

1 **The best of both worlds: why antipredator traits are lost in predator free havens and**  
2 **how to keep them**

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20 **Abstract**  
21

22 As a response to the current biodiversity crisis, active management of threatened species  
23 has become more frequent (Hoffmann et al., 2010), with predator free havens an  
24 increasingly common conservation management strategy (Legge et al., 2022). In  
25 Australia, where introduced predators such as cats (Moseby et al., 2015) and foxes  
26 (Radford et al., 2018) are one of the largest threats to native fauna, havens have played a  
27 key role in maintaining viable populations of endemic mammals (Legge et al., 2018).  
28 Concerns, however, have been increasingly raised that populations in predator free  
29 havens, or similarly those that are captive bred or on islands, rapidly lose antipredator  
30 traits (Beauchamp, 2004; Blumstein & Daniel, 2005; Harrison, Phillips, et al., 2023; Jolly  
31 & Phillips, 2021; Jolly et al., 2018; Smith & Blumstein, 2008). Here we suggest that some  
32 of the selective pressures and mechanisms that may explain the rapid loss of these traits  
33 may have been overlooked. There is convincing evidence within the animal production  
34 literature that a fearful, high anxiety temperament (typically associated with anti-predator  
35 behaviours) is genetically linked to reduced fecundity; a relationship that may explain the  
36 rapid loss of fearful antipredator traits as a byproduct of selection for increased fecundity.  
37 We also propose a mechanism by which antipredator behaviour could be maintained in  
38 populations that are expected to evolve predator naivety.  
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## 40 **Introduction**

41

42 The loss of antipredator traits in havens, whilst debated (Harrison, Phillips, et al., 2023;  
43 Harrison, Wayne, et al., 2023; Kanowski et al., 2023), is typically ascribed to direct  
44 selection on these traits being relaxed (Beauchamp, 2004; Blumstein & Daniel, 2005;  
45 Harrison, Phillips, et al., 2023; Jolly & Phillips, 2021; Jolly et al., 2018; Smith & Blumstein,  
46 2008). In the absence of predators, behaviours associated with wariness and shyness  
47 would no longer be selected for, and if such traits persist, it is due to the low cost of their  
48 continued expression (Blumstein & Daniel, 2005; Jolly & Phillips, 2021). It has also been  
49 highlighted that resource competition can be exacerbated by high population densities  
50 that can arise in the absence of predation (Butler et al., 2019; Jolly & Phillips, 2021; Jolly  
51 et al., 2018; Moseby et al., 2018; Treloar et al., 2021), and that this may then become the  
52 dominant selection pressure with predator-wary, shy individuals losing out in resource  
53 competition (Jolly & Phillips, 2021). What may have been underappreciated however, is  
54 that a predator-wary fearful temperament also comes at a direct fecundity cost due to the  
55 genetic linkage between fecundity and fearful behaviour. The selection for fecundity and  
56 parental ability in captive populations (the very thing that captive breeders want to  
57 enhance) selects, through a common dependence on the neuroendocrine system, for  
58 less anxious individuals that are prone to fall prey to predators. Importantly, this means  
59 that selection on fecundity alone can drive down antipredator behaviours.

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61 There is convincing evidence in the animal production literature that behavioural traits  
62 associated with antipredator responses (e.g. wariness, shyness) trade off against  
63 fecundity. For example, a 20-year temperament selection experiment on merino sheep  
64 resulted in higher fecundity in calm compared to nervous ewes (van Lier et al., 2017).  
65 Nervous ewes had significantly reduced sexual interest (Gelez et al., 2003), lower rates of  
66 ovulation and fewer multiple pregnancies (van Lier et al., 2017). Trading off with these  
67 fecundity related traits, nervous ewes had offspring with traits that would clearly be a  
68 selective advantage in a predator rich environment, showing a shorter latency to stand up  
69 in newborn lambs (Bickell et al., 2010), increased locomotor activity, vocalisations and  
70 escape behaviours (Bickell et al., 2009). Notably, none of these traits, fecundity nor  
71 predator-wariness, were under direct selection; agitation score, taken from two different  
72 measures, was the only subject of the artificial selection. The two lines correspondingly

73 diverged genetically (Bickell et al., 2009) in temperament into ‘calm’ and ‘nervous’ ewes,  
74 with divergence between lines corresponding to single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs)  
75 associated with temperament in an outbred flock (Ding et al., 2021).

76  
77 Independent support for this fecundity/anxiety trade-off also comes from other sheep  
78 flocks selected instead for maternal ability, such as twinning rate and lamb survival  
79 (Kilgour & Szantarcoddington, 1995). These lines of sheep were found to differ in arena  
80 tests where they were exposed to a human threat, with fertility selected sheep remaining  
81 closer to the threat, vocalising less, and moving less than their unselected counterparts  
82 (Cloete et al., 2020; Kilgour & Szantarcoddington, 1995). Several other large studies of  
83 merino sheep confirm moderate genetic correlations between relaxed temperament and  
84 maternal behaviour scores and the number of lambs weaned (Brown et al., 2016).  
85 Together these experiments indicate that selection on fecundity indirectly affects the fear  
86 responses of a population. While the recent (Wilkins et al., 2014) interest in the neural  
87 crest cell hypothesis, at least in some manifestations (Gleeson & Wilson, 2023),  
88 discounts ‘cryptically-shared mechanisms of pleiotropic trait association’, the evidence  
89 for a genetic correlation between fearful temperament and fecundity appears to be  
90 genetically and mechanistically well founded.

91  
92 The domestication literature also adds evidence and a mechanism for a relationship  
93 between fecundity and nervousness. Although the notion of a ‘domestication syndrome’  
94 is controversial (Gleeson & Wilson, 2023; Lord et al., 2020), one of the most well  
95 documented examples of selection for low levels of fear is in the silver fox domestication  
96 experiment (Belyaev et al., 1985; Dugatkin, 2020; Trut, 1999). In these experiments the  
97 behavioural response of foxes to humans were subject to selection, resulting in a diversity  
98 of domestic traits in the tameness-selected lineages. The link between tameness and  
99 fertility was proposed by Belyaev (referenced by Klotchkov et al., 1998) and appears to  
100 arise through the common basis of both, on the neuroendocrine system. For example,  
101 tame foxes lost their seasonal reproductive cycles with females entering oestrus outside  
102 the breeding season (Trut, 1999); similarly, docile-selected captive mink entered oestrous  
103 earlier (Klotchkov et al., 1998).

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105 The link with between tameness and fertility in the above studies is most likely explained  
106 by neurotransmitters, with both mink and foxes that were diverged for tameness also  
107 showing divergence in serotonin levels in the brain (Klotchkov et al., 1998). More recent  
108 genomic analysis confirms the role of these neurotransmitters in the divergence of the fox  
109 lineages, in particular serotonin and glutamate pathways (Kukekova et al., 2018; Lindberg  
110 et al., 2005; Wang et al., 2018). Similarly, temperament divergence in sheep was also  
111 associated with neuroendocrine changes in serotonin receptors and transporters, and  
112 tryptophan 5-hydroxylase (the rate-limiting enzyme in the synthesis of serotonin) (Ding et  
113 al., 2021). The neuroendocrine axis between stress and reproduction is phylogenetically  
114 ancient among vertebrates (Pawluski et al., 2019), and across mammal species is  
115 strongly associated both with female reproductive hormone profiles (Nakamura et al.,  
116 2024), and maternal care as opposed to offspring rejection and mortality (Pawluski et al.,  
117 2019). Similarly, in wild birds peripheral serotonin levels have been shown to be positively  
118 associated with earlier egg laying, clutch size and parental reproductive behaviours  
119 (Tilgar, 2023). In domestic fowl production systems (Cheng et al., 2001; Cheng & Muir,  
120 2007), selecting for productivity and longevity, similar to mammalian studies, found  
121 divergence in serotonin levels. Cheng and Muir (Cheng & Muir, 2007) suggest that the  
122 serotonin receptor “5-HT could serve as a physiological indicator of the animal’s coping  
123 ability to stress as well as a biological trait marker for domestic behaviours”. Given what  
124 we know about the role of serotonin in reproductive physiology (Nakamura et al., 2024;  
125 Pawluski et al., 2019), this strongly implicates selection for fecundity to changes in  
126 predator wariness traits. Due to the conserved nature of the neuroendocrine axis between  
127 stress and reproduction, it would be worthwhile to replicate the genomic comparisons of  
128 the divergence in the foxes (Kukekova et al., 2018; Lindberg et al., 2005; Wang et al., 2018)  
129 and merino sheep (Ding et al., 2021) in haven/island populations that have lost  
130 antipredator behaviours versus their corresponding wild populations. A SNP divergence  
131 at loci associated with neurotransmitters that have known effects on fecundity in  
132 populations that have lost antipredator behaviour, would confirm the conserved nature  
133 of these relationships and the extent to which conservation management needs to  
134 address this trade-off.

135

136 A general relationship between nervousness and fecundity across wild species is more  
137 difficult to establish due to the challenges in accurately quantifying the role of

138 nervousness in species-specific anti-predator traits, as well as ruling out confounding  
139 influences on fecundity. So called ‘personality’ research in behavioural ecology, however,  
140 has found boldness to be repeatable and heritable across taxa as diverse as mammals,  
141 fish, birds, reptiles and invertebrates (Réale et al., 2007). Further, meta-analysis shows a  
142 positive effect of boldness on reproductive success in captive/domestic animals, with no  
143 relationship in wild populations, presumedly due to a survival disadvantage (Smith &  
144 Blumstein, 2008). If bold individuals obtain more food resources in predator free  
145 environments (Biro & Stamps, 2008; Jolly & Phillips, 2021), this may add further  
146 environmentally induced variation that aligns to any underlying genetic correlation,  
147 further strengthening selection for bold individuals in these environments. Recent  
148 findings that artificially induced predator anxiety results in fecundity and population  
149 declines in field experiments also support the hypothesis (Allen et al., 2022; Zanette et  
150 al., 2024).

151

152 It has been argued that predator-wary traits can persist in populations without predators  
153 if they are selectively neutral (Lahti et al., 2009). Whilst this is true, as we have outlined  
154 here, it may be uncommon given the ancient relationship between anxiety and fecundity.  
155 This is supported in the number of havened species that have lost rather than maintained  
156 predator wariness (Harrison, Phillips, et al., 2023; Jolly & Phillips, 2021; Legge et al.,  
157 2022). Recent work has suggested the value of keeping predators with havened species  
158 and this is perhaps the most obvious solution (Harrison et al., 2024; Moseby et al., 2016;  
159 Moseby et al., 2024), as this should effectively remove bold and fecund individuals and  
160 prevent their offspring swamping the population. There will be circumstances however,  
161 where this may not be viable for numerous logistical reasons (e.g. animal ethics,  
162 conservation status, small haven size). In such situations, the targeted removal of bold  
163 individuals could be sufficient to maintain a selective pressure for anxious predator-shy  
164 individuals. Such removal could be relatively simple if bold individuals tend to be more  
165 trap-happy (Brehm & Mortelliti, 2018; Réale et al., 2000), though species-specific  
166 assessments and techniques would be required (i.e. (Harrison et al., 2022). Regardless,  
167 traps could be modified to require bold behaviour to enter through their positioning (e.g.  
168 in the open), or association with predator scent, vocalisation or taxidermy models. Bold  
169 individuals could be moved to predator free islands for which their traits are well aligned,  
170 and which, in Australia also frequently act as species’ insurance populations. Removed

171 bold individuals could also be used in public education in zoos and for outreach with  
172 private conservation organisations or government conservation departments. Such  
173 strategies would also benefit from the expectation that bold individuals should  
174 experience less stress than other individuals when exposed to humans, thus also directly  
175 addressing animal ethics concerns in human/animal interactions.

176

## 177 **Conclusion**

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179 Whilst captive breeding programs and havens understandably aim to rapidly increase  
180 population numbers, there is evidence that such rapid growth likely selects for fecundity  
181 and thereby comes at the cost of nervousness and associated antipredator behaviours.  
182 In understanding the underlying selective mechanisms at play in these populations,  
183 selection could be directed to ensure traits such as nervousness that are valuable in a  
184 predator rich environment are maintained. Ultimately, there is the potential for havens  
185 and captive bred populations to be managed to ensure the best of both worlds: nervous,  
186 predator-wary individuals selectively maintained for release, and potentially, bold, low  
187 stress 'domesticated' individuals for island refuges and public-facing conservation  
188 education.

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