. R. (1997). Cranial shape in fruit, nectar, and exudate feeders: implications for interpreting the fossil record. American Journal of Physical Anthropology: The Official Publication of the American Association of Physical Anthropologists, 102 (2), 187-202.

Encyclopedia of life v3, (2018). *Encyclopedia of life*. Available at: https://eol.org. Last accessed: 19 MAY 2019.

Forget, P. M., Dennis, A. J., Mazer, S. J., Jansen, P. A., Kitamura, S., Lambert, J. E., et al. (2007). Seed allometry and disperser assemblages in tropical rainforests: a comparison of four floras on different continents. *Seed dispersal: theory and its application in a changing world.* CAB International Publishing, Wallingford, UK, pp. 5-36.

Fuzessy, L. F., Janson, C. H., & Silveira, F. A. (2017). How far do Neotropical primates disperse seeds? American journal of primatology, 79 (7), e22659.

Galetti, M., Guevara, R., Cortes, M. C., Fadini, R., Von Matter, S., Leite, A. B. et al. (2013). Functional extinction of birds drives rapid evolutionary changes in seed size. *Science*, 340 (6136), 1086-1090.

Godinez-Alvarez, H., Rios-Casanova, L., & Peco, B. (2020). Are large frugivorous birds better seed dispersers than medium-and small-sized ones? Effect of body mass on seed dispersal effectiveness. *Ecology and Evolution* 

Gompper, M. E. (1994). The Importance of Ecology. Behavior, and Genetics in the Maintenance of Coati (Nasua narica) Social Structure. Ph. D. dissertation, University of Tennessee, Knoxville, TN.

Gonzalez, M., & Stevenson, P. R. (2014). Seed dispersal by woolly monkeys (*Lagothrix lagothricha*) at Caparu Biological Station (Colombia): Quantitative description and qualitative analysis. In *The Woolly Monkey*, Springer, New York, NY, pp. 147-165.

- Gross-Camp, N. D., & Kaplin, B. A. (2011). Differential seed handling by two African primates affects seed fate and establishment of large-seeded trees. *Acta Oecologica*, 37 (6), 578-586.
- Howe, H. F. (1986). Seed dispersal by fruit-eating birds and mammals. Seed dispersal, 123, 189.
- Howe, H. F. (2014). Diversity storage: Implications for tropical conservation and restoration. Global Ecology and Conservation, 2, 349-358.
- Howe, H. F., & Smallwood, J. (1982). Ecology of seed dispersal. Annual review of ecology and systematics, 13 (1), 201-228.
- Howe, H. F., & Vande Kerckhove, G. A. (1981). Removal of wild nutmeg (*Virola surinamensis*) crops by birds. *Ecology*, 62 (4), 1093-1106.
- Hylander, W. L. (2013). Functional links between canine height and jaw gape in catarrhines with special reference to early hominins. *American journal of physical anthropology*, 150 (2), 247-259.
- Janzen, D. H. (1970). Herbivores and the number of tree species in tropical forests. *The American Naturalist*, 104 (940), 501-528.
- Jordano, P. (2000). Fruits and frugivory. Seeds: the ecology of regeneration in plant communities, 2, 125-166.
- Jordano, P., Garcia, C., Godoy, J. A., & Garcia-Castano, J. L. (2007). Differential contribution of frugivores to complex seed dispersal patterns. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, 104 (9), 3278-3282.
- Jungers, W. L., Godfrey, L. R., Simons, E. L., Wunderlich, R. E., Richmond, B. G., & Chatrath, P. S. (2002). Ecomorphology and behavior of giant extinct lemurs from Madagascar. In *Reconstructing behavior in the primate fossil record* (pp. 371-411). Springer, Boston, MA.
- Kitamura, S., Yumoto, T., Poonswad, P., Chuailua, P., Plongmai, K., Maruhashi, T. et al. (2002). Interactions between fleshy fruits and frugivores in a tropical seasonal forest in Thailand. *Oecologia*, 133 (4), 559-572.
- Lambert, J. E. (1999). Seed handling in chimpanzees (*Pan troglodytes*) and redtail monkeys (*Cercopithecus ascanius*): Implications for understanding hominoid and cercopithecine fruit-processing strategies and seed dispersal. *American Journal of Physical Anthropology: The Official Publication of the American Association of Physical Anthropologists*, 109 (3), 365-386.
- Lobova, T. A., Geiselman, C. K., & Mori, S. A. (2009). Seed dispersal by bats in the Neotropics . New York Botanical Garden, 400-471.
- Lord, J. M. (2004). Frugivore gape size and the evolution of fruit size and shape in southern hemisphere floras.  $Austral\ Ecology$ , 29 (4), 430-436.
- Mahandran, V., Murugan, C. M., Marimuthu, G., & Nathan, P. T. (2018). Seed dispersal of a tropical deciduous Mahua tree, *Madhuca latifolia* (Sapotaceae) exhibiting bat-fruit syndrome by pteropodid bats. *Global Ecology and Conservation*, 14, e00396.
- Mangan, S. A., Schnitzer, S. A., Herre, E. A., Mack, K. M., Valencia, M. C., Sanchez, E. I. et al. (2010). Negative plant–soil feedback predicts tree-species relative abundance in a tropical forest. *Nature*, 466 (7307), 752.
- Markl, J. S., Schleuning, M., Forget, P. M., Jordano, P., Lambert, J. E., Traveset, A. et al. (2012). Meta-analysis of the effects of human disturbance on seed dispersal by animals. *Conservation biology*, 26 (6), 1072-1081.
- Martins, M. M. (2006). Comparative Seed Dispersal Effectiveness of Sympatric Alouatta guariba and Brachyteles arachnoides in Southeastern Brazil 1. Biotropica: The Journal of Biology and Conservation, 38 (1), 57-63.

Morrison, D. W. (1980). Efficiency of food utilization by fruit bats. Oecologia, 45 (2), 270-273.

Nakabayashi M. (2015). Feeding ecology of three frugivorous civets in Borneo. Ph.D. dissertation, Kyoto University, Kyoto, Japan.

Nakabayashi, M., Ahmad, A. H., & Kohshima, S. (2016). Behavioral feeding strategy of frugivorous civets in a Bornean rainforest. *Journal of Mammalogy*, 97 (3), 798-805.

Nakabayashi, M., Ahmad, A. H., & Kohshima, S. (2017). Fruit selection of a binturong (*Arctictis binturong*) by focal animal sampling in Sabah, Malaysian Borneo. *Mammalia*, 81 (1), 107-110.

Nakashima, Y., Inoue, E., Inoue-Murayama, M., & Sukor, J. A. (2010). High potential of a disturbance-tolerant frugivore, the common palm civet *Paradoxurus hermaphroditus* (Viverridae), as a seed disperser for large-seeded plants. *Mammal Study*, 35 (3), 209-216.

Nathan, R., Schurr, F. M., Spiegel, O., Steinitz, O., Trakhtenbrot, A., & Tsoar, A. (2008). Mechanisms of long-distance seed dispersal. *Trends in ecology & evolution*, 23 (11), 638-647.

O'Farrill, G., Galetti, M., & Campos-Arceiz, A. (2013). Frugivory and seed dispersal by tapirs: an insight on their ecological role. *Integrative zoology*, 8 (1), 4-17.

Pacheco, L. F., & Simonetti, J. A. (2000). Genetic structure of a mimosoid tree deprived of its seed disperser, the spider monkey. Conservation Biology, 14(6), 1766-1775.

Paradis, E., & Schliep, K. (2018). Ape 5.0: an environment for modern phylogenetics and evolutionary analyses in R. *Bioinformatics*, 35, 526-528.

Peckre, L. R., Fabre, A. C., Hambuckers, J., Wall, C. E., & Pouydebat, E. (2019). Food properties influence grasping strategies in strepsirrhines. *Biological Journal of the Linnean Society*, 127 (3), 583-597.

Pennell, M., Eastman, J., Slater, G., Brown, J., Uyeda, J., FitzJohn, R. et al. (2014). Geiger v2.0: an expanded suite of methods for fitting macroevolutionary models to phylogenetic trees. *Bioinformatics*, 30, 2216-2218.

R Core Team (2019). R: A language and environment for statistical computing. R Foundation for Statistical Computing, Vienna, Austria. URL http://www.R-project.org/

Rohlf, F. J., & Corti, M. (2000). Use of two-block partial least-squares to study covariation in shape. *Systematic Biology*, 49 (4), 740-753.

Rylands, A. B., Heymann, E. W., Lynch Alfaro, J., Buckner, J. C., Roos, C., Matauschek, C., et al. (2016). Taxonomic review of the new world tamarins (primates: Callitrichidae). *Zoological journal of the Linnean Society*, 177 (4), 1003-1028.

Schlager, S. (2013). Morpho: Calculations and visualisations related to Geometric Morphometrics. R package version 0.23, 3.

Schupp, E. W., Jordano, P., & Gomez, J. M. (2010). Seed dispersal effectiveness revisited: a conceptual review. New Phytologist, 188 (2), 333-353.

Shilton, L. A., Altringham, J. D., Compton, S. G., & Whittaker, R. J. (1999). Old World fruit bats can be long–distance seed dispersers through extended retention of viable seeds in the gut. *Proceedings of the Royal Society of London. Series B: Biological Sciences*, 266 (1416), 219-223.

Singaravelan, N., & Marimuthu, G. (2008). In situ feeding tactics of short-nosed fruit bat (*Cynopterus sphinx*) on mango fruits: evidence of extractive foraging in a flying mammal. *Journal of Ethology*, 26 (1), 1.

Swamy, V., Terborgh, J., Dexter, K. G., Best, B. D., Alvarez, P., & Cornejo, F. (2011). Are all seeds equal? Spatially explicit comparisons of seed fall and sapling recruitment in a tropical forest. *Ecology letters*, 14 (2), 195-201.

Tobler, M. W., Janovec, J. P., & Cornejo, F. (2010). Frugivory and seed dispersal by the lowland tapir *Tapirus terrestris* in the Peruvian Amazon. *Biotropica*, 42 (2), 215-222.

Traveset, A., Robertson, A. W., & Rodriguez-Perez, J. (2007). A review on the role of endozoochory in seed germination. Seed dispersal: theory and its application in a changing world, 78-103.

Wotton, Debra M., and Dave Kelly. "Do larger frugivores move seeds further? Body size, seed dispersal distance, and a case study of a large, sedentary pigeon." *Journal of Biogeography* 39.11 (2012): 1973-1983.

Wrangham, R. W., Gittleman, J. L., & Chapman, C. A. (1993). Constraints on group size in primates and carnivores: population density and day-range as assays of exploitation competition. Behavioral ecology and Sociobiology, 32(3), 199-209.

Yoshikawa, T., Kawakami, K., & Masaki, T. (2019). Allometric scaling of seed retention time in seed dispersers and its application to estimation of seed dispersal potentials of theropod dinosaurs. *Oikos*, 128 (6), 836-844.

Zhou, Y. B., Zhang, L., Kaneko, Y., Newman, C., & Wang, X. M. (2008). Frugivory and seed dispersal by a small carnivore, the Chinese ferret-badger, *Melogale moschata*, in a fragmented subtropical forest of central China. *Forest Ecology and Management*, 255 (5-6), 1595-1603.

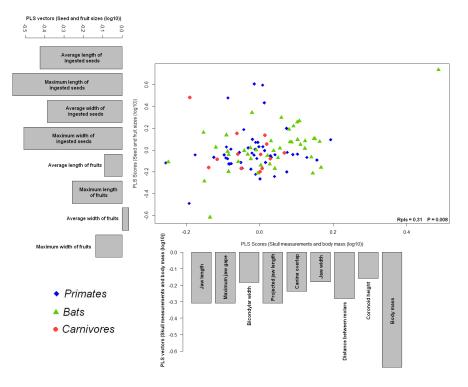


Fig.1: Phylogenetic Two Block-Partial Least Squares analysis between the skull measurements, body mass and the size of consumed fruits and ingested seeds. Scatter plot of the PLS axis describing the co-variation between the morphology data and the size of fruits and seeds. Seed and fruit sizes associated with the morphological data are represented by the histogram at the left side of the scatterplot. The morphology data associated with the size of fruits and seeds are represented by the histogram at the bottom of the scatterplot.

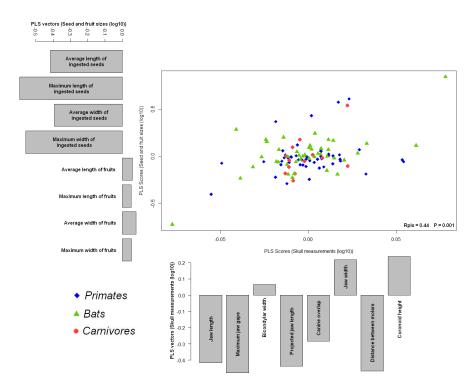


Fig. 2: Phylogenetic Two Block-Partial Least Square between the residual skull measurements and the size of consumed fruits and ingested seeds. Scatter plot of the PLS axis describing the co-variation between the residual skull measurements and the size of fruits and seeds. Seed and fruit sizes associated with the skull measurements are represented by the histogram at the left side of the scatterplot. The skull measurements associated with the size of fruits and seeds are represented by the histogram at bottom of the scatterplot.

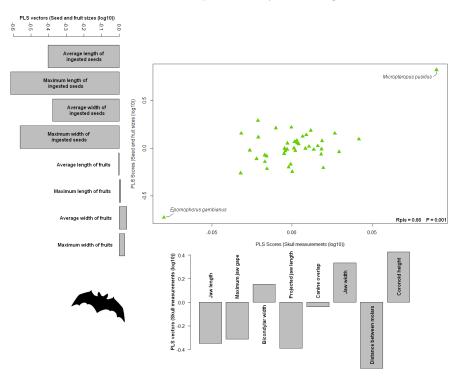


Fig. 3: Phylogenetic Two Block-Partial Least Square between the residual skull measurements and the size of consumed fruits and ingested seeds of bats. Scatter plot of the PLS axis describing the co-variation between the residual skull measurements and the size of fruits and seeds. Seed and fruit sizes associated with the residual skull measurements are represented by the histogram at the left side of the scatterplot. The residual skull measurements associated with the size of fruits and seeds are represented by the histogram at bottom of the scatterplot.

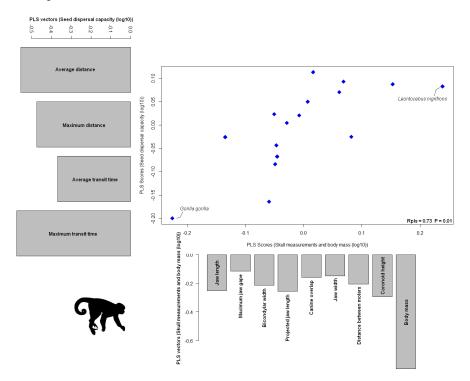


Fig. 4: Phylogenetic Two Block-Partial Least Square between the body mass, cranial morphology and seed dispersal capacity. Scatter plot of the PLS axis describing the co-variation between the body mass and cranial morphology and the seed dispersal capacity. Transit times and seed dispersal distances associated with morphology are represented by the histogram at the left side of the scatterplot. The morphological traits associated with transit times and seed dispersal distances are represented by the histogram at bottom of the scatterplot.

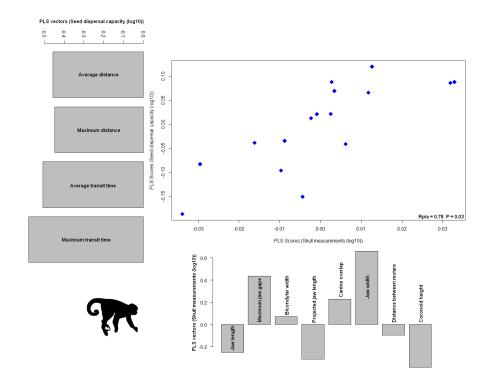


Fig. 5: Phylogenetic Two Block-Partial Least Square between cranial morphology and seed dispersal capacity. Scatter plot of the PLS axis describing the co-variation between the cranial morphology and the seed dispersal capacity. Transit times and seed dispersal distances associated with morphology are represented by the histogram at the left side of the scatterplot. The morphological traits associated with transit times and seed dispersal distances are represented by the histogram at bottom of the scatterplot.