

A matter of time: Temporal partitioning facilitates coexistence between coyotes (*Canis latrans*) and gray foxes (*Urocyon cinereoargenteus*) in temperate forests of Mexico.

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2 **(*Urocyon cinereoargenteus*) in temperate forests of Mexico.**

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ABSTRACT

Sympatric species reduce competitive interactions by segregating their ecological niche as a strategy that promotes coexistence. Two main dimensions in which niche differentiation occurs are spatial and temporal axes. Thus, describing the spatiotemporal patterns of sympatric species help us better grasp how species coexist. In Mexico, coyotes (*Canis latrans*) and gray foxes (*Urocyon cinereoargenteus*) are sympatric and widely distributed, and information about their temporal and spatiotemporal interactions is needed to explain their coexistence. As an approach to exploring the coexistence between these species in a temperate forest, we pose the following question: Is there temporal or spatiotemporal segregation between sympatric coyotes and gray foxes? We aimed to evaluate indicators of ecological niche segregation through two approaches: *i*) temporal partitioning, measuring the levels and overlap of daily activity patterns; and *ii*) spatiotemporal partitioning, through temporal co-occurrence analysis and time-to-encounter analysis. In 2018, we used a camera trap network ($n = 43$) to measure spatiotemporal patterns of coyotes and gray foxes. We found that coyotes showed a diurnal daily activity pattern while gray foxes were nocturnal, the overlap was low (49%), and daily activity levels varied significantly as coyotes remained active during slightly higher levels of proportion of the circadian cycle (60%) compared with the gray foxes (37%). We found a temporal co-occurrence random pattern (not aggregation/segregation pattern) between species and no avoidance behavior between coyotes and gray foxes was displayed, according to the time-to-encounter analysis. In general, we did not detect segregation patterns between species at the spatiotemporal level, but we found strong evidence of important temporal activity segregation patterns between coyotes and gray foxes as a mechanism that facilitates sympatry, and which likely complements the ecological strategy of coexistence between these species in temperate forests at the southern of the Sierra Madre Occidental, Mexico.

KEYWORDS

Activity pattern, camera-traps, canids, co-occurrence, coexistence, niche segregation.

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INTRODUCTION

Understanding processes that maintain the structure of ecological communities is crucial for wildlife conservation programs (Glen and Dickman 2005; Vellend 2016). Interspecific competition is an important species interaction factor that structures ecological communities (Rosenzweig 1966; Sommer and Worm 2002) and can take two forms: interference and exploitative competition (Case and Gilpin 1974; Schoener 1983). Interference competition can be considered one of the main factors determining intraguild relationships among mammalian species belonging to the order Carnivora (Rosenzweig 1966; Palomares and Caro 1999; Linnell and Strand 2000). These competitive interactions are usually more intense among sympatric species with similar ecological niches (MacArthur and Levins 1967; Morin 1999); therefore, the strategy to promote their coexistence is niche segregation to minimize competition (MacArthur and Levins 1967; Pianka 1969; Schoener 1974a).

Ecological niche segregation has mainly been studied in terms of three axes: spatial, trophic, and temporal (Pianka 1973; Schoener 1974a). Potential competition between sympatric species is largely determined by spatial niche segregation (Kitchen et al. 1999; Palomares and Caro 1999; Grassel et al. 2015) because the development of interactions between species that share the same distribution area involves accessibility to the resources found there (Schoener 1974a; Sih 2005). However, more attention has been given recently to the temporal niche due to the availability of new technology, such as camera traps and accelerometers, for defining the temporal activity patterns of wild animals (Sanchez-Ferrer et al. 2016; Zimmermann et al. 2016; Frey et al. 2017). Temporal segregation is important to reduce competitive interactions (Schoener 1974b; Kronfeld-Schor and Dayan 2003) because species can reduce intraguild competition and predation risk by minimizing temporal overlap with ecologically similar species or with sympatric predators (Carothers and Jaksic 1984). Consequently, spatiotemporal niche partitioning research enables a better understanding of the coexistence mechanisms among wildlife species (Sommer and Worm 2002; Kronfeld-Schor and Dayan 2003; Watabe et al. 2022). Therefore, we intend to evaluate the spatial and temporal axes of the ecological niche of two sympatric species, in order to quantitatively determine their segregation to elucidate how their coexistence occurs.

In Mexico, coyotes (*Canis latrans*) and gray foxes (*Urocyon cinereoargenteus*) are abundant and widely distributed; both species are sympatric throughout much of their distribution range in the country (Servín and Chacón 2014; Servín et al. 2014a). Both species belong to the same taxonomic family (*Canidae*) and have similar feeding

habits (Bekoff 1977; Fritzell and Haroldson 1982). Studies of intraguild interactions between coyotes and gray foxes have mainly focused on spatial and trophic axes of their ecological niches. The studies about spatial niche interactions have found both absence (Neale and Sacks 2001; Chamberlain and Leopold 2005; Rodríguez-Luna et al. 2021a) and presence (Fedriani et al. 2000; Fariás et al. 2012) of spatial segregation between species. However, temporal niche interactions between coyotes and gray foxes have received scarce attention and are poorly understood. We lack a comprehensive understanding of spatiotemporal niche partitioning between coyotes and gray foxes which can potentially explain the coexistence of the species in areas where they are sympatric. Therefore, in this study we analyzed information generated during 2018 in a temperate forest in the Sierra Madre Occidental of Durango, Mexico, to determine and evaluate the temporal and spatiotemporal use patterns of both canids. We hypothesized that the temporal and spatiotemporal niche segregation between coyotes and gray foxes acts as an ecological mechanism that facilitates coexistence between both species.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Study area

We carried out the fieldwork in the mountain region on the buffer area of La Michilía Biosphere Reserve (MBR), municipality of SÚchil, Durango, Mexico; between the coordinates 23°21'00"–23°28'00" N and 104°09'00"–104°21'00" W (Figure 1). The MBR is located on the southeastern of the Sierra Madre Occidental and covers *ca.* 70,000 ha, with altitudes that range between 2000 and 2985 masl (Halffter 1978). In the MBR sub-humid temperate (Cw) climate predominates, average annual rainfall fluctuates between 700 to 900 mm, and the mean annual minimum and maximum temperatures are 2°C (in winter) and 22°C (in summer), respectively (Gadsden and Reyes-Castillo 1991; INEGI 2017). Dominant vegetation types in the MBR are the coniferous forest (*Pinus* spp.) and oak forest (*Quercus* spp.), with areas of natural grasslands (*Bouteloua* spp.), xerophilous scrubs (dominated by two species: *Arctostaphylos pungens* and *Acacia schaffneri*), and transition zones for these types of vegetation where dominant species vary depending on altitude, geomorphology, and microclimatic conditions (González-Elizondo et al. 1993).

Camera traps survey

During 2018, we considered four biological seasons described for both species for the implementation of the camera traps survey (Servín and Huxley 1995; Smith et al 1981): breeding (January–March 15), gestation (March

16–April 30), pup-rearing (May 1–July 31), and dispersal or pups’ independence (August 1–December 31). At the end of each season, we checked the camera traps, downloaded the images, and replaced the batteries. We set and geo-referenced 43 infrared-triggered camera trap sites (Cuddeback™ mod E3 Long Range, WI, USA, and Bushnell™ mod HD Essential, KS, USA), we determined the spatial arrangement of the camera traps sites based on the average home range size of focal species (Rovero and Spitalé 2016) in the study area: for coyotes 12.20 ± 1.74 km² (Servín and Huxley 1995; Rodríguez-Luna et al. 2021a) and for gray foxes 5.30 ± 0.67 km² (Servín et al. 2014a; Rodríguez-Luna et al. 2021a). As a result, camera traps were distributed at an average distance of 1.14 ± 0.20 km between them, considering a regular grid (Figure 1). During the fieldwork, we placed camera traps sites at locations with signs of wildlife presence to maximize the capture probability of the target species (Zimmerman and Rovero 2016) and we attached the camera traps to trees at 30–60 cm above ground level. We programmed all camera traps to be active 24 hours a day and to burn three images for each trigger, with a 60 s of delay between them. We recorded the species, time, date, and camera trap site for all images. To maintain statistical independence, we considered as independent events all photographic records of the same species when multiple individuals appeared in the same image or when they were ≥ 30 min apart (Ridout and Linkie 2009).

120 Data analysis

121 Factors affecting species interactions may differ depending on the temporal scales; therefore, we evaluated
 122 temporal and spatiotemporal niche partitioning through multiple analytical methods (*sensu* Watabe et al. 2022). We
 123 evaluated the temporal niche partitioning through the overlap of daily activity patterns and daily activity levels
 124 (Ridout and Linkie 2009; Rowcliffe et al. 2014). Besides, we evaluated the spatiotemporal niche partitioning based
 125 on: *i*) temporal co-occurrence analysis (Veech 2013), a method that allows evaluating the spatiotemporal responses
 126 of species focusing on the date rather than the time of the day by using detection and non-detection data (Watabe et
 127 al. 2022); and *ii*) time to encounter analysis (Karanth et al. 2017), which evaluates data with multiple temporal scales
 128 (e.g., hours, days, weeks; Watabe et al. 2022) and is conditional on observed space use and temporal activity patterns
 129 of the focal species, and thus allows to infer fine-scale behavioral segregation/aggregation patterns (Karanth et al.
 130 2017; Balme et al. 2017).

131 *Overlap of daily activity patterns and daily activity levels.* In the tropics the clock time of sunrise and
 132 sunset changes slightly over the year, depending on the distance from the equator and time of year; however,

behavior timing should be recorded relative to these events to avoid biased conclusions (Nouvellet et al. 2012). Thus, we used solar time rather than clock time to analyze daily activity patterns. To account for successive changes in the solar position throughout the year, we corrected the clock time of each photographic record with reference to the solar time, according to its specific geographical position and date (*sensu* Nouvellet et al. 2011). Sunrise and sunset times for each survey day were established using information from the United States Naval Observatory (USNO; <https://aa.usno.navy.mil/>). We considered: *i*) sunrise and sunset, when the geometric center of the sun was on the horizon; *ii*) twilight, as the average duration of this period throughout the 365 days of the year in the study area, so morning twilight was 1.32 ± 0.07 h before sunrise and evening twilight was 1.32 ± 0.07 h after sunset; *iii*) daylight period, the time span between sunrise and sunset; and *iv*) night period, the time span that occurred after the end of evening twilight until morning twilight (Seidelmann and Wilkins 2006). We classified the records as diurnal if they were obtained during daylight hours; nocturnal, if they were obtained during the night period; or, crepuscular, if they were obtained during morning or evening twilight. To determine the main activity period over 24 hours, we counted the number of independent photographic records obtained for each period of the day for the entire sample. We performed a chi-square goodness of fit test (McDonald 2014) to test the null hypothesis of no difference in the number of observations in each period of the day. When necessary, we performed a *post hoc* chi-square goodness of fit test.

To represent daily activity patterns, we convert solar time to radians and represented data using circular statistics. We estimated the daily activity patterns of focal species as a probability density function using kernel density estimation, and then we adjusted the sunrise, noon, and sunset to $\pi/2$, π , and $3\pi/2$, respectively (Ridout and Linkie 2009). Daily activity level, defined as the proportion of a 24-hour daily cycle during which animals appeared to be active, was equal to the area under the capture rate curve (Rowcliffe et al. 2014). We determined interspecific temporal overlap using the delta coefficient Δ , which acquires values between 0 (no overlap between density curves) and 1 (complete overlap; Ridout and Linkie 2009). We considered the overlap proportion of daily activity patterns “low” when $\Delta \leq 0.50$ (i.e., partitioning), “moderate” when $0.50 < \Delta \leq 0.75$, and $\Delta > 0.75$ as “high” (Monterroso et al. 2014). Due to the large number of records obtained for both species, we estimated the specific overlap coefficient through the Δ_4 method, which more robustly estimates overlap for samples ≥ 75 registers (see Ridout and Linkie 2009), and we calculated 95% confidence intervals (CI) for each Δ value using the bootstrap method with 10,000 repetitions. To statistically evaluate daily activity patterns data, we performed a Rao's spacing test of uniformity to

test whether each underlying distribution appears to deviate from circular uniformity (Rao 1976); we used a non-parametric Mardia-Watson-Wheeler test (MWW) to assess interspecific and intraspecific variation and to determine whether two circular distributions differ significantly from each other (Batschelet 1981), and we performed a Wald test on chi-square distribution to test for significant differences in the activity levels of each pair of distributions (Rowcliffe et al. 2014).

Temporal co-occurrence analysis. We used camera trap data to test for statistically significant temporal co-occurrence patterns between coyotes and gray foxes by using a matrix containing the detection-non-detection data per night at each camera site for each species (Veech 2013). This method determines the probability (P_j) that the observed frequency of co-occurrence of two species at exactly j sites is less than (P_{lt}), greater than (P_{gt}), or not different from the expected frequency (species occurred independently from each other; Griffith et al. 2016). We calculated the observed co-occurrence rate for each species by dividing the number of detections for one species by the total number of nights at each j site, and we calculated the expected co-occurrence by multiplying the observed co-occurrence rate of one species, the observed co-occurrence rate of other one species, and the total number of nights at each j site; then we compared calculated expected co-occurrence to the number of observed co-occurrence (Veech 2013; Watabe et al. 2022). Thus, $P_{lt} < 0.05$ indicates negative species associations (i.e., partitioning), $P_{gt} < 0.05$ indicates positive species associations (i.e., co-occurrence), and p values ≥ 0.05 of these parameters indicates random species associations (i.e., species occurred independently from each other; Veech 2013; Griffith et al. 2016).

Time to encounter analysis. Following Karanth et al. (2017), we used multi-response permutation procedures (MRPP) to assess the overall behavioral segregation between coyotes and gray foxes. To do this, we analyzed the entire data from 2018. Multiple captures of the same individual less than 1 min apart were collapsed into a single record (Balme et al. 2017). For every coyote detection record, we calculated the minimum time to the subsequent gray fox encounter and vice versa, we obtained the expected statistical distributions of the time to encounter by assigning encounter times to the camera trap sites in 10,000 random permutations. Subsequently, we compared the random permutations with the observed median of the minimum time to encounter. We calculated the p values as the proportion of times that the observed median was larger than the medians of the random permutations (Li et al. 2018). Under the assumption of species independence, obtaining a larger time to encounter than expected suggests spatiotemporal segregation between species, while a shorter time to encounter suggests species spatiotemporal aggregation (Karanth et al. 2017; Balme et al. 2019).

We used R version 4.0.2 software (R Core Team 2022) for all statistical analyses, considering a significance level $\alpha = 0.05$. We used “overlap” (Ridout and Linkie 2009), “activity” (Rowcliffe 2022), “circular” (Agostinelli and Lund 2022), and “cooccur” (Griffith et al. 2016) R packages to estimate daily activity patterns and overlap, activity levels, circular statistical analyses, and temporal co-occurrence, respectively. Whenever necessary, we reported the mean \pm SD values of those parameters.

RESULTS

Throughout the year 2018, we obtained a total sampling effort of 11,814 camera trap-days. We obtained a total of 1569 independent records for both species combined throughout the entire study: 1041 records for coyotes and 528 records for gray foxes. We presented a detailed description of independent records obtained for both species per biological season in Table 1.

Overlap of daily activity patterns and daily activity levels

For coyotes, we obtained 602 (57.83%) diurnal records, 313 (30.07%) nocturnal records, and 126 (12.10%) crepuscular records. Record frequency across the periods throughout the 24 h varied significantly ($\chi^2_{(2)} = 331.47, p < 0.001$); diurnal records were greater than expected by chance (*post hoc* $\chi^2_{(1)} = 25.52, p < 0.001$). For gray foxes, we obtained 37 (7.01%) diurnal records, 409 (77.46%) nocturnal records, and 82 (15.53%) crepuscular records. As in the previous case, record frequency across the periods throughout the 24 h varied significantly ($\chi^2_{(2)} = 468.44, p < 0.001$); nocturnal records were greater than expected by chance for the comparison (*post hoc* $\chi^2_{(1)} = 159.28, p < 0.001$).

Overall daily activity pattern for coyotes was not uniform (Rao’s test; $U = 158.75, p < 0.001$), it displayed two activity peaks (bimodal) during the daylight period which occurred after sunrise and before sunset; coyotes showed lesser activity at noon and during the night period, shortly after midnight (Figure 2). Regarding gray foxes, the overall daily activity pattern was not uniform (Rao’s test; $U = 203.02, p < 0.001$) and it was also bimodal, with two main activity peaks: the first one -which was greater- occurred during the night period before morning twilight, and the second one occurred at the end of evening twilight and the beginning of night period; gray foxes drastically restricted its activity during daylight period (Figure 2). The overall daily activity patterns from both species differed significantly (MWW; $W = 373.83, d. f. = 2, p < 0.001$), and their overlap index was $A_4 = 0.49$ (CI; 0.45–0.53), which we classified as low (Figure 2). Overall daily activity levels of coyotes were $Act = 0.60$ (CI; 0.52–0.67); they were

higher and differed significantly (Wald test; Dif. = 0.23, $W = 22.44$, $p < 0.001$) from those of gray foxes: Act = 0.37 (CI; 0.31–0.42). That is, we detected an important segregation in the temporal niche between both species.

For both species, data distribution for the daily activity patterns was not uniform for any of the biological seasons (Table 1). On one hand, coyotes displayed slight variations across biological seasons; in general, the first activity peak remained shortly after sunrise, while the second one was variable before sunset and around evening twilight (Figure 3). There was no evidence of significant differences between the daily activity patterns of coyotes among breeding, gestation, and dispersal seasons; however, the pup-rearing season showed significant differences compared with the rest of the biological seasons (Table 1; Figure 3). In the case of gray foxes, there was no evidence of significant differences among daily activity patterns throughout biological seasons (Table 1; Figure 3); regardless of the biological season, the first activity peak occurred during the nocturnal period before morning twilight, while the second activity peak showed slight variation between the end of the evening twilight and a short time before midnight (Figure 3). The overlap of daily activity patterns between both species was intermediate during breeding season ($\Delta_4 = 0.56$; CI 0.48–0.65), but it was low during all other biological seasons (Figure 4): gestation, $\Delta_4 = 0.50$ (CI 0.43–0.59); independence-dispersal, $\Delta_4 = 0.47$ (CI 0.41–0.54); and pup-rearing, $\Delta_4 = 0.44$ (IC 0.36–0.51). Daily activity levels for coyotes ranged from Act = 0.48 (CI 0.35–0.63) to Act = 0.61 (CI 0.47–0.71), while for the gray foxes they ranged from Act = 0.35 (CI 0.25–0.42) to Act = 0.40 (CI 0.31–0.43; Table 2). For both species, there were no significant differences in the comparison of intraspecific daily activity levels among biological periods; however, there were interspecific significant differences because, in general, coyote's daily activity levels were higher than those estimated for gray foxes (Table 2).

Temporal co-occurrence

Probabilistic co-occurrence analyses showed that the observed frequency of co-occurrence of coyotes and gray foxes was not different from the expected frequency, both for the overall data and most of the biological seasons; this indicated that both species co-occurred independently of each other (random pattern) except in dispersal season when the co-occurrence pattern was positive (Table 3).

Time to encounter

We observed a minimum time to encounter median of 21.56 days ($n = 867$) for gray foxes after the detection of coyotes (i.e., coyotes-gray foxes), and a median of 7.37 days ($n = 449$) for coyotes after the detection of

gray foxes (i.e., gray foxes-coyotes). In both cases, the observed time to encounter median and the medians of the random permutations did not differ significantly: coyotes-gray foxes, $p = 0.74$; and gray foxes-coyotes, $p = 0.52$ (Figure 5). Therefore, no behavioral fine-scale spatiotemporal segregation was detected.

DISCUSSION

Intensive sampling with camera traps provided plentiful information for a detailed understanding of the spatiotemporal interactions between coyotes and gray foxes by examining mechanisms by which these sympatric species coexist in temperate forests. Through the temporal partitioning approach, we found low activity overlap and therefore temporal segregation pattern between coyotes and gray foxes (Figure 2). In contrast, through the spatiotemporal approach, neither co-occurrence nor segregation patterns between species were detected by the temporal co-occurrence analyses (Table 3) and we even found that these species lacked avoidance behavior according to the time-to-encounter analysis (Figure 5). In conclusion, we found that ecological segregation occurred in the temporal niche of coyotes and gray foxes, and not in the spatiotemporal niche; therefore, temporal segregation presents itself as a mechanism that facilitates the coexistence between these species.

Coyotes have been described to exhibit multiple periods of activity throughout the day with mainly crepuscular and nocturnal activity along its distribution range (Bekoff 1977; Andelt and Gipson 1979; Andelt 1985; Gese et al. 1996; Gese and Bekoff 2004; Young et al. 2006; Servín et al. 2014b). However, here we determined that the daily activity pattern of coyotes was predominantly diurnal (Figure 2), therefore daily activity pattern appears to be context dependent. Daily activity patterns change seasonally, or in response to human disturbance and persecution (Kitchen et al. 2000). In places with significant human presence, coyotes tend to be mainly nocturnal to reduce encounters with humans, whereas in places with limited or no anthropogenic disturbance coyotes tend to be more active during the daylight period (List 1998; Kitchen et al. 2000; McClennen et al. 2001; Way et al. 2004; Lendrum et al. 2017). We thus consider that the diurnal activity pattern of coyotes in the study area reflects the positive effect of conservation programs implemented in the MBR-protected area, where anthropogenic activities are limited, and the human presence is reduced. Additionally, the diurnal activity patterns displayed by the sampled coyotes can be explained by the mesopredator release effect (Crooks and Soulé 1999; Prugh et al. 2009). For instance, mesopredators can develop behavioral adaptations that include an expansion of their daily activity patterns in the absence of top predators (Hudgens and Garcelon 2011). This behavioral adaptation by coyotes has been

demonstrated in areas where wolves (*Canis lupus*) have been reintroduced, as they represent dominant predators (Switalski 2003). Thus, in places where both canids coexist, the daily activity patterns of coyotes turn to be predominantly nocturnal (Arjo and Pletscher 1999) to avoid competitive interactions and the risk of mortality associated with wolves (Atwood and Gese 2008; Merkle et al. 2009; Miller et al. 2012). An important factor to consider in our study is that coyotes do not have to avoid competitive interactions with two top predators that have been extirpated from the temperate forests in the MBR region: the Mexican gray wolf (*Canis lupus baileyi*) and the black bear (*Ursus americanus*) both extirpated in the 1970s (Ceballos and Navarro 1991; Delfin-Alfonso et al. 2011). However, it is not possible to probe this hypothesis because there is no available data on the daily activity patterns of these species before the extirpation. When we analyzed seasonally, daily activity patterns of coyotes were similar during three of the four biological periods and there was no evidence of significant differences among breeding, gestation, and dispersal seasons. However, during the pup-rearing season, the daily activity pattern of coyotes was significantly different from the daily activity patterns of the rest of the seasons because the coyotes displayed their highest rate of diurnal activity of the year (Figure 3). The increase in diurnal activity during this period is related to reproductive behavior; namely: females entering oestrus, triggering the active search for a mate, courtship behavior, large increase in aggressive behavior, long-distance traveling displayed to provide enough food for pup rearing (Bekoff 1977; Bekoff and Wells 1980; Sevín et al. 2003).

The daily activity pattern of the gray foxes was nocturnal (Figure 2), as has been reported for this species throughout its distribution in North America (Fritzell and Haroldson 1982; Harrison 1997; Fedriani et al. 2000; Fuller and Cypher 2004; Fariás et al. 2012; Servín and Chacón 2014; Gómez-Ortiz et al. 2019). Evidence supporting the nocturnal activity pattern of gray foxes shows that the presence and abundance of superior competitors limit gray fox abundance and daily activity pattern frame (e.g., Crooks and Soulé 1999; Henke and Bryant 1999; Hudgens and Garcelon 2011). We observed that daily activity patterns of gray foxes were consistent throughout the biological seasons and there was no evidence of substantial changes (Figure 3), even though slight variations were observed in activity peak around evening twilight between periods.

The overlap between the daily activity patterns of coyotes and gray foxes was low (Figure 2), which indicates temporal niche segregation. Although overall temporal niche segregation between both canids was incomplete, it was evident during the daylight period. If we consider that the size of the species involved in the competition process determines the results of competitive interactions, then larger carnivores will dominate smaller

carnivores (Polis et al. 1989; Donadio and Buskirk 2006; Wallach et al. 2015). Therefore, gray foxes avoid lethal encounters with coyotes through temporal niche segregation, because coyotes can kill sympatric species of foxes to reduce interspecific competition (Cypher and Spencer 1998; Sovada et al. 1998; Kitchen et al. 1999; Fariás et al. 2012; Cherry et al. 2016). We found a similar species overlap in daily activity throughout almost all biological seasons (Figure 4), except in the breeding season when the overlap was intermediate (56%). During breeding season both species are actively searching for mates and courtship behaviors that may promote temporal overlap are taking place (Bekoff 1977; Bekoff and Wells 1986; Servín et al. 2003). On the other hand, during the pup-rearing season, the lowest overlap proportion (44%) was shown, when both canids are dedicated to caring for and feeding their litters and females spend a greater amount of time around their dens, traveling with pups across their home ranges (Nicholson et al. 1985; Bekoff and Wells 1980; Servín and Huxley 1995; Chamberlain and Leopold 2002; Gese and Bekoff 2004; Fuller and Cypher 2004; Servín et al. 2003).

Overall daily activity levels of the coyotes far exceeded those of the gray foxes. The proportion of the day that coyotes remain active was 60% (14.40 h) in contrast to gray foxes which was 37% (8.88 h) of the day. The coyote daily activity level estimated here was within the range reported for the species (38%–67%) in Eastern Connecticut (O'Connor and Rittenhouse 2017). In contrast, the daily activity levels of gray foxes that we estimated were much lower than the values reported for Southern California (56%–60%) estimated by radiotelemetry (Fariás et al. 2012). Differences in daily activity levels between both species constitute a behavioral response by gray foxes to avoid agonistic encounters with coyotes. By avoiding activity during the daylight period and therefore spending less time active, gray foxes have a lower probability of agonistic encounters with coyotes and thus can reduce intraguild predation.

Our study represents the first attempt to describe fine-scale spatiotemporal segregation between coyotes and gray foxes. We demonstrated that coyotes and gray foxes co-occurred independently of each other (random co-occurrence pattern) and neither spatiotemporal partitioning pattern nor avoidance behavior was shown by the species in the temperate forests under the current study (Table 3; Figure 5). Our findings coincide with broader-scale spatial interaction patterns since the absence of spatial segregation between both species was demonstrated with radiotelemetry data (i.e., Neale and Sacks 2001; Chamberlain and Leopold 2005; Rodríguez-Luna et al. 2021a). However, it is important to note that there is also evidence of clear spatial segregation patterns between both species

that are explained by interference competition since gray foxes spatially avoided coyotes as a means of decreasing predation risk (Fedriani et al. 2000; Farías et al. 2012).

Although we did not identify all factors involved, coexistence between coyotes and gray foxes can be also facilitated by segregation among different ecological niche dimensions. Ecological segregation strategies include differentiated habitat use (Neale and Sacks 2001; Rodríguez-Luna et al. 2021a), differences in prey type, consumption frequency, and niche breadth (trophic segregation; Delibes et al. 1989; Fedriani et al. 2000; Cunningham et al. 2006; Rodríguez-Luna et al. 2021b).

Our findings about the spatiotemporal interactions between coyotes and gray foxes provide evidence that the temporal niche segregation represents one of the main ecological strategies that facilitate their coexistence and therefore promotes their sympatry in the temperate forests of Mexico.

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TABLES

543 **Table 1.** Rao's spacing test of uniformity and intraspecific–interspecific variations in daily activity patterns of
 544 coyotes and gray foxes among biological periods in 2018, evaluated by Mardia-Watson-Wheeler test (MWW), in
 545 temperate forests in La Michilía Biosphere Reserve (MBR), Durango, México.

		Coyotes				Gray foxes			
		Breeding <i>n</i> = 213	Gestation <i>n</i> = 252	Pup-rearing <i>n</i> = 341	Dispersal <i>n</i> = 235	Breeding <i>n</i> = 80	Gestation <i>n</i> = 100	Pup-rearing <i>n</i> = 88	Dispersal <i>n</i> = 260
		Rao's test <i>U</i> = 164.91 <i>p</i> < 0.001	Rao's test <i>U</i> = 151.03 <i>p</i> < 0.001	Rao's test <i>U</i> = 160.61 <i>p</i> < 0.001	Rao's test <i>U</i> = 171.65 <i>p</i> < 0.001	Rao's test <i>U</i> = 220.69 <i>p</i> < 0.001	Rao's test <i>U</i> = 215.62 <i>p</i> < 0.001	Rao's test <i>U</i> = 205.12 <i>p</i> < 0.001	Rao's test <i>U</i> = 211.08 <i>p</i> < 0.001
Coyotes	Breeding	---							
	Gestation	<i>W</i> = 2.19 <i>p</i> = 0.33	---						
	Pup-rearing	<i>W</i> = 20.45 <i>p</i> < 0.001*	<i>W</i> = 8.03 <i>p</i> = 0.02*	---					
	Dispersal	<i>W</i> = 3.66 <i>p</i> = 0.16	<i>W</i> = 1.10 <i>p</i> = 0.58	<i>W</i> = 14.54 <i>p</i> < 0.001*	---				
Gray foxes	Breeding	<i>W</i> = 63.55 <i>p</i> < 0.001*	<i>W</i> = 59.67 <i>p</i> < 0.001*	<i>W</i> = 101.45 <i>p</i> < 0.001*	<i>W</i> = 71.28 <i>p</i> < 0.001*	---			
	Gestation	<i>W</i> = 47.94 <i>p</i> < 0.001*	<i>W</i> = 55.53 <i>p</i> < 0.001*	<i>W</i> = 100.90 <i>p</i> < 0.001*	<i>W</i> = 67.48 <i>p</i> < 0.001*	<i>W</i> = 3.51 <i>P</i> = 0.17	---		
	Pup-rearing	<i>W</i> = 54.40 <i>p</i> < 0.001*	<i>W</i> = 64.25 <i>p</i> < 0.001*	<i>W</i> = 97.69 <i>p</i> < 0.001*	<i>W</i> = 75.88 <i>p</i> < 0.001*	<i>W</i> = 0.83 <i>P</i> = 0.66	<i>W</i> = 1.31 <i>P</i> = 0.52	---	
	Dispersal	<i>W</i> = 84.50 <i>p</i> < 0.001*	<i>W</i> = 102.82 <i>p</i> < 0.001*	<i>W</i> = 204.90 <i>p</i> < 0.001*	<i>W</i> = 121.97 <i>p</i> < 0.001*	<i>W</i> = 1.08 <i>P</i> = 0.58	<i>W</i> = 1.46 <i>P</i> = 0.48	<i>W</i> = 1.23 <i>P</i> = 0.54	---

546 Sample size is denoted with *n* symbol. The degrees of freedom for all MWW tests were equal to 2. *Significant
 547 differences ($\alpha = 0.05$) are indicated in bold.

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Table 2. Wald test for intraspecific and interspecific variations in activity levels of coyotes and gray foxes in 2018 among biological periods in temperate forests in La Michilía Biosphere Reserve (MBR), Durango, México.

		Coyotes				Gray foxes			
		Breeding Act = 0.48 (0.35–0.63)	Gestation Act = 0.61 (0.47–0.71)	Pup-rearing Act = 0.52 (0.41–0.64)	Dispersal Act = 0.57 (0.44–0.66)	Breeding Act = 0.40 (0.27–0.44)	Gestation Act = 0.35 (0.25–0.42)	Pup-rearing Act = 0.35 (0.25–0.43)	Dispersal Act = 0.40 (0.31–0.43)
Coyotes	Breeding Act = 0.48 (0.35–0.63)	---							
	Gestation Act = 0.61 (0.47–0.71)	$W = 1.95$ $Dif = -0.13$ $p = 0.16$	---						
	Pup-rearing Act = 0.52 (0.41–0.64)	$W = 0.18$ $Dif = -0.04$ $p = 0.67$	$W = 1.20$ $Dif = 0.09$ $p = 0.27$	---					
	Dispersal Act = 0.57 (0.44–0.66)	$W = 0.94$ $Dif = -0.09$ $p = 0.33$	$W = 0.27$ $Dif = 0.04$ $p = 0.60$	$W = 0.37$ $Dif = -0.05$ $p = 0.54$	---				
Gray foxes	Breeding Act = 0.40 (0.27–0.44)	$W = 0.91$ $Dif = 0.08$ $p = 0.34$	$W = 8.16$ $Dif = 0.22$ $p < 0.01^*$	$W = 2.78$ $Dif = 0.12$ $p = 0.05^*$	$W = 5.80$ $Dif = 0.17$ $p = 0.01^*$	---			
	Gestation Act = 0.35 (0.25–0.42)	$W = 2.18$ $Dif = 0.13$ $p = 0.14$	$W = 11.70$ $Dif = 0.26$ $p < 0.001^*$	$W = 5.13$ $Dif = 0.17$ $p = 0.02^*$	$W = 9.06$ $Dif = 0.22$ $p < 0.01^*$	$W = 0.56$ $Dif = 0.04$ $p = 0.45$	---		
	Pup-rearing Act = 0.35 (0.25–0.43)	$W = 2.00$ $Dif = 0.12$ $p = 0.16$	$W = 10.99$ $Dif = 0.26$ $p < 0.001^*$	$W = 4.73$ $Dif = 0.16$ $p = 0.03^*$	$W = 8.43$ $Dif = 0.21$ $p < 0.01^*$	$W = 0.45$ $Dif = 0.04$ $p = 0.50$	$W = 0.01$ $Dif = -0.01$ $p = 0.95$	---	
	Dispersal Act = 0.40 (0.31–0.43)	$W = 0.90$ $Dif = 0.08$ $p = 0.34$	$W = 9.10$ $Dif = 0.21$ $p < 0.01^*$	$W = 3.03$ $Dif = 0.12$ $p = 0.05^*$	$W = 6.54$ $Dif = 0.17$ $p = 0.01^*$	$W = 0.01$ $Dif = -0.04$ $p = 0.92$	$W = 0.89$ $Dif = -0.05$ $p = 0.34$	$W = 0.71$ $Dif = -0.05$ $p = 0.71$	---

Activity level is denoted by “Act” and 95% confidence intervals are shown in parentheses. *Significant differences ($\alpha = 0.05$) are indicated in bold.

Table 3. Co-occurrence probabilistic analysis between coyotes and gray foxes, for 2018 overall data and by biological seasons, in temperate forests in La Michilia Biosphere Reserve (RBM), Durango, Mexico.

Comparison level	Observed co-occurrence	Expected co-occurrence	P_{lt}	P_{gt}	Pattern
Overall	33.00	32.98	1.00	0.99	Random
<i>Biological season</i>					
Breeding	14.00	12.10	0.94	0.18	Random
Gestation	6.00	6.00	0.67	0.66	Random
Pup-rearing	9.00	7.40	0.97	0.19	Random
Dispersal	28.00	23.60	0.99	0.001*	Positive

P_{lt} and P_{gt} represents respectively the probability that the two species would co-occur at a frequency smaller and greater than the observed frequency. $P_{lt} < 0.05$ indicates partitioning, $P_{gt} < 0.05$ indicates co-occurrence, and p values ≥ 0.05 of these parameters indicates that species occurred independently from each other (random pattern).

*Significant differences ($\alpha = 0.05$) are indicated in bold.

FIGURE CAPTIONS

Fig. 1 Camera-traps arrangement (black squares) in La Michilía Biosphere Reserve (MBR), Durango, Mexico. MBR buffer zone is denoted with black solid line, MBR core zone is denoted with black dashed line, and contour lines (15 m) are denoted with thin gray solid lines

Fig. 2 Daily activity patterns and overlap (dark grey area) between coyotes (yellow line) and gray foxes (light gray line) in 2018 in temperate forests in La Michilía Biosphere Reserve (MBR), Durango, Mexico. Confidence intervals (95%) of the Δ_4 overlap index value are indicated in parentheses. The light gray area indicates morning and evening twilight periods

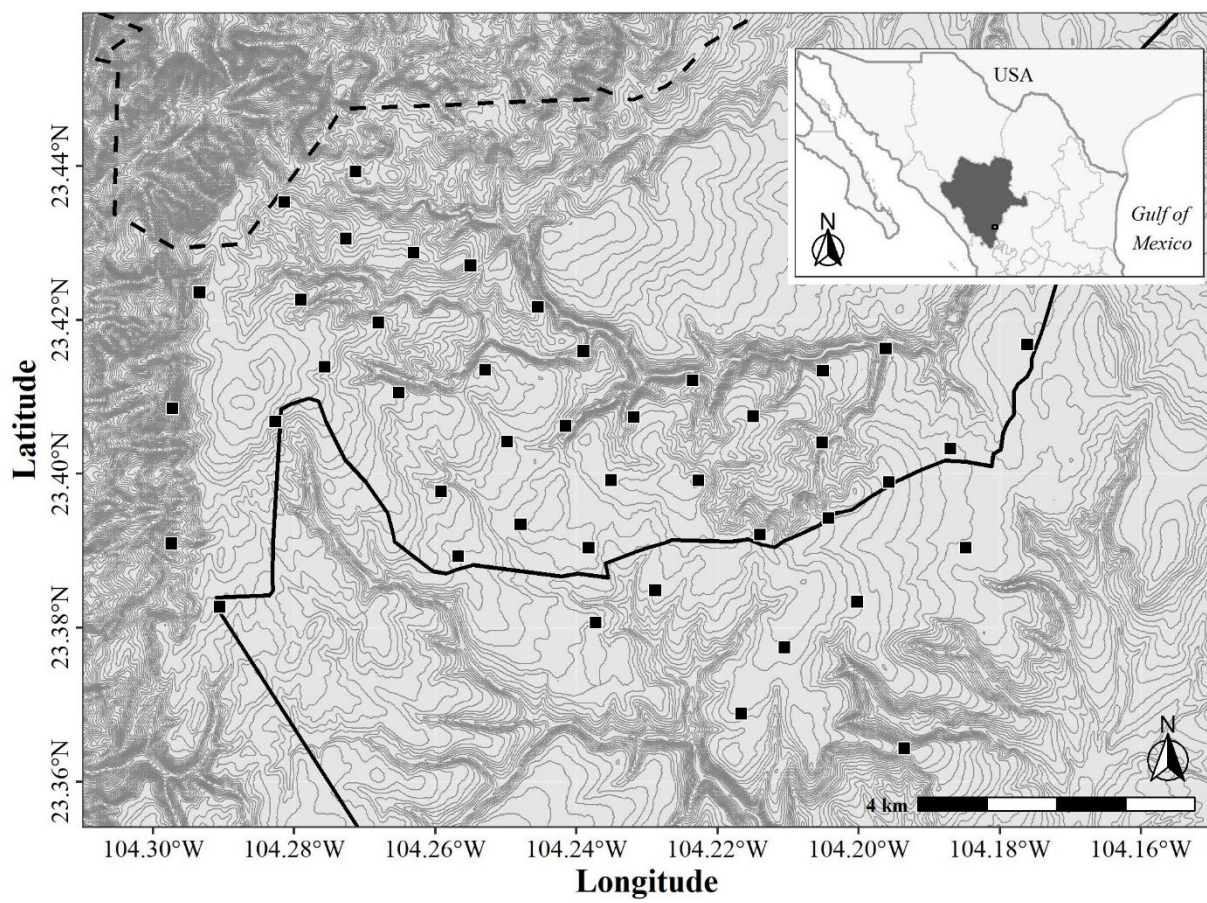
Fig. 3 Daily activity patterns of coyotes (a) and gray foxes (b) through biological seasons in 2018 in temperate forests in La Michilía Biosphere Reserve (MBR), Durango, Mexico. Light gray area indicates morning and evening twilight periods

Fig. 4 Daily activity patterns and overlap (dark grey area), through biological seasons in 2018, between coyotes (yellow line) and gray foxes (light gray line) in temperate forests in La Michilía Biosphere Reserve (MBR), Durango, Mexico. Biological seasons are denoted as follows: a) breeding, b) gestation, c) pup-rearing, and d) dispersal

Fig. 5 Multi response permutation procedures (MRPP) for time-to encounter analysis between coyotes and gray foxes in 2018 in temperate forests in La Michilía Biosphere Reserve (MBR), Durango, Mexico. Coyotes-Gray foxes (a) represents that gray foxes were detected after coyotes, and Gray foxes-Coyotes (b) represents the opposite case. The number of the observed time-to-encounter is denoted with n . The dashed vertical lines represent the observed median minimum time-to-encounter between the two species, while the rug plot represents the 10,000 medians of the random permutations and the area under the curve represents the distribution estimated from them. The p -values indicate the proportion of times the randomly generated median values was larger than the observed median

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FIGURES



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586 Fig. 1

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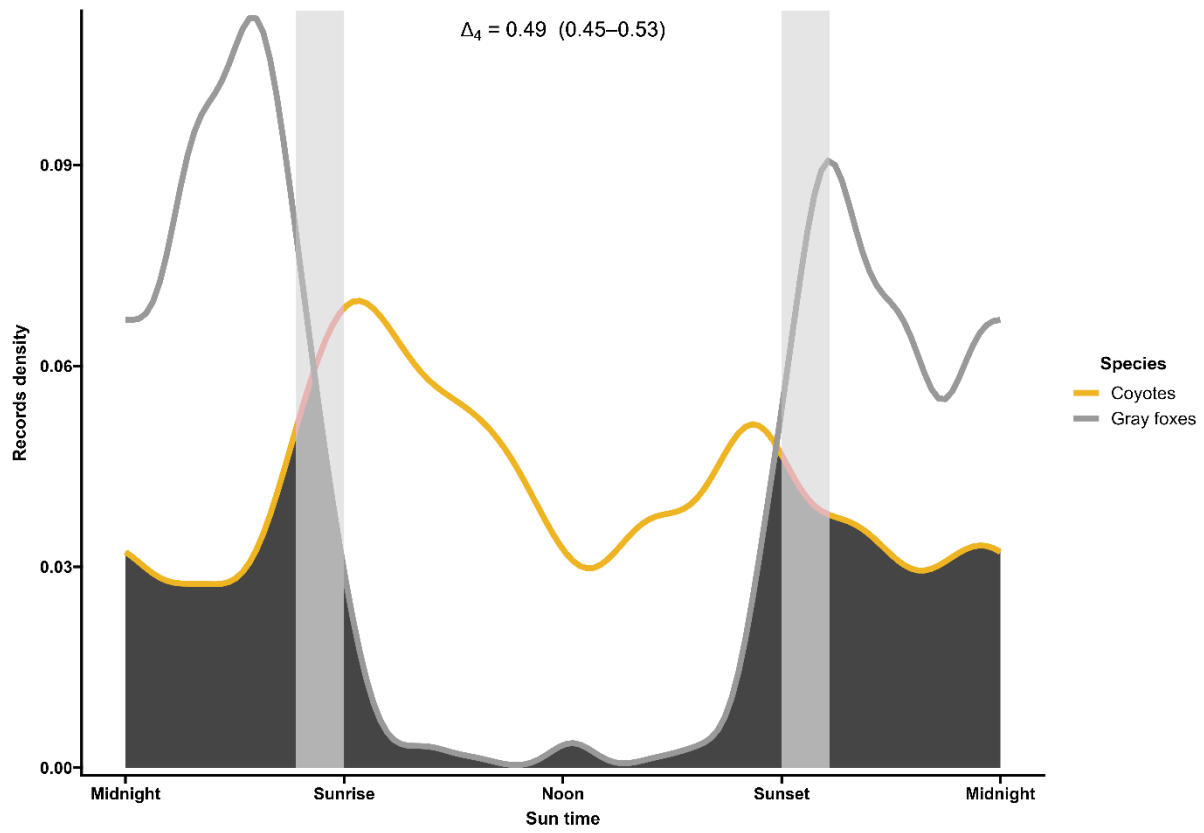


Fig. 2

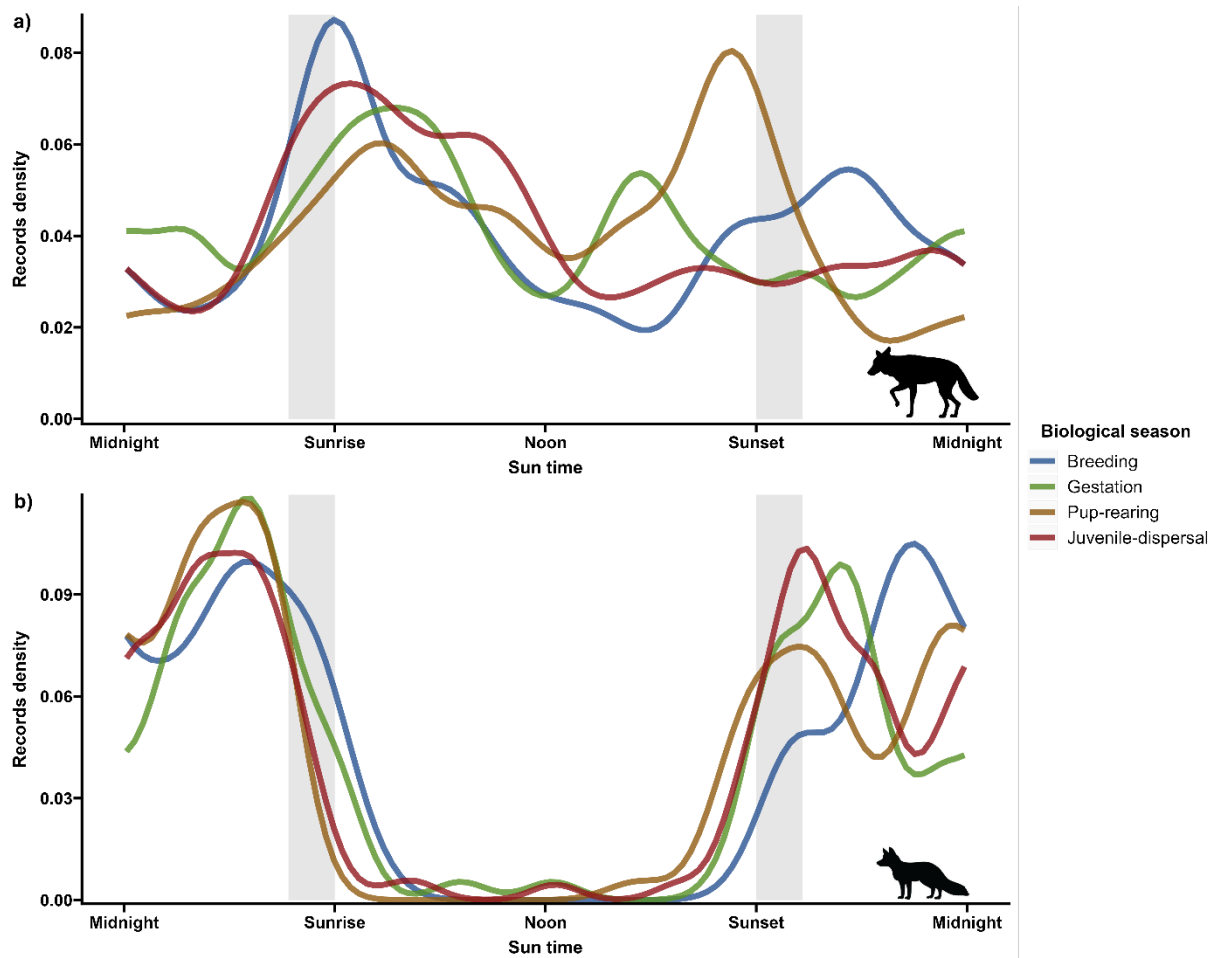


Fig. 3

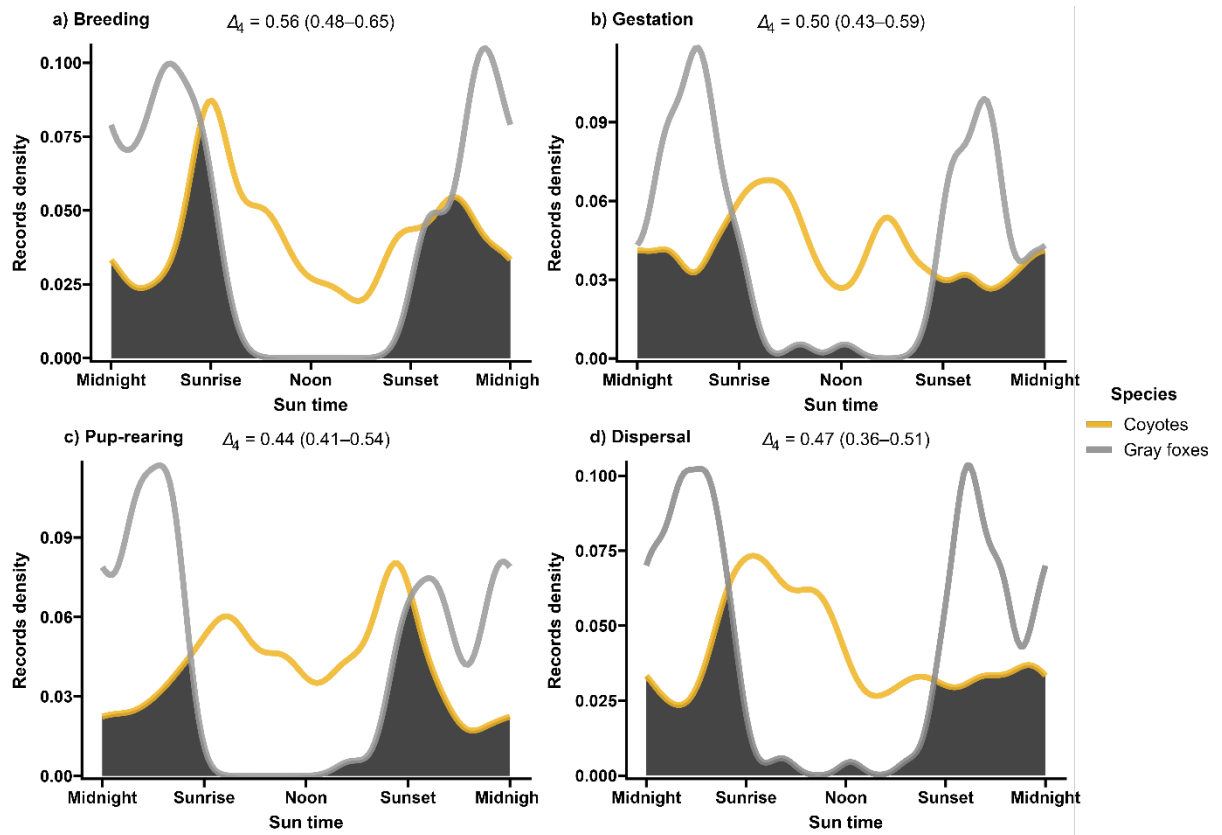


Fig. 4

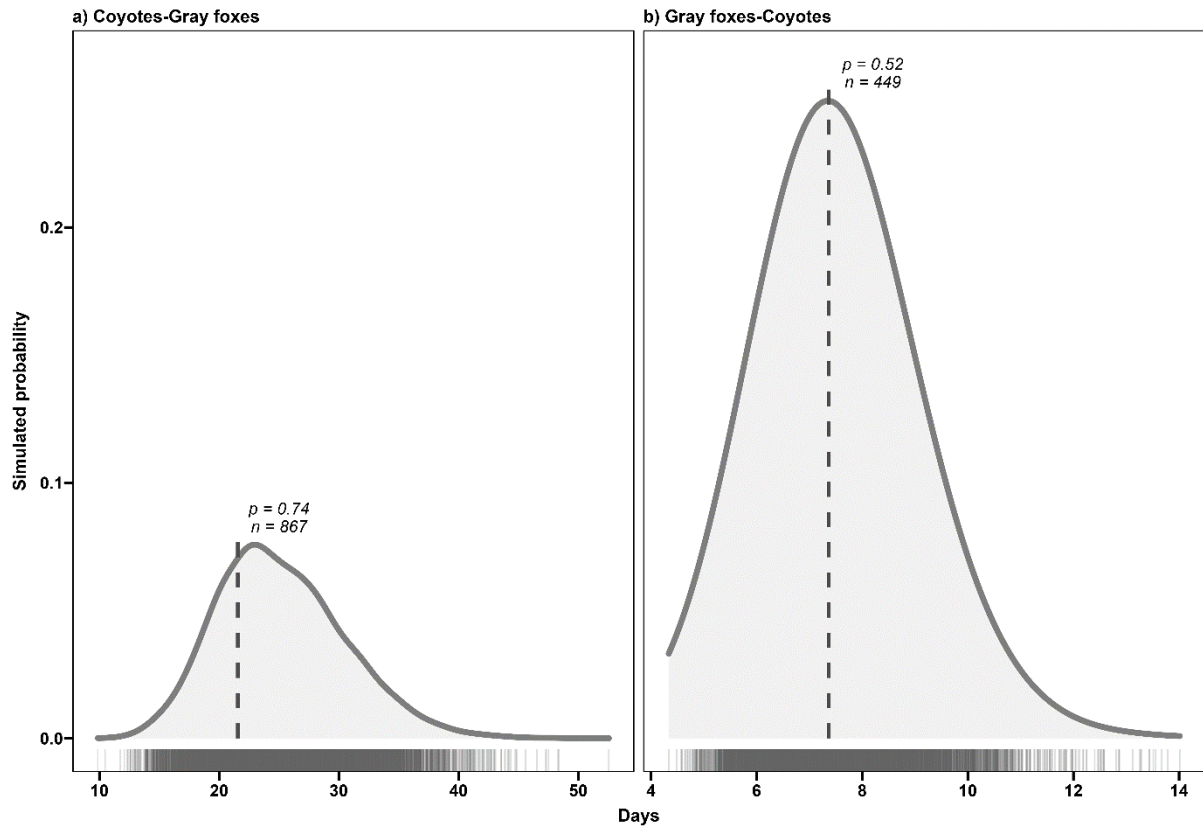


Fig. 5