

The influence of human activity on predator-prey interactions

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Abstract

Despite growing evidence of widespread impacts of humans on the behavior of animals, our understanding of how humans reshape species interactions remains limited. Here, we present a framework that draws on key concepts from behavioral and community ecology to outline four primary pathways by which humans can alter predator-prey spatiotemporal overlap, which may have implications for predator diet, predation rates, population demography, and trophic cascades. We then demonstrate the testability of the hypotheses that emerge from our framework using temporal activity data for 178 predator-prey dyads from published camera trap studies to reveal patterns of human influence on predator-prey activity and overlap. Our framework and case study highlight current challenges, gaps, and advances in linking human-induced animal behavior change to predator-prey dynamics. By using a hypothesis-driven approach to estimate the potential for altered species interactions, we can better predict the ecological consequences of human activities on whole communities.



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Dr. Jonathan Chase
Synthesis Editor, Ecology Letters

March 18, 2022

Dear Dr. Chase:

On behalf of my co-authors, I am pleased to submit our manuscript entitled “*The influence of human activity on predator-prey interactions*” for consideration as a Synthesis article at *Ecology Letters*.

A recent and growing body of research has summarized the far-reaching impacts of human disturbance on animal behavior. Yet, our understanding of how responses of individual species to humans may alter interactions, such as competition and predation, remains unstructured and incomplete. In this synthesis, we address this gap by drawing together key concepts from behavioral and community ecology to construct a framework for conceptualizing how humans influence overlap between predators and prey to affect community-level dynamics. We further demonstrate how empirical data may be applied within this framework to reveal patterns among the responses of predator-prey dyads to humans.

We believe our manuscript is an ideal fit for *Ecology Letters* given that your journal has played a leading role in establishing the study of behaviorally mediated effects as a central and still-growing topic in ecological and conservation science. Our synthesis formalizes the pathways by which humans influence species interactions, situates existing predator-prey research in a common framework, and promotes testable hypotheses to catalyze new research.

No material in the paper has been published or submitted for publication elsewhere. We appreciate your consideration of our submission and hope you find it to be of interest to readers at *Ecology Letters*.

Sincerely,

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Title: The influence of human activity on predator-prey interactions

Running title: Human alteration of predator-prey overlap

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19 **Introduction**

20 Human activity has vastly altered animal behavior, often triggering cascading effects on
21 ecosystems (Guiden et al. 2019; Wilson et al. 2020). Yet, complex behavioral responses between
22 multiple players (i.e., predators, prey, competitors) frequently confound our understanding of the
23 relationship between changes in animal behavior and broader ecological outcomes, such as
24 predator diet, predation rate, population demography, competitive exclusion and trophic
25 cascades. Although the effects of humans on species interactions, particularly predation, may
26 influence wildlife coexistence and persistence within human-modified environments (Gaynor et
27 al. 2021), existing understanding of these dynamics is largely anecdotal or context-specific
28 (Wilson et al. 2020). Formally recognizing the role of humans in predator-prey interactions is
29 necessary to inform data collection on species interactions and to anticipate the effects of
30 growing anthropogenic disturbance on wild animals (Mumma et al. 2018; Sinclair et al. 2003).

31 The field of behavioral ecology has long demonstrated that predators and prey influence
32 each other's spatial distributions (Brown et al., 1999; MacArthur & Pianka, 1966) in a behavioral
33 response race, whereby predators seek to encounter prey while prey seek to avoid predators
34 (Lima & Dill 1990; Sih 1984). Considerable research has established that contextual factors
35 (e.g., patch size, habitat complexity, resources, and species traits) can give an advantage to either
36 player in the predator-prey response race (Fretwell 1972; Laundré 2010; Luttbeg et al. 2020;
37 Schmidt & Kuijper 2015; Sih 1998; Smith et al. 2019a). These conceptual models have allowed
38 ecologists to predict changes to the consumptive (e.g., predation) and non-consumptive (e.g., risk
39 effects) dynamics of ecological communities. However, although classic behavioral response
40 models have been extended to communities with multiple predators (Sih et al. 1998) and

41 changing landscapes (Miller & Schmitz 2019), surprisingly few models have been broadened to
42 describe how human activity influences the contest between predator and prey.

43 Predicting how human-induced behavior change will affect species interactions is
44 complex, because animal responses to humans are rarely uniform. Many wild animals avoid
45 humans by changing patterns of movement, activity, or consumption (Gaynor et al. 2018; Smith
46 et al. 2015; Tucker et al. 2018), whereas others preferentially use human-dominated areas to gain
47 resources or safety (Berger 2007; Geffroy et al. 2015; Newsome & Van Eeden 2017).

48 Accounting for this variation in animal responses could be key to predicting shifts in predation
49 and potential cascading trophic effects (Kuijper et al. 2016; Yovovich et al. 2021). Each player's
50 (i.e., predator or prey) response to humans can vastly influence the ecological outcome. For
51 example, if a predator avoids human activity but its prey does not, predator and prey may
52 encounter each other less often (Berger 2007; Rogala et al. 2011), possibly reducing predation
53 and/or non-consumptive effects. Alternatively, if both predator and prey perceive human activity
54 as a threat, mutual avoidance of humans may force prey and predator to share space and time.
55 The loss of spatiotemporal refuges that previously stabilized predator-prey coexistence
56 (Schoener 1974; Shammoo et al. 2018), may lead to the increase of predation and its non-
57 consumptive effects.

58 Here, we present a unifying framework that draws on theory and empirical literature to
59 conceptualize the multiple pathways by which human activity can reshape the overlap between
60 predators and prey. As a proof of concept, we review the literature to evaluate evidence for each
61 pathway in terrestrial mammal predator-prey dyads, and conduct an analysis to test how human
62 activity influenced predator-prey temporal overlap. Further, we highlight current challenges,
63 gaps, and advances in linking animal behavior changes to predator-prey interactions and

64 ecological dynamics in human-modified systems. Our goal is to provide a testable framework
65 that allows researchers to evaluate hypotheses and assess the potential for human-altered species
66 interactions.

67

68 **A framework for understanding predator-prey responses to human activity**

69 Humans are dominant actors in ecological communities around the world and can alter the
70 behavior of animals by amplifying or dampening perceptions of risk (Gaynor et al. 2019;
71 Geffroy et al. 2020; Hammond et al. 2020; Sih et al. 2011) and foraging opportunities (Geffroy
72 et al. 2015; Newsome et al. 2015; Newsome & Van Eeden 2017), thus reshaping risk-foraging
73 trade-offs. Both human presence and habitat modification (e.g. urbanization, deforestation,
74 agricultural expansion, energy development), which we collectively refer to as ‘human activity’
75 henceforth, produce sensory stimuli that can be directly perceived as a threat or benefit (e.g.,
76 smell, sound, light, movement; Ditmer et al. 2021; Francis & Barber 2013). Animals may also
77 associate human disturbance with increased foraging opportunities (e.g., garbage, agriculture)
78 (Newsome et al. 2015). In response to these trade-offs, animals can adjust their spatial
79 distribution or temporal activity along a continuum of attraction to avoidance to humans. If
80 individuals in a given animal population consistently alter their spatial and/or temporal
81 distribution, we might expect reverberating impacts on closely interacting species (Muhly et al.
82 2011; Wilson et al. 2020).

83 Examining how predators and their prey simultaneously respond to human activity along
84 an avoidance-attraction continuum reveals four primary pathways by which humans can alter
85 predator-prey spatiotemporal overlap (hereafter, ‘overlap’) (**Fig. 1**). These pathways have the
86 potential to tip the behavioral response race in favor of either player and influence the

87 consumptive or non-consumptive effects of predation on ecosystems. Although linking predator-
88 prey overlap to predation requires evaluating the full predation sequence (i.e., the encounter,
89 pursuit, and successful capture of prey) (Guiden et al. 2019; Lima & Dill, 1990; Suraci et al.
90 2022), a predator and prey first must occupy the same space at the same time for an encounter to
91 occur. We reduce this complexity to consider overlap a necessary precursor to any predator-prey
92 encounter (Prugh et al. 2019). Human activity can also change the densities of both predator and
93 prey species through non-behavioral pathways (e.g., direct mortality, habitat degradation), with
94 additional potential consequences for their interactions, but here we focus on behaviorally-
95 mediated effects of humans on predators and prey.

96

97 *Human activity increases predator-prey overlap*

98 There are two pathways through which human activity can increase the overlap between a
99 predator and its prey, potentially tipping the behavioral response race in favor of the predator.
100 First, **mutual attraction** to human activity (*i.e.*, synanthropy) may increase predator-prey
101 encounter rates (**Fig. 1 quadrant I**). For example, the attraction of black bears (*Ursus*
102 *americanus*) to human food led to increased predation of mutually attracted red-backed voles
103 (*Clethrionomys gapperi*) feeding nearby (Morris 2005). Second, **mutual avoidance** of human
104 activity may cause a predator and prey to increase overlap to avoid a shared perceived risk (**Fig.**
105 **1 quadrant III**). For instance, in Manas National Park, India, tigers (*Panthera tigris*) and
106 ungulate prey constrained their spatiotemporal activity to avoid humans in the park, thus
107 increasing overlap with one another (Lakhar et al. 2020).

108

109 *Human activity decreases predator-prey overlap*

110 There are two pathways by which human activity can decrease the overlap between a predator
111 and its prey, potentially tipping the behavioral response race in favor of prey. First, predators
112 may avoid human activity while prey do not, creating a spatial or temporal **prey refuge (Fig. 1**
113 **quadrant IV;** Berger 2007; Muhly et al. 2011). Prey refuges (also called ‘human shields’) occur
114 in environments where the absence of large predators for fear of people allows prey species to
115 reduce their anti-predator behavior (Shannon et al. 2014) or selectively use human-modified
116 habitats that predators avoid (Gaynor et al. 2022). Second, prey may avoid human activity while
117 predators do not (Fleming & Bateman 2018). This case may entail **prey switching (Fig. 1**
118 **quadrant II)**, whereby predators either select different prey (*e.g.* synanthropic or domestic prey)
119 or benefit from using human subsidies (*e.g.*, garbage, agriculture) in areas of high human
120 activity, affording human-avoidant prey a refuge (Murdoch 1969; Murdoch & Oaten 1975;
121 Newsome et al. 2015). For instance, in Maharashtra, India, 87% of leopard (*Panthera pardus*)
122 diet in human-dominated areas consisted of domestic animals, reducing consumption of wild
123 species (Athreya et al. 2016).

124

125 *Human activity does not alter predator-prey overlap*

126 Human activity may have no clear effect on the overlap among predators and prey, obscuring
127 “winners” or “losers” in the predator-prey behavioral response race. This condition is likely to
128 emerge when neither ecological player responds to human activity. Such lack of response could
129 indicate at least four underlying mechanisms (Smith et al. 2021) including, but not limited to,
130 high tolerance thresholds for human activity, perception of humans as non-threatening, intrinsic
131 or extrinsic constraints on behavioral adjustments, and temporary transitions between avoidance
132 and attraction. A true lack of response can only be measured when an animal does not alter its

133 behavior despite consistency in the density of competitors, predators, and resources across a
134 human-use gradient. Because community composition also generally varies with anthropogenic
135 disturbances (Ordeñana et al. 2010), fully characterizing the conditions underlying non-response
136 to humans may require additional non-observational approaches, such as experiments (e.g.,
137 Suraci et al. 2019) or simulations (e.g., Thompson et al. 2018).

138

139 **Case study: Measuring human influence on predator-prey temporal overlap**

140 Our framework formalizes four pathways for how human activity may alter predator-prey
141 overlap, yet, it remains imperative to test support for these proposed hypotheses. As a proof of
142 concept, we evaluated hypothesis support from a literature review of studies that measured
143 temporal activity and overlap of predators and prey at paired settings of high and low human use
144 (see **Supplementary Information**). We limited our analysis to terrestrial mammals with a body
145 mass >1kg in line with recent research suggesting that medium and large-bodied terrestrial
146 mammals exhibit varied responses to human activity (Frey et al. 2020; Suraci et al. 2021). We
147 focused our review on published camera trap studies reporting predator-prey temporal overlap,
148 given that the temporal dimension is often overlooked, easily standardized, and eliminates
149 confounding lethal or density effects that may influence spatial indices.

150 Overall, we identified 178 predator-prey dyads from 19 camera trap studies, spanning
151 five continents and including forest, savanna, shrubland, and desert ecosystems (see
152 **Supplementary Information**). We examined evidence for each of the four behavioral response
153 pathways (mutual avoidance, mutual attraction, prey refuge, and prey switching) by quantifying
154 changes in the diurnal activity ratio (i.e., proportion of time active when humans were most
155 active) between paired settings of low and high human use for each predator and associated prey

156 (Fig. 2a). Then, to evaluate how altered activity patterns affected the degree of temporal overlap
157 between predator-prey dyads, we measured the difference in temporal overlap for each dyad
158 between paired settings of high and low human use (Fig. 2b). Ultimately, testing our framework
159 empirically revealed that predator-prey dyads exhibited responses for all four predicted
160 pathways, but that these response pathways may have more nuanced overlap outcomes than
161 previously appreciated.

162 We found that predators and prey altered their diel activity in areas of high vs. low
163 human use, in patterns that reflected all four behavioral response pathways (Fig. 2a).
164 Surprisingly, congruent activity shifts (i.e., mutual attraction to or avoidance of human activity)
165 did not consistently increase temporal overlap between predator-prey dyads, nor did temporal
166 overlap decrease among all predator-prey dyads exhibiting opposite activity shifts (Fig. 2b). Our
167 analysis revealed several predator-prey dyads that exhibited opposite diel responses to high
168 human activity (i.e., prey refugia or prey switching; one ecological player becomes more
169 nocturnal while the other becomes more diurnal) and increased overlap with one another at high
170 human activity (Fig. 2b). For instance, although black-tailed jackrabbits (*Lepus californicus*)
171 decreased diurnal activity and their predator bobcat (*Lynx rufus*) increased diurnal activity at
172 sites of high human use, these activity pattern shifts ultimately resulted in higher temporal
173 overlap between the two species (see **Supplementary Information**; Baker & Leburg 2018).
174 This finding reveals an alternative outcome, whereby human-avoidant prey tolerate high overlap
175 with a predator rather than tolerate high human activity (also see Zbyryt et al. 2018). Thus,
176 hypothesis testing within our framework can highlight potential risk tradeoffs among predators,
177 prey, and humans.

178 Our analyses also revealed that some predator-prey dyads exhibited similar diel responses
179 to human activity (i.e., mutual avoidance or mutual attraction; both predator and prey become
180 more diurnal or nocturnal) yet decreased overlap with one another, divergent from predictions of
181 our framework (**Fig. 2b**). This finding may reveal maintenance of temporal partitioning between
182 predators and prey at a fine scale, despite human-induced activity shifts (Ferreiro-Arias et al.
183 2021). In such cases, maintaining fine-scale spatiotemporal partitioning with both natural and
184 human predators could come at the cost of altered stress and fecundity (Tuomainen & Candolin
185 2011) or increased overlap among competitors (Smith et al. 2018; Manlick & Pauli 2020;
186 Sévêque et al. 2020). Ecological outcomes for these scenarios might include increased
187 intraspecific competition (Carter et al. 2015; Wang et al. 2015) and resource limitation (Muhly et
188 al. 2011), rather than increased predation encounter risk, as key drivers of population dynamics.

189

190 **Linking predator-prey overlap to ecological outcomes**

191 Our framework (**Fig. 1**) provides testable hypotheses regarding the influence of humans
192 on predator-prey behavior and overlap. Researchers might apply this framework to empirical
193 data to draw conclusions about what additional empirical work must be done to identify the
194 mechanisms that drive these patterns. Taken together, these concepts, as well as a few key
195 considerations and emerging empirical methods, can help researchers link human-altered
196 predator-prey overlap to ecological outcomes including predator diet, predation rates,
197 competitive exclusion, trophic interactions.

198 A key consideration in linking predator-prey overlap to ecological outcomes is that
199 altered overlap of dyads may not predict the distribution of predation events (Suraci et al. 2022).
200 Prey might continue to avoid predators at fine scales, maintaining spatiotemporal partitioning

201 despite high overlap. In such cases, non-consumptive effects (i.e., stress that leads to lower
202 fecundity) may emerge if prey employ energetically costly anti-predator behaviors to avoid both
203 humans and predators (Frid & Dill 2002; Soudijn et al. 2020). Pairing multi-species behavioral
204 studies with demographic or physiological studies will be needed to determine whether
205 consumptive or non-consumptive effects of predation change as a result of human-altered
206 predator-prey overlap (e.g., Zbyryt et al. 2018).

207 Measuring human impacts on animal responses at the appropriate scale can also be key to
208 accurately identifying ecological outcomes of behavioral shifts. Conceivably, predators and prey
209 may respond to different human stimuli (including various auditory, olfactory, and visual cues),
210 and at different scales. This can lead to situations where one species may be attracted to human
211 activity at a broad spatial scale (for example, to forage on anthropogenic food sources), but both
212 predator and prey avoid humans at fine spatial scales (e.g., Rogala et al. 2011). When possible,
213 studies that measure animal behavior across spatiotemporal scales will be most informative.
214 When this is not feasible, researchers might consider how the goal of the study and the ecology
215 of the system correspond to tradeoffs associated with choosing various sampling designs (e.g.,
216 see Steidl & Powell 2006).

217 Comprehensive assessments of human influence on predator-prey interactions consider
218 both spatial and temporal dimensions of predator-prey overlap, because prey may avoid
219 predators in one dimension (i.e., space or time) despite high overlap in another dimension. If
220 human activity increases predator-prey overlap in space, prey may still safely exploit risky places
221 by foraging during predator downtimes (Beauchamp 2007). Methods like GPS telemetry and
222 camera trapping facilitate inference on both spatial and temporal distribution simultaneously.
223 Furthermore, using indices that simultaneously estimate predator-prey overlap in space and time,

224 such as occupancy models with a continuous-time detection process (Kellner et al. 2022) or
225 Bayesian time-dependent observation models (Ait Kaci Azzou et al. 2021), can avoid these
226 issues and provide more accurate estimates of human impact on encounter probabilities.
227 Applying our proposed framework to such inferences would provide a rigorous test of how
228 humans influence predator-prey outcomes across dimensions.

229 As humans modify the contest between predators and prey, complex feedbacks among
230 multiple players can obscure the true mechanisms driving an observed pattern. Human activity
231 can influence each ecological player, while predator and prey simultaneously influence each
232 other. As a result, it is often difficult to disentangle, for instance, whether a prey refuge pattern is
233 the consequence of (a) prey attraction to human activity, or (b) prey exploitation of a predator-
234 free zone. To resolve these types of uncertainty, researchers may consider using additional
235 controlled experiments to further isolate and test the hypothesized drivers of an observed
236 response to human activity (e.g., Sarmiento & Berger 2017).

237 While our framework explicitly considers predator-prey relationships as dyads, rarely are
238 predators and prey in obligate pairings. Human activity may influence prey choice, for example
239 when predators have multiple prey, or reshape multi-predator effects on prey with more than one
240 predator (Sih et al. 1998). To advance predictions of how human activity will affect species
241 interactions, it will be beneficial to apply this framework to combinations of predators, prey, and
242 competitors (Mills & Harris 2020). One promising avenue of research lies in comparing how
243 humans alter predator-prey activity and overlap in diverse versus simplified food webs (e.g., see
244 Sévêque et al. 2020). Researchers can deploy these research designs to identify whether
245 predators, prey, competitors, or human disturbance are driving the predominant patterns of
246 dietary preference and predation rate.

247 Future research might also consider how human influence on predator-prey overlap,
248 encounter, or predation, is linked to the functional traits (e.g., body size, hunting mode, circadian
249 rhythm) of each interactor (see **Supplementary Information**). For instance, nocturnal prey may
250 outperform diurnal human-avoidant predators forced to hunt at night, limiting encounter risk
251 despite high overlap between predator and prey (Beauchamp 2007). One successful approach to
252 clarifying whether altered overlap results in altered predation is using multispecies camera trap
253 studies in tandem with diet composition studies (e.g., Smith et al. 2018). Pairing camera and diet
254 data can allow researchers to connect overlap to predation non-invasively, avoiding the more
255 costly and effort-intensive research designs that use GPS telemetry clusters and animal necropsy
256 data to estimate predation.

257 In certain cases, human influence on predator-prey overlap may be temporary and
258 without lasting consequences for ecological communities. For instance, if predators and prey
259 habituate to human activity over time (Blumstein 2016), encounter rates may be maintained, and
260 the predator-prey response race may continue unaltered by humans. Yet in this case, the rise of
261 human-wildlife conflict and use of lethal or non-lethal deterrents may in turn affect animal
262 behavior and predator-prey overlap (Manlick & Pauli 2020). Researchers can use iterative
263 experiments that measure how multiple ecological players habituate or sensitize to human
264 disturbance (e.g., Uchida & Blumstein 2021) to better capture which of the four possible human-
265 induced response pathways predict shifts in encounter risk over time.

266 Identifying thresholds of human activity that alter animal behavior will be key to drawing
267 useful inference from human impact studies and improving our understanding of when altered
268 interactions may have reverberating impacts across ecosystems. Examples of such studies
269 include comparison of animal response to motorized versus non-motorized recreation (Larson et

270 al. 2016), leashed versus unleashed domestic dogs (Reed & Merenlender 2011), exurban versus
271 suburban development (Merenlender et al., 2009; Smith et al. 2019b), dense versus dispersed oil
272 development (Sawyer et al. 2020), and the influence of human presence versus the human
273 footprint (Nickel et al. 2020; Suraci et al. 2021). Such measurements can aid in creating specific
274 guidelines for human activity near wildlife. Ultimately, these research designs will help
275 anticipate how predators and prey respond to humans in rapidly changing landscapes.

276

277 **Concluding remarks**

278 Behavioral ecology is increasingly recognized as a valuable aspect of population and ecosystem
279 management (Gaynor et al. 2021), yet complex behavioral interactions among predators, prey,
280 and humans (Kuijper et al. 2016) challenge the application of theory to practical solutions.
281 Nonetheless, understanding species interactions remains key to the coexistence and persistence
282 of wildlife, and ecosystem function, in human-modified systems. For example, anthropogenic
283 effects on prey may sometimes need to be minimized before predator recovery and predator-prey
284 interactions can be restored (Lahkar et al. 2020). Unfortunately, the daunting task of studying or
285 modeling complex behavioral feedbacks among players in this ecological game has deterred
286 progress in understanding the ecology of landscapes characterized by high human activity.
287 Investment in models that explain how humans modify species interactions, rather than solely
288 species richness or abundance, is critical to fundamental ecology and the implementation of
289 science-based management and conservation practice. Adopting our framework can help
290 researchers identify patterns of human influence on strongly interacting species and test possible
291 mechanisms driving broader ecological outcomes.

292

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299

300 **Conflict of interest**

301 The authors have no conflicts of interest to declare.

302

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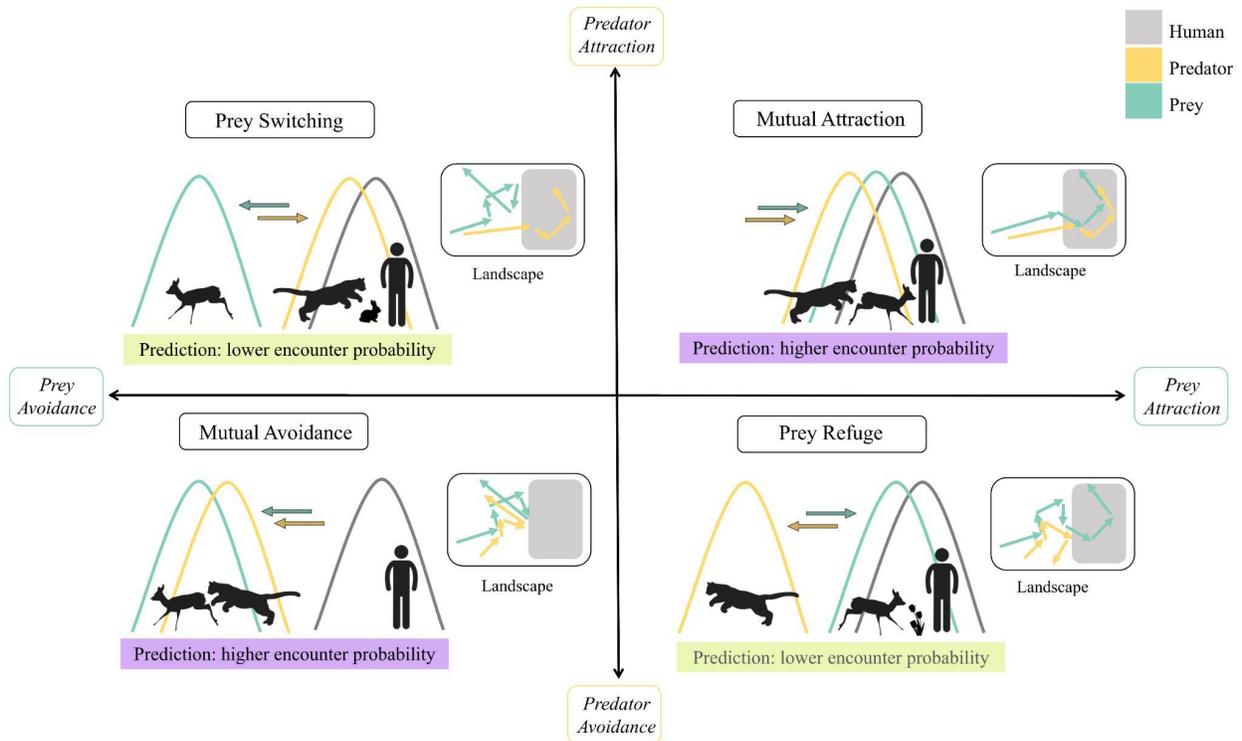
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505 **Fig. 1.** Humans can alter predator and prey behavior, spatiotemporal overlap, and encounter
506 probability via four major pathways: mutual attraction, mutual avoidance, prey refuge, and prey
507 switching. Predator (y-axis) and prey (x-axis) respond to human activity along a continuum of
508 attraction to avoidance. Similar responses of predator and prey to human activity are predicted to
509 result in increased predator-prey overlap and encounter probability, whereas opposite responses
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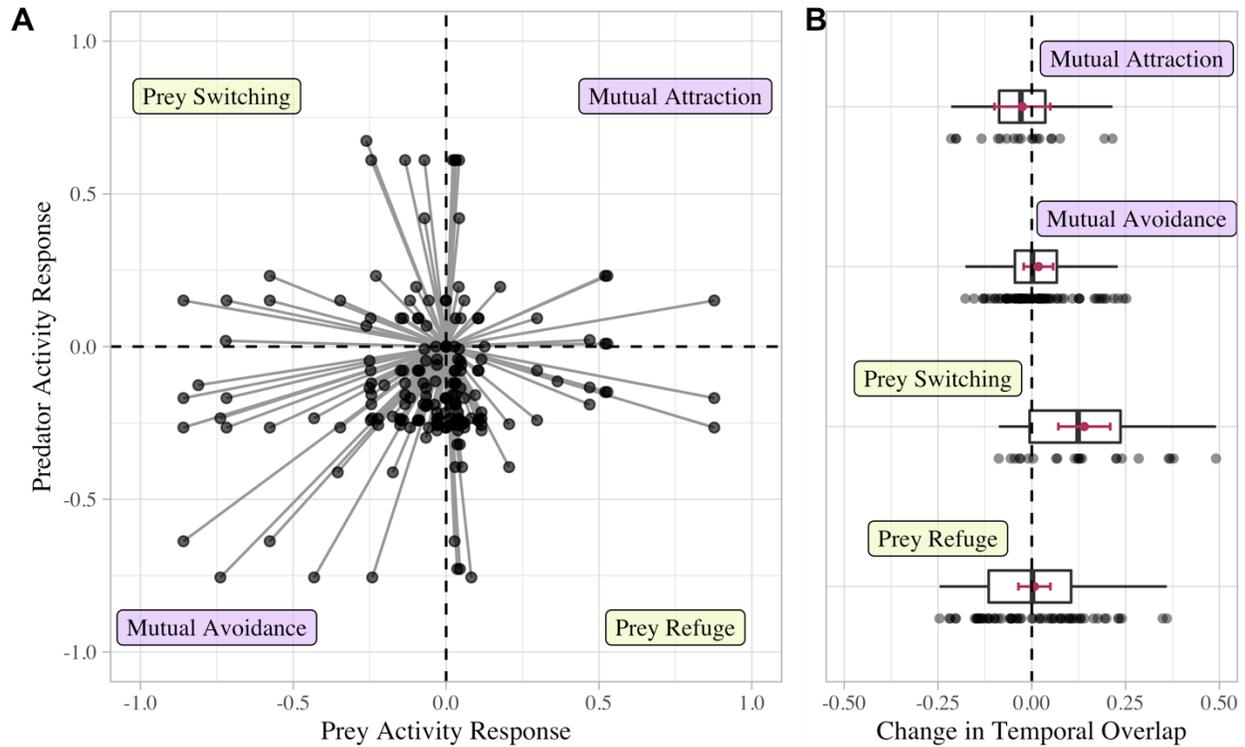
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512 **Fig. 2.** Human influence on predator-prey temporal activity and overlap based on review of
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515 avoidance, prey refuge, and prey switching. Lines reflect the relative magnitude and direction of
516 diel activity response toward nocturnality (-1) or diurnality (1) for each predator-prey dyad at
517 paired settings of low and high human use (n = 178 predator-prey dyads, 19 studies). (b) Change
518 in predator-prey temporal overlap between settings of low and high human use did not vary
519 predictably with predator-prey activity responses (n = 167 predator-prey dyads, 16 studies).
520 Similar predator-prey responses (i.e., prey refuge, prey switching) to humans did not result in
521 increased overlap between dyads, likewise opposite predator-prey responses (i.e., mutual
522 attraction, mutual avoidance) to humans did not result in decreased overlap between dyads as
523 predicted. Black dots represent change in temporal overlap for each dyad. Red error bars
524 represent estimated marginal means and \pm 95% confidence interval.



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