

1 **Bridging gaps on population knowledge of giant armadillos: importance of intensify**
2 **sampling efforts in highly-modified landscapes to accurately estimate species occurrence**

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20 Running head:

21 Giant armadillo occurrence in Central Brazil

22 **Abstract**

23 Studies on threatened species in highly modified and unprotected landscapes are necessary to
24 the development of appropriate conservation and management policies. This is particularly
25 important for species with large home-ranges, such as the giant armadillo (*Priodontes*
26 *maximus*), whose occurrence in anthropogenic landscapes is poorly understood despite its
27 status as endangered to extinction species. We searched for giant armadillos within human-
28 modified areas in Central Brazil using direct and indirect methods (camera trapping,
29 occasional sightings, recovered carcasses of road-killed and poached animals, burrows and
30 tracks) across a wide region dominated by diverse farming environments and scattered natural
31 remnants. We amassed 52 records of giant armadillos during a 13-year period within 10
32 municipalities of Minas Gerais and Goiás States, constituting the largest sampling effort and
33 scale for this species to date. Records were mostly distributed in private natural fragments,
34 while some were in protected units. Native vegetation covered most of the occurrence points
35 (85%), while a small portion of records (15%) occurred in anthropic environments (pastures
36 and roads). Our results upheld the suggested distribution for *P. maximus* while amending
37 previous assumptions regarding this species absence in parts of the studied region in Central
38 Brazil. More importantly, we confirmed the presence of giant armadillos within a wide,
39 intensely human-altered region, likely as result of the extinction debt. These results indicate
40 that Cerrado and Atlantic Forest remnants in human-modified landscapes in Central Brazil
41 have been playing an important role as refuges for this armadillo species, as their use of
42 anthropic environments such as pastures is much less frequent as evidenced by the occurrence
43 records and behavioral patterns. As the giant armadillo can serve as prey to large carnivores
44 as well as help controlling the density of herbivore insects while acting as ecosystem
45 engineers, they play an essential role in community dynamics and merit urgent and decisive
46 conservation efforts.

47 **Key-words:**

48 Agro-ecosystems, Atlantic Forest, biodiversity loss, Cerrado, Cingulata, fragmented

49 landscapes, Neotropical savannas, *Priodontes maximus*, wildlife conservation

50 Introduction

51 In recent decades researchers have intensively surveyed the demography, ecological
52 interactions, environmental requirements and anthropogenic threats for Neotropical wildlife.
53 These data have been used in management strategies of several species (e.g., Sanderson *et al.*,
54 2002; Medici *et al.*, 2007; ICMBio, 2015a). While data accuracy and generality are
55 paramount for the establishment of realistic conservation and management goals, most studies
56 are context-dependent, either concentrated in regions dominated by pristine ecosystems or in
57 medium to large protected areas (Fazey, Fischer & Lindenmayer, 2005). In addition, most
58 researchers are interested in generating assessments consistent with the natural biology of
59 studied species (i.e., not affected by human activities). For threatened species, however,
60 studies across landscapes actively modified and managed by humans are fundamental for the
61 development of appropriate conservation policies (Chazdon *et al.*, 2009). Nonetheless, the
62 responses of several species to man-altered environments remain poorly understood,
63 especially when ecological conditions for survival are minimal.

64 Armadillos (Cingulata: Dasypodidae) have a geographical distribution limited to the
65 Neotropical region (Wetzel, 1985) and some species are sensitive to environmental changes
66 (Abba & Superina, 2010). Of 11 species recorded in Brazil (ICMBio, 2015b), the giant
67 armadillo *Priodontes maximus* (Kerr, 1792) is classified as threatened (category Vulnerable
68 A2cd) by the International Union for the Conservation of Nature (IUCN, 2016). Populations
69 of this armadillo – and all co-specific species – are quickly decreasing due to habitat loss,
70 poaching, road-kills and the indiscriminate use of fire to remove natural vegetation or induce
71 regrowth of pastures (Abba & Superina, 2010; Martins *et al.*, 2015). The scarcity of
72 knowledge about the giant armadillo hinders the implementation of conservation actions,
73 especially those focused on human-dominated landscapes (Meritt Jr, 2006; Superina & Abba,
74 2014). For instance, the predicted range of *P. maximus* spreads from Venezuela to northern

75 Argentina, including a large portion of the Brazilian territory (Anacleto *et al.*, 2014; Chiarello
76 *et al.*, 2015). However, this predicted distribution encompasses wide regions without official
77 records. In addition, the species has been considered extinct in areas with high levels of
78 urbanization/agricultural activities or without official records (Chiarello *et al.*, 2008; Srbek-
79 Araujo *et al.*, 2009). Although the giant armadillo is the largest Cingulata species (with 30-50
80 kg; Superina & Abba, 2014), individuals are rarely seen in the wild due to their naturally low
81 densities and elusive behavior (i.e., nocturnal-fossorial; Noss, Peña & Rumiz, 2004; Silveira
82 *et al.*, 2009; Srbek-Araujo *et al.*, 2009). Therefore, the absence of records of this mammal in
83 highly altered regions is potentially and partially due to the reduced sampling efforts in non-
84 protected areas.

85 Central Brazil is entirely included in the distribution of *P. maximus* (Anacleto *et al.*,
86 2014; Chiarello *et al.*, 2015). The region is dominated by the Cerrado biome and also harbors
87 portions of the Atlantic Forest biome, represented by several enclaves of seasonal forest along
88 large watercourses (e.g., Paranaíba river basin; Ribeiro *et al.*, 2009). As a result, a rich mosaic
89 of physiognomies – ranging from open grasslands to forest patches – can be found in this
90 portion of Brazil, which increases habitat diversity and favors a high regional biodiversity
91 (Lopes *et al.*, 2012). However, agricultural activities and urbanization over the past 4-5
92 decades resulted in areas with more than 50% of the natural vegetation was replaced by
93 anthropic environments (Machado *et al.*, 2004). By this, the current landscape comprises a
94 matrix of exotic pastures and crops surrounding numerous fragments located mainly on higher
95 slopes or rough areas (Klink & Machado, 2005; Carvalho, Marco-Júnior & Ferreira, 2009).
96 The occurrence of *P. maximus* in this fragmented portion of Central Brazil is still poor known
97 and is information crucial to the species conservation (Martins *et al.*, 2015).

98 Herein, we present records of giant armadillos within modified landscapes in the
99 Cerrado biome and ecotone areas with the Atlantic Forest biome, between the states of Goiás

100 (GO) and Minas Gerais (MG). We also add information to the species natural history
101 presenting data on its activity period and habitat use.

102

103 **Material and methods**

104 Our study sites were located in ten municipalities of GO and MG States
105 (Supplementary Material - Table S1; Fig.1) in a region where 70-80% of the area was covered
106 by cattle ranches with exotic pastures, while the remainder was comprised by scattered natural
107 patches of savanna (Cerrado) and mesophytic seasonal forest (Atlantic Forest). The regional
108 climate is markedly seasonal (Alvares *et al.*, 2013), with mean annual temperature and
109 precipitation varying between 23-25°C and 1600-1900 mm, respectively.

110 Data on *P. maximus* occurrence in these areas were obtained from 2003 to 2016 in
111 natural remnants (NR) from farmlands, private reserves and protected areas (Table S1).
112 Methods used for data collection were camera trapping (Fig. 2a), occasional sighting (Fig. 2b)
113 and evidence records (i.e., tracks and fresh burrows; Fig. 3a, b). Camera trapping surveys
114 were carried out between 2009 and 2016 in remnants located in the Araguari river basin
115 (Araguari-MG), between 2010 and 2011 in the Serra de Caldas Novas State Park (Caldas
116 Novas-GO), and in 2014 and 2015 in the private reserve Pé do Morro Farm, owned by the
117 Universidade Federal de Goiás (Catalão-GO). Camera trapping records in different months at
118 the same coordinates were accounted separately, providing evidence of species persistence in
119 the area. In addition, we also included data from road-kills (Fig. 4a) and poaching by local
120 people (reported voluntarily during occasional visits to farms; Fig. 4b).

121 To determine habitat use we classified the vegetation in each recorded coordinate into
122 four categories: open savanna (OS), woody savanna (WS), forest (FO) and pasture (PA). OS
123 represented natural habitats with a predominance of native grasses and scattered shrubs as in
124 *campo sujo* and *cerrado ralo* vegetation physiognomies. WS comprised habitats with a dense

125 shrub-tree layer and reduced herbaceous cover as in *cerrado típico* and *cerrado denso*
126 physiognomies. FO consisted of habitats with large trees taller than 12 m and canopy
127 formation such as the *cerradão* physiognomy, seasonal forests, riverine forests and gallery
128 forests (Oliveira-Filho & Ratter, 2002).

129 Data collection followed the procedures recommended by the American Society of
130 Mastozoology (Sikes & Gannon 2011), and were approved by the Brazilian government
131 (Instituto Chico Mendes de Conservação da Biodiversidade – ICMBio/SISBIO license
132 number 14576-2 of 2008-2015), and the Ethics Committees on Animals Using (CEUA) of
133 Universidade Federal de Goiás (UFG; process number 086/14) and Universidade Federal de
134 Uberlândia (UFU; process number 089/14).

135

136 **Results**

137 During the 13-year study period we registered 27 records of *P. maximus* in 16 private
138 farmlands, 10 records in a private reserve, 10 records in three protected areas, three animals
139 road-killed in paved-roads and two animals poached (N = 52; Table S1). Most records were
140 located next to the southeastern border of Goiás and Minas Gerais (Fig. 1). The first two
141 records of the giant armadillo were obtained in 2003 during a mammal survey in the Galheiro
142 Private Reserve of Natural Heritage (RPPN Galheiro) located in the municipality of Perdizes-
143 MG. In Araguari-MG, we registered eight records between 2013 and 2016 in a single
144 fragment (NR 1) of Atlantic Forest present in the Araguari River basin (Fig. 1). There was no
145 evidence of giant armadillo presence in other fragments up to 40 km West from NR 1 during
146 the period. An additional record occurred in 2013 in a Cerrado fragment (NR 2) and one
147 animal was reported by villagers as road-killed in 2006 on the BR-050 highway.

148 In Cumari-GO, six records occurred in fragments (NR 3-5) or in close proximity to
149 pastures, while two other records corresponded to animals poached in 2011 in Cumari-GO

150 (NR 6) and 2013 in the neighboring municipality of Goiandira-GO (NR 7). In Catalão-GO, 10
151 records were obtained from 2014 to 2015 in the Pé do Morro Farm (FPM) and another record
152 was registered in a fragment (NR 8) less than 4 km East from FPM. Two road-killed animals
153 (2012 and 2015) were registered in the GO-330 highway, close to the limit between Catalão-
154 GO and Ipameri-GO (Fig. 2c). In addition, 10 records were registered between 2014 and 2016
155 in fragments (NR 9-15) located near Ipameri-GO, Campo Alegre-GO and Urutaí-GO.
156 Furthermore, seven records were obtained in Caldas Novas-GO in 2008 and from 2010 to
157 2011 in the Serra de Caldas Novas State Park (PESCaN). Finally, one record was registered in
158 the Mata Atlântica State Park (PEMA) near Água Limpa-GO.

159 More than 40% of the records were obtained directly, mainly via camera trapping ($n =$
160 13), carcasses ($n = 5$) and sightings ($n = 3$). The remainder ($n = 30$ records) were obtained
161 indirectly via burrows and tracks often found on trails or at the edge of dirt roads. Camera trap
162 records and sightings occurred exclusively during nocturnal periods, between 18h22min and
163 05h49min ($n = 16$). Furthermore, most records were registered in areas with native vegetation
164 cover (84.3%), especially FO ($n = 20$), followed by OS ($n = 14$) and WS ($n = 9$). In the
165 municipalities of Cumari-GO and Catalão-GO, some records occurred in PA ($n = 5$). Records
166 from anthropic environments – including that of road-killed animals – were usually obtained
167 less than 0.45 km away from natural habitat remnants.

168

169 Discussion

170 Widely distributed in Central Brazil (Anacleto *et al.*, 2014; Chiarello *et al.*, 2015),
171 elder rural residents report it was not unusual to find tracks or spotting giant armadillos in
172 their properties in the past. However, *P. maximus* has been rarely sighted in recent years,
173 mostly due to intense habitat loss combined with road-killing and poaching (Chiarello *et al.*,
174 2008). Despite their ecological importance and conservation status, only recently intensive

175 mammal surveys have been conducted in natural remnants across our study region (e.g.,
176 Bruna *et al.*, 2010; Araújo *et al.*, 2015; Estrela *et al.*, 2015; Gomes *et al.*, 2015; Rocha, Soares
177 & Pereira, 2015). By this, our study represents the largest (N = 52) and longest (13 years)
178 sampling effort to acquire records of *P. maximus* in Central Brazil, covering 192 km² of
179 Cerrado and Atlantic Forest natural remnants.

180 Protected areas in the east of MG and ES states were considered the last strongholds
181 for *P. maximus* in the Atlantic Forest (Srbek-Araujo *et al.*, 2009). However, our findings
182 indicate that this mammal is still present in Atlantic Forest remnants along the basins of
183 Paranaíba and Araguari rivers in Central Brazil. A record from Vale do Encantado Private
184 Reserve of Natural Heritage (RPPN Vale do Encantado) in Uberaba-MG expands the
185 currently expected occurrence of giant armadillos further to the South (Martinelli *et al.* 2014;
186 Fig. 1). Previous studies in Southeast GO registered six records of *P. maximus* from 2004 to
187 2014 (Araújo *et al.*, 2015; Chiarello *et al.*, 2015; Estrela *et al.*, 2015; Gomes *et al.*, 2015),
188 while the present study registered 39 records in 17 different private reserves and protected
189 areas. Based on the home range of a giant armadillo (500 to 1,500 ha; Silveira *et al.*, 2009))
190 we assume that at least one animal was living in remnants surrounding the record points.
191 Thus, despite the lack of individual abundance estimates, results of this study in combination
192 with previous records potentially indicate the persistence of a single or multiple populations
193 of this species in natural patches across a large section of agro ecosystems in Central Brazil.
194 However, there are many potentially suitable remnants for this species within the area that
195 remain unstudied.

196 Our results also corroborate previously identified natural history traits of giant
197 armadillos. First, individuals showed essentially nocturnal activity (Noss *et al.*, 2004; Silveira
198 *et al.*, 2009; Srbek-Araujo *et al.*, 2009), as all camera trapping records or sightings occurred
199 between 18h and 06h. Armadillo records were registered in savanna as well as in forest

200 habitats, although their frequency varied among localities. In Araguari-MG, we found most
201 records (80%) in forest habitats, which is the predominant habitat type remaining in surveyed
202 areas. Similarly, all records from Caldas Novas-GO were found in savanna habitats, which
203 cover the majority of studied reserve. These findings corroborate that giant armadillos can be
204 found in open and closed habitats, but their habitat usage tends to reflect habitat availability in
205 the landscapes (Silveira *et al.*, 2009). Moreover, we have repeatedly crossed extensive areas
206 of pastures in the matrix between surveyed natural patches. However, the low frequency of
207 records (< 10%) in these areas suggests that exploration of human-modified habitats is
208 unusual for giant armadillos even in predominantly altered landscapes. Therefore, although
209 giant armadillos can be found in highly modified environments, they mainly explore natural
210 patches within these areas (Silveira *et al.*, 2009).

211 Habitat fragmentation often results in vegetation patches decreasing in size and
212 increasing in number and isolation (Fahrig, 2003), negatively affecting species with large
213 spatial requirements such as the giant armadillo (Chiarello, 1999). However, 26 of our records
214 occurred in small fragments (25 to 288 ha) allegedly unsuitable to harbor even a single
215 individual of giant armadillo. Such pattern may be explained by a delay in the extinction of
216 giant armadillos in these areas (the extinction debt; revised by Kuussaari *et al.*, 2009),
217 potentially due to two factors. First, the relatively long life expectancy of *P. maximus*
218 individuals (12-15 years; Nowak, 1999) highlights low population turnover and may mask the
219 long-term effects of fragmentation. Second, the irregular topography of the landscape in
220 Southeast GO and West MG results in habitat remnants being very close to each other and not
221 completely isolated due to inter-connecting habitat strips in slopes. This patch network could
222 allow giant armadillos to forage in small areas and still survive within fragmented landscapes
223 for a limited time. More than a sad fate, this extinction delay may represent an opportunity of

224 recovery for this species via habitat restoration and landscape management (Kuussaari *et al.*,
225 2009).

226 The Southeast GO and West MG have experienced intensive landscape modification
227 (up to 80%) in Central Brazil, and less than 2-3% of natural remnants are inside protected
228 areas (Carvalho *et al.*, 2009). In this region, the high degree of landscape modification and the
229 expensive price of land are challenges to the establishment of protected areas large enough to
230 ensure the conservation of large-sized mammals. Besides, recent changes in the Brazilian
231 Forest Act amnestying landowners for illegal logging, allowing mandatory legal reserve areas
232 to include sites previously prohibited from being deforested, and reducing the deforestation-
233 free zone around rivers contribute to the decrease of biological connection between natural
234 remnants and potentiate biodiversity loss (Michalski, Norris & Peres, 2010; Paul *et al.*, 2010).
235 Thus, it is essential that we intensify ecological studies and urgently carry educational actions
236 with landowners and rural communities to conserve threatened mammals in unprotected
237 anthropogenic landscapes. In this scenario, efficient conservation actions may be achieved
238 using integrated landscape management. As such, strategies could be adopted to 1) encourage
239 proper conservation of natural remnants by landowners and 2) increase restoration efforts
240 focusing on the establishment of biological connections between natural patches, private
241 reserves and protected areas (Chazdon *et al.*, 2009).

242 The decline of giant armadillo populations (at least 30% in the last two decades;
243 ICMBio 2015) may influence community diversity and vegetation structure in habitat
244 remnants. Giant armadillos are regarded as ecosystem engineers (Leite-Pitman *et al.*, 2004;
245 Desbiez & Kluyber, 2013) due to their digging behavior, changing physical soil properties
246 and constructing burrows inhabited or used as refuge by several species (Desbiez & Kluyber,
247 2013). They are also important as prey for large-carnivores such as jaguars (*Panthera onca*)
248 and pumas (*Puma concolor*). Furthermore, armadillos are specialized insect-predators and

249 heavily consume termites and ants (Anacleto, 2007). The absence of such top-down effect on
250 insect herbivores, especially on those abundant as leaf-cutter ants (Costa & Vieira-Neto
251 2016), may lead to strong impacts on vegetation structure and dynamics in modified
252 environments (Terborgh *et al.*, 2001; Silva *et al.*, 2012).

253 Conservation of threatened species also requires in-depth knowledge of their ecology
254 and natural history, especially within anthropogenic landscapes. Our records of *P. maximus*
255 indicate that the giant armadillo may still be present in highly-modified areas across the
256 Central Brazil and others regions, remaining undetected due to a low sampling effort. Besides
257 the habitat loss, we confirm that road-kills and poaching pose as serious threats to giant
258 armadillos in in this part of Brazil, and urgent conservation actions are necessary to minimize
259 human impacts and facilitate persistence of *P. maximus* in this region.

260

261

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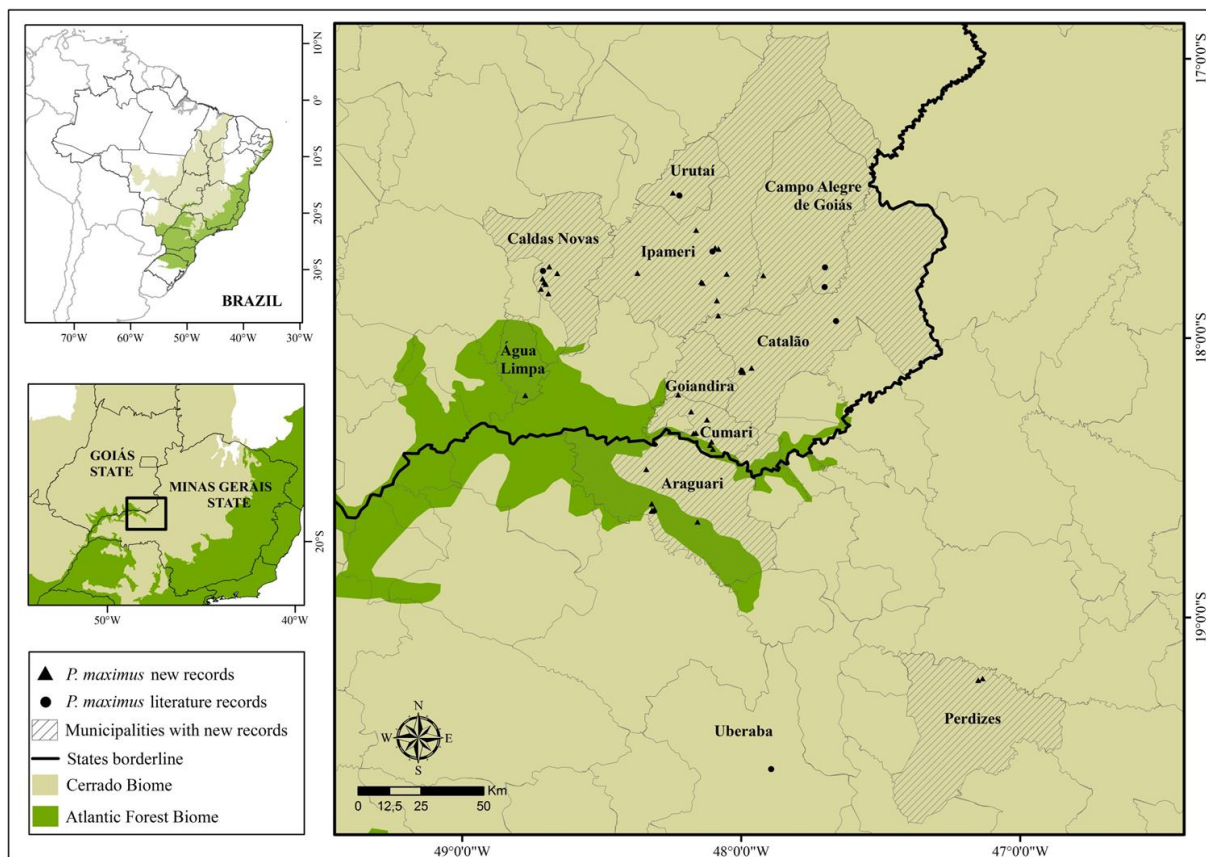
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398 **Figures**

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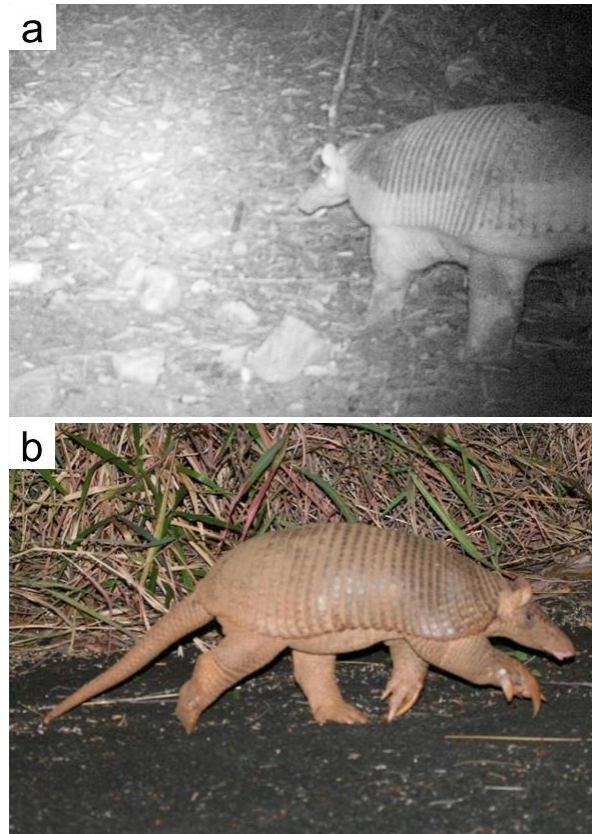
402 Figure 1. Occurrence of giant armadillos (*Priodontes maximus*) in 10 municipalities in the

403 states of Goiás and Minas Gerais, Brazil. Literature records obtained in Martinelli et al.

404 (2014); Araújo et al. (2015); Chiarello et al. (2015); Estrela et al. (2015); Gomes et al. (2015);

405 Rocha et al. (2015).

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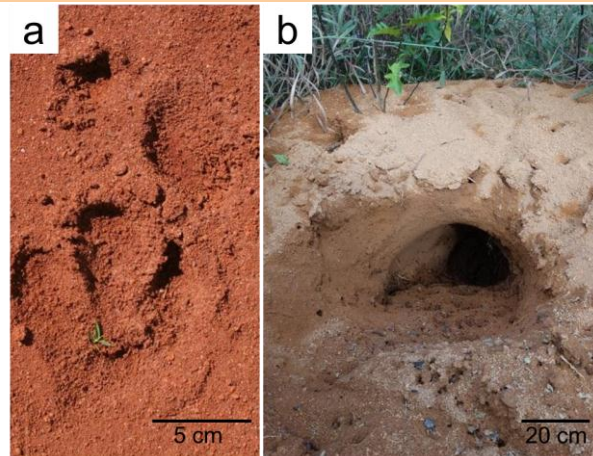


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409 Figure 2. Giant armadillos (*Priodontes maximus*) recorded by (a) camera trapping and (b)
410 sighting in Pé do Morro Farm reserve and Serra de Caldas Novas State Park (respectively),
411 located in the state of Goiás, Brazil. Photos: Frederico G. Lemos and Alan N. Costa,
412 respectively.

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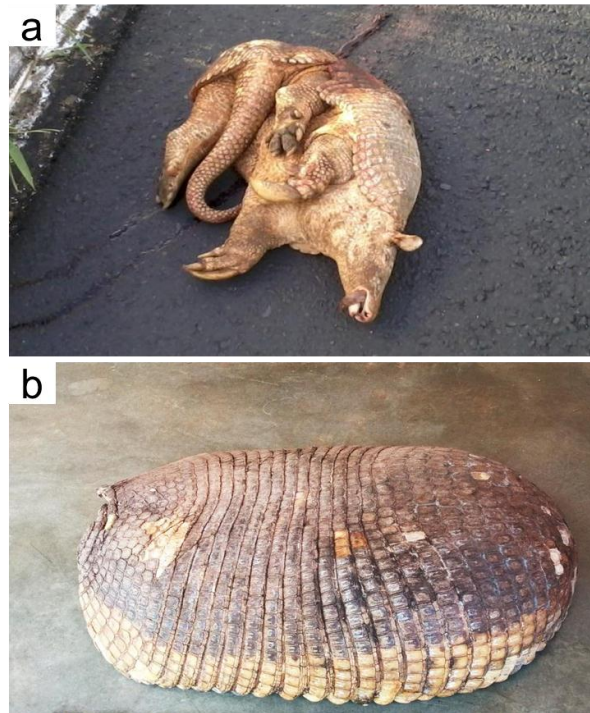


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416 Figure 3. Typical evidences of giant armadillos (*Priodontes maximus*) used to record the
417 species presence in Cerrado remnants and anthropic environments surveyed in 10
418 municipalities located in the states of Goiás and Minas Gerais states, Brazil. (a) Track and (b)
419 fresh burrow on a leaf-cutter ant nest. Photos: Frederico G. Lemos and Alan N. Costa,
420 respectively.

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424 Figure 4. Carcasses of giant armadillos (*Priodontes maximus*) registered in the state of Goiás,

425 Brazil. (a) A road-killed animal at GO-330 highway, and (b) carapace of a poached animal.

426 Photos: Ednaldo C. Rocha and Frederico G. Lemos, respectively.