

ARTICLE

Interacting lethal and nonlethal human activities shape complex risk tolerance behaviors in a mountain herbivore

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Abstract

Animals perceive human activities as risky and generally respond with fear-induced proactive behaviors to buffer the circadian patterns of lethal and nonlethal disturbances, such as diel migrations (DMs) between risky places during safe nighttime and safer places during risky daytime. However, such responses potentially incur costs through movement or reduced foraging time, so individuals should adjust their tolerance when human activities are harmless, through habituation. Yet this is a challenging cognitive task when lethal and nonlethal risks co-occur, forming complex landscapes of fear. The consequences of this human-induced complexity have, however, rarely been assessed. We studied the individual DM dynamics of chamois (*Rupicapra rupicapra rupicapra*), 89 GPS-tracked individual-years, from/to trails in the French Alps in areas with co-occurring lethal (hunting) and nonlethal (hiking and skiing) disturbances, with different intensities across seasons. We developed a conceptual framework relying on the risk-disturbance hypothesis and habituation to predict tolerance adjustments of chamois under various disturbance contexts and across contrasted seasonal periods. Based on spatial and statistical analyses combining periodograms and multinomial logistic models, we found that DM in relation to distance to a trail was a consistent response by chamois (~85% of individuals) to avoid human disturbance during daytime, especially during the hiking and hunting periods. Such behavior revealed a low tolerance of most chamois to human activities, although there was considerable interindividual heterogeneity in DM. Interestingly, there was an increased tolerance among the most disturbed diel migrants, potentially through habituation, with chamois performing shorter DMs in areas highly disturbed by hikers. Crucially, chamois that were most human-habituated during the hiking period remained more tolerant in the subsequent harvesting period, which could increase their risk of being harvested. In contrast, individuals less tolerant to hiking performed longer DMs when hunting risk increased, and compared to hiking, hunting exacerbated the threshold distance to trails triggering DMs. No carryover effect of hunting beyond the hunting period was observed. In conclusion, complex human-induced landscapes of fear with co-occurring disturbances by nature-based tourism and hunting may shape unexpected patterns of tolerance to human activities, whereby animal tolerance could become potentially deleterious for individual survival.

KEYWORDS

behavioral plasticity, chamois, diel migration, French Alps, hunting, landscape of fear, nature-based tourism, *Rupicapra rupicapra rupicapra*, trail network

INTRODUCTION

The direct effect of human exploitation on animal survival has led to anthropogenic defaunation with direct consequences for ecosystem functioning worldwide (Dirzo et al., 2014). However, wildlife suffers also from the expansion of human activities in natural areas and from the resulting disturbance, defined as the deviation from the behavior an animal would have engaged in without human influences (Frid & Dill, 2002; Sih et al., 2010; Tuomainen & Candolin, 2011). Indeed, human activities can affect animals indirectly by increasing their nocturnality (Bonnot et al., 2020; Gaynor et al., 2018; Marchand et al., 2014), reducing their movement range (Tucker et al., 2018), and altering their space use and access to food (Ciach & Pęksa, 2019; Harris et al., 2014; Richard & Côté, 2016; Sawyer et al., 2017). Similarly to the nonconsumptive risk effects of predation (Creel, 2018; Lima, 1998; Preisser et al., 2005; Say-Sallaz et al., 2019), such human-induced behavioral changes can cascade to population dynamic components (Frid & Dill, 2002; Gaynor et al., 2018; Lesmerises et al., 2017; Sawyer et al., 2017) and disrupt food web dynamic processes, such as herbivory, intra- and interspecific competition, and predator-prey interactions (Courbin et al., 2014; Fahrig, 2007; Gaynor et al., 2019; Guiden et al., 2019; Tuomainen & Candolin, 2011).

Nature-based tourism, defined as visitation to a natural destination for recreational harmless activities (e.g., hiking, skiing), has increased tremendously in recent decades (Balmford et al., 2015; Newsome, 2014). It creates nonlethal disturbances that can impact animal populations through multiple pathways (reviewed in Tablado & Jenni [2017] and Wolf et al. [2019]), with animals often perceiving nonlethal human disturbances as a predation risk (Frid & Dill, 2002; Gaynor et al., 2019). The risk-disturbance hypothesis stipulates that “predation and nonlethal disturbance stimuli create similar trade-offs between avoiding perceived risk and other fitness-enhancing activities” (Frid & Dill, 2002). It formalizes the concept that fear effects can have important cascading effects on individual behavior and demography (Brown et al., 1999; Gaynor et al., 2019; Laundré et al., 2001) and may even exceed those from direct predation or harvest effects (Ciuti et al., 2012; Creel & Christianson, 2008). Such fear effects, though far from being easy to document (Say-Sallaz et al., 2019), especially when they affect behavior, are nonetheless receiving an increasing

level of empirical support (Frid & Dill, 2002; Tablado & Jenni, 2017). Behavioral responses to fear can occur in the form of reactive responses, such as the well-studied flight response in reaction to humans (Blumstein, 2016; Stankowich, 2008), but also as proactive antipredator behaviors (Basille et al., 2015; Courbin et al., 2019; Creel, 2018; Gaynor et al., 2019; Marchand et al., 2014; Valeix et al., 2009). These proactive responses are more likely to arise when animals face a spatiotemporally predictable risk (Courbin et al., 2019; Creel, 2018; Kohl et al., 2018; Riotte-Lambert & Matthiopoulos, 2020), that is, within predictable landscapes of fear, where the *landscape of fear* is defined as the spatial variation in the perception of long-term risk (Laundré et al., 2001, 2010). Nature-based tourism, which typically occurs during daytime, in delimited areas and along trails, should therefore lead animals to adopt such proactive responses. Accordingly, changes in individual space use (e.g., Lesmerises et al., 2018; Thiel et al., 2008) and in day/night allocation of activities (e.g., Marchand et al., 2014; Pęksa & Ciach, 2018) have been revealed in several herbivore species in response to hiking and backcountry skiing. Ultimately, in such contexts, including spatially restricted and temporally predictable human disturbance, animals may perform movement tactics to decrease risks, such as diel migration (DM) (Courbin et al., 2019). This routine behavior allows animals to avoid the source of disturbance and stress-mediated costs associated with reactive behavior by using risky areas during the safer period (e.g., nighttime) and by moving away from the same spatially risky areas during risky times (e.g., daytime; Creel, 2018). The DM tactic was first conceptualized in aquatic systems as an antipredator behavior (Alonzo et al., 2003; Iwasa, 1982). More recently, DM was quantified in response to natural predation (Courbin et al., 2019) and has been observed in response to hunting (Bonnot et al., 2013; Fortin et al., 2015; Marchand et al., 2014; Tolon et al., 2009) and nature-based tourism (Lesmerises et al., 2017). The occurrence and extent of DM may therefore be a meaningful metric of proactive responses to highly predictable perceived risks in various ecological systems.

However, proactive responses to nature-based tourism may entail costs related to changes in movement, activity budget, energy expenditures, and lost foraging opportunities (see reviews in Frid & Dill [2002] and Tablado & Jenni [2017]). Spatial proactive responses that involve avoiding disturbed areas also prevent updates of the risk-level assessment, a potential damaging situation.

Therefore, adjustments of animal tolerance to the level of nonlethal risk are expected to minimize these costs (Enggist-Diiblin & Ingold, 2003; Samia et al., 2015; Sih, 2013) and allow coexistence with humans (Samia et al., 2015). An increased tolerance means a decreased reactivity to a stimulus. For example, animals may decrease their flight initiation distance (Reimers et al., 2010; Stankowich, 2008) and vigilance (Schuttler et al., 2017) in areas with high levels of human recreation. Animals may likewise increase their tolerance to repeated exposures to nonlethal anthropogenic stimuli through habituation, up to a certain level of disturbance intensity (Bejder et al., 2009; Blumstein, 2016; Frid & Dill, 2002; Geffroy et al., 2015; Figure 1a). Habituation

was originally defined in neuroscience in the seminal works of Thompson and Spencer (1966) and Groves and Thompson (1970) and recently reviewed in neuroscience by Rankin et al. (2009). It is a common and important response of animals to disturbance in the wild (Samia et al., 2015; e.g., Dehaudt et al., 2019) with a high degree of variability among individuals (Blumstein, 2016; Tablado & Jenni, 2017). Urbanization in birds is, for example, a severe case of increased tolerance to humans, potentially driven by habituation (Geffroy et al., 2020; Vincze et al., 2016). Yet identifying and measuring habituation in the field remains a challenging task (Bejder et al., 2009; Blumstein, 2016), especially in complex situations with multiple sources of risk and disturbance.

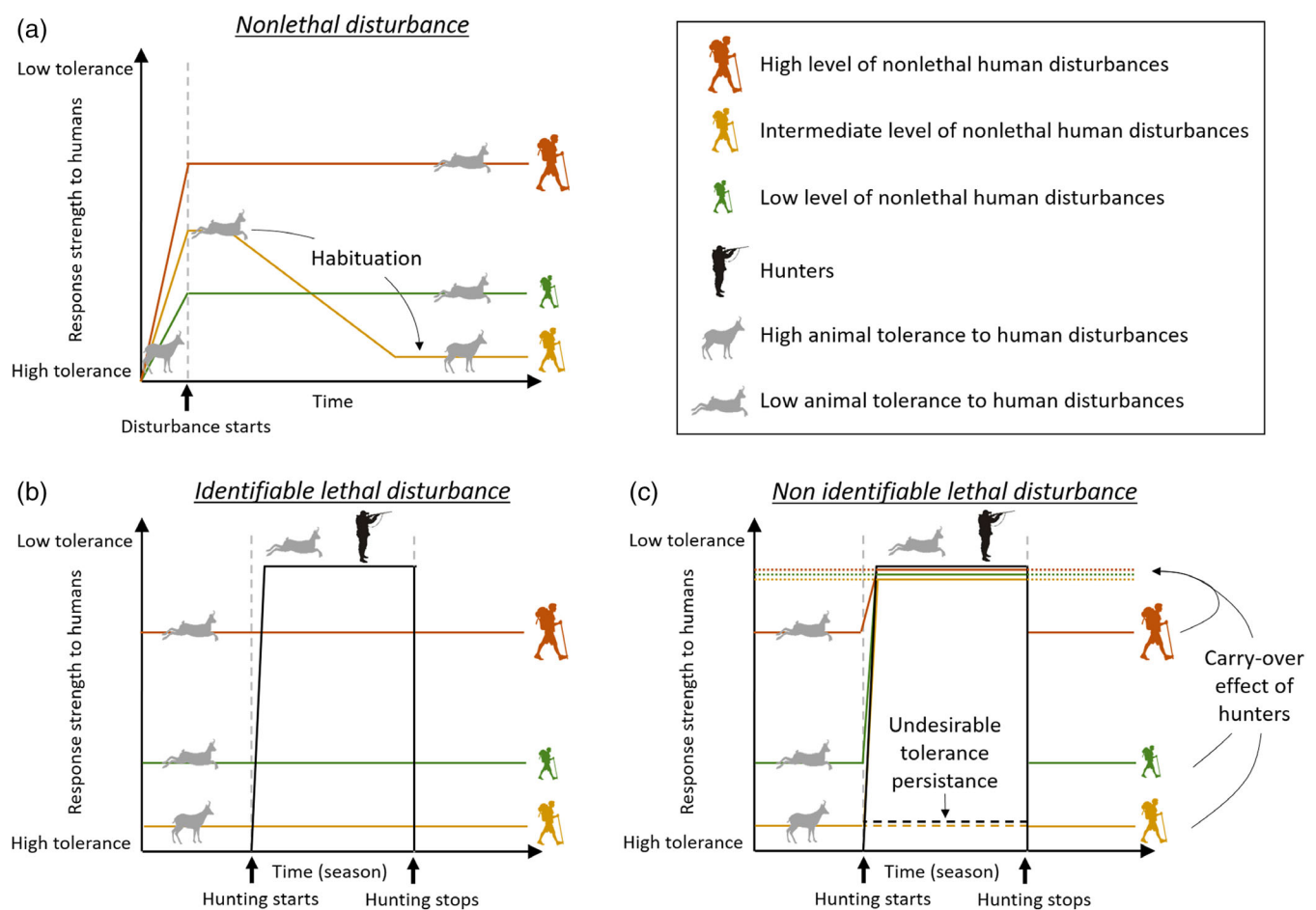


FIGURE 1 Conceptual schemes representing expected tolerance adjustments of animals to human activities. (a) Animals should respond to nonlethal human disturbance with higher intensity as the disturbance level increases; individuals experiencing an intermediate level of nonlethal disturbances are then expected to increase their tolerance (decreased responsiveness) to disturbances through habituation. (b) In a context that includes hunting, animals able to distinguish hunters from other humans would maintain a constant response to nonlethal disturbances at the basal level, expected along with habituation effects, and would be intolerant to hunters. (c) When animals cannot distinguish hunters from other recreationists, they would perceive a high global disturbance level and sharply decrease their tolerance during the hunting period, independently of their initial tolerance level, and then revert back to their basal tolerance level (solid line). Two alternative effects may occur. First, animals could maintain a low tolerance to nonlethal disturbances owing to carryover effects of hunters outside the hunting period (dotted line), and, second, tolerant and habituated animals may not perceive a sufficient significant increase in risk and maintain high tolerance to nature-based tourists and hunters during the hunting period (dashed line).

For instance, the perception of nonlethal disturbance risk may be largely altered in ecosystems subject to an important diversification and intensification of nature-based tourism year round, especially if it co-occurs with hunting. In such cases, the presence of a human can have both lethal and nonlethal consequences. The key question is, then, whether animals have the ability to assess the differences between humans performing different activities. If animals can distinguish hunters from other humans, they could specifically respond to hunting risk, while their tolerance for nonlethal disturbances would remain unchanged during the hunting period (Figure 1b). Alternatively, if animals cannot discern that the lethal risk is only associated with hunters and not with other recreationists, they would perceive an overall higher human disturbance level and increase their responsiveness to all human activities during the hunting period (Figure 1c, solid line). Outside the hunting period, animals may then either resume their basal tolerance level (solid line) or continue being wary of humans (Figure 1c, dotted line). Hunters may indeed trigger a carry-over effect inhibiting tolerance adjustments and habituation beyond restricted hunting periods. The consequences of hunting on animal tolerance and habituation to other types of human activities may therefore be largely underestimated (Frid & Dill, 2002; Gaynor et al., 2018). While there should be some benefits for individuals to tolerate and habituate to nonlethal risks, recent works have argued that, in contrast, the most tolerant and human-habituated individuals may lose their ability to respond to lethal risk (Geffroy et al., 2015). For instance, they may continue to relax their antipredator behavior even during the hunting period. Thus, undesirable tolerance to hunters may occur (Figure 1c, dashed line). Such a mechanism may have deleterious consequences for animal populations coping with the reintroduction of natural predators or experiencing short hunting periods (Geffroy et al., 2015, 2020).

Distinguishing nonlethal human stimuli and true predatory stimuli from hunting requires strong cognitive abilities that may exceed the capacities of hunted animals (Ciuti et al., 2012; Frid & Dill, 2002; Tablado & Jenni, 2017). Evidence shows that ungulates have evolved high capacities to finely assess the predation risk posed by their natural predators, including variation in the magnitude of risk (Liley & Creel, 2008). However, cues related to humans engaged in various lethal and nonlethal recreational activities may be more difficult for prey to interpret, especially if they co-occur in space and time and if animals have to constantly reassess the risk during daytime due to frequent human passage. Consequently, under some conditions (determined by the spatiotemporal variability of disturbance and the nature of activities), the human-induced landscape of fear may become too complex to decipher for animals. Given the increase in areas where nature-based tourism and hunting

co-occur, the additive or multiplicative outcome of the diversification of recreation activities on animal behavior needs to be investigated in a comprehensive way (Geffroy et al., 2015). Accordingly, we aimed here to assess individual responsiveness to predictable circadian patterns of nature-based tourism in a human-induced landscape of fear, complicated by hunting seasonality (e.g., Ciuti et al., 2012). We posit that studying the seasonal dynamics of individual DM tactics should help us to better understand how hunting shapes animal tolerance to nature-based tourism and highlight potential maladaptive tolerant behavior. Our model species was chamois (*Rupicapra rupicapra rupicapra*), a particularly relevant species to delve into the complexity of animal responses to human lethal and nonlethal disturbances because it faces nature-based tourism year round with an overlapping hunting period. Mountain ecosystems and associated fauna are particularly vulnerable to the increase in outdoor recreation (Pęksa & Ciach, 2015; Steven et al., 2011).

We benefited from a rare data set combining a fine characterization of recreational activities (hiking, skiing, and hunting) and intensity of human disturbances for three contrasted seasons (Appendix S1), together with an important long-term Global Positioning System (GPS) monitoring for 89 chamois-years. Human activities mostly occurred on a trail network that shaped a predictable daytime human-induced landscape of fear for chamois (Appendix S1). Within the framework outlined in Figure 1, we predicted the responses of chamois under alternative scenarios entailing the ability or inability of individuals to distinguish hunters from recreationists (Figure 1b or c), the presence or absence of a carryover effect of hunting, and the persistent tolerant behavior to hunters (Figure 1c). We then tested for (1) the existence of DM to buffer risk disturbance during different periods. Given that individuals varied in their exposure to risk, we expected individual differences in tolerance to humans and further assessed (2) how individuals adjusted their DM to the risk-disturbance context. We studied the determinants of both the DM tactic in relation to trails and the spatial extent of DM at the individual level, during and outside the hunting period. Finally, we assessed which scenario was best supported by our empirical results and discussed the value of different DM tactics based on an assessment of proxies of their costs.

METHODS

Study area

The study took place in the National Game and Wildlife Reserve of Bauges Massif (hereafter “Reserve”), located in the northern French Alps (45°40' N, 6°14' E, Figure 2)

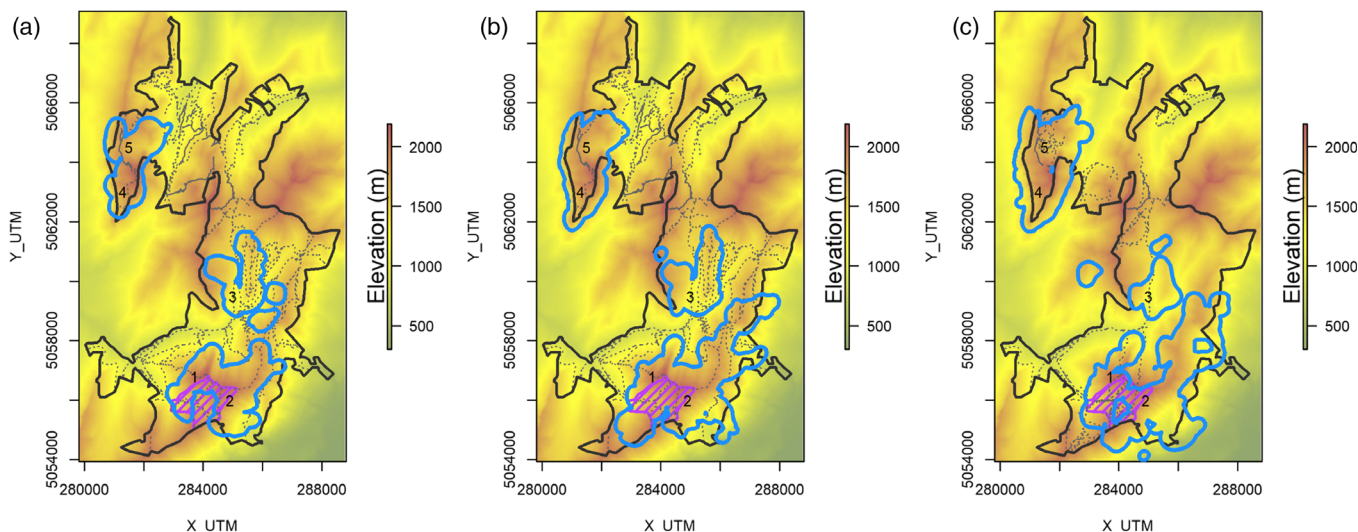


FIGURE 2 Study area delineated by National Game and Wildlife Reserve of Bauges Massif (solid black line). The trail network (dotted gray line), the areas used by chamois (overlap of individual home ranges [95% utilization distribution], solid blue line), and the area where hunting is forbidden (purple hatched zone) are shown for the (a) hiking, (b) hunting, and (c) skiing periods. Chamois were trapped within the Pécloz (1), Arménaz (2), Coutarse (3), Pleuven (4), and Charbonnet (5) sectors.

between 2014 and 2018. The Reserve covers 5200 ha of a mountain landscape with altitude varying from 900 to 2200 m. Landscape cover is a compound of forests (56%) dominated by beech (*Fagus sylvatica*) and fir (*Abies alba*), alpine grasslands (36%), and rocky areas (8%) (Lopez, 2001). Chamois feed in grasslands characterized by heterogeneous levels of biomass and quality of edible plants (Duparc et al., 2020). Biomass and quality of edible resources were generally low close to trails (see details in Appendix S2). Chamois had no natural predators in the study area during the study period, except for golden eagles (*Aquila chrysaetos*) and red foxes (*Vulpes vulpes*), which may predate newborns, and occasional non resident wolf (*Canis lupus*). Chamois is the main hunted species within the Reserve (70% of the total number of ungulates harvested), with, on average, 104 chamois shot every year since 2006 over the 4900-ha area. Hunting is performed by small parties of three to four hunters. Mouflon (*Ovis gmelini musimon*, 20%), roe deer (*Capreolus capreolus*, 4%), wild boar (*Sus scrofa*, 4%) and red deer (*Cervus elaphus*, 2%) are also hunted within the Reserve.

In addition to hunting, hiking and backcountry skiing are common recreational activities within the Reserve. We delimited three periods associated with specific sources and levels of human disturbances: (1) the hiking period (July and August) characterized by a high level of hiking activities only (hunting forbidden); (2) the hunting period (September to November) when hunting and moderate levels of hiking activities occurred; and (3) the skiing period (January to March) when backcountry skiing and snowshoeing were the main sources of human

disturbance (see details in Appendix S1). Human activities were heterogeneously distributed within the Reserve and hunting was prohibited in the Arménaz area (300 ha) (Figure 2). Thus, the five sectors where chamois were trapped were characterized by various levels of environmental and anthropogenic disturbances (Figure 2, Appendix S1: Figure S5).

Defining the human-induced landscape of fear

The trail network shaped the backbone of human activities within the Reserve and was considered a good proxy of where human disturbances took place (see complete details in Appendix S1). We considered two trail networks, one for the hiking and hunting periods and one for the skiing period, because snow cover reshaped the trail network seasonally (Figure 2). Using an independent GPS data set collected on a large representative sample of hikers ($n = 270$ tracks in 2014 and 2015), hunters ($n = 223$ tracks between 2014 and 2018), and skiers ($n = 83$ tracks in 2015, Appendix S1), we found that hikers, hunters, and skiers spent 97%, 61%, and 81% of their time on trails in the daytime, respectively. We also determined that half of the chamois were harvested less than 200 m from a trail using the database of chamois harvesting sites since 2006 ($n = 1112$) (Appendix S1: Figure S6).

We assessed spatial variation in the risk of encountering hikers or skiers along trails by characterizing the

relative intensity of use by hikers or skiers from Strava Global Heatmap (Strava, 2018) (Appendix S1: Figure S1). Strava heatmap is a good proxy of relative human frequentation (Corradini et al., 2021). In addition, we determined the risk of encountering hunters by calculating the 95% utilization distribution (UD) of hunter GPS locations ($n = 223$ tracks) (see preceding discussion and Appendix S1). We mapped the risk of being harvested by estimating the 95% UD of chamois harvesting locations collected since 2006 ($n = 1112$) (Appendix S1). Finally, we spatialized the risk of being seen by humans from a trail using a geographic information system (GIS) viewshed analysis (for a similar approach see Benoist et al. [2013]) to account for the effect of vegetation structure and visibility on animal tolerance (see Appendix S3) (Tablado & Jenni, 2017; Wolf et al., 2019).

GPS and activity data for chamois

Eighty-seven adult chamois (70 females and 17 males) were trapped during the 2014–2018 summers using fall-ing nets baited with artificial salt licks within grasslands at 5 sites (Figure 2). Individuals were weighed, and their age at capture was determined by counting horn growth annuli (Schröder & von Elsner-Schack, 1985). Individuals were equipped with GPS collars (3300S Lotek Engineering Inc. or Vectronics GPS Plus-1C Store On Board) scheduled to record one location every 1 or 2 h continuously or every 4 h interspersed with periods of 20-min intervals recording for at least two consecutive days depending on periods and individuals. Almost all individuals were monitored for only 1 year; the final data set consisted of GPS tracks for 55 chamois-years during the hiking period (48 females and 7 males), 89 chamois-years during the hunting period (71 females and 18 males), and 83 chamois-years during the skiing period (66 females and 17 males). Activity sensors on GPS collars continuously calculated activity as the difference in acceleration between two consecutive measurements taken every 0.25 s along two axes, the forward/backward and side-ways axes. From these measures the on-board data log-gers derived and stored a standardized average activity value per 5-min interval, with values ranging between 0 (always inactive) and 255 (always highly active).

Testing for diel migration of chamois

For each individual and time period, we tested for a cyclic variation in the distance to the closest trail (hereafter “distance to a trail”) used by chamois over a 24-h period, that is, a DM representing the back-and-forth

movement of chamois being away from trails during the day and close to trails at night. We fitted a Lomb-Scargle periodogram (Ruf, 1999), a least-squares spectral analysis, based on the distance to a trail calculated from the GPS locations taken every 1, 2, or 4 h (during the skiing period only) depending on individuals. Here, locations taken at 20-min intervals were subsampled at a regular 1-h interval. We considered that a chamois performed a DM when a significant peak occurred within a 20- to 28-h window (Courbin et al., 2019). The significance of the highest peak, that is, whether the timing of the displacement related to trails was different from a random expectation, was estimated by computing the probability of random peaks reaching or exceeding the observed peak (Ruf, 1999). Note that the schedule of GPS locations did not affect the periodogram shape (peak locations) and had an effect on the magnitude of the peak only (not its significance). After testing for the presence of a diel cycle for each chamois, we studied how individuals adjusted their tolerance to the risk-disturbance context by investigating both the changes in the DM tactics and the spatial extent of DM.

Dynamic and determinants of diel migration tactics

Individual chamois most tolerant to human disturbance may relax their diel response, that is, they may not perform DM or their diel cycle may not be necessarily the main cyclic response over the short term. Hence, we refined the role of the diel cycle in chamois movement patterns to trails and assessed whether their diel cycle was the most important cycle over 48 h. We refitted the periodogram within a 6- to 48-h window for each chamois and tested the significance of the highest peak. Combining the results of the two periodograms (20–28 h and 6–48 h) for each individual, we determined three DM tactics based on the importance of the diel cycle: (1) main-DM tactic: The DM was the main cyclic response to trails for chamois according to the randomization procedure, that is, the highest significant peak occurred within a 20- to 28-h window for both periodograms; (2) minor-DM tactic: The DM occurred, but was not the main cyclic response to trails, that is, the significant peak occurring for the 20- to 28-h periodogram did not remain the highest significant peak within a 20- to 28-h window for the 6- to 48-h periodogram; and (3) no-DM tactic: Chamois did not perform DM, that is, no significant peak was detected within a 20- to 28-h window for both periodograms. We reclassified chamois significantly moving closer to trails during the day than at night (DM in an opposite way, $n = 3$ during hiking, 5 during hunting, and 5 during skiing) as the no-DM tactic (Appendix S4: Table S1).

We then tracked individual consistency and change among tactics between consecutive periods to assess the seasonal dynamics of individual DM tactics throughout the year. We summarized the results with a Sankey diagram (Weiner, 2017).

Finally, we assessed how the DM tactic of chamois was influenced by human disturbances within their home ranges during the hiking and hunting periods (only a few chamois performed DM during the skiing period; see [Results](#)). An individual home range was computed as the 95% UD derived from its GPS locations during a given period and year using biased random bridges (Benhamou, 2011) on a 25-m-resolution grid ($L_{\min} = 15$ m, $T_{\max} =$ two times the sampling rate, and $h_{\min} = 100$ m). We used locations recorded with a regular 1-, 2-, or 4-h interval (here, locations taken at 20-min intervals were subsampled at a regular 4-h interval). We fitted a multinomial logistic model with a three-level response variable (main DM, minor DM, no DM) for each period. Models included four covariates related to the human-induced landscape of fear estimated at the home range scale: the mean risk of encountering hikers, the mean risk of being harvested, the mean risk of encountering hunters, and the mean risk of being seen by humans from trails (Appendices S1 and S3). For each covariate, we weighted the risk value of each pixel by its UD value before averaging the risk values within the individual home range. We tested for an effect of hunting on chamois tolerance to hikers during hiking and hunting periods with an interaction between the mean risk of being harvested and the mean risk of encountering hikers (Figure 1c dashed line). Hunting was not allowed during the hiking period, but a significant effect of hunting or of the interaction will reveal a carryover effect of hunting on chamois tolerance to non-lethal activities (Figure 1c dotted line). We also added three individual characteristics: age and sex of chamois to consider the effect of intrinsic differences on tolerance (Blumstein, 2016; Tablado & Jenni, 2017) and body mass to obtain insights on the potential costs of the different tactics. Individuals establishing their seasonal home range in areas with a high density of trails cannot move away from a trail without moving close to another trail, limiting the range of their DM and potentially confounding the drivers of DM. We thus controlled for the mean distance to trails available within the home range. All continuous covariates were centered and scaled. Models did not include highly correlated variables (i.e., the ones for which $|r| > 0.6$) and had low multicollinearity with a condition index < 3.8 (Dormann et al., 2013) at each period (see model details in Appendix S5). We relied on 53 chamois-years

during the hiking period and 86 chamois-years during the hunting period.

Quantification and determinants of spatial extent of diel migration

We quantified the spatial extent of DM that could translate varying levels of chamois tolerance to human disturbance. We defined DM extent as the difference between the median daytime distance to trails over individual GPS locations for the given day (hereafter “daytime distance to a trail”) and the median distance to trails over individual GPS locations during the preceding night (hereafter “nighttime distance to a trail”) during the hiking and hunting periods. For each period, we modeled the daytime distance to a trail (response variable) in relation to the nighttime distance to a trail (previous night; nonlinear relationship modeled with a natural spline with four degrees of freedom) and the DM tactic (categorical predictor with two levels: minor DM and main DM). We fitted linear mixed models with individual IDs as random intercepts to account for repeated measurements on the same individuals. Then we tested for the effects of the risk-disturbance predictors within the seasonal home range (the mean risk of encountering hikers and hunters, of being harvested, and of being seen by humans from trail, all weighted by the UD value), as previously described. In accordance with our hypothetical framework (Figure 1c), we assessed whether the mean risk of being harvested shaped the extent of DM in response to the mean risk of encountering hikers during hiking and hunting periods, with an interaction term. As previously, a significant effect of hunting risk during the hiking period would reveal a carryover effect of hunting on chamois tolerance to hikers (Figure 1c dotted line). We expected that chamois responses to trail frequentation and hunting risk would depend on their distance to trails at night. We thus tested for interactions between the nighttime distance to trails and the risk-disturbance predictors (see candidate models in Appendix S6: Tables S1 and S2). Models also included the effects of individual features (age, sex, body mass), and we controlled for the effect of the mean distance to trails available within the home range on DM extent. All continuous predictors were centered and scaled. Akaike’s information criterion corrected for finite sample size (AIC_c) was used to select the most parsimonious candidate models. None of the candidate models included highly correlated variables ($|r| > 0.6$) and had low multicollinearity with a condition index < 13 and a variance inflation factor < 2.2 (Dormann et al., 2013). We relied on data from 1165 chamois-days from 44 chamois-years for the hiking period and 3088

chamois-days from 73 chamois-years for the hunting period.

Assessing proxies of diel migration costs

First we calculated for each chamois and each period the cumulative daily topographic distance traveled between consecutive GPS locations collected at 20-min intervals. We considered only days when GPS recorded all 72 possible locations. We relied on data from 42, 76, and 14 chamois-years during the hiking, hunting, and skiing periods, respectively (more details on data availability can be found in Appendix S7: Table S1). Topographic distance was calculated based on a digital elevation model with a 1-m resolution (Institut National de l'Information Géographique et Forestière) and by rediscrétizing chamois path in regular 1-m steps. For hiking and hunting periods, we tested for differences in the daily distance traveled (response variable) between DM tactics (three-level categorical predictor) using a linear mixed model. We included individual IDs as random intercepts to account for the nonindependence of daily distances within an individual and controlled for the sex and age of chamois.

Second, we estimated the mean daily energy expenditure of chamois for each period. We computed an index of daily activity, $\text{activity index} = \sqrt{X^2 + Y^2}$, with X and Y the standardized average activity at each 5-min interval along the forward/backward and sideways axes, respectively (Marchand et al., 2021). The activity index is strongly correlated with the dynamic body acceleration metric (Benoit et al., 2020), which is a reliable index of energy expenditure in animals (Wilson et al., 2020). We calculated the mean activity index for each day of each chamois recording at least 284/288 activity data (96% of the full data set). We relied on data from 39, 82, and 78 chamois-years during the hiking, hunting, and skiing periods, respectively (more details on data availability can be found in Appendix S7: Table S1). For the hiking and hunting periods, we assessed the differences in the daily activity (response variable) between DM tactics (three-level categorical predictor) using a linear mixed model with individual ID as random intercept and controlling for sex and age by including them as fixed effects.

We performed all analyses using R software version 3.6.2 (R Development Core Team, 2019) and the *lomb* package for the assessment of least-squares spectral analyses (Ruf, 1999), the *riverplot* package to plot the Sankey diagram (Weiner, 2017), the *adehabitatHR* package for home range and UD computation (Calenge, 2006), the *nnet* (Venables & Ripley, 2002) and *lme4* packages (Bates et al., 2015) for fitting multinomial logistic regressions

and linear mixed-effect models, respectively, and the *MuMIn* package for model selection (Barton, 2020).

RESULTS

Evidence for plastic diel migration

During the hiking and hunting periods, chamois were on average located significantly closer to a trail during nighttime than during daytime (Figure 3a,c; $p < 0.001$, paired samples Wilcoxon tests). This pattern was due to back-and-forth movements to trails between night and day with a 24-h periodicity at the individual level, as shown by periodograms (Figure 3b,d, Appendix S4: Figure S4) for most individuals ($n = 46/55$ chamois-years during the hiking period using a main DM or a minor DM, $n = 76/89$ chamois-years during the hunting period using a main DM or a minor DM) (Appendix S4: Table S1). However, the diel spatial shift was highly variable between individuals (Appendix S4: Figures S1 and S2) and highly context-dependent. Indeed, the distance of DM varied with chamois nighttime location: the closer chamois were to a trail at night, the further they were from a trail the next day (Figure 3a,c). For example, chamois that were 50 m away from a trail at night (i.e., peak of the distribution) tended to perform large DMs (see *Results* section *Determinants of spatial extent of diel migration*). Importantly, the extent of the daytime movement away from a trail was highly constrained by the low availability of areas away from a trail (dotted lines in Figure 3a,c), with a median distance to a trail available within the home range of ~175 m (Appendix S4: Table S2). In contrast, such a DM did not occur during the skiing period (Figure 3e,f, Appendix S4: Table S1, Figure S3).

Among the different periods, chamois thus showed evidence for adjustments in their tolerance level to human disturbances by switching between DM tactics (Figure 4). Most (~85%) had a low tolerance and performed DMs (main-DM and minor-DM tactics) during hiking and hunting periods, with the main-DM tactic being dominant (>50%; Figure 4, Appendix S4: Table S1). In addition, most chamois performing minor DMs during the hiking period switched to a main-DM tactic during the hunting period (Figure 4). Conversely, chamois were located further away from trails during the less disturbed skiing period (Figure 3e, Appendix S4: Table S2) and adopted a no-DM tactic (Figure 4, Appendix S4: Table S1). Note that 4 chamois out of 10 performing a DM lived 400 m from trails during the skiing period, and the causal effect of trails on their DM pattern was thus questionable (Appendix S4: Figure S3).

Determinants of diel migration tactics

During the hiking period, the DM tactic was related neither to hiker presence on trail networks and mean risk of

being seen within individual home ranges nor to individual characteristics (age, sex, and body mass) (Appendix S5: Table S1). Similarly, our results did not support a carry-over effect of hunting during this period (Figure 1c, dotted

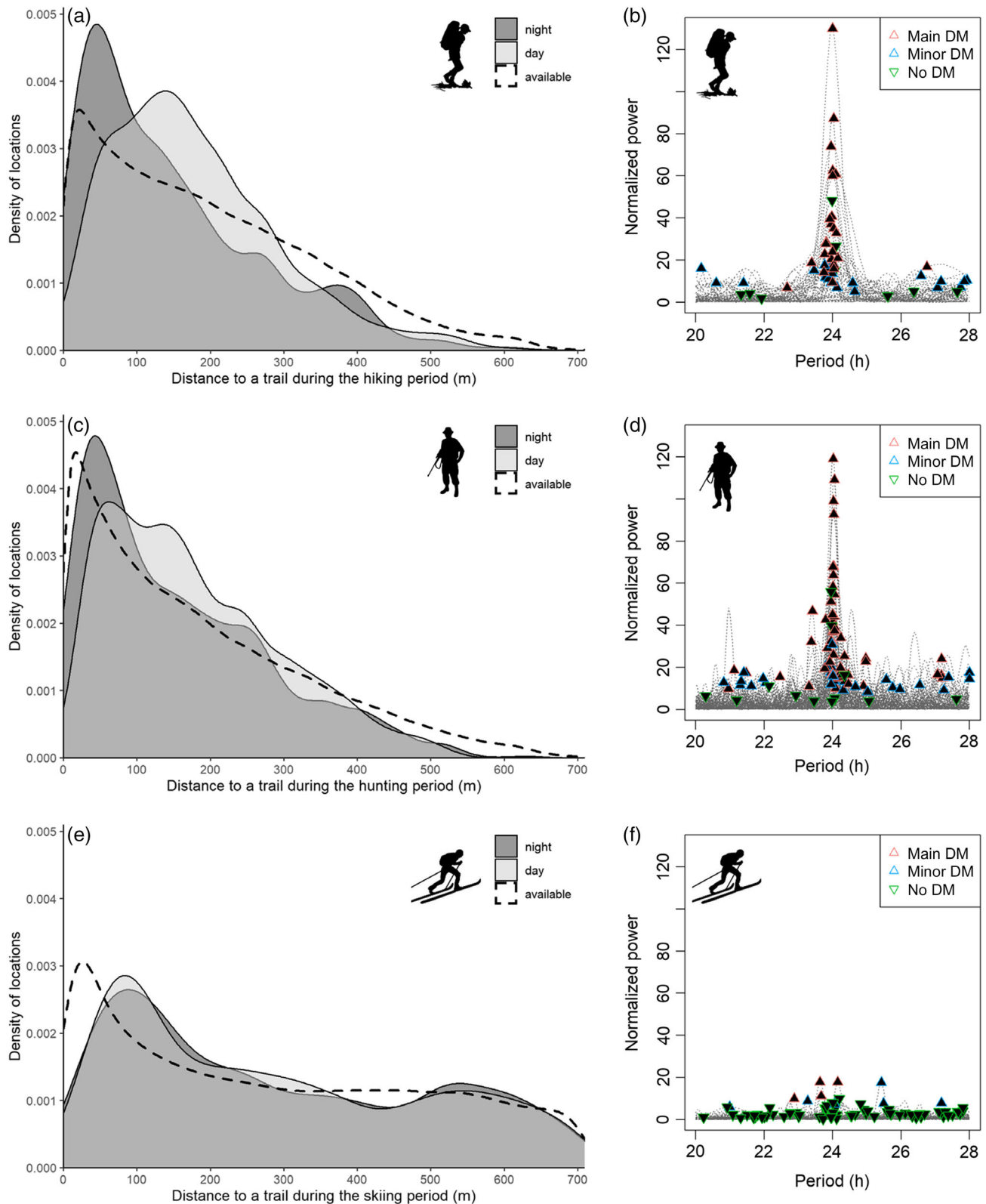


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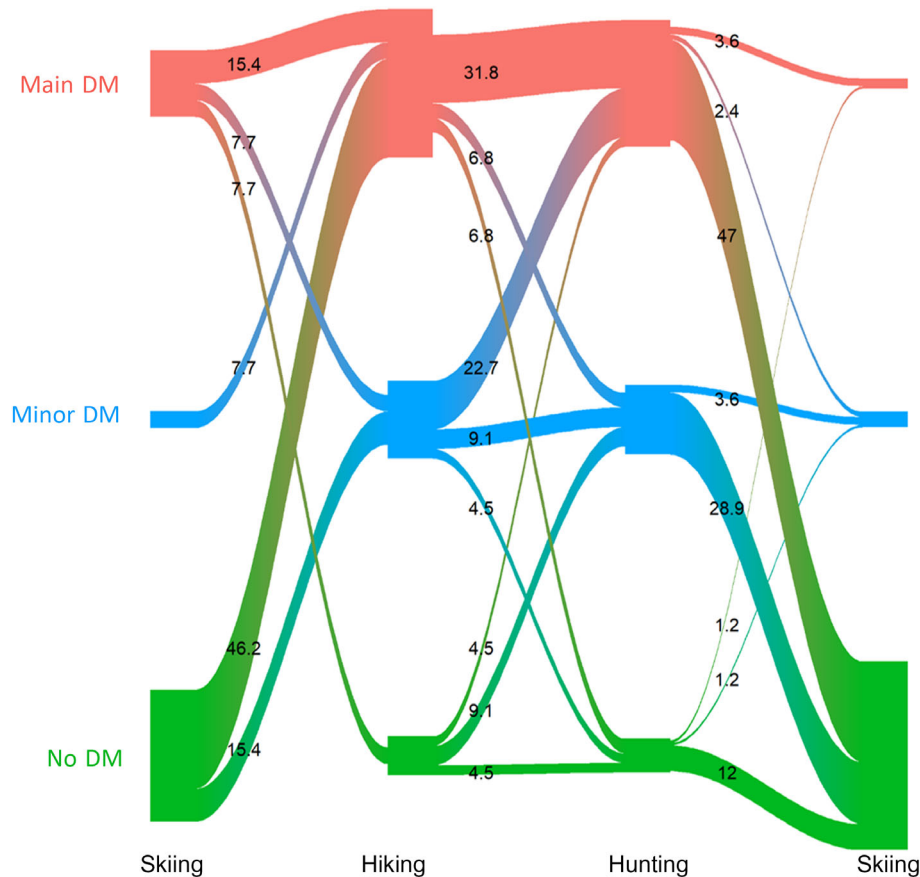


FIGURE 4 Dynamics of individual diel migration tactics between consecutive periods. Links represent individuals and sum to 100% between two periods. We followed 13, 44, and 83 individuals between consecutive skiing and hiking periods, hiking and hunting periods, and hunting and skiing periods, respectively.

line). In contrast, during the hunting period, the DM tactic was largely driven by the human-induced landscape of fear. After controlling for interindividual variation in the availability of trail networks within seasonal home ranges, the likelihood of displaying a main-DM tactic over the other tactics rapidly increased with an increasing risk of being harvested (i.e., $\times 4.1$ between extreme values) and increasing risk of encountering hikers (i.e., $\times 4.4$ between extreme values), without significant interacting effects

between both risks (Figure 5, Appendix S5: Table S2). Therefore, the data supported neither higher tolerance with increasing hiker presence (Figure 1a) nor undesirable tolerance persistence in the choice of tactic during the hunting period (Figure 1c dashed lined). Chamois also had higher probabilities of using a main-DM tactic than a minor-DM tactic when they used areas with a low mean risk of being seen and a low mean risk of encountering hunters (Appendix S5: Table S2, Figure S1A,B). However,

FIGURE 3 (a, c, e) Distribution of daytime and nighttime locations (i.e., median distance to trails of GPS locations of an individual at a given day or night) of chamois during the three periods between 2014 and 2018, weighted by the number of locations per individual and number of individuals. Daytime and nighttime distributions significantly ($p < 0.001$; paired samples Wilcoxon test) differed during the hiking and hunting periods. We showed, for each period, the distribution of distances to a trail available within the seasonal chamois home ranges (dotted line), weighted by the home range surface per individual and the number of individuals. To correctly show the diel spatial shift, we only represent chamois performing a diel migration for the hiking ($n = 46/55$ chamois-years) and hunting ($n = 76/89$ chamois-years) period. Maximum distance to trails was 1652 m during the skiing period, and we only show data < 700 m (72%) for clarity. (b, d, f) Periodograms of the distance to a trail time series for 55, 89, and 83 chamois-years within the 20- to 28-h period window during the hiking, hunting, and skiing periods, respectively. Each dotted line represents the periodogram for one individual chamois. The maximum value of each periodogram is indicated by a triangle pointing up if significant ($p < 0.05$) or down if nonsignificant ($p \geq 0.05$). Periodograms were labeled a posteriori.

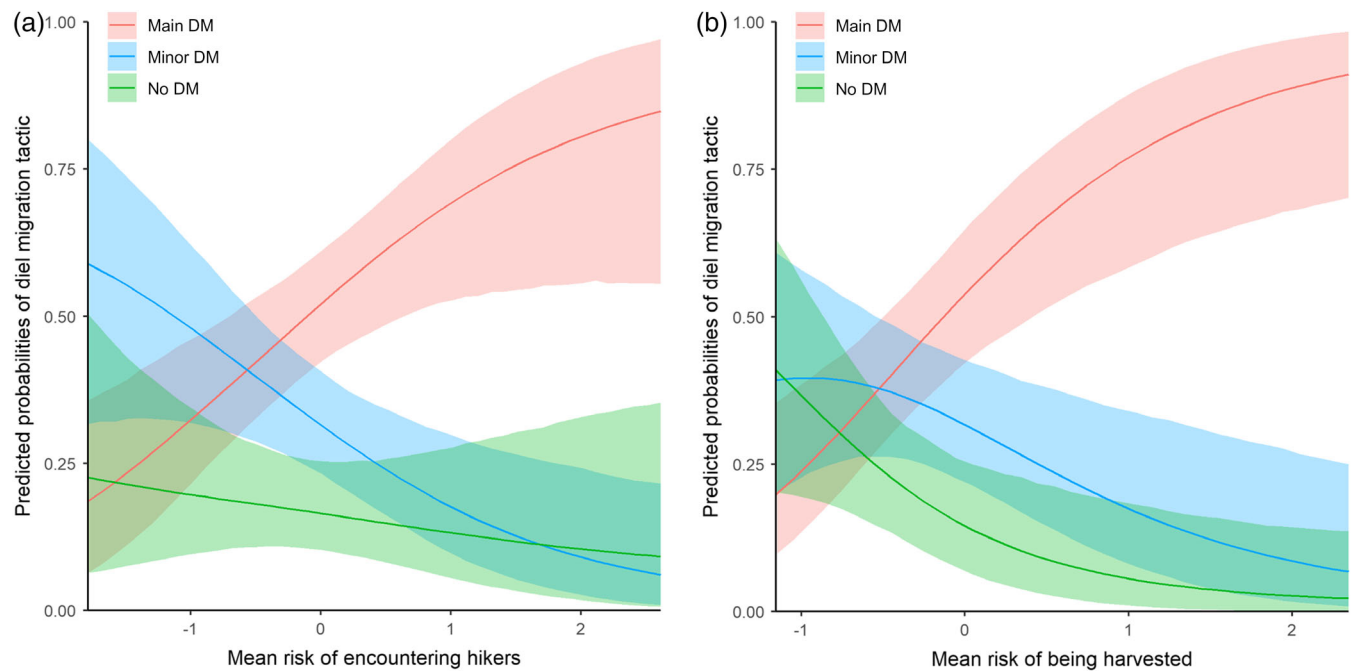


FIGURE 5 Probabilities of diel migration tactics for chamois in relation to (a) the risk of encountering hikers and (b) the risk of being harvested during the hunting period between 2014 and 2018 in the northern French Alps, as predicted by a multinomial logit model. Shadow areas represent the 95% confidence interval.

these latter effects were weaker than the effects of risk of encountering hikers and of being harvested (the size effects were 1.5–2 times lower). During the hunting period, females were most likely to use a main-DM tactic, while no differences were observed for males (Appendix S5: Table S2, Figure S1C). The choice of tactic did not depend on body mass and age.

Determinants of spatial extent of diel migration

The top-ranked model included an interaction between the distance to trails the previous night and either the mean risk of encountering hikers during the hiking period or the mean risk of being harvested during the hunting period (ΔAIC_c with the second best models >4 , Appendix S6: Tables S1 and S2). During both periods, chamois with home ranges located closest to trails made short DMs (Appendix S6: Tables S3 and S4). After controlling for trail availability within individual home ranges, chamois indeed moved a smaller distance from trails during the day when the risk of encountering hikers increased, especially when they were located within the first 100 m from a trail on the previous night (Figure 6a,b, Appendix S6: Tables S3 and S4). Moreover, DM behavior was triggered over a greater nighttime distance from trails at low versus a high encounter risk

with hikers (Figure 6a,b). Overall, these findings support the hypothesis that diel migrants developed a greater tolerance to hiker disturbance when nature-based tourism increased, whereas they displayed a low tolerance at low levels of hiker disturbance (Figure 1a). Daytime movements of chamois away from trails were not influenced by hunting risk during the hiking period (Appendix S6: Table S3), and there was no support for a carryover effect of hunting outside the hunting period (Figure 1c, dotted line). During the hunting period, chamois performed longer DMs with increasing mean risk of being harvested in areas with a low risk of encountering hikers, but they did not respond to hunting risk at a high encounter risk with hikers (Figure 6b, Appendix S6: Table S4). Hunting also exacerbated the threshold nighttime distance to trails, triggering DMs in chamois (i.e., 300 m) in areas of low risk of encountering hikers. On average, when chamois were located 50 m from a trail at night during the hunting period, they moved 166 m away the next day when the risk of being harvested was high and the encounter risk with hikers was low, 102 m when both risks were low, and only 50 m when the risk of encountering hikers was high independently of the hunting risk. This suggests that chamois tolerant to hikers also increased their tolerance to hunting during the harvesting period (Figure 1c, dashed line). The extent of DM was not influenced by the tactic, the mean risk of being seen, or

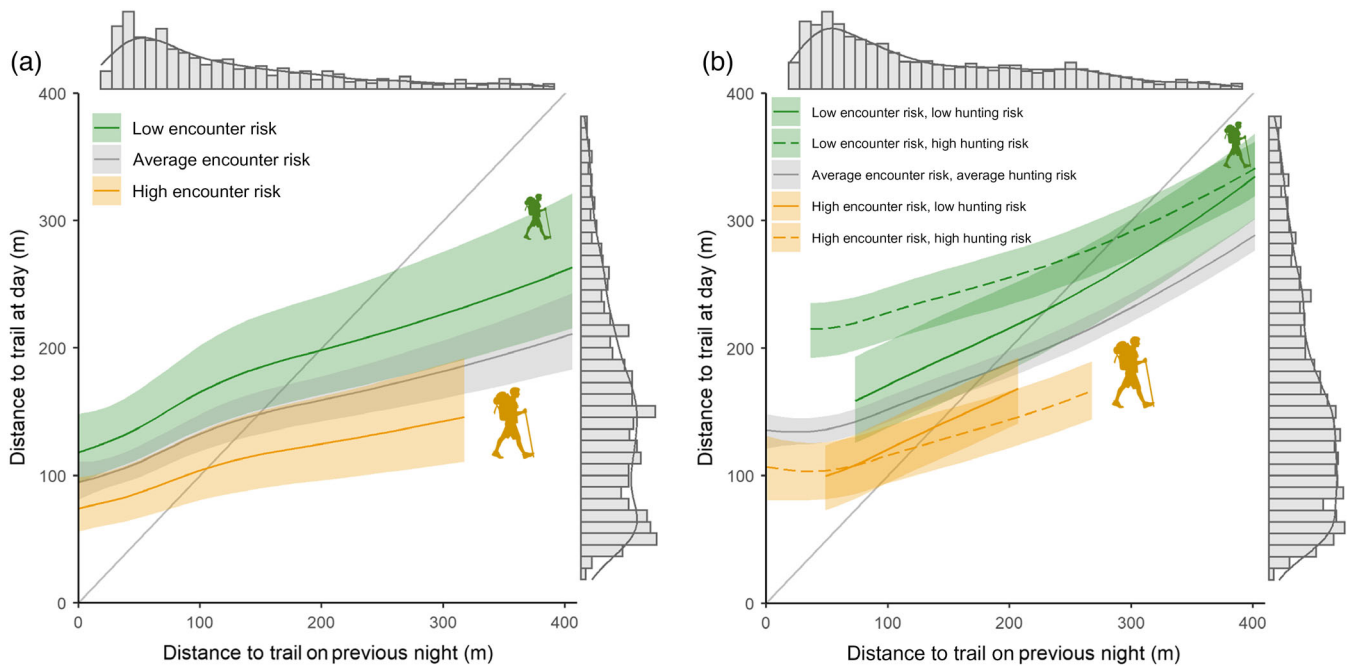


FIGURE 6 Predicted daytime distance to trails of chamois in relation to the distance to trails during the previous night. (a) Risk of encountering hikers during hiking period and (b) risk of both encountering hikers and being harvested during hunting period. The solid gray line represents a hypothetical situation in the absence of diel migration (DM). The spatial extent of DM is depicted in the figure as the vertical distance between the predicted daytime distance to a trail and the gray line, with daytime movement away from a trail when above the gray line and daytime movement toward a trail when under the gray line. Most raw data were located above the gray line, as indicated by their distribution along each axis. We modeled the response for a female chamois performing a main-DM tactic and fixed all other continuous predictors at their mean values. Low, average, and high risk correspond to 10th percentile, mean, and 90th percentile, respectively. Shadow areas represent 95% confidence interval. Daytime and nighttime distances to trails are truncated at 400 m, and 93% and 94% of data are shown in (a) and (b), respectively.

individual characteristics during either period (Appendix S6: Tables S3 and S4).

Costs of diel migration

The DM behavior involved a higher daily distance traveled for chamois during the hunting period only, that is, +370 m per 24 h between main-DM and no-DM tactics (Appendix S7: Table S2, Figure S1). That represented >33 additional kilometers traveled by diel migrant chamois over the 3 months of the harvesting period. Also, males traveled 453 m more than females each day during the hunting period (>41 additional kilometers over the period), while they were less active than females during all periods (Appendix S7: Tables S2 and S3). Overall, chamois had similar energy expenditure within a period independently of the DM tactic (Appendix S7: Table S3, Figure S1). Note that chamois increased their daytime and nighttime activity when located within the first 100 m from a trail, especially during the hiking and hunting periods (Appendix S8: Figure S1).

DISCUSSION

Our study demonstrated how overlapping nature-based tourism and hunting shaped complex proactive responses and tolerance patterns to human activities for a large mountain herbivore species. Chamois were generally wary of humans: most individuals performed DM (i.e., back-and-forth movements further away from trails during the day and closer to trails at night) in response to the landscape of fear imposed by recreational activities, especially during hiking and hunting periods. DM increased during the hunting period, revealing additive risk effects. However, we found no carryover effect of hunting beyond the hunting period. Importantly, chamois performed shorter DMs in areas highly disturbed by hikers. Such behavior revealed increased tolerance to nonlethal human disturbance for the most disturbed diel migrants. Yet the persistence of such tolerance to humans during the hunting period could be maladaptive. Overall, we stress the importance of considering potential deleterious survival consequences of animal tolerance adjustments to disturbances in multiuse landscapes with complex human-induced landscapes of fear.

Diel migration: A common and plastic proactive response to spatiotemporally predictable human activities

In agreement with the risk-disturbance hypothesis (Frid & Dill, 2002), most (~85%) chamois performed a DM with back-and-forth movements to trails over a 24-h cycle during the hiking and hunting periods. Diel migrants were close to trails at night (when humans are absent) and moved towards areas at a median distance of ~140 m from a trail during the day (when humans used the trails). Importantly, this is a very relevant distance because the median distance to a trail available within the home range was only ~175 m. This allowed chamois to decrease their perceived risk associated with hikers and hunters, occurring nearly exclusively on or in close proximity to trails. The avoidance of humans has been largely demonstrated for chamois in many study areas in the Alps (Hamr, 1988), for other mountain ungulates elsewhere (Marchand et al., 2014; Pęksa & Ciach, 2015; Richard & Côté, 2016), and ungulates in general (Stankowich, 2008). However, our results showed the advantage of using diel statistics as proxies for spatial adjustments to the variation in the landscape of fear associated with hiking and backcountry skiing (Lesmerises et al., 2017, 2018). The emergence of DM requires a strong spatiotemporal predictability of risk (Courbin et al., 2019; Hays, 2003). This is an inherent property of a human-induced landscape of fear, exacerbated in protected areas where humans should comply with hiking on established trails (this study Appendix S1) (Lesmerises et al., 2018). Our findings agree with the general idea that environmental predictability has a major influence on animal movements (Courbin et al., 2018; Gaynor et al., 2018; Riotte-Lambert & Matthiopoulos, 2020).

DM was common in our population, but chamois shifted between DM tactics and adjusted the spatial extent of their DMs to varying levels of human disturbances in a complex way (see details in the following sections). Overall, the seasonal increase in human presence and perceived risk from the skiing period to the hunting period triggered an increased occurrence of the diel cycle at the individual level. However, home ranges overlapped within and among periods (Appendix S4: Figure S5), which indicated that local changes in disturbances affected short-term movement tactics (i.e., the DM) rather than space use on a broader scale. The inconsistent pattern of DM observed during the skiing period was likely induced by the lower trail frequentation (Appendix S1) and the generally increasing distance of chamois from trails (median distance of chamois to trails within their home range > 450 m) compared to other periods (~175 m) (Appendix S4: Table S2). Overall, chamois did not necessarily avoid winter areas frequented by

humans. However, most trails were covered by snow during the skiing period, and in addition, chamois left alpine grasslands (where trails are located) to move to steeper slopes or to locations at lower altitudes (Appendix S4: Table S2).

Though the movement of chamois away from trails during the day was expected, the rationale behind chamois moving closer to trails at night remains a challenging question. One reason for this may be related to the distribution of food resources. In our study area, models based on vegetation surveys indicate an inconsistent pattern in increased or decreased abundance of food resources for chamois with increasing distance from a trail during the summer (Appendix S2: Figure S2). Food quality is especially important for chamois (Duparc et al., 2020) but only slightly decreased for individuals getting closer to trails within the first 100 m from a trail (Appendix S2: Figure S2). Thus, overall in the study area, we observed a similar quantity and quality of food resources in areas between the median daytime (~140 m) and nighttime (~100 m) distance of chamois to a trail during the hiking and hunting periods (Appendix S2: Figure S2). Moreover, chamois were more active during the day than at night and within the first 100 m from a trail at all times during the hiking and hunting periods (Appendix S8). This suggests that activities close to trails (<100 m) were not connected, to an important extent, with foraging (e.g., resting, vigilance, and moving). Interestingly, Tatra chamois (*R. rupicapra tatrica*) also experienced a decrease in the proportion of foraging in the daytime budget close to hiking trails (Pęksa & Ciach, 2018). Together, these results suggest more frequent vigilance events or relocation bouts interspersed with foraging activities closer to than far from trails. Overall, chamois using DMs did not have greater food abundance at night and perceived increased risk at all times close to trails. Finally, chamois might have needed to forage on a sufficient surface (area) to avoid resource depletion and may have moved near trails to forage at night, when the risk was lowest. Such a behavior would be strengthened in a density-dependent context, as is the case for our chamois population (Garel et al., 2011). Another explanation for chamois moving closer to trails at night not related to food is the combined effects of the long-term competition for space depending on local density and the high spatial fidelity of female chamois maintaining the same home ranges from year to year (Loison et al., 1999, 2008). Accordingly, we found a higher propensity toward DM among female chamois. Chamois could also move near a trail at night to retain up-to-date information on the spatiotemporal variations in human disturbance using odor cues. For many large ungulates, predator odors provide evidence of their recent passage and the likelihood of their future presence in the area (e.g., red deer [Kuijper et al., 2014]; caribou *Rangifer tarandus caribou* [Latombe et al., 2014]).

Hunting strengthens chamois diel migration to trails

We found a strong negative hunting effect on chamois tolerance that was limited to the hunting period, that is, without carryover effects during the hiking period (Figure 1c, the pattern of dotted colored lines was not supported). During the hunting period, the DM pattern was stronger compared to other periods, and hunting risk shaped chamois response to nature-based tourism, as we hypothesized (Figure 1c, solid colored line). Chamois were more likely to perform DMs with increasing risks of being harvested and encountering hikers. Those living in areas with few hikers made DMs over an increasing area as hunting risk increased. As expected within our theoretical framework, the effect of hunting on chamois response was additive to and stronger than hiking (Figure 1c, solid black line). Our results supported previous findings, for example, in a French mouflon population that responded more strongly to hunting than tourism, simultaneously altering their activity, movements, and habitat use (Marchand et al., 2014). Likewise, elk (*C. elaphus*) coping with cumulative hunting and hiking activities showed higher vigilance and subsequent loss in feeding time compared to elk living outside hunting areas (Ciuti et al., 2012).

When the landscape of fear emerges from several co-occurring sources of anthropogenic risk with different degrees of lethality, prey abilities required to adjust the strength of their response to different risks are probably rapidly exceeded. Hence, prey may maintain similar responses to lethal and nonlethal human activities (Frid & Dill, 2002). Yet, ungulates are capable of assessing a complex set of factors that affect the need for and utility of antipredator responses when faced with natural predators (Liley & Creel, 2008). Here, we found that the mixture of hunting and hiking created a complex human-induced landscape of fear that impeded chamois in adequately adjusting their tolerance level to hikers, at least during the hunting period (the tolerance pattern in Figure 1b was not supported). Chamois may not be able to distinguish accurately hikers from hunters, especially since they used the same trails during the hunting period and because hunters are in small parties (usually less than four), without hunting dogs. Consequently, chamois may first and foremost establish a DM to avoid a lethal risk during the hunting period and then adjust the extent of their DM depending on their approximate assessment of the lethal nature of the risk. Hunting activities, even sporadic, may therefore indirectly strengthen the consequences of nature-based tourism for ungulate populations (see also Marchand et al., 2014). This may lead to critical constraints on foraging and space use for species inhabiting mountain ecosystems. In fact, mountain animals

may have suffered from the diversification and intensification of nature-based tourism in recent decades (Pęksa & Ciach, 2015), especially where hunting overlaps with nature-based activities.

A potentially maladaptive increased tolerance to nature-based tourism

Chamois performed shorter DM in areas highly disturbed by hikers during both hiking and hunting periods. This increased tolerance to nature-based tourism, under equal trail availability and with individual changes in DM tactics between periods, indicates a potential habituation process in the most disturbed areas (Figure 1a,c). Studies that ignored the individual dynamics of animal responsiveness to human disturbance in the long-term failed to clarify the mechanism underlying tolerance adjustments (Bejder et al., 2009; Blumstein, 2016). Importantly, our results provide a rare demonstration of plastic DM for the same individual ungulates between periods with contrasting landscapes of fear. Such an individualized ability to adjust tolerance to human disturbance is a basic requirement for a habituation process to occur (Blumstein, 2016). However, we cannot formally ignore additional mechanisms, such as differential selection among personality types or local adaptation for increased tolerance (Blumstein, 2016; Samia et al., 2015). Individuals may also vary in their perceptions of cues, previous experiences, and behavioral decision-making processes (Goumas et al., 2020; Sih et al., 2011).

Regardless of the mechanisms, we found an undesirable outcome of the increased tolerance to hiking during the hunting period. In contrast to individuals living in areas of low disturbance, the most tolerant chamois did not increase their responsiveness to increasing hunting risk (Figure 1c, dashed black line). Such an increased tolerance to humans may be maladaptive in a hunting context insofar as individuals are exposed to a greater lethal risk. One possible explanation for this is the habituation transfer from a harmless human disturbance to human or natural predators (Blumstein, 2016; Geffroy et al., 2015). Such habituation transfer may have unfortunate conservation outcomes (Blumstein, 2016). Overall, our findings support a previous warning by Geffroy et al. (2015) to take outcomes of animal tolerance adjustments into account in ecological and conservation perspectives.

During the hiking period, the majority of individuals performed a DM. Interestingly, the likelihood of performing a DM did not depend on the actual level of human frequentation, but the spatial extent of the DM away from a trail did. At this time of year, disturbance by hikers occurs every day. This baseline disturbance level may be sufficient to trigger a systematic response from

chamois. In other study areas, individuals may adjust their diel response to immediate cues of human presence, relying more on a reactive than proactive response. Likewise, female caribou moved away from trails during the day in the Gaspésie National Park (QC, Canada) depending on direct human encounters or recent human activities (Lesmerises et al., 2017, 2018). The avoidance response of mountain ungulates is also influenced by human group size (Hamr, 1988). We thus encourage future research to consider a more dynamic framework and assess the variation in the importance of the diel cycle depending on real-time human presence while also accounting for natural predators and thermoregulatory constraints (Bourgoin et al., 2008).

On the costs of diel migration

The costs of antipredator responses (i.e., the risk effects) may have important consequences for population demography (Preisser et al., 2005) and should not be ignored (Creel et al., 2019; Say-Sallaz et al., 2019). However, there is still considerable debate regarding the demographic consequences of risk effects. For example, fervent debates have taken place concerning the fear effects of wolf (*C. lupus*) on elk in the Greater Yellowstone Ecosystem between Creel et al. (2007), Creel et al. (2011), Middleton et al. (2013), and Kohl et al. (2018). Here, we found that a DM involves an increase in distance traveled of 33 km over areas with an average slope of 39° during the 3 months of hunting. DM is thus expected to result in additional energetic expenditures during hunting. However, no increase in proxies of daily energetic expenditure was observed in each period. There was no relationship with DM and body mass either, contrary to expectations under the risk-disturbance hypothesis (Frid & Dill, 2002; Ydenberg & Dill, 1986). Detecting body mass effects across various sex, age, and years would have required, however, very large sample sizes. Furthermore, risk-disturbance effects are not limited to energetic loss but are also related to time, stress, reproduction, and survival costs in large mammals (review in Say-Sallaz et al., 2019). Possibly compensatory responses may also occur in diel migrants. As an example, mouflon disturbed by hunters during the day were more active and increased their use of favorable foraging resources the night following disturbance (Marchand et al., 2014). Overall, it will be necessary to better assess costs and compensatory benefits to decipher the potential demographic consequences of DM, a strong and generalized behavioral response in animal populations. This is especially relevant in the Anthropocene context, where more and more animal populations will have to cope with complex human-induced landscapes of fear, combining both lethal risk and nature-based tourism.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

Nicolas Courbin, Anne Loison, Antoine Duparc, and Mathieu Garel developed the ideas. Mathieu Garel, Nicolas Courbin, and Antoine Duparc led data collection. Nicolas Courbin conducted statistical analyses with inputs from Mathieu Garel, Pascal Marchand, Luca Börger, and Anne Loison. Nicolas Courbin wrote the first draft of the manuscript. Anne Loison, Mathieu Garel, and Pascal Marchand led the project on chamois and human interactions. All authors discussed the analyses and results and revised the manuscript.

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CONFLICT OF INTEREST

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT

Data (Courbin, 2022) are available in Figshare at <http://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.19300355>.

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