1 Functional response and population dynamics for fighting predator,

2 **based on activity distribution**

- 3 József Garay*
- 4 Research Group of Theoretical Biology and Ecology of Hungarian Academy of Sciences and
- 5 Department of Plant Systematics, Ecology and Theoretical Biology,
- 6 L. Eötvös University, Pázmány P. sétány 1/C
- 7 H-1117 Budapest, Hungary
- 8 Zoltán Varga
- 9 Institute of Mathematics and Informatics,
- 10 Szent István University, Páter K. u. 1.
- 11 H-2103, Gödöllő, Hungary
- 12 Manuel Gámez
- 13 Center for Agribusiness Biotechnology Research,
- 14 Almeria University, Ctra. Sacramento s/n, ES-04120 Almeria, Spain
- 15 Tomás Cabello
- 16 Center for Agribusiness Biotechnology Research,
- 17 Almeria University, Ctra. Sacramento s/n, ES-04120 Almeria, Spain
- 18 Corresponding author, E-mail: <u>garayj@caesar.elte.hu</u>
- 19 Running headline: Functional response for fighting predator
- 20

1 Abstract

2 The classical Holling type II functional response, describing the per capita predation as function 3 of prey density, was modified by Beddington and DeAngelis to include interference of predators that increases with predator density and decreases the number of killed prey. In the present paper 4 5 we further generalize the Beddington–DeAngelis functional response, considering that all 6 predator activities (searching and handling prey, fight and recovery) have time duration, the 7 probabilities of predator activities depend on the encounter probabilities, and hence on the prev and predator abundance, too. Under these conditions, the aim of the study is to introduce a 8 9 functional response for fighting predator and analyse the corresponding dynamics, when 10 predator-predator-prey encounters also occur. 11 From this general approach, the Holling type functional responses can be also obtained as

12 particular cases. In terms of the activity distribution, we give biologically interpretable sufficient 13 conditions for stable coexistence. We consider two-individual (predator-prey) and three-14 individual (predator-predator-prey) encounters. In the three-individual encounter model there is a 15 relatively higher fighting rate and a lower killing rate. Using numerical simulation, we 16 surprisingly found that when the intrinsic prey growth rate and the conversion rate are small 17 enough, the equilibrium predator abundance is higher in the three-individual encounter case. The 18 above means that, when the equilibrium abundance of the predator is small, coexistence appears 19 first in the three-individual encounter model.

20 Key-words: activity distribution, Beddington-DeAngelis functional response, fighting between

- 21 predators, population dynamics, prey-predator system
- 22

1 1. Introduction

2 In biological systems the interactions between individuals take time. The functional response 3 (see e.g. Holling 1959) takes into account the handling time decreasing the number of active 4 hunting predators. Furthermore, the abundance-dependent and time-consuming intra-specific 5 interaction may decrease the number of hunting predators. The idea that predator abundance has 6 an effect on the functional response is well-studied in ecology (e.g. Abrams 1994; Akcakaya *et* 7 *al.* 1995; Abrams & Ginzburg 2000). From theoretical point of view, Beddington (1975) and 8 DeAngelis *et al.* (1975) independently introduced a functional response that accounts for the 9 predators' interference.

From experimental point of view, while e.g. Fussman *et al.* (2005) showed that consumer has an effect on the functional response only at extraordinary high abundances, e.g. Mech (2007) found that the best fit functional response includes predator abundance dependence.

In a 'paper wasp - shield beetle' system, e.g. Schenk *et al.* (2005) pointed out that the functional response depended on both prey and predator abundances, and both direct (e.g. aggression) and indirect (depletion of prey) interference mechanisms were at work in their system.

In this paper we will consider a one prey – one predator system: in the prey population there is an indirect competition (e.g. depletion of recourses) and between the predators there is a direct interaction, i.e. when two predators encounter, they fight with each other. In this case fight does not only take time, but we can also assume that during the fighting occasional injury may happen, and during recovery the predators stop all other activities, including hunting (e.g. Witz 1990). Furthermore, fighting also decreases the biomass of the predators (e.g. Riechert 1988).

1 Our aim is to develop a model derivation method in which two ecological phenomena can be 2 dealt with at the same time: intra-specific competition between predators (e.g. Chase *et al.* 2002). 3 and time duration of predator activities. If the predator can do only one activity at a time, the 4 interference between predators and the predation process are not independent, or putting it more explicitly: Holling (1959) emphasized the importance of time constraint in predation; 5 6 Beddington (1975) and DeAngelis *et al.* (1975) pointed out that the predators' interference 7 decreases the functional response. Now we are interested in the effect of the time constraint on 8 the competition coefficient between predators, and on the functional response simultaneously, 9 when predator competition and predation are not independent.

We will start from the activity distribution of a predator. We assume that probabilities of the predator activities depend on the abundances of prey and predator populations, since the encounter probabilities do. From the activity distribution of a predator, the functional response and the number of fights per time unit can be calculated. The main point is that fighting between predators and hunting can not be handled separately, since they don't occur at the same time.

15 In Section 2 we introduce a general model for the considered situation. In Section 3, a particular class of the general model is studied: two-individual encounter models are considered where the 16 17 focal individual cannot encounter with a prey and other predator at a time, in the same perception 18 range. This is the consequence of the assumption that prey do not aggregate and are randomly 19 distributed between perception ranges, and we can neglect the case when there are one prey and 20 another predator in one perception range at the same time. The well-known Beddington-21 DeAngelis model is obtained as a particular case of this class. In Section 4 the case is considered 22 when the predator abundance is large enough, so the assumption that the focal predator does not

2 independence of the prey and predator distributions is supposed. It is shown that	t these <i>three</i> -
3 <i>individual encounter models</i> can lead to qualitatively different dynamic behaviour.	In Section 5,
4 simulation results of two- and three-individual encounter models are compared.	Section 6 is
5 dedicated to the discussion of the results. Finally, in Appendices 1-3, condi	tions for the
6 coexistence and asymptotic Lyapunov stability are obtained.	

8 2. Functional response based on general predator activity distribution, the corresponding

9 population dynamics and stable coexistence

10 To derive the functional response we will consider the following class of the predation processes. 11 Predator is only locally omniscient, which has two consequences: First, the predator can observe 12 a prey and/or a conspecific only in a given "small" area called "*perception range*". Second, before arriving, predator has no information on a given perception range, thus it checks the 13 14 perception ranges randomly. The perception ranges are classified by their contents, they may be 15 empty, contain a prey and/or a conspecific. The distribution of different perception ranges depends on the abundance of prey and predator. We will concentrate on a short time period T16 17 (for instance one day), while the change in abundances can be neglected. In other words, during time T the predators can not kill too many prev and/or other predators. 18

19 In summary, during the visiting process, the encounter probabilities depend on the prey and 20 predator abundances; these encounter probabilities do not change during the time period T; focal predator finds a random series of different kind of perception ranges and all following encounter
 events are independent.

3 According to encounter possibilities, assume a predator has four activities. Activity 1: the predator encounters no prey and no predator. Activity 2: the predator encounters and fights with 4 5 another predator (this event also includes recovery from injuries). (In a more structured model it 6 might be included that, in case of different sizes, the smaller conspecific predator escapes.) 7 Activity 3: the predator finds and attacks but misses a prey. Activity 4: the predator finds, 8 attacks, kills and handles a prey. (E.g. in case of Arthropods, this event also includes capture, 9 handling and ingestion of prey, but also the time after cleaning mouthparts, antennae and legs.) A 10 natural assumption is that these activities rule out each other.

11 Clearly, these activities take time and have either energy (or equivalently biomass) intake, or 12 energy loss. An observer can find the following activity distribution at fixed population 13 abundances:

In Table 1 below, T_i is the average time duration of the *i*-th activity, T_s the searching time; T_F 14 the average "time cost" of fighting with a predator; T_M the attack time; T_H the digestion time. 15 Let x be the abundance of prey and y that of predator, $p_i(x, y)$ denotes the probability of *i*-th 16 activity. E.g. $p_1(x, y)$ denotes the probability that the predator is searching in an empty 17 18 perception range. We note that, these probabilities, apart from the abundances, may also depend 19 on the spatial distribution of prey and predator (e.g. Kratina, Vos & Anholt 2007; Nachman, 20 2006); on habitat complexity (e.g. Hillebrand & Cardinale 2004; Grabowski 2004) and on the 21 behaviour of predator and/or prey.

1	Finally, $0 < c_i$ denotes the net energy intake from the <i>i</i> -th activity: c_1 is the cost of searching,
2	c_2 the average cost of fighting activity (cost of searching plus cost of fighting), c_3 the cost of the
3	activity of missed attack (cost of searching plus cost of attack), and c_4 the value of activity of
4	successful predation (the value of prey minus the cost of searching and cost of attack).
5	

Table 1

Now, we use the basic approach of Holling's functional response derivation (Holling 1959), namely we will calculate the average interaction rates per unit time, during a fix time duration *T*. We mention that optimal forager theory postulates that the forager maximizes its average net energy intake per unit time (Stephens & Krebs 1986; Turelli *et al.* 1982). Furthermore, to build up a population dynamics, we also need the time average interaction rates.

Now we derive the average number of predator-prey and predator-predator interactions, per unit time. These interaction rates depend on the abundances of the considered species and on the time duration of activities. We assume that during the considered time period *T*, the abundance of prey and that of predator do not change much. In other words, the activity distributions are constant functions of *x* and *y* within *T*. These assumptions allow us to use the same activity distributions during time period *T*, see Garay & Móri (2010). We have proved that in unit time, n(x, y)

18 the expected number of *i*-th activities can be estimated by
$$\frac{p_i(x, y)}{\sum_j T_j p_j(x, y)}$$
. The intuitive

19 background of this estimation is the following: During time T, we take independent samples 20 from the given activity distribution. Since the activity distribution does not change during T, the 1 average time duration of an activity is $\sum_{j} T_{j} p_{j}(x, y)$. Thus during T, the average number of

2 activity events is
$$\frac{T}{\sum_{j} T_{j} p_{j}(x, y)}$$
. Based on independent repetitions, $p_{i}(x, y)$ part of the average

3 number of activity events is the number of *i*-th activities. Thus during unit time, the expected

4 number of *i*-th activities is estimated by $\frac{p_i(x, y)}{\sum_j T_j p_j(x, y)}$. In particular, the functional response is

5 given by
$$\frac{p_4(x, y)}{\sum_j T_j p_j(x, y)}$$
, and the average number of fights during unit time is $\frac{p_2(x, y)}{\sum_j T_j p_j(x, y)}$.

Now substituting the above interaction rates into the standard ecological model (e.g. Arditi *et al.*2004), yields the following canonical population dynamics:

$$\dot{x} = x(r_1 - ax) - \frac{p_4(x, y)}{\sum_j T_j p_j(x, y)} y$$

8

$$\dot{y} = y \left(-r_2 - \sum_{i=1}^{3} \frac{c_i p_i(x, y)}{\sum_j T_j p_j(x, y)} + c_4 \frac{p_4(x, y)}{\sum_j T_j p_j(x, y)} \right),$$

9 where r_1 is the intrinsic growth rate of prey, a/r_1 the carrying capacity for the prey, and r_2 the 10 intrinsic mortality rate of predator. The novelty of dynamics (1) is that in each interaction rate it 11 takes account of the time durations of all considered predator activities. For instance, the fight 12 between predators is a kind of competition. In lots of dynamical models (see e.g. Haque 2011, 13 and the references in there) the competition coefficient does not depend on the time constraint in 14 the predation process. However, if the predator can do only one activity at **a** time and each 15 interaction has fixed average time duration, then the functional response and the competition

(1)

1	coefficient	are	not	independent,	since	the	time	constraints	connect	them,	as	we	can	see	ir
2	<mark>dynamics (</mark> [<mark>1).</mark>													

4 **Consistence of the model**

- 5 In dynamic models of ecology, a basic requirement is that the positive and nonnegative orthants 6 are invariant and all trajectories are bounded. Each trajectory of prey is nonnegative, if $p_{4}(0, y) = 0$, which always holds, since if there is no prey, then the predator cannot encounter 7 with a prey. Furthermore, each prey trajectory is bounded, since for $x > \frac{r_1}{a}$, the prey density is 8 strictly decreasing, independently of the predator density. Moreover, each predator trajectory is 9 10 also nonnegative. In Appendix 1A), we have proved that, if the functional response tends to zero 11 for predator density tending to infinity, then dynamics (1) is bounded. This condition seems 12 natural, since when the predator density is large enough compared to the prey density, then the 13 predator always fight. For details see Appendix 1.A). 14
- 15 **Coexistence**
- 16 Coexistence takes place if the prey can survive, and the predator can establish a population. 17 Firstly, the prey does not die out, if r_2 is greater than the intake by the functional response when prey density is near zero. This condition seems natural, since it means that the predator cannot 18 19 survive when the prey density is small enough. Secondly, as for the predator, coexistence is 20 guaranteed by the following minimal condition: consider a stable prey population without 21 predator, then the prey density is r_1/a_1 . If a predator arrives in this prey population, and the former can establish a population, then coexistence occurs (for details see Appendix 1). Thirdly, if 22 23 dynamics (1) is bounded and the two species coexist, then there is always an equilibrium or a

1	periodic orbit of the dynamics (1). Fourthly, we note that since in dynamics (1), the probabilities
2	of different activities are arbitrary continuous functions, all kind of coexistence may happen:
3	stable equilibrium or stable cycle (for details see Appendix 1).
4	
5	Stable equilibrium coexistence
6	In Appendix 2, using the linearization method of stability theory, we show that the fulfilment of
7	the following conditions (2)-(5) imply locally stable coexistence (i.e. local asymptotic stability of
8	the interior equilibrium).
9	(2) At the equilibrium, the growth rate of prey resulting from the carrying capacity is less than
10	the decay rate of the prey abundance by the predation pressure (i.e. less than the marginal rate of
11	increase of the functional response with respect to the prey abundance).
12	(3) At the equilibrium the relative rate of increase of the net biomass intake with respect to the
13	prey abundance is smaller than the relative rate of increase of the average time duration of an
14	activity with respect to the predator abundance.
15	(4) At the equilibrium, the relative rate of decrease of the functional response with respect to the
16	predator abundance should be large enough. The smaller the equilibrium predator abundance is,
17	the higher this threshold is.

18 (5) At the equilibrium, the relative rate of increase of the net biomass intake with respect to
19 the prey abundance is greater than the relative rate of increase of the average time duration of an
20 activity with respect to the predator abundance.

21

In Appendix 3 we show that an appropriately defined dissipativity is a general sufficient condition for *globally stable coexistence in dynamics* (1) (i.e. for global asymptotic stability of

1	an interior equilibrium). To this end, we adapted the notion of dissipativity of a Lotka-Volterra
2	system to our case. The term "dissipative" here is based on the fact that the interaction decreases
3	the biomass of the system, which is a generalization of the well-known notion of dissipativity in
4	Lotka-Volterra systems. We note that, in our case, in each interaction the biomass strictly
5	decreases: The competition between prey and the interaction between predators has negative
6	effect on the biomass. Furthermore, during predation the biomass of killed prey is greater than
7	the increase in predator biomass, since there is a cost of attack and digestion as well. So, from
8	biological view, we think system (1) is usually dissipative, but we can not proof this conjecture.
9	The consequences of the above activity distribution based modelling are illustrated with the

10

12 **3. Two-individual encounter model**

following cases.

Now we consider a probabilistic model of the simplest case, when only *two-individual encounters* are possible, in other words, the focal predator cannot encounter with a prey and another predator at a time in the same perception range. This is implied by the assumption that prey do not aggregate and are randomly distributed between perception ranges, i.e. there is only at most one prey in each perception range. Furthermore, the abundances of prey and predator are so small that we can neglect the case when there are one prey and another predator in one perception range at the same time.

Suppose that the prey and predator distribution is well mixed in the home range of the predator,
in a homogeneous field of *H* area units where the prey and predator abundances are *x* and *y*,

1 respectively. Denote the area of a perception range of an individual predator by h, so in the 2 considered field there are $\frac{H}{h}$ perception ranges. Based on the above assumptions, x and y are the 3 numbers of perception ranges where there is a solitary prey and a solitary predator, respectively. 4 Furthermore, there are $\frac{H}{h} - x - y$ empty perception ranges. Since interactions occur only when 5 an individual encounters another individual, first we have to calculate the probabilities of 6 different encounter events.

7 In order to obtain encounter probabilities between zero and one, we have to assume that 8 $\frac{H}{h} >> x + y$. Now suppose that a focal predator individual encounters neither prey nor other

9 predator with probability
$$d(0,0) = 1 - \frac{h}{H}x - \frac{h}{H}y$$
, encounters a prey with probability

10 $d(X,0) = \frac{h}{H}x$, and encounters another predator with probability $d(0,Y) = \frac{h}{H}y$. For the sake of

simplicity, here we assume that $y \approx y-1$. Similar assumption is widely used in random processes.

Now, we have to define what will happen in different encounters. Let us assume that when two predators meet then they always fight. (Here we could suppose that the probability of fight is less then one, but in this case we would have an extra activity: two predators encounter without fight). Furthermore, assume that the predator is locally omniscient, i.e. in its perception range the predator can surely observe its prey and the other predator as well, but it has no information on the other perception ranges. Predator can kill its prey with probability k.

Based on the above assumption we have the following activity distribution: No interaction happens with probability $p_1(x, y) = 1 - p_2(x, y) - p_3(x, y) - p_4(x, y)$, two predators fight with 1 probability $p_2(x, y) = \frac{h}{H} y$, predator misses a prey with probability $p_3(x, y) = (1-k)\frac{h}{H}x$, and 2 kills it with probability $p_4(x, y) = k\frac{h}{H}x$. Under the present assumptions we get the activity 3 distribution given in Table 2.

4

Table 2

5 Now, using this actual activity distribution, we get a concrete version of population dynamics6 (1):

7
$$\dot{x} = x \left((r_1 - ax) - \frac{ky}{\frac{H}{h}T_s + T_F y + [T_M + kT_H]x} \right),$$

8
$$\dot{y} = y \left(-r_2 + \frac{c_4 kx - c_1 \left(\frac{H}{h} - x - y\right) - c_2 y - c_3 (1 - k)x}{\frac{H}{h} T_s + T_F y + [T_M + kT_H]x} \right)$$

- 9
- 10

11Beddington-DeAngelis- functional response. Let us now ignore the cost of searching and attack,12furthermore suppose that predators fight. Moreover, assume that the predator is always13successful, i.e. k = 1, and attack does not need time, $T_M = 0$. In this particular case we obtain the14activity distribution given in Table 3.15Table 3

- 1 Hence we get back the Beddington-DeAngelis functional response, since the average number of
- 2 prey killed per time unit is $\frac{x}{\frac{H}{h}T_s + T_F y + T_H x}$. We note that our functional response derivation
- 3 method also gives back the classical Holling functional responses (see Garay and Móri 2011) as
- 4 particular cases. Dynamics (1) now reads
- 5

$$\dot{x} = x \left((r_1 - ax) - \frac{y}{\frac{H}{h}T_s + T_F y + T_H x} \right)$$

$$\dot{y} = y \left| -r_2 + \frac{c_4 x - c_2 y}{\frac{H}{h} T_s + T_F y + T_H x} \right|$$

- 8 Here we strictly follow the steps of investigation of the general dynamics (1), but now we have a
- 9 concrete activity distribution.
- 10 Firstly, each solution is bounded if for all $x \in [0, \frac{r_1}{a}[$, there exists y_x , such that for all
- 11 $y > y_x$ we have $\dot{y} < 0$, which obviously holds with $\bar{y}_x = \frac{c_4 r_2 T_H}{c_2 + r_2 T_F} x \frac{r_2 T_S}{c_2 + r_2 T_F} \frac{H}{h}$. Therefore
- 12 the above dynamics is bounded.
- 13 Secondly, the predator can establish a population, if near equilibrium $(\frac{r_1}{a}, 0)$ of the above
- 14 dynamics, $\dot{y} > 0$ holds, which is the case if

15
$$r_{2} < \frac{c_{4}r_{1}}{a\frac{H}{h}T_{S} + T_{H}r_{1}}, \quad \dot{y} = y \left(-r_{2} + \frac{c_{4}x - c_{2}y}{\frac{H}{h}T_{S} + T_{F}y + T_{H}x}\right)$$

1 Thirdly, there exists an interior equilibrium:

3
$$y^* = \frac{c_4 - r_2 T_H}{r_2 T_F + c_2} x^* - \frac{H}{h} \frac{r_2 T_S}{r_2 T_F + c_2}$$

4

5 where
$$A = [T_F c_4 + T_H c_2]a$$
, $B = \left[\left(\frac{H}{h}T_S a - r_1 T_H\right)c_2 + (1 - r_1 T_F)c_4 - r_2 T_H\right]$, $C = \frac{H}{h}T_S[r_1 c_2 + r_2]$.

6 <u>Local stability by linearization</u>. The Jacobian matrix at the equilibrium is

7

$$8 \qquad \mathbf{J} = \begin{pmatrix} x^* \left(-a + \frac{T_H y^*}{\left(\frac{H}{h} T_S + T_F y^* + T_H x^*\right)^2}\right) & x^* \left(-\frac{\frac{H}{h} T_S + T_H x^*}{\left(\frac{H}{h} T_S + T_F y^* + T_H x^*\right)^2}\right) \\ y^* \left(\frac{c_4 \left(\frac{H}{h} T_S + T_F y^*\right) + c_2 T_H y^*}{\left(\frac{H}{h} T_S + T_F y^* + T_H x^*\right)^2}\right) & y^* \left(\frac{-c_2 \left(\frac{H}{h} T_S + T_H x^*\right) - c_4 T_F x^*}{\left(\frac{H}{h} T_S + Y^* + T_H x^*\right)^2}\right) \end{pmatrix}$$

9 Observe that the latter has the following sign structure:

10
$$\mathbf{J} = \begin{pmatrix} \pm & -\\ + & - \end{pmatrix}$$

- 11
- 12 A well-known sufficient condition for the stability of the Jacobian matrix (i.e. for the negativity
- 13 of the real part of each eigenvalue of **J**) is tr**J**<0 and det**J**>0. The first inequality reads
- 14
- 15
- 16

$$\operatorname{tr} \mathbf{J} = x^* \left(-a + \frac{T_H y^*}{\left(\frac{H}{h} T_S + T_F y^* + T_H x^*\right)^2} \right) + y^* \left(\frac{-c_2 \left(\frac{H}{h} T_S + T_H x^*\right) - c_4 x^* T_F}{\left(\frac{H}{h} T_S + y^* + T_H x^*\right)^2} \right) < 0$$

h

2 Observe that a sufficient condition for the latter is

$$-a + \frac{T_H y^*}{\left(\frac{H}{h} T_S + T_F y^* + T_H x^*\right)^2} < 0.$$

4 A simple calculation shows that the latter condition also implies det J > 0, and therefore it is a 5 sufficient condition for the local asymptotic stability of equilibrium (x^*, y^*) for the original 6 nonlinear system.

7

3

8 Numerical example 1. We consider the parameters: $T_S=1$; $T_F=10$; $T_H=2$; $T_H=11$; $r_1=0.7$; $r_2=0.05$; 9 a=0.01; $c_1=0.1$; $c_2=0.2$; $c_3=0.15$; $c_4=1.4$; h=1; H=200; k=0.7. It is easy to check that both the 10 linearization and the Lyapunov function method (dissipativity) imply stable coexistence at 11 interior equilibrium $(x^*, y^*) = (69.07, 13.31)$, see Figure 1.

12

Figure 1

13

14 4. Three-individual encounter model

15 When the predator abundance is large enough, our previous assumption (that the focal predator 16 does not encounter with prey and predator at the same time) is not reasonable (see Fussman *et al.* 17 2005). For the sake of simplicity, we assume that the prey and predator distributions are 18 independent. Thus the focal predator individual encounters a prey only, with probability

 $d(X,0) = \frac{h}{H}x\left(1-\frac{h}{H}y\right)$, since the probability that one prey is in a given perception range 1 is $\frac{h}{H}x$, the probability that another predator is in the same perception range, is $x\left(1-\frac{h}{H}y\right)$. 2 Furthermore, since the prey and the predator are independently distributed, $\frac{h}{H}x\left(1-\frac{h}{H}y\right)$ is the 3 4 probability that no prey and no another predator are in a perception range. Similarly, the focal predator encounters other predator only, with probability $d(0,Y) = \left(1 - \frac{h}{H}x\right)\frac{h}{H}y$, encounters 5 other predator and a prey at a time with probability $d(X,Y) = \frac{h}{H}x\frac{h}{H}y$, and encounters neither 6 prey nor other predator with probability $d(0,0) = \left(1 - \frac{h}{H}x\right)\left(1 - \frac{h}{H}y\right)$. Moreover, assume when 7 8 fight. thus the probability of two predators meet. always fight is they $p_2(x, y) = d(0, Y) + d(X, Y) = \frac{h}{H}y$. Under these biological assumptions we get the activity 9 10 distribution shown in Table 4. 11 Table 4 12 Using the actual activity distribution of Table 4, we get a concrete version of population 13 dynamics (1): 14 $\dot{x} = x(r_1 - ax) - \frac{k\frac{h}{H}x\left(1 - \frac{h}{H}y\right)}{T_s + T_F\frac{hy}{H} + T_M\frac{hx}{H} - T_M\frac{h^2xy}{H^2} + T_H\frac{khx}{H} - T_H\frac{kh^2xy}{H^2}}y,$ 15

16

$$2 \qquad \dot{y} = y \left(-r_2 + \frac{c_4 k \frac{h}{H} x \left(1 - \frac{h}{H} y\right) - c_1 \left(1 - \frac{h}{H} \left[x \left(1 - \frac{h}{H} y\right) + y \right] \right) - c_2 \frac{h}{H} y - c_3 (1 - k) \frac{h}{H} x \left(1 - \frac{h}{H} y\right)}{T_s + T_F \frac{hy}{H} + T_M \frac{hx}{H} - T_M \frac{h^2 xy}{H^2} + T_H \frac{khx}{H} - T_H \frac{kh^2 xy}{H^2}}{T_F \frac{hy}{H} + T_M \frac{hx}{H} - T_M \frac{h^2 xy}{H^2}} \right).$$

Using computer simulation, we could not find parameters for which this system had more than

4	one interior equilibriums. Thus we found no bistable coexistence in this system (cf. Garay <i>et al.</i>
5	2012).
6	
7	Numerical example 2. If we take the parameters of Numerical example 1, for the above
8	dynamics we obtain that both the linearization method and the Lyapunov function method
9	(dissipativity) again imply stable coexistence at the interior equilibrium $(x^*, y^*) = (69.92, 10.25)$.
10	The system turns out to be dissipative at this equilibrium, see Figure 2.
11	Figure 2
12	
13	
14	5. Comparison of the above two models
15	The fight always decreases the equilibrium abundance of predator, since the energy cost of
16	fighting decreases the total predator biomass, and the time duration of fighting decreases the
17	average number of hunting predators (in particular, during recovery predator does not hunt).
18	Consider both two-individual and three-individual encounter models at the same abundances. In
19	the latter we assume that two predators always fight when they encounter, no matter whether
20	there is a prey or not.

Based on this assumption, the probability of fight is the same in both models. Furthermore, the successful hunting has lower probability in the three-individual encounter model than in the twoindividual one. In summary: in the three-individual encounter model there is a relatively higher fighting rate and a lower killing rate. Consequently the functional response is smaller. This means that in the three-individual encounter model the same number of predator has a smaller effect on the prey abundance than in the two-individual one.

Thus, at first glance, one may expect the equilibrium predator abundance to be lower in the three-individual encounter model, since the prey surely survives in a three-individual encounter (since whenever two predators meet, they always fight). Simulations, however, show this is the case only when the conversion rate c_4 is high enough (see Figure 3), and what is more, for fixed r_1 with growing c_4 , coexistence appears first in the three-individual encounter model, and then predator abundance is higher in this model than in the two-individual encounter model, when c_4 is still not too large, see Figure 3.

14

Figure 3

15

16 A possible explanation to this is the following: Let us consider a pair of parameters r_1 and c_4 17 where there is still no coexistence in either of the two models. This means that the stably existing 18 prey is not able to maintain the predator population. Now, for greater c_4 coexistence appears first 19 in the three-individual encounter model, where the predator is less efficient, since its functional 20 response is lower. The latter also results in more surviving prey per unit time, therefore the 21 higher biomass production of the prey (per unit time) may maintain the predator population. 22 Furthermore, in this parameter range, the equilibrium predator abundance is low, having only a 23 slight effect on killing probability.

For higher conversion rate (energetic value of prey) c_4 , due to the higher predator abundance, fighting is more frequent in both models. Furthermore, in the three-individual encounter model, the probability of killing a prey decreases with increasing predator abundance, while in the twoindividual encounter model it does not depend on the predator abundance. This may imply that, for high conversion rate c_4 , the equilibrium predator abundance is higher in the two-individual encounter model.

- 7
- 8

9 **6.** Discussion

10 **Derivation of functional responses**

11 Over the last decades, numerous functional responses have been already introduced (see Jeschke 12 *et al.* 2002), since there is no single functional response that would well fit to any data set (e.g. 13 Skalski & Gilliam 2001). The main obstacle is that the functional response is very sensitive to 14 the details of the considered biological situation. Under the assumption that during time T the 15 abundances of interacting species do not change radically, our mechanism based method makes 16 it possible to take into account the fine details of the considered biological case. Our method is 17 very near the classical derivation of functional response by renewal theory (see e.g. McNamara 18 & Houston 1999), when under the assumption that the prey population immediately renews, the 19 functional response is also the ratio of the encounter rate and the time average. We note that the 20 encounter distribution and the activity distribution are not the same in general, since when a 21 predator faces an encounter situation, it may use different strategies, e.g. when predator 22 encounters another predator then one of them may flee. In this strategic situation we obtain an ecological game (see e.g. Cressman *et al.* 2014). In present paper we did not consider ecological
 games.

3

4 Concerning the resulting functional responses

5 We considered the case when the predators not only hunt but also fight with each other. This is a particular case of predator interference. Based on activity distribution we also derived the 6 7 Beddington-DeAngelis functional response. We note that e.g. Geritz. & Gyllenberg (2012), using 8 differential equation at quasi-steady state, also derived a Beddington-DeAngelis type functional 9 response, based on biological assumptions quite different from ours. While Geritz & Gyllenberg, 10 (2012) considered non-interacting predator and prey using refuge, we considered fight between 11 predators and prey that does not use refuge. Thus, our resulting functional responses give a slight 12 generalization of the original functional responses of Beddington (1975) and DeAngelis *et al.* 13 (1975), shedding a new light on them.

14

15 About stable coexistence

To our knowledge, we are the first to give sufficient conditions for stable coexistence in our general model (1), based on the ecological details such as growth rate of prey resulting from the carrying capacity, diminishing rate of prey abundance by the predation pressure, rate of increase of the net biomass intake, rate of increase of the average time duration of an activity, rate of decrease of the functional response with respect to the predator abundance, rate of increase of the net biomass intake and rate of increase of the average time duration of an activity.

22 Our observation that coexistence appears first in the three-individual encounter model may have

23 an important implication for modelling methodology. In modelling, three-individual encounters

1 (interactions) are usually neglected based on the following reasons: First, two-individual 2 interactions are more probable. Second, higher-order encounters usually increase the non-3 linearity of the model, thus its analysis becomes harder. However, we have found that when the 4 equilibrium abundance of the predator is small (thus the three-individual encounters are very 5 improbable), coexistence appears first in the three-individual encounter model.

6 Now the question arises whether the number of encounters between predators is high 7 enough to modify the functional response. We mention two possibilities: First, the territorial 8 behaviour (and the dispersal of young predators) decreases the interaction between predators, but 9 does not rule it out. The scanning of the territory and fighting with intruder conspecific take time 10 (including recovery time), thus the time for predation attacks should be decreased by the predator 11 interference, and hence the latter can increase the survival of prey. For instance, it was observed that wolves hunted little in the borders of their territory in order to avoid fatal encounters with 12 neighbours, thus in the buffer zone of wolf packs' territories the survival rate of deer is higher 13 14 (Mech 1977). Furthermore, territorial behaviour decreases the local predator abundance. Based 15 on our observation that the predator interference ensures the coexistence with not so fecund and 16 not so valuable prey, we think a territorial predator establishes a population easier than a non-17 territorial one, when their prey is not so fecund and not so valuable. Second, cleptoparasitism is 18 also not an energy free and not a time free predator interference (Broom & Rychtar 2013), for 19 which a three-individual encounter is a prerequisite. The cleptoparasitism increases the survival 20 rate of prey, when decreases the functional response, if the time duration of cleptoparasitization 21 is greater than searching time (thus the denominator of the functional response, i.e. the time average of one activity increases) and the encounter probability of two predators is positive (thus 22 23 the numerator of the functional response, i.e. the probability to encounter only prey, decreases).

1	Although, a predator must have killed a prey before cleptoparasitization occurs, in this case the
2	prey does surely not survive under predator interference. Furthermore, during
3	cleptoparasitization, the predator is either injured or falls victim of a cannibal attack (Nilsson &
4	Brönmark 1999), which also increases the predation pressure on the prey.
5	Our functional response derivation, in the future, can be applied for territorial behaviour
6	and cleptoparasitism, but these cases need ecological game theory, since the activity of the
7	predator becomes dependent on the strategy of the predator.
8	
9	Acknowledgments
10	The research was supported by the Hungarian National Scientific Research Fund OTKA
11	(K81279) and also funded by the Regional Government of Andalusia (Spain), Programme of
12	Excellence Projects (ref: P09-AGR-5000) of the Junta de Andalusia, Consejeria de Economia,
13	Innovacion y Ciencia, with joint financing from FEDER Funds. The authors thank for the Editor
14	and Reviewer comments, they helped a lot to improve the manuscript.
15	
16	References
17	Abrams, P. (1994) The fallacies of "ratio-dependent" predation. <i>Ecology</i> 75: 1842-1850.
18	Abrams, P. & Ginzburg, L.R. (2000) The nature of predation: prey dependent, ratio dependent or
19	neither. Trends in Ecology & Evolution 15: 337-341.
20	Akcakaya, HR., Arditi, R. & Ginsburg, L.R. (1995) Ratio-dependent predation: an abstract that
21	work. <i>Ecology</i> 76 : 995-1004.

1	Arditi, R., Callois, J.M., Tyutyunov, Y & Jost, C. (2004) Does mutual interference always							
2	stabilize predator-prey dynamics? A comparison of models. Comptes Rendus Biologies 372:							
3	1037-1057.							
4	Beddington, J. R. (1975) Mutual interference between parasites or predator and its effect on							
5	searching efficiency. Journal of Animal Ecology 44: 331-340.							
6	Broom M., Rychtar, J. (2013). Game-Theoretical Models in Biology. Chapman & Hall/CRC							
7	Mathematical and Computational Biology							
8	Chase, J.M., Abrams, P.A., Grover, J.P., Diehl, S., Chasson, P., Holt, R.D., Rihards, S.A.,							
9	Nisbet, R.M. & Case, T.J. (2002) The interaction between predator and competition: a review							
10	and synthesis. <i>Ecology Letters</i> 5 :302-315.							
11	Cressman, R., Krivan, V., Brown J., Garay, J. (2014). Game-theoretic methods for functional							
12	response and optimal foraging behavior. PLoS ONE, 9, e88773.							
13	doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0088773							
14	DeAngelis, D.L, Goldstein, R.V & O'Neill, R.V. (1975) A model for tropic interaction. <i>Ecology</i>							
15	56 : 881-892.							
16	Fussman, G.F., Weithoff, G. & Yoshida, T. (2005) A direct, experimental test of resurce vs.							
17	consumers dependence. Ecology 86: 2924-2930							
18	Garay, J., Varga, Z., Cabello, T. & Gamez, M. (2012) Optimal nutrient foraging strategy of an							
19	omnivore: Liebig's law determining numerical response. Journal of Theoretical Biology 310:							
20	31-42.							
21	Garay. J. & Móri F.T. (2010) When is predator's opportunism remunerative? Community							
22	<i>Ecol</i> ogy 11 : 160-170.							

- Geritz, S. & Gyllenberg, M. (2012) A mechanistic derivation of the DeAngelis–Beddington
 functional response. *Journal of Theoretical Biology* **314**: 106-108.
- 3 Grabowski, J.H. (2004) Habitat complexity disrupts predator-prey interactions but not the trophic
- 4 cascade on oyster reefs. *Ecology* **85**: 995-1004.
- 5 Haque, M. (2011) A detailed study of the Beddington–DeAngelis predator–prey model. *Math.*
- 6 *Bioscien.* 234: 1-16
- Hillebrand, H. & Cardinale, B.J. (2004) Consumer effects decline with prey diversity. *Ecology Letters* 7: 192-201.
- 9 Holling, C.S. (1959) The components of predation as revealed by a study of small mammal
- 10 predation of the European pine sawfly. *Canadian Entomology* **91**: 293-320.
- Hofbauer, J. & Sigmund, K (1988) *The theory of evolution and dynamical systems: mathematical aspects of selection.* Cambridge University Press
- 13

14 Jeschke, J.M., Kopp, M. & Tollrian R. (2002) Predator functional responses: discriminating

- between handling and digesting prey. *Ecological Monogaphs* **72**:95-112.
- 16 Kratina, P., Vos, M. & Anholt, B.R. (2007) Species diversity modulates predation. *Ecology* 88:
- 17 1917-1923.
- 18 Mech, L. D. (1977) Wolf-pack buffer zones as prey reservoirs. Science 198: 320-321.
- 19 McNamara, J.M. & Houston A.I. (1999) Models of Adaptive Behaviour. Cambridge University
- 20 Press
- 21 Nachman, G. (2006). A functional response model of a predator population foraging in a patch
- 22 habitat. J. Anim. Ecol. 75:948-958.
- 23 Nilsson, P.A., Bronmark, C. (1999) Foraging among cannibals and kleptoparasites: Effects of
- 24 prey size on pike behavior. *Behav. Ecol.* **10**: 557-566.

1	Riechert, S.E. (1988)	The energetic	costs of	fighting.	Integrative	and	Comparative	Biology,
2	28(3): 877.884.							

- Schenk, D., Bersier, L.F. & Bacher S. (2005) An experimental test of the nature of predation:
 neither prey- nor ratio-dependent. *Journal of Animal Ecology* 74:86-91.
- 5 Skalski, G.T., Gilliam, J.F. (2001) Functional responses with predator interference: viable
 6 alternatives to the Holling Type II model. *Ecology* 82:3083-3092.
- 7 Stephens, D. W., Krebs J. R. (1986) Foraging Theory. Princeton University Press, Princeton.
- 8 Turelli, M., Gillespie, J.H., Schoener T.W. (1982) The fallacy of the fallacy of the averages in
- 9 ecological optimization theory. *American Naturalist* **119**: 879-884.
- Witz, B.W. (1990) Antipredator Mechanisms in Arthropods: A twenty year literature survey. *The Florida Entomologist*, 73(1): 71-99.
- 12

- 1 Table 1. General predator activity distribution.

		Parameter		
	Activity	Duration time	Probability	Energy
	Empty range found	$T_1=T_S$	$p_1(x, y)$	- <i>C</i> 1
	Fight	$T_2 = T_F + T_S$	$p_2(x, y)$	- <i>C</i> ₂
	Prey missed	$T_3 = T_M + T_S$	$p_3(x, y)$	- <i>C</i> 3
	Prey killed	$T_4 = T_M + T_H + T_S$	$p_4(x, y)$	C_4
3				

1 Table 2. Predator activity distribution in the two-individual encounter model.

	Parameter		
Activity	Duration time	Probability	Energy
Empty range found	$T_1 = T_S$	$1 - [(h/H) \cdot (x + y)]$	- <i>C</i> 1
Fight	$T_2 = T_F + T_S$	(h/H)·y	- <i>C</i> ₂
Prey missed	$T_3=T_M+T_S$	$(1-k)\cdot(h/H)\cdot x$	- <i>C</i> 3
Prey killed	$T_4 = T_M + T_H + T_S$	$k \cdot (h/H) \cdot x$	<i>C</i> 4

1 Table 3. Predator activity distribution providing Beddington-DeAngelis functional response.

	Parameter		
<mark>Activity</mark>	Duration time	Probability	Energy
Empty range found	$T_1 = T_S$	$1 - \left[(h/H) \cdot (x+y) \right]$	<mark>0</mark>
<mark>Fight</mark>	$T_2 = T_F + T_S$	(h/H)·y	<mark>0</mark>
Prey killed	$T_4 = T_M + T_H + T_S$	$(h/H) \cdot x$	<mark>C4</mark>

1 Table 4. Predator activity distribution in the three-individual encounter model.

	Parameter		
Activity	Duration time	Probability	Energy
Empty range found	$T_1 = T_S$	$1-(h/H) \cdot \{ x \cdot [1-(h/H) \cdot y] + y \}$	- <i>C</i> 1
Fight	$T_2 = T_F + T_S$	$(h/H) \cdot y$	- <i>C</i> ₂
Prey missed	$T_3 = T_M + T_S$	$(1-k)\cdot(h/H)\cdot x\cdot\{1-[(h/H)\cdot y]\}$	- <i>C</i> 3
Prey killed	$T_4 = T_M + T_H + T_S$	$k \cdot (h/H) \cdot x \cdot \{1 - [(h/H) \cdot y]\}$	<i>C</i> 4

1	Figure 1. Isoclines and solutions for the two-individual encounter model, with parameters of
2	Numerical example 1. Stable coexistence at equilibrium $(x^*, y^*)=(69.07, 13.31)$. Programed in
3	MatLab environment.
4	
5	Figure 2. Isoclines and solutions for the three-individual encounter model with parameters of

Numerical example 2. Stable coexistence at equilibrium $(x^*, y^*) = (69.92, 10.25)$. Programed in MatLab environment.

8

9 Figure 3. Stable coexistence as function of intrinsic growth rate of prey r_1 and the energetic value

10 of a prey c_4 . Programed in MatLab environment.



1 Figure 2

2 COLOUR FOR WEB AND TO BE PRINTED IN BLACK-AND-WHITE

- 90 -80 r



- 1 Figure 3
- 2 COLOUR FOR WEB





1 Figure 3

2 TO BE PRINTED IN BLACK-AND-WHITE











Assume that dynamics (1) is bounded. Now the question arises: is the set of points (x,0)
(
$$0 \le x \le \overline{x}$$
) a repellor to the interior of the positive half-plane? This question splits into two sub-
questions:
B.1. When does prey not die out? Clearly, if r_2 is greater than the intake by the functional
response for prey density near zero, then equilibrium (0, 0) is a saddle.
B.2. When can predator survive?
If $y=0$, then $x(t)$ tends to \overline{x} , thus the question is whether $\overline{y} > 0$ holds at (\overline{x}, y) , for all
sufficiently small $y > 0$. It is not hard to see that
 $-r_2 - \sum_{i=1}^{3} \frac{c_i p_i(x, y)}{j} + c_4 \frac{p_4(x, y)}{j} \sum_{j} T_i p_j(x, y)} > 0$
holds whenever
 $(c_4 + c_M) \frac{p_4(x, y)}{\sum_{j} T_j p_j(x, y)} > r_2 + \frac{c_M}{\sum_{j} T_j p_j(x, y)},$

- 13 where $c_M := \max \{c_1, c_2, c_3\}$. Since the activity probabilities continuously depend on the densities, it
- 14 is enough to suppose that

15
$$(c_4 + c_M) \frac{p_4(\bar{x}, 0)}{\sum_j T_j p_j(\bar{x}, 0)} > r_2 + \frac{c_M}{\sum_j T_j p_j(\bar{x}, 0)}$$

16 This inequality has the following implication: Consider a stable prey population without
17 predator, so the prey density is
$$\bar{x}$$
. If the predator arrives in this prey population, then there are
18 two possibilities: either the predator can establish a population when the above inequality holds,

- or the predator cannot establish a population since the prey density is too small (in particular,
 when the above inequality does not hold).
- 3

4 C) Possible types of coexistence and existence of equilibrium

- 5 In order to guarantee the coexistence in dynamics (1), we can apply the Poincaré-Bendixson
- 6 theorem (see e.g. Hofbauer & Sigmund 1988). Under the condition implying boundedness of
- 7 dynamics (1), the omega-limit set ω corresponding to any initial value in the positive quadrant,
- 8 is not empty. Therefore, either a) there is an equilibrium in ω , or b) ω is a periodic orbit. Since
- 9 under the conditions of subsections B1 and B2, both (0,0) and $(0,\bar{x})$ are saddles, an equilibrium
- 10 in ω cannot be either of them. Therefore, in both cases a) and b) coexistence is obtained.
- 11 (Furthermore, a periodic orbit also surrounds an equilibrium.)
- 12

13

Appendix 2. Local asymptotic stability by linearization

14 For the brevity, let us rewrite system (1) with different notation:

15
$$\dot{x} = x(r_1 - ax) - \frac{p_4(x, y)}{\sum_j T_j p_j(x, y)} y = F(x, y)$$

16
$$\dot{y} = y \left(-r_2 + \frac{\sum_i \overline{c_i} p_i(x, y)}{\sum_j T_j p_j(x, y)} \right) = y G(x, y),$$

17 where constants $\overline{c}_i := -c_i (i = 1, 2, 3), \overline{c}_4 := c_4$ are introduced just for a more compact way of

linearization method, it is easy to see that for the local asymptotic stability of the equilibrium it is 1 2 sufficient that either the following Conditions (A.1) - (A.2) (3) and (A.3) - (A4) (5); or 3 Conditions (A.1) - (A.2) and (A.5) - (A.6) hold.

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x}F(x^*, y^*) < 0 \tag{A.1}$$

 $\frac{\partial y^* G(x^*, y^*)}{\partial y} < 0$ ∂y

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial y}F(x^*,y^*) < 0 \tag{A.3}$$

$$\frac{\partial y^* G(x^*, y^*)}{\partial x} > 0 \tag{A4}$$

8
$$\frac{\partial}{\partial y}F(x^*, y^*) > 0$$
 (A5)

9
$$\frac{\partial y^* G(x^*, y^*)}{\partial x} < 0$$
 (A6)

10

4

5

6

7

11

12 **Conditions** (A.1) - (A.2)

13 Condition (A.1) implies that at the equilibrium the per capita growth rate of each population is a partially decreasing function of its own abundance. With more details, for the prey 14 а S

15
$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x}F(x^*, y^*) < 0$$
 reads

16
$$r_1 - 2ax^* < \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \frac{p_4(x^*, y^*)}{\sum_j T_j p_j(x^*, y^*)} y^*.$$
 (A.7)

(A.2)

- 1 Observe that $r_1 2ax^*$ means the per capita prey growth rate without predation pressure, and
- $2 \qquad \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \frac{p_4(x^*, y^*)}{\sum_j T_j p_j(x^*, y^*)} y^* \text{ is the marginal change in the consumption of the predator with respect to}$
- the prey abundance. Thus (A.6) means that at the equilibrium, the growth rate of prey resulting from the carrying capacity is less than the decay rate of prey abundance by the predation pressure (i.e. less than the marginal rate of increase of the functional response with respect to the prey abundance).

7 Condition (3) for the predator,
$$\frac{\partial y^* G(x^*, y^*)}{\partial y} < 0$$
, can be written as

$$8 \qquad \frac{\partial}{\partial y} y \left(-r_2 + \frac{\sum_i \overline{c}_i p_i \left(x^*, y^*\right)}{\sum_j T_j p_j \left(x^*, y^*\right)} \right) = \left(-r_2 + \frac{\sum_i \overline{c}_i p_i \left(x^*, y^*\right)}{\sum_j T_j p_j \left(x^*, y^*\right)} \right) + y^* \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial y} \frac{\sum_i \overline{c}_i p_i \left(x^*, y^*\right)}{\sum_j T_j p_j \left(x^*, y^*\right)} \right) < 0.$$

9 Since (x^*, y^*) is an equilibrium, the latter inequality is equivalent to

10
$$\frac{\partial}{\partial y} \frac{\sum_{i} \overline{c}_{i} p_{i}\left(x^{*}, y^{*}\right)}{\sum_{j} T_{j} p_{j}\left(x^{*}, y^{*}\right)} < 0.$$
(A.8)

(A.8) implies that at the equilibrium the net energy intake from all activities is a strictly
decreasing function of the predator abundance.

13 Since at the equilibrium the net biomass intake of the predator is necessarily positive (i.e.

14 $\sum_{i} \overline{c_i} p_i(x^*, y^*) > 0$), we immediately obtain that (A.8) is equivalent to

15
$$\frac{\frac{\partial}{\partial y}\sum_{i}\overline{c}_{i}p_{i}\left(x^{*}, y^{*}\right)}{\sum_{i}\overline{c}_{i}p_{i}\left(x^{*}, y^{*}\right)} < \frac{\frac{\partial}{\partial y}\sum_{j}T_{j}p_{j}\left(x^{*}, y^{*}\right)}{\sum_{j}T_{j}p_{j}\left(x^{*}, y^{*}\right)},$$
(A.9)

which means that at the equilibrium, the relative rate of increase of the net biomass intake with
respect to the prey abundance is smaller than the relative rate of increase of the average time
duration of an activity with respect to the predator abundance.

4

5 **Conditions** (A.3) - (A4)

6 Now let us consider Condition (A.3). For the prey population we get that $\frac{\partial}{\partial y} F(x^*, y^*) < 0$ reads

7 as

8
$$\frac{\partial}{\partial y}\left[x^*\left(r_1-ax^*\right)-\frac{p_4\left(x^*,y^*\right)}{\sum_j T_j p_j\left(x^*,y^*\right)}y^*\right]=-\frac{\partial}{\partial y}\left[\frac{p_4\left(x^*,y^*\right)}{\sum_j T_j p_j\left(x^*,y^*\right)}y^*\right]<0,$$

9 i.e.

10
$$\frac{\partial}{\partial y} \left[\frac{p_4(x^*, y^*)}{\sum_j T_j p_j(x^*, y^*)} y^* \right] > 0, \qquad (A.10)$$

which implies that at the equilibrium the total killing (functional response multiplied by the
predator abundance) is a strictly increasing function of the abundance of the predator. Condition
(A.10) is equivalent to

14
$$\frac{p_4(x^*, y^*)}{\sum_j T_j p_j(x^*, y^*)} + y^* \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \frac{p_4(x^*, y^*)}{\sum_j T_j p_j(x^*, y^*)} > 0.$$

15 Since
$$\frac{p_4(x^*, y^*)}{\sum_j T_j p_j(x^*, y^*)} > 0$$
, (A.10) can be written as

$$\frac{\frac{\partial}{\partial y} \frac{p_4(x^*, y^*)}{\sum_j T_j p_j(x^*, y^*)}}{\frac{p_4(x^*, y^*)}{\sum_j T_j p_j(x^*, y^*)}} + \frac{1}{y^*} > 0,$$

2 or

1

3

$$\frac{-\frac{\partial}{\partial y} \frac{p_4(x^*, y^*)}{\sum_j T_j p_j(x^*, y^*)}}{\frac{p_4(x^*, y^*)}{\sum_j T_j p_j(x^*, y^*)}} < \frac{1}{y^*}.$$
(A.11)

4 Condition (A.11) means that, at the equilibrium, the relative rate of decrease of the functional 5 response with respect to the predator abundance, should be large enough. The smaller the 6 equilibrium predator abundance is, the higher this threshold is.

7 Now let us consider Condition (A4): $\frac{\partial y^* G(x^*, y^*)}{\partial x} > 0$ is obviously equivalent to

$$8 \qquad \frac{\partial}{\partial x} y \left(-r_2 + \frac{\sum_i \overline{c}_i p_i(x^*, y^*)}{\sum_j T_j p_j(x^*, y^*)} \right) = y \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x} \frac{\sum_i \overline{c}_i p_i(x^*, y^*)}{\sum_j T_j p_j(x^*, y^*)} \right) > 0,$$

9 or

10
$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x} \frac{\sum_{i} c_{i} p_{i}\left(x^{*}, y^{*}\right)}{\sum_{j} T_{j} p_{j}\left(x^{*}, y^{*}\right)} > 0.$$
(A.12)

11 (A.12) implies that at the equilibrium the net energy intake from all activities is a strictly

12 increasing function of the prey abundance. Furthermore, for (13) we get

$$1 \qquad \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \frac{\sum_{i} \overline{c}_{i} p_{i}\left(x^{*}, y^{*}\right)}{\sum_{j} T_{j} p_{j}\left(x^{*}, y^{*}\right)} = \frac{\sum_{j} T_{j} p_{j}\left(x^{*}, y^{*}\right) \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \sum_{i} \overline{c}_{i} p_{i}\left(x^{*}, y^{*}\right) - \sum_{i} \overline{c}_{i} p_{i}\left(x^{*}, y^{*}\right) \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \sum_{j} T_{j} p_{j}\left(x^{*}, y^{*}\right)}{\left[\sum_{j} T_{j} p_{j}\left(x^{*}, y^{*}\right)\right]^{2}} > 0,$$

2 or

3

$$\frac{\frac{\partial}{\partial x}\sum_{i}\overline{c}_{i}p_{i}\left(x^{*}, y^{*}\right)}{\sum_{i}\overline{c}_{i}p_{i}\left(x^{*}, y^{*}\right)} > \frac{\frac{\partial}{\partial x}\sum_{j}T_{j}p_{j}\left(x^{*}, y^{*}\right)}{\sum_{j}T_{j}p_{j}\left(x^{*}, y^{*}\right)}.$$
(A.13)

Condition (A.13) means that at the equilibrium the relative rate of increase of the net biomass
intake with respect to the prey abundance is greater than the relative rate of increase of the
average time duration of an activity with respect to the predator abundance.

7

8 **Remark** (An alternative form of Condition (A.4). Since at the equilibrium $r_2 = \frac{\sum_{i} \overline{c}_i p_i(x^*, y^*)}{\sum_{j} T_j p_j(x^*, y^*)}$,

9 and the time average is always positive, $\frac{\partial y^* G(x^*, y^*)}{\partial x} > 0$ holds if and only if

10
$$\sum_{i} \left(\overline{c}_{i} - r_{2}T_{i}\right) \frac{\partial}{\partial x} p_{i}(x^{*}, y^{*}) > 0.$$
 (A.14)

11 The *i*-th activity of the predator provides \overline{c}_i biomass intake during T_i . On the other hand, $r_2 T_i$ is

12 the net biomass loss for the predator by doing nothing during T_i . Thus $\sum_i (\overline{c}_i - r_2 T_i) p_i(x^*, y^*)$ is

- the difference between the net biomass intake and the basic biomass loss for predator during the average time of an arbitrary activity. (A.14) means that the marginal rate of this difference with respect to the prey abundance is positive.
- 16 Condition (A5) (A6) has a similar biological interpretation to that of Condition (A.3) (A4).

2

Appendix 3. Global asymptotic stability by Lyapunov function

Now we give a general sufficient condition for global asymptotic stability of an interior
equilibrium (x^{*}, y^{*}) of dynamics (1), with respect to the positive quadrant of the plane. We will
say that (x^{*}, y^{*}) is *dissipative*, if for each positive abundance pair (x, y) ≠ (x^{*}, y^{*}) we have

6
$$(x-x^*, y-y^*) \begin{pmatrix} \Phi(x,y) \\ \Psi(x,y) \end{pmatrix} < 0,$$
 (A.15)

7 where $\Phi(x, y)$ and $\Psi(x, y)$ denote $\frac{\dot{x}}{x}$ and $\frac{\dot{y}}{y}$, respectively. We use the term "dissipative" here

8 based on the fact that the interaction decreases the biomass of the system, which is a 9 generalization of the well-known notion of dissipativity in Lotka-Volterra systems. Now we 10 show that inequality (A.15) implies global asymptotic stability of equilibrium (x^*, y^*) with 11 respect to the positive quadrant.

12 It is easy to see that the Lyapunov function of the classical Lotka-Volterra model also works
13 here. Indeed, for all positive pair (x, y) ≠ (x*, y*) obviously

14
$$U(x, y) = x^* \left(\frac{x}{x^*} - \ln \frac{x}{x^*} - 1\right) + y^* \left(\frac{y}{y^*} - \ln \frac{y}{y^*} - 1\right) > 0,$$

15 and from $gradU(x, y) = \left(\frac{x - x^*}{x}, \frac{y - y^*}{y}\right)$, the derivative of U with respect to dynamics (1) is

16
$$DU(x, y) := (x - x^*)F(x, y) + (y - y^*)G(x, y) = (x - x^*, y - y^*)\begin{pmatrix} \Phi(x, y) \\ \Psi(x, y) \end{pmatrix} < 0.$$

17 Hence the global asymptotic stability of the equilibrium follows.

18 Finally we note that inequality (A.15) can be also written in the form

1
$$DU(x, y) = (x - x^*, y - y^*) \begin{pmatrix} \Phi(x, y) - \Phi(x^*, y^*) \\ \Psi(x, y) - \Psi(x^*, y^*) \end{pmatrix} < 0.$$