1 "When the felid's away, the mesocarnivores play": seasonal temporal segregation in a

2 neotropical carnivore guild

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12 Abstract

13 Interspecific competition within a carnivore guild can result in segregation along dietary, spatial, and temporal 14 scales. Species interactions and resulting avoidance behavior can change seasonally as landscape features and 15 resource abundance may fluctuate. In this study we examined a carnivore guild in the Pantanal wetland of Brazil to 16 determine whether temporal niche partitioning was a mechanism for coexistence, and if this differed between the 17 wet and dry season. We used camera trapping data to fit kernel density functions of time observations for five 18 species of carnivores to determine activity patterns. We calculated the coefficient of overlap between all species-19 pair's activity patterns. Our results found support for temporal segregation among this carnivore guild, with stronger 20 segregation evident during the dry season. Jaguars and pumas showed large overlap in activity in both seasons, 21 while all three mesocarnivores (ocelot, tayra, and crab-eating fox) showed temporal avoidance toward pumas. 22 Mecocarnivores displayed segregating temporal patterns between pairs in both seasons. Temporal segregation is a 23 mechanism for coexistence within this carnivore guild, suggesting increased competition between species especially 24 during the dry season. To maintain carnivore populations a broader knowledge of interspecific interactions and how 25 this may affect species, utilization or avoidance of habitats is needed. Given the complexities of interspecific 26 interactions among carnivores, conservation efforts should address the needs of the entire guild rather than focus on 27 a single species.

28 Keywords

29 Activity patterns, carnivores, camera-trapping, South America, temporal partitioning

30 Introduction

31 Carnivores face many ecological constraints while seeking to maximize fitness, including producing offspring while 32 locating and hunting prey of variable size, abundance and spatial distribution (Caro and Stoner, 2003; Swanepoel et 33 al. 2013; Wolf and Ripple, 2016). Species that inhabit the same distributional range often partition resources, which 34 can occur through a combination of mechanisms grouped around different niche dimensions, such as diet, space, or 35 time (Schoener, 1974). Divergence in prey selection and avoidance of areas used by a competitor may reduce 36 exploitative competition and minimize the likelihood of interspecific encounters (e.g. Dröge et al. 2017; Durant, 37 1998; Karanth & Sunquist, 1995; Ramesh et al. 2012). Morphological adaptations of a subordinate species may 38 allow them to employ both of these strategies through increases in home range size, providing access to additional 39 resources while simultaneously avoiding a competitor (Holland et al. 2017). Finally, animals may also exhibit 40 temporal segregation, decreasing chances of interaction with a competitor by minimizing activity when a dominant 41 competitor is more active (e.g. Hayward and Slotow, 2009; Lucherini et al. 2009).

42 Carnivores are more likely to interact with species within their own family than with other groups, and 43 frequently exhibit high levels of niche partitioning due to competing for resources while sometimes also engaging in 44 interspecific killing (Holt and Polis 1997; Donadio and Buskirk 2006; Lucherini et al. 2009). Relative body size 45 among carnivores appears to be the principal determinant of interspecific killing probability (Donadio and Buskirk 46 2006, Lucherini et al. 2009); at small and large differences, attacks are less likely to occur; at intermediate 47 differences, intraguild killings are more frequent (Donadio and Buskirk 2006). Thus, there is a combination of 48 competition and predation within the guild, which could be expected to promote marked partitioning of resources 49 and complex patterns of segregation. In some areas, for example, lions (Panthera leo) outcompete both cheetahs 50 (Acinonyx jubatus) and African wild dogs (Lycaon pictus), but wild dogs spatially avoid lions while cheetahs do not 51 (Dröge et al. 2017). Similarly, felids in the Andes temporally avoid some potential competitors but not others 52 (Lucherini et al. 2009), while culpeo foxes (Lycalopex culpaeus) do not temporally or spatially segregate from 53 pumas (Puma concolor) (Osorio et al. 2020). Additionally, there may be seasonal patterns in avoidance related to 54 factors such as food availability (Torretta et al. 2016). Consequently, region-specific analyses are often warranted to 55 understand the factors facilitating coexistence of a particular carnivore guild.

56 The Brazilian Pantanal is the world's largest wetland, consisting of a 140,000 km² floodplain located in the 57 center of South America (Lacher and Goncalves, 1988). Large swaths of intact habitat combined with a large prey 58 base have made the Pantanal an important area for jaguar (Panthera onca) conservation and estimates suggest that 59 the population may be increasing (Cavalcanti et al. 2012). In addition to jaguars, there are many other carnivores 60 inhabiting the region, including pumas, ocelots (Leopardus pardalis), tayras (Eira barbara), and crab-eating foxes 61 (Cerdocyon thous). However, interactions among carnivores in the Pantanal have not been thoroughly examined. 62 The Pantanal is characterized by seasonal inundation of vast portions of land during the rainy season (November to 63 April) (Lacher and Goncalves, 1988). This may result in seasonal shifts in species' diet and space use, creating the 64 potential for dynamic changes in carnivore interactions. The carnivore guild in the Pantanal thus presents a unique 65 opportunity to investigate niche partitioning among a diverse carnivore guild across a landscape impacted by 66 dynamic seasonal fluctuations in rainfall.

67 Our objective was to evaluate if the carnivore guild in the Pantanal exhibits temporal niche partitioning as a 68 potential mechanism for coexistence. Given both the potential competitive and killing interactions that could occur 69 among the five species in this guild (Fig. 1), we predicted that we would find three main patterns of temporal 70 segregation: (1) similar-sized carnivore species will segregate to minimize exploitative competition due to niche 71 overlap (i.e. puma-jaguar, fox-ocelot-tayra), (2) species of intermediate size difference will segregate due to the 72 smaller species avoiding the larger one in an attempt to minimize the risk of intraguild killing (fox-puma, ocelot-73 puma, tayra-puma), and (3) temporal segregation will occur more during the dry season, when the more limited 74 resources could intensify competitive interactions.

75 Methods

76 Study Site

The Pantanal has a tropical semi-humid climate. The dry season spans May to October with average temperatures
ranging around 21°C (Wang et al. 2011). The wet season runs November to April, with water levels in the Pantanal
basin rising between two and five meters, inundating up to 80% of the floodplains (De Abreu, McManus and Santos,
2010). Vegetation in the area consists of a matrix of savannah, gallery forest segments, scrub savannah and
seasonally flooded grasslands, intermixed with temporary and permanent water bodies (Mourão and Medri, 2007).

We carried out this study across 23,000 ha encompassing several private farms in the Nhecolândia region of the southern Pantanal. The study was centered on Fazenda Barranco Alto ranch (19° 33'35 "S 56° 09'22" W) in the State of Mato Grosso do Sul, along the banks of the Rio Negro river, but also included portions of the neighboring Diacuí, Vera Lúcia, and Embiara farms. The primary activity in these ranches is Nelore cattle production with an emphasis on eco-tourism. The ranches in this study contain preserved habitat composed of largely natural vegetation structure and a mosaic of natural water bodies.

88 Field Methods

89 We placed 120 individual wildlife cameras (120 in the dry season, 101 in the wet season) (Bushnell HD trophy 90 cam, model 119537) spaced 1.5-2 km apart across 230 km² between September 2013 and May 2015 (One camera 91 per location). We placed cameras in a grid formation, with additional deployment along the main river and trails 92 where carnivores were more likely to be captured (Karanth, 1995). Cameras were placed 45 cm above the ground on 93 wooden fence posts or trees, a height ideal for capturing medium to large mammals (Tobler et al. 2008). Cameras 94 were triggered via motion and recorded a 60 second video upon trigger for older model cameras, and photo and 95 video simultaneously with a one second delay between subsequent captures on newer models. All camera traps in 96 the study were checked every 4 weeks in order to replace batteries and change memory cards. All species captured 97 on cameras were recorded along with location, date, time, group size, and sex where possible. We defined the wet 98 season as the period between December 2013 to March 2014, and the dry season between April to July 2014.

99 Data Analysis

All species captured on the cameras were recorded, however, all consecutive records of a species which occurred within 30 minutes at the same site were omitted from the data set. This interval between images is commonly used to separate single passing animals from repeated captures of the same animals in one event (O'Brien, Kinnaird and Wibisono, 2003). Only cameras which worked for a length of >10 days in a given season were included in data analysis (Rowcliffe et al. 2008). Any cameras which malfunctioned and did not record time and date correctly were also removed from the study sample. After considering this, 96 and 72 cameras were included for the dry and wet season respectively. 107 We fit kernel density functions to times of observations of animals and to calculate the coefficient of overlap (Δ), 108 through a quantitative measure extending from 0 (no overlap) to 1 (complete overlap), whilst confidence intervals 109 are calculated via bootstrapping, following Ridout and Linkie (2009). This measure of temporal overlap is obtained 110 by taking the minimum of the density functions of two cycles being compared at each time point (Rovero and 111 Zimmermann, 2016). The overlapping coefficient (Δ), is the area which underlies both lines on the fitted density 112 curve. Choosing best fitting estimators is important for activity pattern analysis and is generally dependent on 113 sample sizes. Following Ridout and Linkie (2009), two circular nonparametric estimators were applied in this study, 114 Δ^1 and Δ^4 . Δ^1 was used for small sample sizes (< 50), and Δ^4 for larger sample sizes (>50) (Meredith and Ridout, 115 2014).

116 We used a smoothed bootstrap, with 10,000 samples, and applied it by fitting a kernel density to the radian time of 117 day data and drawing simulated observations randomly from the entire kernel distribution (Ridout and Linkie, 118 2009). We calculated 95% confidence intervals for Δ as percentile intervals similar to Foster et al. (2013). To test for 119 significant differences in activity between species at an alpha of 0.05, we compared the bootstrapped activity 120 patterns of each species with a Wald statistic on a chi-square distribution with one degree of freedom (Rovero and 121 Zimmermann, 2016; Santos et al. 2019). However, the coefficient of overlap is descriptive, without a clear 122 indication of a threshold value below which two activity curves are significantly different (Lashely et al. 2018). All 123 statistical analysis were carried out with the software R, version 3.3.2 (R core team, 2016), using the package 124 'overlap' with scripts adapted from Meredith and Ridout (2014).

125 Results

We obtained a total of 524 records of five species from 4895 trapping nights during the wet season (jaguars n=9, pumas n=102, ocelots n=57, crab-eating foxes n =341, tayras n=15), and 531 records from 4669 trapping nights during the dry season (jaguars n=38, pumas n=66, ocelots n=78, crab-eating foxes n =329, tayras n=20). We observed a low degree of temporal overlap between tayras and all other carnivores (range Δ 0.18- Δ 0.54) (Fig.2). We observed an overlap average of Δ =0.76 for jaguars and pumas, Δ =0.73 for jaguars and ocelots, and Δ =0.70 for jaguars and crab-eating foxes. Pumas on average overlapped with ocelots by Δ =0.71, and crab-eating foxes by Δ =0.78. Ocelots and crab-eating foxes also had a high average degree of overlap of Δ =0.85. We tested whether any individual species changed their activity patterns between the wet and dry season and found no evidence ofsignificant changes in temporal activity.

During the wet season, jaguars had a high degree of overlap in activity with all species apart from tayras, which exhibited significantly different activity patterns (Table S1). Jaguars, ocelots, and pumas exhibited primarily nocturnal behavior (between 18.00 - 06.00), however, jaguars also showed a small spike in activity during late afternoon hours (between 12.00 - 18.00, Fig. 2). Crab-eating foxes were also largely active at night with some tendency toward crepuscular activity. Pumas and ocelots differed in their activity patterns, with ocelots showing a spike in activity between 03.00 - 06.00. Pumas, ocelots, and crab-eating foxes all had significantly different activity patterns compared to tayras (Table S1), which exhibited only diurnal activity.

142 During the dry season jaguars again exhibited significantly different activity patterns to that of tayras which were 143 primarily diurnal (Table S1). In this season, jaguars also displayed significantly different activity patterns than 144 ocelots. Although both species were most active at night, ocelots showed a higher spike in activity between 18.00 -145 22.00 hours (Fig. 2). Pumas had significantly different activity patterns than all other mesocarnivores in the dry 146 season. Pumas were most active between the hours of 18.00 - 05.00, while crab-eating foxes showed activity peaks 147 between 19.00 - 01.00 hours and tayras between 06.00 - 12.00 hours. Although ocelots and crab-eating foxes 148 overlapped to a large degree in their activity, there was a significant difference between both species in the dry 149 season (Table S1), with ocelots peaking between 18.00 - 22.00 hours. Both ocelots and crab-eating foxes displayed 150 significantly different activity patterns to tayras.

We found partial support for our first prediction (segregation among similar sized species); there was segregation among smaller species with each other but not among the two large species (Fig. 3). We found considerable support for our second hypothesis (competition among large and meso carnivores), indicated by consistent segregation between pumas and the smaller species (Fig. 3). Finally, we supported our third prediction of stronger segregation in the dry vs wet season: eight of the ten pairs showed significant differences in the dry season, but only five of ten showed significant differences during the wet season (Fig. 3).

157 Discussion

158 We found support for temporal segregation as a mechanism likely facilitating coexistence in a neotropical carnivore 159 guild, located in the Brazilian Pantanal. Results supported our prediction that the dry season would result in stronger 160 temporal segregation. We found that 80% of the pair-interactions showed significant segregation in the dry season, 161 but only 50% showed significant differences during the wet season. Six of the seven predicted pair-interactions were 162 confirmed by the results in at least one season, the only exception being jaguars and pumas, which displayed large 163 overlap in their activity patterns, suggesting that temporal partitioning is not a major factor contributing to their 164 coexistence in this area. All three mesocarnivores (crab-eating foxes, ocelots, tayras) showed temporal segregation 165 with pumas, suggesting that pumas have a stronger intraguild effect on mesocarnivores compared to jaguars. Among 166 the mesocarnivore guild (crab-eating foxes, ocelots, tayras), almost all pairs showed segregating temporal patterns in 167 both seasons.

168 Increased temporal segregation within the carnivore guild in the dry season may likely be attributed to 169 decreased concentration of food resources and therefore increased competition during this period. Throughout the 170 wet season prey species are often more spatially and temporally clumped in the remaining areas of dry land, 171 decreasing competitive interactions within the guild (Karanth et al. 2017). Similarly, Torretta et al. (2016) reported 172 that during winter, in periods of low food abundance, competitive interactions between two European carnivore 173 species likely increased and explained shifts in temporal activity to reduce encounters. It is possible that during the 174 wet season (higher resource abundance) spatial segregation becomes a more important mechanism for carnivore 175 coexistence, while temporal segregation plays a larger role in the dry season, when resources might be scarce and 176 carnivores are forced into the same areas to find prey (Torretta et al. 2016; Zhao et al. 2020).

177 Jaguars and pumas displayed large overlap in their activity patterns, suggesting that temporal partitioning is 178 not a major factor contributing to their coexistence in this area. Other studies have also found substantial temporal 179 overlap between these species (Foster et al. 2013, Porfirio et al. 2017), however, there is reported evidence for 180 temporal segregation (Harmsen et al. 2011; Romero-Munoz et al. 2010), and an analysis of jaguar-puma partitioning 181 across Neotropical forests documented significant differences in activity at some study sites but not at others (Santos 182 et al. 2019). In the Pantanal, temporal activity patterns of both species overlaps with that of their major prey 183 (Porfirio et al. 2016). The increase in foraging opportunities may offset the negative impacts from potential 184 competition. Similarly, activity patterns of cheetahs were driven by optimal hunting conditions, as capturing prev

185 outweighed the risk of encountering lions, their main mortality risk (Broekhuis et al. 2014). In another study site in 186 Brazil, very high temperatures decreased diurnal activity of both jaguars and pumas, and these thermoregulatory 187 constraints led to similar activity patterns (Astete et al. 2017). Overall, competition is but one factor shaping an 188 animal's behavior, and other mechanisms such as habitat preferences, prey availability and selection, or 189 physiological considerations may play a stronger role in determining how jaguars and pumas coexist in different 190 areas (Scognamillo et al. 2003).

191 All three mesopredators (crab-eating foxes, ocelots, tayras) showed temporal segregation with pumas in the 192 wet season, while ocelots and tayras also exhibited temporal segregation with pumas in the dry season, suggesting 193 that pumas have a stronger intraguild effect on mesocarnivores compared to jaguars. Overlap in diet (Emmons, 194 1987), along with similarities in body size, may be the key factor causing increased avoidance between pumas and 195 mesopredators, compared to the jaguar (Donadio and Buskirk, 2006), which often preys on larger bodied prey 196 (Scognamillo et al. 2003). However, all three mesocarnivores in our study could potentially, or have previously 197 been, predated on by both apex predators (De Oliveira and Pereira, 2014). Therefore, the stronger effect of pumas on 198 mesopredators could simply be attributed to the higher observed records of pumas in our study area, compared to 199 lower records of jaguars.

200 Within the mesocarnivore guild (crab-eating foxes, ocelots, tayras), all pairs showed segregating temporal 201 patterns in both seasons, except for ocelots and crab-eating foxes in the wet season. Specifically, we found evidence 202 that crab-eating foxes and tayras may show temporal avoidance toward ocelots, particularly in the dry season. 203 Previous results suggest ocelots exert a somewhat suppressive force on other mesocarnivores through interference 204 competition (De Oliveira et al. 2010; De Oliveira and Pereira, 2014; Sunquist and Sunquist, 2017). Specifically, De 205 Oliveira et al. (2010) described what they called the "ocelot effect", where increasing densities of this species 206 negatively impacted smaller carnivores in many parts of their range, and in some cases impose a larger threat than 207 that of large carnivores (De Oliveira and Pereira, 2014). These dominant mesocarnivores are believed to compete 208 both directly and indirectly with smaller felids and canids across South America, especially in the absence of larger 209 predators (Macdonald and Loveridge, 2010). However, it is important to note that trophic partitioning among these 210 species could be a more important coexistence mechanism. The crab-eating fox is a generalist species, relying on a 211 combination of fruit and small vertebrates, while ocelots are obligate carnivores that rely largely on small to medium sized vertebrates and reptiles (Farrell, Roman and Sunquist, 2000). Coexistence by diverging diet instead of spatial
and temporal overlap was also observed for a mesocarnivore canid-felid pair in northern Patagonia (Gantchoff and
Belant, 2016). Similarly, Osorio et al (2020) found dietary divergence the most likely mechanism facilitating
coexistence between a canid-felid pair in central Chile. Tayras are generally reported to be more arboreal, and are
described as opportunistic omnivores that have been recorded to prey on primates (Asensio and Gómez-Marín,
2002; Bezerra et al. 2009), therefore the strong segregation we observed with other mesopredators is likely strongly
influenced by their natural history, behavior, and prey activity, rather than solely intraguild interactions.

219 Examining carnivore assemblages from other parts of the world suggests that patterns of temporal 220 partitioning are influenced by a number of site-specific attributes. In Asia, leopards may increase their diurnal 221 activity in response to the presence of tigers, the top predator in the system (Azlan and Sharma, 2006). African 222 carnivores exhibited decreased temporal partitioning in densely vegetated habitats because vegetative cover offered 223 protection from predators despite similar activity patterns (Rich et al. 2017). Patterns of temporal partitioning 224 between lions and leopards in Africa change as a function of prey availability (Miller et al. 2018). These divergent 225 patterns are possible because carnivores tend to have high degrees of behavioral plasticity. Natural selection has 226 likely favored this fluidity because it allows carnivores to shift temporal patterns of activity in response to changing 227 environmental conditions. As a consequence, carnivores are likely able to adopt the behavioral strategies that 228 optimize fitness under a given set of ecological circumstances. Human disturbance influences the three dimensions 229 of niche partitioning in carnivore guilds (Seveque et al. 2020). However, the effects of humans on the intensity of 230 intraguild competition is context dependent and therefore contrasting effects on the same guild might be reported in 231 different study areas.

Like most field studies, our conclusions are subject to some logistic limitations that should be considered when interpreting results. For example, camera malfunctions together with flooding of some areas during the rainy season may have led to differences in the rate of detection of some species. Camera stations were established both in random and select locations along trails and rivers to increase the likelihood of large carnivore captures (Silver et al. 2004). It is possible that traps occurring on highly active carnivore trails may lead to an activity estimation based on trail use, rather than a true estimation throughout utilized habitat (Rowcliffe et al. 2014). Number of detections for some of the pairs was limited (i.e. jaguar-tayra) and this might have affected the estimation of temporal overlap. 239 Despite these limitations, given the large area surveyed and time span of the surveys, we believe these results are a 240 valuable contribution to our knowledge of temporal partitioning as a potential mechanism for coexistence in this 241 neotropical carnivore guild.

242 The maintenance of carnivore diversity and subsequent conservation of species and their habitats relies on a 243 broader knowledge of interspecific interactions, and how this might affect other species, utilization or avoidance of 244 certain areas (Sunarto et al. 2015). Competitive interactions between carnivores can result in suppression of 245 subordinate species, which may have strong implications for species endangered by regional or local extinction 246 (Linnell and Strand, 2000). Given these constraints, focusing on larger species for conservation benefits may not 247 necessarily impose an umbrella effect for all species, expecting that all co-occurring carnivores will benefit (Linnell, 248 Swenson, and Andersen, 2000). It may be necessary to design carnivore conservation programs that address the 249 needs of the entire guild rather than placing emphasis on one species (Dalerum et al. 2009). Overall, it is apparent 250 that interspecific relationships within carnivore guilds are highly complex and flexible in nature, and can have 251 measurable impacts on the occurrence and persistence of certain species. A better understanding of interspecific 252 relationships within carnivore guilds and how rising anthropogenic pressure on carnivore habitats influence such 253 relationships are research areas that are in need of further development for future carnivore conservation planning 254 (Seveque et al. 2020; Linnell and Strand, 2000).

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262 Conflicts of interest

263 On behalf of all authors, the corresponding author states that there is no conflict of interest.

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- Fig. 1 Carnivore guild in the study area, showing the expected pair interactions among species from a camera
- 389 390 trapping study across 134 stations in the southern Brazilian Pantanal between 2013-2015. Solid black arrows related to Hypothesis 1 (niche segregation among species of similar size), white arrows to Hypothesis 2 (intraguild killing
- for species of intermediate size difference).



Fig. 2 Density estimates of daily activity patterns between five species of sympatric carnivores in the dry and wet season from a camera trapping study across 134 stations in the southern Brazilian Pantanal between 2013-2015.
 Time along the x-axis is in a 24 hour format with noon in the center. The coefficient overlap is shown on each graph, and represented as the shaded area in each plot. (*) indicates significant differences



407 Fig. 3 Documented temporal segregation in both dry and wet seasons within a carnivore guild from a camera

- trapping study across 134 stations in the southern Brazilian Pantanal between 2013-2015 (clockwise from top left
 the species are: jaguar, puma, crab-eating fox, tayra, ocelot). Green indicates a supported prediction (see Figure 1),
- 410 red with an X an unsupported prediction, and yellow not predicted but documented temporal segregation

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440 <u>Appendix</u>

441 Table S1: Results from Wald statistic significance tests on ten pairwise species comparisons of activity patterns and

 \triangle coefficient overlaps (SE = standard error) from a camera trapping study across 134 stations in the southern

443 Brazilian Pantanal between 2013-2015.

Species	Dry season p-value	Sample size	SE	Overlap	Wet season p-value	Sample size	SE	Overlap
jaguar — puma	0.221	104	0.04	0.83	0.340	111	0.08	0.69
jaguar – ocelot	0.007**	116	0.04	0.75	0.291	66	0.08	0.71
jaguar – crab- eating fox	0.060	367	0.03	0.84	0.324	350	0.07	0.72
jaguar – tayra	<0.001***	58	0.06	0.43	<0.001***	24	0.10	0.28
puma – ocelot	<0.001***	144	0.04	0.64	0.031*	159	0.03	0.78
puma - crab-eating fox	<0.001***	395	0.03	0.70	0.060	443	0.02	0.87
puma – tayra	<0.001***	86	0.06	0.54	<0.001***	117	0.06	0.32
ocelot - crab-eating fox	0.037*	407	0.02	0.83	0.247	398	0.03	0.86
ocelot – tayra	<0.001***	98	0.06	0.24	<0.001***	72	0.07	0.18
crab-eating fox - tayra	<0.001***	349	0.05	0.29	<0.001***	356	0.06	0.22