

1 **Genetically Identical Mice Express Alternative Reproductive Tactics Depending on Social Conditions in**
2 **the Field**

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8 **Abstract**

9 In many species, establishing and maintaining a territory is critical to survival and reproduction,
10 and an animal's ability to do so is strongly influenced by the presence and density of competitors. Here
11 we manipulate social conditions to study the alternative reproductive tactics displayed by genetically
12 identical, age-matched laboratory mice competing for territories under ecologically realistic social
13 environmental conditions. We introduced adult males and females of the laboratory mouse strain
14 (C57BL/6J) into a large, outdoor field enclosure containing defendable resource zones under one of two
15 social conditions. We first created a low-density social environment, such that the number of available
16 territories exceeded the number of males. After males established stable territories, we introduced a
17 pulse of intruder males and observed the resulting defensive and invasive tactics employed. In response
18 to this change in social environment, males with large territories invested more in patrolling but were
19 less effective at excluding intruder males as compared to males with small territories. Intruding males
20 failed to establish territories and displayed an alternative tactic featuring greater exploration as
21 compared to genetically identical territorial males. Alternative tactics did not lead to equal reproductive
22 success—males that acquired territories experienced greater survival and had greater access to females.

23

24 Introduction

25 To deal with dynamic and unpredictable physical and social environmental conditions, animals
26 are predicted to evolve plastic behavioral responses that allow them to make the best of a wide range of
27 scenarios [1,2]. When different environmental conditions lead to different optimal reproductive
28 behaviors, these plastic behaviors are referred to as “alternative reproductive tactics” or “conditional
29 reproductive strategies” [3,4]. For many species, establishing and maintaining a territory is a central
30 aspect of individuals’ reproductive life history, as territorial control allows them to reliably access
31 physical resources and attract mates [5–11]. We therefore expect behaviors related to territory
32 formation, defense, and invasion to have been under strong selection in these species and for animals to
33 plastically alter their territorial behavior in response to a wide range of social environmental conditions.

34 Animals seeking to establish territories may encounter radically different social environments
35 that vary widely in their intensity of competition. At one extreme, animals may seek to establish a
36 territory in a relatively unoccupied environment with an abundance of resources and a lack of
37 competitors for space. This is the situation faced by, for example, rodents living in low-density
38 populations at the start of a breeding season [12–15] or by the earliest migratory birds to arrive at a
39 breeding ground [16–20]. On the other extreme, an animal might develop or compete in a world where
40 suitable territories are either largely or entirely filled. Such is the world often encountered by rodents
41 born later into a breeding season after colonization and population growth has already occurred or
42 migratory birds arriving relatively late to a breeding ground [12–20].

43 If the exact same animal found itself in a more or less competitive social environment, would its
44 territorial behavior look different? How so? In many species, males who are unable to establish
45 territoriality control or social dominance adopt an alternative “sneaker” tactic to attempt to furtively
46 mate with females as a conditional strategy to make the best of a bad situation [4,21–25]. Yet, in natural
47 populations it is difficult to know whether these differences in tactics are caused by an individual’s
48 quality, its history of social interactions, or the broader current social context in which it lives. The
49 simplest way to establish unambiguous causality regarding the effect of social environment on individual
50 behavioral decisions is by manipulating a single aspect of social environment while holding genotype
51 and developmental conditions constant. But such manipulations of environmental conditions are rarely,
52 if ever, possible in wild populations [26].

53 Experimental populations of inbred mouse strains (*Mus musculus domesticus*) living in semi-
54 natural enclosures provide the ideal opportunity for studying the causal impact of social environment on
55 individual competitive and reproductive behaviors. Wild and lab mice establish and defend territories
56 when given the space to do so, and territories allow males to monopolize or nearly monopolize access to
57 food and mates [27–35]. And the identical genetics and standardized rearing conditions of inbred strains
58 represent an extreme uniformity across individuals as compared to wild populations, allowing us to
59 manipulate a single aspect of animals’ social environments and draw causal conclusions about the
60 impact of this manipulation [26].

61 In this paper, we characterize the behavioral tactics of genetically identical mice that either
62 encounter (a) a world of abundant, unfilled territorial spaces and limited conspecific competition or (b) a
63 world in which residents already occupy territories. The resulting data allow us to test the hypothesis
64 that animals with similar prior experiences will rapidly develop alternative tactics in response to the
65 current social environment in which they find themselves. Additionally, we use this data to test three

66 hypotheses regarding mouse territorial behavior, in particular: (1) that territory size is constrained by
67 social factors, such that males with larger territories face greater invasion pressure than males with
68 smaller territories, (2) that territorial males monitor their social environment and respond to salient
69 changes in it and (3) that territories confer benefits to males in the form of both survival and access to
70 females. The data also allow us to describe the dynamics of territory formation and defense in the most
71 studied biomedical model organism in finer-grain detail than ever before. Given recent public attention
72 to the constraints of the laboratory environment on drawing useful inferences from lab mice, this latter
73 contribution is particularly timely [36].

74

75 **Materials and Methods**

76 ***Field Enclosure and Study Subjects***

77 A detailed description of the enclosures at Cornell University's Liddell Field Station can be found
78 elsewhere [37], so here we will only describe those elements critical to the success of this experiment.
79 The enclosure is 15m x 38m, approximately 9,000 times the area of a typical mouse cage. Within the
80 enclosure we set up 12 plastic tubs (31 gallon storage totes, Rubbermaid, USA), placed in an equally-
81 spaced 3x4 grid across the enclosure (**Figure S1**). Each tub (hereafter "resource zones") contained *ad*
82 *libitum* food access and provided insulation and shelter from adverse weather conditions. We equipped
83 each zone with a single entrance and exit made out of a 6-inch-long PVC pipe (2" in diameter). These
84 resources and the single entrance made the resource zones highly valuable, defensible areas that are
85 meant to mimic the foraging landscape of commensal mice. To track the comings and goings of mouse
86 visitors to each zone, we placed a 10-inch RFID antennae (Biomark, USA), beneath the entrance tube of
87 each zone. The antennas were connected to a central monitoring system (Small Scale System, Biomark,
88 USA) and transmitted RFID reads at a rate of 2-3 Hz.

89 Our study subjects were 20 male and 20 female eight-week-old lab mice (C57BL/J6 strain),
90 obtained from The Jackson Laboratory. After arrival at our lab, we separated individuals into smaller
91 holding cages containing either 2 males or 4 females. After allowing animals to acclimate for 8 days, we
92 administered isoflurane (an inhaled anesthetic) and injected two subcutaneous passive integrative
93 transponders (PIT) tags in the flank and between the scapulae of each mouse (MINI HPT10, Biomark,
94 USA) using 16-gauge needles. Inserting two PIT tags allowed us to continue to monitor individuals in the
95 field even if one of the tags was lost. Based on past experience, we anticipated PIT tag loss at < 5%,
96 making it quite unlikely that any individual mouse would lose both tags during the experiment.

97 ***Manipulating the Social Environment of Genetically Identical Animals***

98 On the afternoon of September 24, 2021 we simultaneously released 8 male and 8 female mice
99 in the center of the enclosure. We allowed mice to explore the enclosure and establish territories over
100 the first five nights of the experiment. During this initial stage the number of male mice (8 animals) was
101 substantially smaller than the number of resource zones (12 zones). These animals were entering a
102 world of abundant resources with relatively few competitors.

103 Then, on the afternoon of September 29 (the 6th night of the experiment) we released 12
104 additional males (hereafter 'intruding' males) and 12 additional females into the enclosure. We
105 observed mouse movement and spatiotemporal dynamics between territorial and intruding males for

106 the next two weeks, after which point a substantial number of intruding males appeared to have died
107 (they no longer visited any zones despite having visited previously and were never captured during
108 subsequent trapping efforts). We then allowed the population to persist for an additional 15 days (35
109 days total from the beginning of the experiment) to continue to measure differential survival outcomes
110 between territorial and intruder males before trapping and removing all surviving animals.

111 ***RFID Data Analysis***

112 For all analyses below, we used the data collected from the RFID system. We calculated the
113 number of zones that animals visited each night to assess the breadth of animals' movement in the
114 enclosures. We also identified movements between zones each time that an animal appeared in one
115 zone followed by appearing in a different zone. To assess territorial control, we calculated the
116 proportion of male-sourced reads at a zone originating from the male with the highest proportion of
117 reads on each night.

118 For social network analyses, we inferred the amount of time that animals overlapped in the
119 same zone based on their patterns of RFID reads. We have described the process for inferring the
120 duration of overlap elsewhere in detail [37]. Briefly, if a mouse registered consecutive RFID reads in the
121 same zone within a given time window, we assume that the mouse had been in the zone for the period
122 between those reads. Because the zones are ~400% larger than the area of the antenna, mice will often
123 spend substantial time in a zone but only register RFID reads occasionally. To estimate the duration of
124 different visits to a given zone we first identified the 95th percentile for the amount of time that passed
125 between reads of the same individual in the same zone across all individuals and all zones in our
126 experiment (211 seconds). If a mouse registered an RFID read in the same zone with less than this length
127 of time passing between reads, we assumed that it had been present in the zone for the entirety of the
128 interim period. We then calculated periods of spatiotemporal overlap with other animals. While this
129 assumption about animals' presence in the zone is of course imperfect, this approach provides a noisy
130 but informative view of the social world of these animals.

131 ***Statistical Analyses***

132 We performed all statistical analyses in R. We built mixed effects models using the glmmTMB package
133 [38]. For each analysis any transformations of response or predictor variables were chosen based on
134 visual inspection of the relationship between the two variables as well as the resulting residuals from
135 models of untransformed variables. We included relevant random intercepts and random slopes in each
136 mixed effects model, as appropriate. We identify the random effects structure for each analysis in the
137 results tables below. We performed the repeatability analysis described below using the rptR package
138 [39] and the time-varying survival analysis using the survival package [40].

139

140 Results

141 In this experiment, we exposed genetically identical, age-matched male mice to two different
142 social environments—one in which territories were empty and resources were abundant and one in
143 which territories were full and resources were restricted. Below we first describe the social and spatial
144 behavior of the first group of males in an empty social environment, followed by their different
145 reactions to the addition of the second group of males. We then compare the alternative socio-spatial
146 behavior of the two groups of males, depending on the social environment that they encountered. We
147 close by describing the differential survival and apparent reproductive outcomes obtained by the males
148 that encountered the two different social environments.

149 *Behavior of Males Entering an Empty Social Environment*

150 For the first five days in the enclosure, the eight original males experienced an environment
151 with abundant resources and relatively low levels of competition. During this time, the number of
152 available resource zones exceeded the number of males, and the eight males rapidly established
153 territorial control over each of the twelve resource zones. Across all 12 zones, the proportion of all RFID
154 reads belonging to the eventual territory male increased during the first five nights of the experiment,
155 such that nearly all (99.97%) of those reads recorded on night 5 were reads from the territory holder
156 (**Figure S2**). The pattern of increasing control over each zone by a single male resembles previous
157 patterns observed for this strain in a previous experiment [37].

158 By night 5, each male accounted for the majority of male reads in either one ($n = 4$) or two ($n = 4$)
159 resource zones. Males displayed strikingly different patterns of space use depending on the number of
160 zones contained within the territories that they established. Those males that established territories
161 containing a single zone (hereafter “one-zone males”) very rarely visited another zone (**Figure 1**),
162 averaging only 2.5 transitions between zones each night during these first five nights of the experiment.
163 In contrast, males holding two territories (hereafter “two-zone males”) consistently spent time in one
164 resource zone during the day and made frequent excursions between the two zones at night (**Figures 1**,
165 **S3**), averaging 11.0 transitions between zones during the same period.

166 *Territory size influences resident male behavior in the face of intruders*

167 On day 6 of the experiment, we added an additional 12 males (hereafter ‘intruder males’) and
168 12 females to the enclosure. Territorial males responded differently to this introduction depending on
169 whether they held one or two resource zones within their territory. On the night of the introduction,
170 two-zone males responded by significantly increasing the frequency with which they moved between
171 their two zones ($p < 0.0001$). The magnitude of this increase varied among these four males, but was
172 substantial in all four cases, ranging from a 200% to 383% increase as compared to the average number
173 of zone transitions during their first five nights (**Figure 1**). In contrast, males holding a territory
174 containing a single resource zone significantly *decreased* the number of nightly transitions that they
175 made between zones—these males essentially never moved between zones again after the introduction
176 of additional males (**Table 1, Figure 1**). These results indicate (1) that males were monitoring their social
177 environment and scaling their behavior in response to changes in it, (2) that males with larger territories
178 needed to expend more energy on patrolling and defending their territories as compared to males with
179 smaller territories, and (3) that this energetic cost of territory size was especially acute under dense
180 social conditions, when intruder males were present (i.e., after night 5 of the experiment).

181 No successful takeover event appeared to occur during the two weeks following the
182 introduction of new males (through night 20 of the experiment). A successful takeover would have been
183 visible in our data as an event in which a new male became responsible for a plurality of RFID reads
184 within a zone on a given night and maintained that position thereafter. In two cases, an intruder male
185 was responsible for a plurality of RFID reads at an antenna for a brief period, but the original territorial
186 male then quickly reclaimed the territory.
187

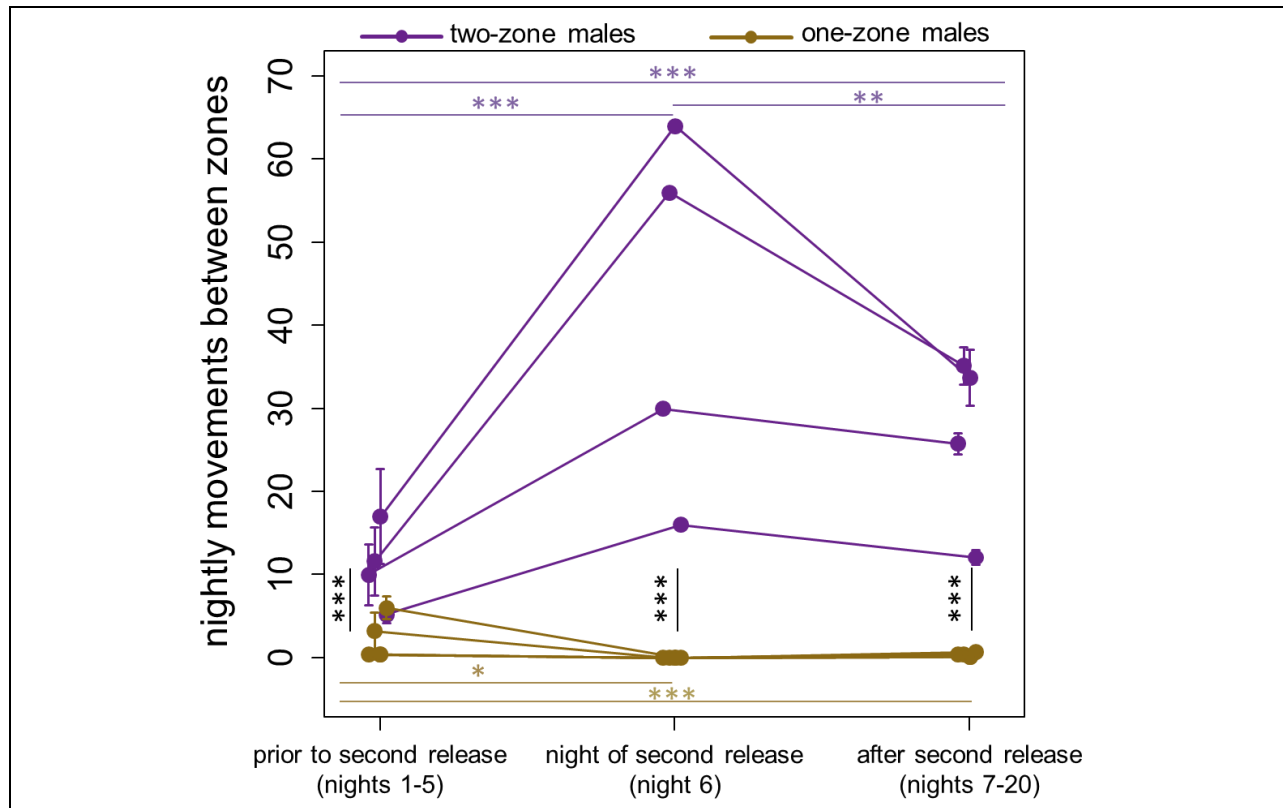


Figure 1. Males responded to the introduction of intruder males differently, depending on the size of their territory. The y-axis represents the average number of nightly transitions between resource zones that males performed, with each point representing a single male during a different period of the experiment. Males with larger territories, containing two resource zones (purple points and lines) increased their number of nightly trips between zones in response to the introduction of intruding males on night 6, and maintained this elevated patrolling behavior thereafter. In contrast, males with smaller territories, containing only one resource zone (gold points and lines) responded by reducing their number of nightly transitions between zones and essentially never moved between zones again. Asterisks indicate levels of statistical significance for comparisons, extracted from mixed-effects models (* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$; Table 1).

188

189

190

191 **Table 1.** Comparisons of the average number of transitions between zones made by males with different territory
 192 sizes at different points in the experiment.

Comparison	Mean 1	Mean 2	z value	p value [^]
Two-Zone Males Over Time				
Nights 1-5 v Night 6	11.0	41.5	6.4	<0.0001
Nights 1-5 v Nights 7-20	11.0	26.7	6.9	<0.0001
Night 6 v Nights 7-20	41.5	26.7	-3.4	0.0006
One-Zone Males Over Time				
Nights 1-5 v Night 6	2.5	0.0	-2.5	0.01
Nights 1-5 v Nights 7-20	2.5	0.4	-4.3	<0.0001
Night 6 v Nights 7-20	0.0	0.4	1.0	0.33
One-Zone Males Versus Two-Zone Males				
Nights 1-5	2.5	11.0	3.5	0.0004
Night 6	0.0	41.5	4.3	<0.0001
Nights 7-20	0.4	26.7	5.7	<0.0001

193 [^]Extracted from mixed effects models including a random effect of male ID

194 *Relative defensibility of differently sized territories*

195 Given their increased effort to maintain the integrity their territories, we next asked whether
 196 two-zone males were able to defend their territories with a comparable degree of success as one-zone
 197 males. **Figure 2** displays the average proportion of reads in a given zone that originated from the
 198 territory-holding male, depending on whether that male held one or two zones in his territory. Although
 199 there was no significant difference between these values on night 5 of the experiment ($p = 0.45$, before
 200 the introduction of new males), a large difference emerged following the introduction of additional
 201 males on night 6.

202 While one-zone males experienced only a negligible reduction in their ability to exclude other
 203 males from their territories, zones controlled by two-zone males experienced substantial incursion
 204 (**Figure 2A, Table 2**). Across nights 6 through 20, the proportion of reads in a given zone belonging to the
 205 territory holder was significantly lower if the territory-holder was a two-zone male (mean = 0.90) rather
 206 than a one-zone male (mean = 0.98, difference: $p = 0.03$). This effect was strongest during the week
 207 starting on the night of male introduction (nights 6-12), when the mean proportion of reads from the
 208 territory-holder was only 0.86 in zones held by two-zone males, but remained at 0.98 in zones
 209 controlled by one-zone males ($p = 0.009$).

210 Additional investigation revealed that two-zone males did not suffer incursions into their two
 211 zones at equal rates. Instead, two-zone males appeared to prioritize defensive attention on one of their
 212 two zones, from which they were able to almost entirely exclude intruding males (their “primary” zone,
 213 **Figure 2B, Table 2**), mirroring the ability of one-zone males. In contrast, the second zone that they
 214 controlled (their “secondary” zone) was significantly less defensible than zones controlled by single
 215 males (**Figure 2B, Table 2**).

216

217

218 **Table 2.** Comparisons of the average proportion of RFID reads in a given resource zone that originated from the
 219 territory holder (a measure of defensibility), depending on territory size.

Period of Comparison	One-Zone Males' Zones	Two-Zone Males, Both Zones (z value; p value)*	Two-Zone Males' Primary Zones Only (z value; p value)*	Two-Zone Males' Secondary Zones Only (z value; p value)*
Night 5	1.00	0.97 (-0.8; 0.45)	1.00 (0.0; 1.00)	0.94 (-1.4, 0.16)
Nights 6-20	0.98	0.90 (-2.2; 0.03)	0.94 (-0.9, 0.37)	0.85 (-3.3, 0.001)
Nights 6-12	0.98	0.86 (-2.6, 0.009)	0.95 (-0.5, 0.59)	0.77 (-4.5, <0.0001)
Nights 13-20	0.98	0.93 (-1.5, 0.14)	0.93 (-1.2, 0.24)	0.92 (-1.7, 0.10)

220 ^Extracted from mixed effects models including a random effect of territory holder ID

221 *All z and p values are in comparison to one-zone males' zones

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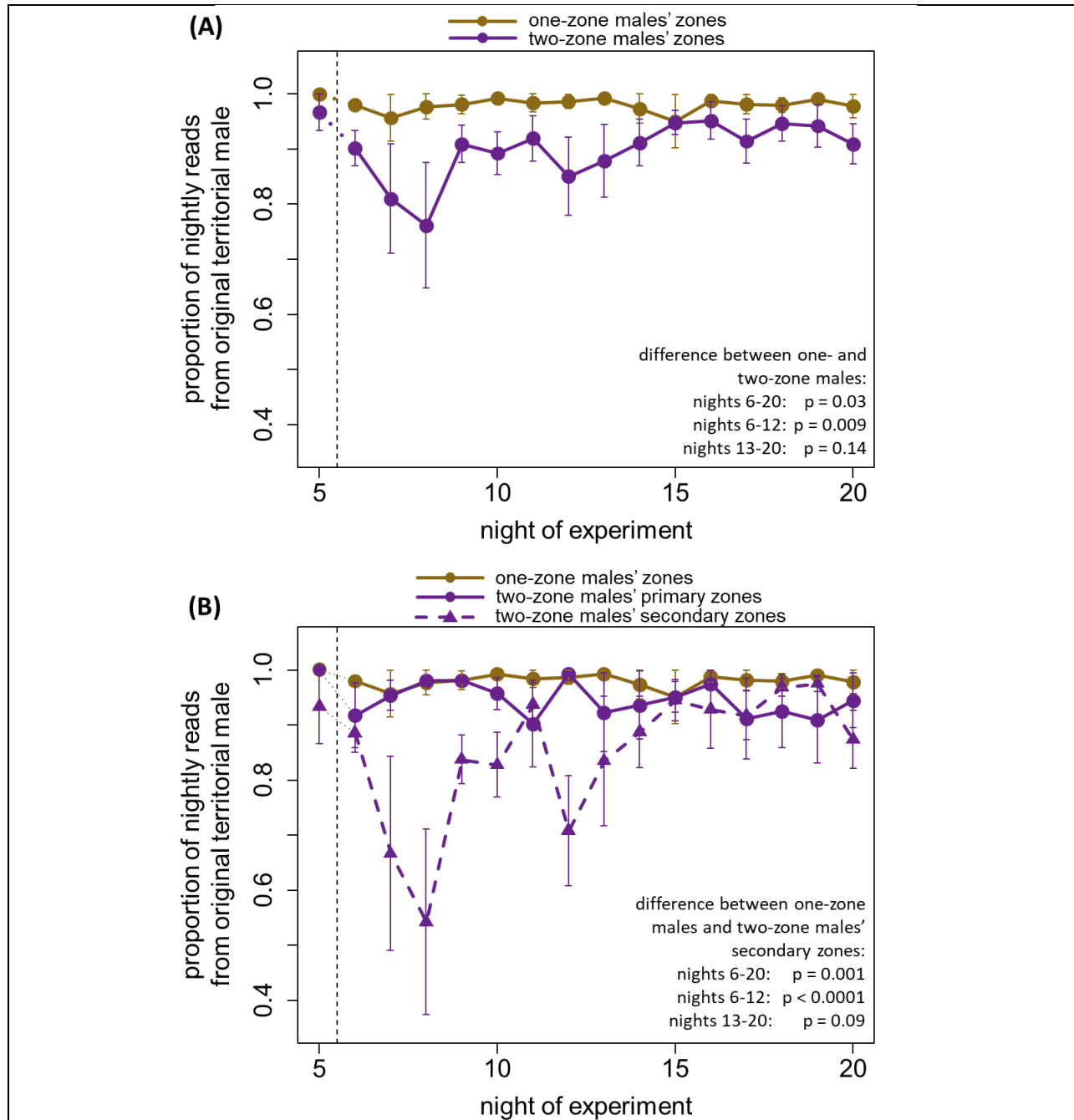


Figure 2. Two-zone males were somewhat less able to defend their territories from intruders. (A) The y-axis represents the average across zones of the proportion of nightly RFID reads that originated from the territorial male that controlled the zone. Higher values correspond to a zone being more defensible and suffering fewer incursions by non-territory holders. Following the introduction of new males (indicated by the vertical dashed line), zones contained in larger territories became significantly less defensible than zones contained in smaller territories. (B) This difference in defensibility was true only of one of the two-zone males' zones (their 'secondary' zones). Two-zone males were able to maintain territorial integrity comparable to one-zone males in their primary zones. In both panels, p values refer to mixed effects models that included random effects of territorial male ID.

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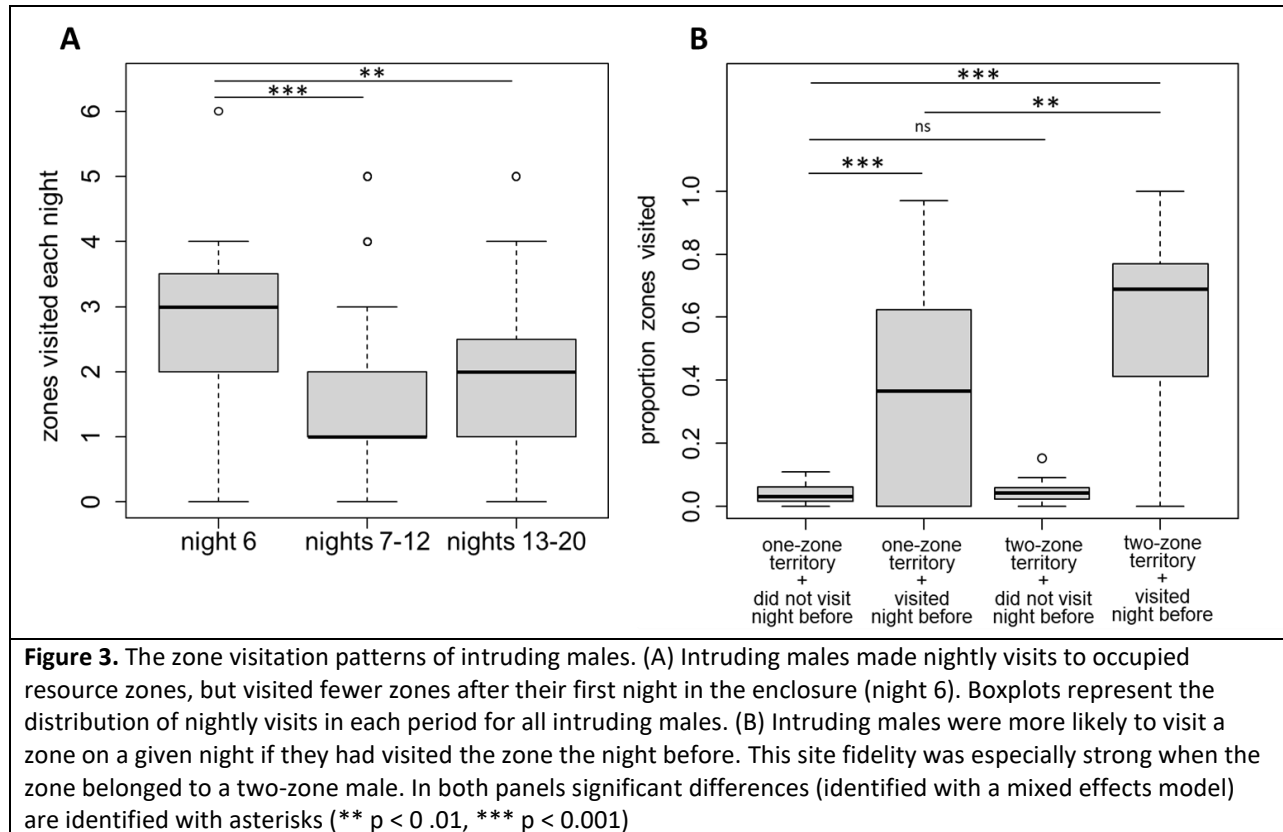
225

226 ***Behavior of Males Entering a Filled Social Environment***

227 The males that we added on night 6 of the experiment entered a filled social environment that
228 lacked any available resource zones. Although no intruding males successfully took over any resource
229 zones in the first two weeks after their addition, they did make frequent visits to existing males'
230 territories. Intruding males' space use and exploratory behavior changed over the course of the
231 experiment. Intruding males explored the greatest number of zones on their first night in the enclosure
232 (mean = 2.9, 95% CI: 2.2-3.7), before visiting fewer zones on ensuing nights (mean = 1.8, 95% CI: 1.4-2.1,
233 $p = 0.0004$, **Figure 3A, Table 3**).

234 Given our finding that zones controlled by two-zone males were more prone to intrusion by
235 non-territorial males (**Figure 2, Table 2**, above), we sought to gain a better understanding of the
236 decision-making processes among intruding males that led to this outcome. To do so, we built a mixed
237 effects logistic regression model to interrogate the decision-making process at the level of an individual
238 intruding male mouse on a given night. This analysis yielded two results. First, intruding males appeared
239 to show some spatial fidelity, despite not holding territories in resource zones. Intruding males were
240 much more likely to visit a zone on a given night if they had visited that zone on the previous night ($p <$
241 0.0001 , see **Figure 3B, Table 3**). And this site fidelity was especially strong when the zone the intruder
242 had visited the night before belonged to a two-zone male (interaction with territory size, $p = 0.006$,
243 **Figure 3B, Table 3**).

244



245

246 **Table 3.** Results from mixed effects models regarding the behavior of intruding males.

Parameter	Estimate	Std. Error	z value	p value	Interpretation
Number of Zones That Intruding Males Visited on a Given Night¹					
Intercept (Reference = Night 6)	2.9	0.3			Intruding males visited more zones on their first night in the enclosure as compared to subsequent nights.
Nights 7-12	-1.2	0.3	-3.5	0.0004	
Nights 13-20	-1.1	0.3	-3.3	0.001	
Probability That an Intruding Male Visited a Given Zone on a Given Night²					
Intercept	-3.3	0.5			
Zone Held by Two-Zone Male	0.7	0.7	0.9	0.34	
Did the Same Male Visit the Zone on the Previous Night? (yes vs no)	1.3	0.4	3.4	0.0007	An intruding male was much more likely to visit a zone if he had visited the same zone the previous night.
Zone Held by Two-Zone Male x Same Male Visited Yesterday	1.2	0.4	2.7	0.006	The effect of visiting a zone on the previous night was stronger when the zone was controlled by a two-zone male

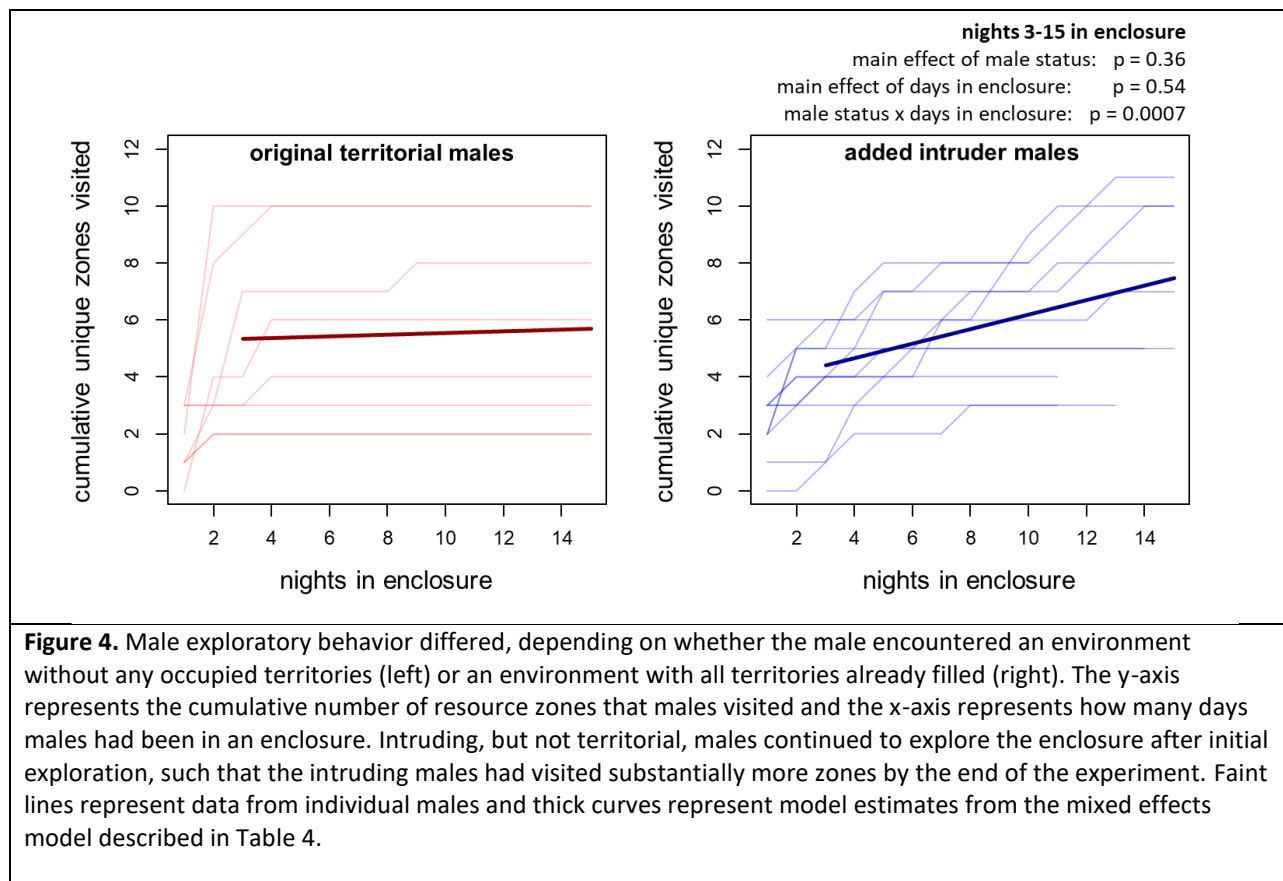
247 ¹Estimates extracted from linear mixed models including random effects of intruding male ID

248 ²Estimates extracted from generalized linear mixed model (binomial error distribution) including random
 249 effects of intruding male ID, territorial male ID, and zone ID as well as a random slope of territory size
 250 nested within intruding male ID.

251

252 **Alternative Tactics Between Males Entering Different Social Environments**

253 We found strikingly different patterns of exploratory behavior, depending on whether males
254 entered an environment full of unoccupied territories (the first males) or instead entered an
255 environment in which all territories were already occupied (**Figure 4**). While both sets of males explored
256 similar numbers of resource zones during their first three nights in the enclosure, the original males who
257 were able to find and acquire territories largely ceased exploration after these first three nights. In fact,
258 after these first three nights, 4 of the 8 original males never entered a new zone again during their next
259 12 nights in the enclosure (the remaining 4 entered 1 or 2 new zones each, mean for all 8 = 0.6, see
260 **Figure S4**). In contrast, the males added on night 6 (who were unable to establish territories in the zones
261 that they had explored after 3 nights) continued to explore new zones (mean new zones among
262 surviving intruders = 4.2 zones, interaction between status and time in enclosure, $p = 0.0007$, Table 4).
263 The outcome of this difference in exploratory behavior was that the group of intruding males on average
264 had explored substantially more zones by their 15th night in the enclosure than the original territorial
265 males (night 20 of the experiment, 7.5 zones versus 5.7 zones, **Figure 4**). A comparable analysis that
266 considers as the unit of analysis the number of nightly new zones that a male visited yields the same
267 results (see **Figure S4**).



268

269 A cursory examination of **Figures 3 and 4** reveal substantial variation in intruding males' space
270 use, which may reflect differences in efforts to explore and monitor territories and the males that
271 controlled them. Indeed, while some intruding males generally visited one zone each night after their

272 first night in the enclosure, others consistently visited 2 or more zones. Overall, male identity explained
 273 an estimated 25% of the variance in the number of zones that an intruding male visited each of nights 7-
 274 20 of the experiment (95% conf. int. = [0.06,0.45], $p < 0.0001$). In the current paper we are unable to
 275 assess whether such variation in space use among intruding males eventually shapes eventual territory
 276 acquisition or reproductive success, but the presence of such variation suggests a fruitful path for future
 277 studies.

278

279 **Table 4.** Results from a mixed effects model predicting the number of cumulative unique zones visited by a male
 280 after their first three nights in the enclosure

Parameter ¹	Estimate	Std error	z value	p value	Interpretation
Intercept (Reference = Original Males)	5.3	0.8			
Total Nights Spent in Enclosure (nights 3-15)	0.03	0.05	0.6	0.54	Original males visited very few new zones after their first three nights in the enclosure
Male was an Intruding Male	-0.9	1.0	-0.9	0.36	Original and intruding males visited a comparable number of unique zones during their first three nights in the enclosure.
Intruding Male x Nights	0.23	0.07	3.4	0.0007	Intruding males continued to visit new zones throughout their time in the enclosure

281 ¹Results are from a linear mixed effects model that also included a random intercept of male ID along
 282 with a random slope of total nights spent in the enclosure

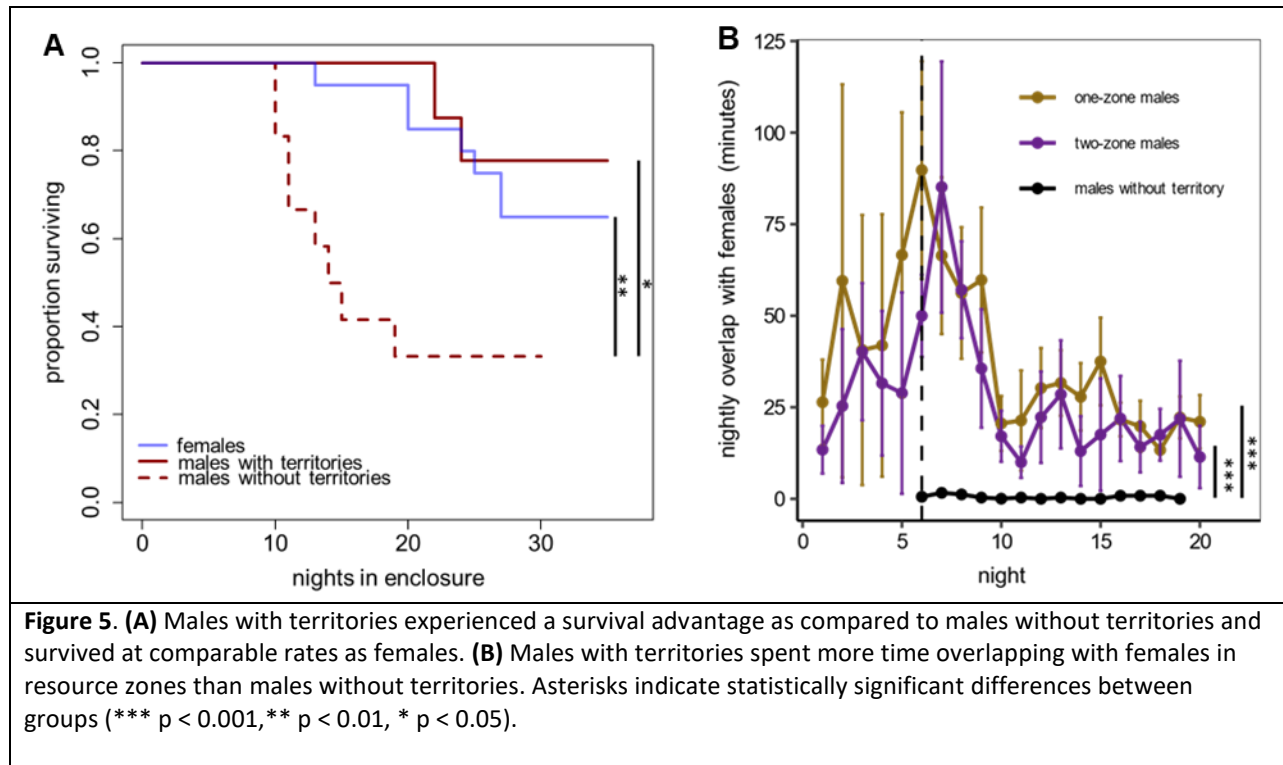
283 ***Survival and Reproductive Opportunities of Males Expressing Alternative Behavioral Tactics***

284 Finally, we assessed whether males' expressing alternative behavioral tactics achieved apparent
 285 differences in fitness, as measured by (a) survival and (b) access to females.

286 To assess the long-term survival dynamics in our enclosures, we allowed the experiment to
 287 continue for an additional 15 days after the end of our focused investigation of territorial defense
 288 dynamics (35 total days from the first introduction of our original males). Over these 35 days (**Figure 5**),
 289 males without territories died at significantly higher rates than did either (a) males with territories
 290 (hazard ratio = 5.9, 95% CI = 1.2-29.1, $p = 0.03$) or (b) females (hazard ratio = 4.7, 95% CI = 1.6-14.3, $p =$
 291 0.005). Given the low levels of mortality in territorial males, we were unable to assess whether territory
 292 size (i.e. two zones versus one zone) had an additional effect on territorial male mortality.

293 We also assessed whether territorial males achieved greater access to females than males
 294 without territories. Territorial males spend much more time overlapping with females in resource zones
 295 than do males without territories (**Figure 5B**, $\text{Imm } t_{98} > 4.3$, $p < 0.0001$). independently replicating
 296 recently published results from a different study in this system [40]. Second, we find that one and two-
 297 zone males spend comparable amounts of time overlapping with females (**Figure 5B**, $p > 0.05$). Thus, we
 298 identify major differences in reproductive success in our system that were not the result of any

299 differences in genetics or developmental environment, but instead were the causal result of the
300 competitive social environment that a male happened to encounter.



301

302 Discussion

303 By manipulating the social environment experienced by genetically identical, age-matched mice,
304 we have identified causal impacts of the current social environment on individuals' behavioral tactics.
305 When placed in semi-natural field enclosures that reproduce ecologically relevant physical and social
306 conditions, the canonical strain of lab mouse (C57BL/6J) expresses at least 3 alternative reproductive
307 tactics depending on the present social environment that individuals encounter. Males that entered a
308 world of abundant resources and a low number of competitors established territories and rarely left
309 these spaces after establishing control over them. Their ability to control these spaces In contrast, age-
310 matched, genetically identical males that encountered a filled social landscape without available
311 territories failed to monopolize space and instead continued to explore a wider range of the physical
312 space in the enclosure. Within territorial males, the size of their territory and the addition of intruder
313 males had strong impacts on their space use and movement patterns, indicating that males are acutely
314 aware of changes to their social environment and alter their behavior in response to such changes.

315 Unlike many studies of conditional strategies or alternative mating strategies under natural
316 conditions, which examine the role of nutritional [41,42], abiotic [43], or genetic [44,45] factors in
317 determining behavior, here we controlled genetic and developmental variation by using a single inbred
318 strain of lab mice. The only difference between those males expressing territorial behavior and those
319 expressing intruder behavior was the social environment into which they were placed. This study joins
320 recent advances in lab-based manipulations of social status in monkeys [46] and mice [47] and social

321 experience in flies [48] that reveal the individual and society-level impacts of variation in a controlled
322 social environment. Though not measured here, our social manipulation likely also led to differences in
323 males' physiology and resource deployment, such as differences in gene expression or metabolism and
324 signal allocation. In the lab, dominant animals show different gene expression profiles than subordinate
325 animals [49] and animals that experience competitive success or failure rapidly alter their patterns of
326 chemical signaling through urination [50].

327 The alternative reproductive tactics that males expressed were accompanied by apparent
328 differences in survival and access to females. Males that entered a filled social environment and were
329 forced to pursue a territory-less tactic died more quickly and spent less observed time overlapping with
330 females while they were alive. Within the group of territory-holding males, maintaining larger territories
331 appeared to come with a socially-imposed cost. After the addition of intruder males, those zones that
332 were controlled by two-zone males were more vulnerable to incursion. Territories (in particular,
333 'secondary zones') were less well monopolized, and intruding males' tendency to return to the same
334 zones on subsequent nights was particularly strong when that zone was controlled by a two-zone male
335 (**Figures 2 and 3**). This latter finding suggests that by visiting the territory of a two-zone male, intruders
336 assess that the territory may be relatively porous or otherwise attractive, causing them to be particularly
337 likely to return the following night (a version of a "win-stay, lose-shift" tactic [51]).

338 The primary limitation of this study is that we were only able to measure space use within the
339 resource zones that we set up, which likely represent a small, though extremely important, part of a
340 male's territory. We infer that all territorial mice spent a substantial, but minority, portion of their daily
341 in and immediately around these zones (on the order of 3-10 hours per day on average). We suspect
342 that the remainder of males' time was spent outside of zones, but within the rest of their territories,
343 which we suspect comprised ~10-30 square meters surrounding the zone(s) that the male controlled, as
344 well as the series of tunnels that mice regularly dug below their zones. Still, we expect our measures of
345 male space use within zones to largely predict space use within the larger territories outside of the
346 zones. This expectation is bolstered by results from Smith et al [52], who report that in California ground
347 squirrels space use below ground (inferred by a similar RFID approach taken here), strongly predicted
348 above-ground social networks that were observed directly.

349 The approach that we take here—studying the impacts of variation in social environment in
350 model organisms living outside of a highly artificial laboratory environment—holds great potential for
351 additional advances [26]. By focusing on what is important to these animals' natural history, in
352 combination with using high-throughput approaches to study animals' whose genetics, demography,
353 and social environment we can control, we are able to test hypotheses and draw causal conclusions
354 about behavior, individuality, and society. These same conclusions are extremely difficult if not
355 impossible to make with unambiguous causality in either fully wild populations or the overly constrained
356 social conditions of the lab.

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364

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496 **Supplementary Figures**

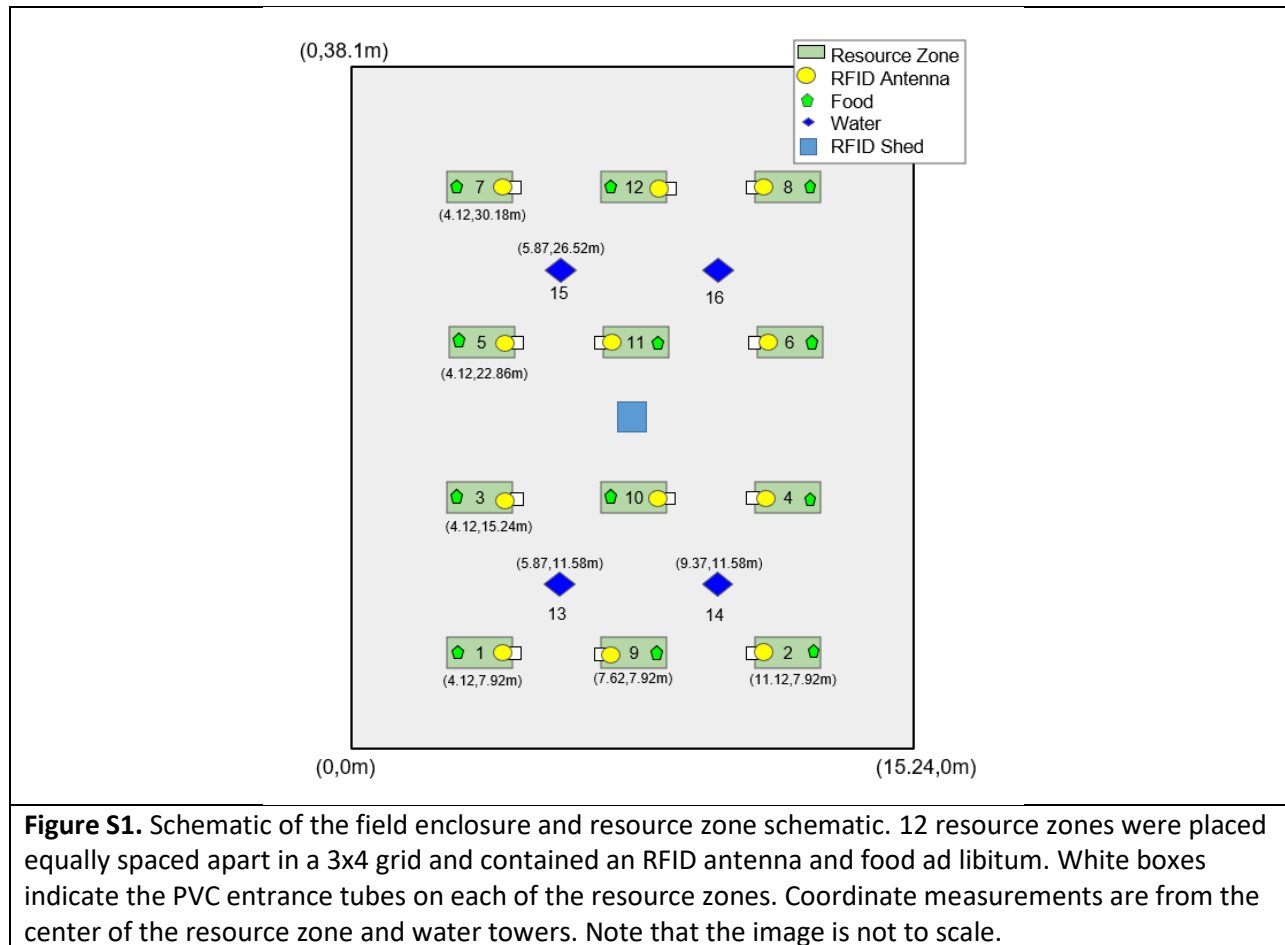
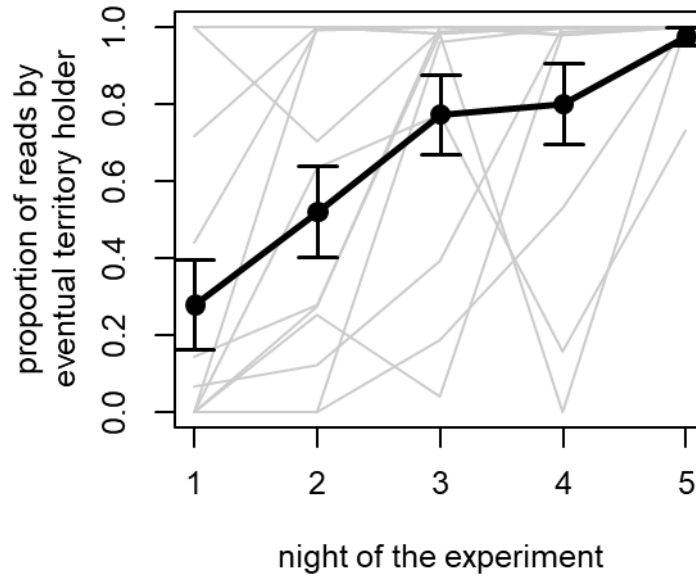


Figure S1. Schematic of the field enclosure and resource zone schematic. 12 resource zones were placed equally spaced apart in a 3x4 grid and contained an RFID antenna and food ad libitum. White boxes indicate the PVC entrance tubes on each of the resource zones. Coordinate measurements are from the center of the resource zone and water towers. Note that the image is not to scale.

497

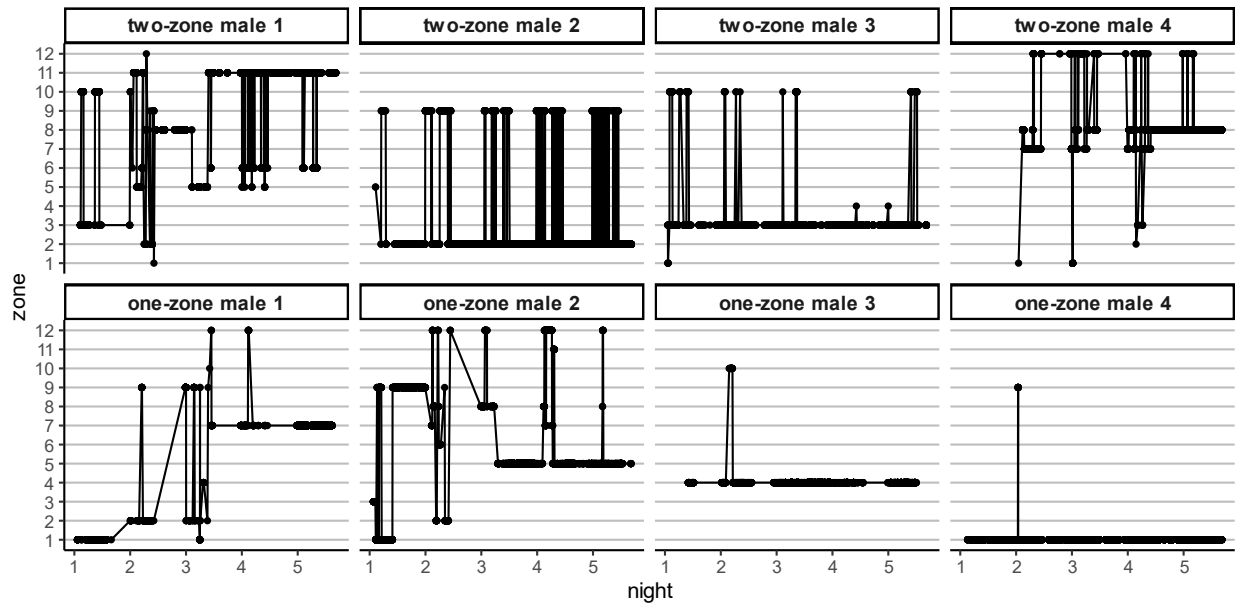
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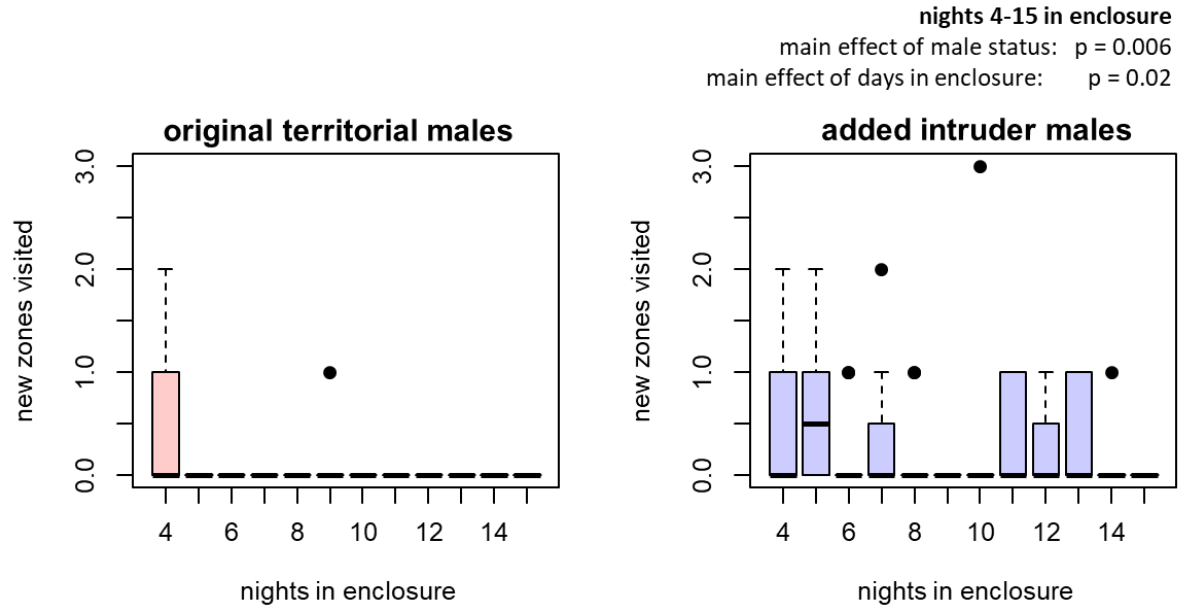
500 **Figure S2.** Males acquired territories during the first five nights of the experiment. Gray lines indicate changes in
501 the proportions of RFID reads in each resource zone ($n = 12$) that originated from the eventual territory holder. The
502 dark points and connecting line represent the mean of these 12 individual measures, with error bars indicating
503 standard error. The territory holder of a given zone was identified as the male that was responsible for the most
504 RFID reads in that zone on night 5 of the experiment. On night 5, nearly all (99.97%) RFID reads that were recorded
505 across all 12 zones originated from the males that controlled them.

506



507
508 **Figure S3.** Movement of the 8 original territorial males during their first 5 nights (x-axis) in the
509 enclosure. Each point indicates an RFID read and each line between points indicates transitions between
510 zones (zone locations indicated on y-axis). Note that the four animals in the top row eventually
511 established territorial control over two resource zones between which they made regular nightly visits.
512 The four animals in the lower row established territorial control over one zone each. The addition of
513 intruder males occurred after these territories were established (night 6, not pictured).

514



515

516 **Figure S4.** Male exploratory behavior differed, depending on whether the male encountered an environment
517 without any occupied territories (left) or an environment with all territories already filled (right). The y-axis
518 represents the number of new zones that a male visited each night that he had not previously visited. This figure
519 represents a comparable analysis to that presented in Figure 4 of the main text, with the y axis measuring the
520 nightly slope of curves in that figure. As in the main text, added intruder males continue to visit new zones after
521 their third night in the enclosure, as measured in the main effect of this figure and the interaction term in Figure 4.

522

523