Expanded Distribution and Predicted Suitable Habitat for the Critically Endangered

Yellow-tailed Woolly Monkey (*Lagothrix flavicauda*) in Peru

Melissa A. Zarate[1,2], Sam Shanee[3,4], Elvis Charpentier[5], Yeissy Sarmiento[4], and Christopher A.

Schmitt[1,2]

[1] Department of Anthropology, College of Arts and Sciences, Boston University, Boston, MA

USA

[2] Department of Biology, College of Arts and Sciences, Boston University, Boston, MA USA

[3] Neotropical Primate Conservation, Windrush, Looe Hill, Seaton, Cornwall, UK

[4] Asociación Neotropical Primate Conservation Perú, Jr Andalucia #373, Moyobamba, San

Martin, Perú

[5] Equipo Primatológico del Perú, Calle Internacional M-43, Iquitos, Maynas, Perú

Corresponding authors' emails: mazarate@bu.edu; caschmit@bu.edu

Address: Department of Anthropology, Boston University

232 Bay State Road

Boston, MA 02215 USA

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ABSTRACT

The Tropical Andes Biodiversity Hotspot holds a remarkable number of species at risk of

extinction due to anthropogenic habitat loss, hunting and climate change. One of these species,

the Critically Endangered yellow-tailed woolly monkey (*Lagothrix flavicauda*), was recently

sighted in Junín region, 206 kilometres south of its previously known distribution. The range

extension, combined with continued habitat loss, calls for a re-evaluation of the species'

distribution and available suitable habitat. Here, we present novel data from surveys at 53 sites in

the regions of Junín, Cerro de Pasco, Ayacucho and Cusco. We encountered *L. flavicauda* at 9

sites, all in Junín, and the congeneric *L. l. tschudii* at 20 sites, but never in sympatry. Using these

new localities along with all previous geographic localities for the species, we made predictive

Species Distribution Models based on Ecological Niche Modelling using a generalized linear

model and maximum entropy. Each model incorporated bioclimatic variables, forest cover,

vegetation measurements, and elevation as predictor variables. Model evaluation showed >80%

accuracy for all measures. Precipitation was the strongest predictor of species presence. Habitat

suitability maps illustrate potential corridors for gene flow between the southern and northern

populations, although much of this area is inhabited by *L. l. tschudii*. An analysis of the current

protected area (PA) network showed ~47% of remaining suitable habitat is unprotected. With

this, we suggest priority areas for new protected areas or expansions to existing reserves that

would conserve potential corridors between *L. flavicauda* populations. Further surveys and

characterization of the distribution in intermediate areas, combined with studies on genetic flow,

are still needed to protect this species.

Introduction

Changes in species' distributions are of major concern for conservationists due to the

continual expansion of human populations and land use (Hansen *et al.* 2001; Newbold *et al.*

2014; Dai *et al.* 2021) that shift, contract, or fragment a species' geographic range. Such altered

ranges may isolate populations, enhancing the likelihood of inbreeding depression or local

extinction (Ewers and Didham 2005; Calkins *et al.* 2021; Solórzano-Garcia *et al.* 2021).

Information on the relative distributions of different populations of a species can reveal what

types of landscapes or species community composition—in the case of competitive exclusion—

act as geographic or ecological barriers to gene flow (Case and Taper 2000; Blair and Melnick

2012; Sales *et al.* 2019; Pázstor *et al.* 2020). To conserve natural biodiversity in the face of

expanding land use by humans, conservation management must operate on a landscape scale,

understanding species-ecosystem relationships and species' responses to habitat change

(Bellamy *et al*. 2013; Robillard *et al.* 2015; Xioa *et al.* 2019). Informed management planning

involves understanding the true current distribution of a species and the necessary habitat

components to predict how distribution changes will occur in the future, and the best possible

options for area protection.

The yellow-tailed woolly monkey (*Lagothrix flavicauda*) is considered Critically

Endangered and amongst the most threatened primate species in the world (Mittermeier *et al.*

2012; Shanee *et al.* 2021), making it a key focus of conservation initiatives in northern Peru

(Shanee *et al.* 2018). The Tropical Andes Biodiversity Hotspot (TABH), to which the species is

endemic, is among the top five hotspots predicted to lose the most biological diversity due to

continued anthropogenic activities (Brooks *et al.* 2002). In northern Peru, the greatest threat to

species and habitats in the TABH is habitat destruction for cattle ranching, logging, and other,

mainly small scale, economic activities, fuelled by a growing human population and aided by the

construction of highways and incentivized access to lands (Oliveira *et al.* 2007; Shanee 2011;

Shanee 2012; Programa Bosques 2015; GIZ 2016; Laurance 2018; Shanee and Shanee 2016).

With this migrant economic development, roads are continuously built to access new areas,

creating a cycle of increasing deforestation for the extraction of resources and settlement

(Gallice, Larrea-Gallegos and Vázquez-Rowe 2019). Hunting of primates for bushmeat and the

pet trade is also putting *L. flavicauda* and other species at further risk (Shanee 2011; Shanee

2012; Shanee *et al.* 2017).

The geographic range of *L. flavicauda* – long thought to be restricted to the northern

regions of Amazonas and San Martín and neighbouring areas of Huánuco, La Libertad, and

Loreto – has been continuously re-evaluated through survey efforts (Mittermeier, de Macedo-

Ruiz, Luscombe 1975; Graves *et al.* 1980; Leo Luna 1980; Parker and Barkley 1981; Butchart *et*

al. 1995; Shanee *et al.* 2007; Shanee 2016; Shanee 2011). Recent observations in the region of

Huánuco have found *L. flavicauda* populations as far as the south eastern border with the region

of Pasco (Aquino *et al.* 2015; Aquino, Garcia and Charpentier 2016). Camera trap observations

led to the discovery of a new population of *L. flavicauda* in 2018 (McHugh *et al*. 2020). This

new population, in the Inchatoshi Kametsha Conservation Concession, Junín, is about 206 km

south of the previously known southern range limit for the species (McHugh *et al.* 2020), with no

sightings in intermediate areas.

Lagothrix flavicauda is generally restricted to montane forests between 1,400 to 2,800 m

above sea level (m.a.s.l.) along the eastern slopes of the Andes (Aquino *et al*. 2017, Shanee

2011), with occasional occurrences below this elevation (Allgas *et al.* 2014; Paterson and Lopez

Wong 2014). Their preferred habitat depends on local climate and forest composition (Shanee

2016; Almeyda-Zambrano *et al.* 2019), and they are able to survive at least for a time in

moderately disturbed habitats when hunting pressure is low (Aquino *et al*. 2015; Shanee and

Shanee 2015). This may be, in part, due to a flexible diet consisting of flowers, leaf petioles,

epiphytic roots, vertebrates, and soil, although they are predominantly frugivorous. Fruits make

up almost half of their dietary intake, which is dominated by a handful of species and genera

with large fleshy fruits (Shanee and Shanee 2011, Shanee 2014; Fack *et al.* 2018), making food

tree density and phenology important factors for sustaining viable populations. Previous studies

suggest that the protected area (PA) network in northern Peru is insufficient to protect *L.*

flavicauda from the consequences of human population growth, habitat degradation, and climate

change (Buckingham and Shanee 2009; Shanee 2016). As the number of PAs in Peru change,

along with our knowledge of primate species distributions, it is critical to re-assess their

coverage with current data.

Many conservation and research initiatives use *L. flavicauda* as a flagship species in Peru

(Shanee *et al*. 2018). Although these have led to an increasing number of private, communal, and

state PAs within the species distribution (Shanee *et al.* 2017; Shanee *et al.* 2020), they have

predominantly focused on populations in Amazonas and San Martín (Shanee and Shanee 2015).

Field surveys are vital to determining the species' distribution and habitat preferences outside

these well-studied regions; however, they are often expensive, time consuming, and can be

unfeasible depending on the terrain, access, and public order limitations (Young 1996; Shanee

and Shanee 2016). Predictive species distribution modelling (SDM) can highlight optimal areas

for field surveys through comparison of the ecological conditions found within a given species'

known range, with those across a wider area, showing where conditions are most favourable for

the species presence (Phillips, Anderson and Schapire 2006; Ramirez-Villegas *et al.* 2014;

Guisan, Thuiller and Zimmerman, 2017).

Species' distributions are predicated on three main conditions: the species must have the

means to disperse into and out of a habitat, the habitat must have the correct combination of

environmental variables to make it suitable, and the abiotic conditions must be able to maintain

necessary species interactions (Guisan *et al.* 2017). SDM considers the second condition by

using known habitat parameters to determine which are most important to the distribution of the

focal species, and uses them to locate potentially suitable habitat (Dong *et al*. 2019; Cianfranni *et*

al. 2010; Liu *et al.* 2019). Such modeling may be used to prioritize search efforts when financial

or human resources are not available for surveying a region of interest in person. For endangered

species, analyzing correlations between these variables and known species occurrences can

highlight conditions which the species requires for its long-term survival in the region of interest,

and can be used to develop more effective conservation strategies. With this, conservationists

can determine why a species may not be present in a particular area (Liu *et al.* 2019) or increase

research and conservation effort in areas that appear to be suitable (LaRue and Nielsen 2008).

Here we compare the results of two SDM approaches—Generalized Linear Modelling

(GLM) and Maximum Entropy (MaxEnt)—using the results of our recent field surveys in central

and southern Peru. We created SDMs combining these novel localities with all previous records

to create the most complete SDM for the species to date. We use the results of these approaches

to highlight remaining suitable *L. flavicauda* habitat, particularly in its less-studied southern

range. Finally, we evaluate the current Peruvian PA network's coverage of suitable habitat

within the species' distribution, noting priority areas for new PAs, conservation corridors, and

future surveys between the northern and recently-discovered Junín populations.

Methods

Population Surveys

We conducted five surveys between May 2019 and May 2021. Due to Covid-19 related

travel restriction, no surveys were conducted between May and December 2020, with the May

2020 survey being cut short due to implementation of national quarantine measures. Surveys

were carried out in the regions of Ayacucho, Cerro de Pasco, Cusco, and Junín. Survey sites

were selected based on preliminary MaxEnt models which used previously published localities,

and updated with new sightings as the study progressed, with sites selected considering access

routes, land ownership and researcher safety.

Survey efforts followed methods of previous surveys for the species (Shanee 2011). We

gathered locality data along existing trail systems with local residents as field guides.

Occasionally new trails were opened to enter new areas; however, this was typically avoided to

minimize habitat disturbance. We visited sites for 2-9 days, with effort determined by available

habitat size, and the possibility of *L. flavicauda* being found or confirmation of its presence. We

recorded localities and points of visual or audio detection of all primates with a handheld GPS.

We also gathered secondary evidence from local informants in and around the areas visited.

Using images and verbal descriptions of *Lagothrix* spp. we cross-referenced information from

multiple informants at each site.

Species Distribution Modelling

We selected two standard SDM methods— GLM and MaxEnt. To avoid overestimation

of suitable habitat, we limited prediction outputs to between -80° W and -65° W, and -5° S and -

15° S. We filtered this to only include areas between 1,000 and 3,500 m.a.s.l., i.e., within the

species' altitudinal range, which includes the entirety of the eastern slopes of the Peruvian

Andes. Models used presence points from our own surveys combined with localities from recent

published studies, i.e., ≤10 years (Shanee 2011; Allgas *et al*. 2015; Aquino *et al*. 2016; Aquino *et*

al. 2017; McHugh *et al*. 2020), and an additional six localities from the Global Biodiversity

Information Facility (GBIF Secretariat 2021) (Fig. 1; Table S1).

Environmental data were all from publicly available sources (Table S2). We used the 19

bioclimatic variables from *WorldClim2*, available in the R package raster v. 3.1-5 (Hijmans *et al*.

2020) and elevation data from the NASA Shuttle Radar Topography Mission (SRTM; v. 4) at

30-meter resolution. We used forest cover data from the Global Forest Change (v. 1.7) dataset of

percent tree cover from the year 2000, in which tree cover is given as a gradient of percentage

canopy connectivity per 30 m pixel for vegetation taller than 5 m. Forest loss and gain between

the years 2000 and 2018 were also analyzed, but were excluded from the model due to an

insufficient number of areas experiencing any recorded loss or gain (fewer than 10 pixels within

the study region, which did not coincide with the location of any presence points). We also used

the Vegetation Health Product (VHP) dataset, at 1 km resolution, from the NOAA Centre for

Satellite Applications and Research, which has been created from an algorithm providing

estimates of moisture, thermal, and wind conditions in combination with infrared imaging to

achieve an estimate of vegetation conditions in response to weather impacts. All data layers were

re-sampled to 30 m resolution.

Generalized Linear Model

All GLMs were evaluated in R (v. 3.5.2; R Core Team 2018). We modelled the

ecological niche of *L. flavicauda* as a binomial response variable of presence/pseudoabsence

using a binomial variance and logistic link function. We randomly selected pseudoabsence points

to counter sampling bias from the lack of absence data existing for the species using the

randomPoints function in the *dismo* package v.1.1-4 (Hijmans *et al.* 2017), generating 355 in the

study area within an elevation mask including only areas within the altitudinal range. All

presence points were excluded from the background point extraction process. We then extracted

and standardized values from all environmental layers at each pseudoabsence and presence point

to be used in the models. Models were built excluding correlated predictor variables based on

Pearson's *r* value (± 0.75). Our final model was selected using the corrected Akaike Information

Criterion (AICc) procedure (Akaike 1973; Hurvich and Tsai 1993).

We evaluated the predictive ability of our model using the area under the ROC curve

(AUC), which summarizes model accuracy by giving the probability that the model ranks

random presence sites over pseudoabsence sites. We calculated the AUC by building the models

from a training set, and then applying it to the remainder of the data as a test set to evaluate

predictive performance (Fielding and Bell 1997; Hirzel *et al.* 2006). Due to the relatively small

number of presence points, we bootstrapped this process 1000 times using multiple distributions

of presence data in the training and testing sets (Hein *et al.* 2007; Guisan *et al.* 2017). We also

tested model accuracy using Cohen's kappa statistic and percent accuracy from a confusion

matrix as a threshold-dependent method of evaluation (Guisan *et al.* 2017). Using training and

test data, we set a probability threshold so that any point with a presence probability of 0.4 or

higher was marked as a presence when establishing a confusion matrix of model predictions. The

kappa statistic value ranges from -1 (complete disagreement between predicted and actual

values) to 0 (predictions equated to random chance), to +1 (complete agreement with actual

values).

Maximum Entropy Model

The MaxEnt model was created and evaluated in MaxEnt Programming Software (v.

3.4.4; Phillips 2006) and re-evaluated in R. We applied default settings to our MaxEnt run, with

the following exceptions: background predictions were written for evaluation and mapping

purposes and we selected a random test percentage of 25% of our presence points. We used the

same non-correlated variables as in the GLM. MaxEnt measures variable contribution by

permutation importance determined by randomly permuting the values of each variable among

the training points, measuring the resulting decrease in training AUC, and normalizing these

values to give a percentage (Phillips *et al.* 2006). MaxEnt evaluates the model using a ROC

curve and calculating the model AUC. We corroborated the given value by bootstrapping the

AUC calculation 1000 times in R using the background prediction values.

Suitable Habitat Classification and Protected Area Assessment

To assess habitat suitability, we assigned habitat based on the predicted probability of

species presence to categories of "Good" (P(robability of species presence) between 0.25 and

0.75), "Very Good" (P>0.75), and "Low" (P<0.25), with "Good" and "Very Good" being

considered suitable habitat. To incorporate the probable impact of hunting into our results, we

considered habitat within 1 km of human settlement to have high hunting pressure for *L.*

flavicauda (Shanee 2016). We used data from Humanitarian OpenStreetMap Team (2020) to

distinguish human settlements, and deemed any suitable habitat within a 1 km buffer of

settlement as low suitability. We overlaid the suitable habitat predicted by both models to find

where the predictions intersected. Finally, we conducted an analysis of the PA coverage of

suitable *L. flavicauda* habitat by overlaying the Peruvian PA network from the World Database

of Protected Areas (WDPA; UNEP-WCMC 2020) with the habitat predictions and calculated the

percent of habitat that was considered Good or Very Good within the network. This was repeated

with the network of non-governmental conservation concessions in Peru, downloaded from the

National Forestry Service (SERFOR), as these concessions are not included in the WDPA files.

Data Accessibility

All open-source data used for modelling are openly accessible via the links provided in

the references. Presence data, prediction results, and all code can be found at

https://doi.org/10.5061/dryad.dz08kps0g.

Fig. 1 *Lagothrix flavicauda* occurrences used as presence points in habitat suitability modelling (HSM) in this study.

Results

Population Surveys

In total we surveyed 53 new sites in central and southern Peru. We encountered *L. flavicauda* at 9 of these sites, all to the north of the Mantaro river in Junín (Fig. 2). In surveys south of this point we did not find any evidence of the species, from our own surveys or from

255 local informants, suggesting a possible southern limit for the species between ~11.6 and ~12°

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257   the

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| Junín | *L. flavicauda* | -74.5504 | -11.6610 | 2012 |

Junín	*L. flavicauda*	-74.5793	-11.6301	2067
Junín	*L. flavicauda*	-74.7372	-11.4069	1422
Pasco	*L. l. tschudii*	-75.4709	-10.6859	1410
Pasco	*L. l. tschudii*	-75.3698	-10.7384	1257
Pasco	*L. l. tschudii*	-75.4238	-10.7223	1323
Pasco	*L. l. tschudii*	-75.5182	-10.5882	1612
Pasco	*L. l. tschudii*	-75.5358	-10.5748	2088
Pasco	*L. l. tschudii*	-75.5171	-10.6693	2349
Junín	*L. l. tschudii*	-75.4529	-10.9879	1771
Junín	*L. l. tschudii*	-75.4635	-10.9928	2490
Junín	*L. l. tschudii*	-75.4307	-10.9911	1622
Junín	*L. l. tschudii*	-75.4352	-11.0447	1672
Junín	*L. l. tschudii*	-75.3518	-11.4285	2365
Junín	*L. l. tschudii*	-74.8955	-11.2327	1609
Junín	*L. l. tschudii*	-74.9112	-11.2358	1795
Junín	*L. l. tschudii*	-74.9229	-11.2421	1080
Pasco	*L. l. tschudii*	-74.6540	-10.8546	1465
Pasco	*L. l. tschudii*	-74.6510	-10.8259	1410
Pasco	*L. l. tschudii*	-74.6600	-10.8186	1257
Pasco	*L. l. tschudii*	-75.0401	-10.6526	1323
Pasco	*L. l. tschudii*	-75.0399	-10.6866	1612
Cusco	*L. l. tschudii*	-72.8110	-12.7401	1948

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Species Distribution Modelling

After the multicollinearity reduction, the GLM with the lowest AICc (242) contained elevation, mean diurnal temperature range, isothermality, precipitation of wettest month, precipitation seasonality, precipitation of coldest quarter, percent forest cover and VHP as predictor variables. These were the variables used in both model types. The suitable habitat predicted by the two models overlapped by 47.5%, with the GLM being more conservative in the southern regions (Fig. 3).

Fig 3.
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Genera

The GLM found all predictor variables to be significantly associated with the likelihood

of *L. flavicauda* presence with the exceptions of isothermality and forest cover. The variable

most highly associated with *L. flavicauda* habitat was precipitation seasonality, which had a

negative relationship. Precipitation of the wettest month had the strongest positive correlation

(Table 2).

Table 2. Correlation coefficients and standard error of residual deviances for each standardized
predictor variable in the GLM. Estimates indicate the average change in the response variable
associate with a one unit increase in the (standardized) predictor variable. Shading indicates
significant association.
286

Predictor	Estimate	Standard Error	P value
Intercept	-6.228	1.008	<0.0005
Elevation	-0.768	0.249	0.00201
Bio2	0.983	0.466	0.0349
Bio3	0.616	0.327	0.0600
bio13	1.653	0.738	0.0251
bio15	-11.019	2.309	<0. 0005
bio19	-4.831	1.107	<0. 0005
Forest Cover	0.441	0.306	0.149
VHP	- 1.256	0.247	<0.0005

Based on the GLM, 1.4% of the study area was found to be Very Good habitat, and 11.4

% was considered Good (Table 3). Only a very small proportion of remaining habitat was within

the 1 km human settlement buffer (Table 3). Suitable habitats in the southern regions of the *L.*

flavicauda range run north-south through central Huánuco and Pasco, but coincide with areas

where the species has been found to be absent, or where *L. l. tschudii* was found instead (this

study; Aquino *et al.* 2017, 2019). In Junín, additional areas of Good habitat are present around

and immediately south of the newly discovered populations. Of all Very Good and Good habitat,

17.72% and 25.95%, respectively, were found to be within Peru's current PA network (Table 3),

most of which are in PAs in the northern regions of the study area, while much of the area

between the northern and Junín populations remains unprotected.

A single iteration of the threshold-independent AUC calculation gave an AUC of 0.93

(Fig. S1). The bootstrapped evaluation gave a slightly lower mean AUC of 0.89 (95% CI 0.86-

0.95). Applying the GLM to the training dataset with a 0.4 threshold produced predictions with

81.76% accuracy. The model was better able to correctly predict the pseudoabsences (86.36%)

than presences (59.26%), likely due to the larger amount of pseudoabsence points in the test

dataset (Table S3). The kappa statistic (0.47) indicated that the model produced predictions in

good agreement with the test data, though this was not significant (p=0.70).

Table 3. Percentages of the study area that the GLM and MaxEnt model considered to be Very
Good, Good and unsuitable and the amount of each habitat type within the protected area (PA)
network in Peru.
308

Modeling Approach	Habitat Suitability	Within Study Region (% of region- before human settlement)	Within Study Region (% of region- after human settlement)	Within PAs (% of habitat)
GLM	Unsuitable	87.10	87.33	14.32
	Good	11.47	11.28	25.95
	Very Good	1.43	1.39	17.72
MaxEnt	Unsuitable	86.01	86.2	13.79
	Good	11.66	11.49	21.5
	Very Good	2.33	2.31	38.1

MaxEnt Model

The MaxEnt model corroborated that precipitation seasonality had a strong negative

correlation with species presence (Table 4). There were some differences in variable importance

in comparison to the GLM results, including relatively low importance of Precipitation of

Coldest Quarter (Table 2). The AUC for the MaxEnt model was 0.95 (Fig. S2) and corroborated

by the mean AUC from bootstrap (0.95; 95% CI 0.93-0.97), indicating greater accuracy than the

GLM.

The MaxEnt model suggested a higher percentage of Good and Very Good habitats

compared to the GLM (Table 3; Fig. 4a), with percentages minimally effected after removing

areas within the human settlement buffer. Suitable habitat in the southern regions of the study

area included more Good habitat running north to south in Junín (Fig. 4b). Overlaying the PA

network also showed more suitable habitat overall within the network compared to the GLM,

with 21.5% and 38.1% of Good and Very Good being within PAs, respectively (Table 3; Fig.

5a), though much of the suitable habitat in the southern portion of the species' range remains

unprotected (Fig. 5b).

Fig. 4 Habitat suitability maps for *L. flavicauda* as predicted by the MaxEnt model a.)
throughout the described study area and b.) within the regions surrounding the southernmost *L.*
flavicauda occurrences.
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332 **Fig. 5** PA network coverage over habitat suitability as predicted by the Maxent model a.) over
333 the entire study area and b.) within the regions surrounding the southernmost *L. flavicauda*
334 occurrences
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Discussion

We carried out the first survey of *L. flavicauda* in the recently discovered southern

expansion of its known range (McHugh *et al.* 2020), and our results suggest that this is a very

localized population isolate of the species. Models of suitable habitat including the regions south

of Huánuco and our new occurrence records provide important information on the habitat

availability for the species, thereby providing insight into priority areas for focused conservation

efforts and placement of conservation corridors and new protected areas. Our use of free, open-

source modelling platforms will make updating and refining this analysis relatively simple with

the addition of novel presence data. Our updated suitable habitats will hopefully lead to the

discovery of more *L. flavicauda* populations, possibly connecting the northern and southern

distributions.

Our surveys discovered multiple new sightings of *L. flavicauda* in central Junín, but only

of *L. l. tschudii* in Cerro de Pasco, northern Junín and northern Cusco, and neither *Lagothrix* taxa

in Ayacucho. The lack of encounters or secondary evidence of *L. flavicauda* in areas with

evidence of *L. l. tschudii* may be due, in large part, to competitive exclusion. *L. l. tschudii* has

been found to be one of the most abundant high-altitude species in previous surveys in Cerro de

Pasco and Huánuco (Aquino *et al.* 2019), and inhabits forests with niche conditions and at

elevations suitable for *L. flavicauda* (Aquino *et al.* 2016; Serrano-Villavicencio *et al.* 2021).

When comparing the suitable habitat in our models with our observations of *L. l. tschudii*, we

found that most are in areas well-suited to the species (Fig. 6), paralleling the work of Aquino *et*

al. (2016) which indicated that *L. flavicauda* occupied similar but separate, higher-altitude

habitats than *L. l. tschudii*. While competitive exclusion may explain the replacement of either

Lagothrix taxa with its congener, further surveys are needed to rule out possible sympatry in

informants indicated the presence of "large monkeys," in these forests, and that they are rarely

seen in the smaller patches. Informants also indicated that these monkeys were more common in

previous years, but that hunting by indigenous Ashaninka groups in the area diminished their

numbers. This, with further increases in hunting in combination with deforestation due to coca

cultivation likely contribute to the species' rarity. In the patches we were able to survey in these

areas we only recorded the smaller bodied *Saguinus*, *Saimiri*, and *Cebus*. Finally, some of those

interviewed in the Union Mantara and Vizcatán areas in Junín claimed, based on photographs, to

have seen *L. flavicauda* in high elevation areas controlled by guerrilla groups. In particular, they

pointed out the area bordered by the Río Montaro as a place where *L. flavicauda* has definitely

been seen. During interviews, local people who had previously ceased coca cultivation in favour

of coffee and cacao indicated a recent return to coca in the area due to low market prices for

legal crops. This trend could have implications for future surveys and conservation actions.

Both of our models showed a strong negative correlation between *L. flavicauda* presence

and precipitation seasonality, consistent with the results of a study by Shanee (2016) in the

northern distribution of the species. This may be due to the phenology of arboreal food sources

on which *L. flavicauda* depends. Though the species has been found to use a variety of food

resources and plant parts, studies have shown seasonal shifts in feeding behaviour and dietary

components (Shanee 2014; Shanee and Shanee 2011b). Andean species of *Cercropia*, for

example, whose fruits and leaves are commonly consumed by *L. flavicauda* (Shanee 2014),

experience annual reproductive changes due to climatic seasonality (Zalamea *et al.* 2011).

Moreover, *L. flavicauda* have commonly been observed consuming *Ficus* spp. fruit (Leo Luna

1980; Shanee 2014; Almeyda-Zambrano *et al.* 2019), which have inter- and intra-specific

asynchronous fruiting; together with abundant production, this accounts for the genus'

importance for many frugivores (Bronstein *et al*. 1990; Kattan and Valenzuela 2013). Overall,

while modelling with bioclimatic variables can aid in determining areas with suitable niche

conditions, these models do not provide clear explanations for a given species' presence or

absence.

Changing environmental conditions due to current and future climate change, in

combination with increasing anthropogenic impacts in the TABH are predicted to decrease

climatic niche availability and, in turn, species richness of plants (Ramirez-Villegas *et al*. 2014).

These changes will likely lead to further habitat loss and population reductions in *L. flavicauda*

and other primate species (e.g., Shanee 2016). Research suggests that the southern Peruvian

Andes are experiencing a slight decrease in precipitation along with significant increases in

surface temperatures (Vuille *et al.* 2003). Monthly rainfall projections based on fourth report of

IPCC climate change models suggest a significant future increase in rainfall seasonality in the

tropical Andes (Lavado Casimiro *et al.* 2011). Our models suggest that precipitation and

seasonality are among the most important predictors of *L. flavicauda* presence, therefore such

changes could have dire consequences for the species. This is especially true as lower-altitude

species migrate to occupy higher elevations with climate change, increasing competition for

resources (Fisher 2011). Future scenarios are further complicated by the fragmentation of

habitats and intervening barriers to dispersal (Sales *et al.* 2019), which would limit *L*

flavicauda's ability to colonize new areas.

The buffer used to estimate areas as "Low" suitability based on proximity to human

settlement is meant to reflect hunting pressure on *L. flavicauda* (Buckingham and Shanee 2009).

Biodemographic hunting models have been created comparing human population and

demographic data with primate population density to demonstrate the deleterious impact of

hunting on primate "prey" species (Levi *et al.* 2011). Although hunting is known to be one of the

greatest threats to *L. flavicauda* (Shanee 2012), the assumption that there is high hunting pressure

closer to human settlements can be problematic due to differing practices among communities.

Conversely, in areas where community conservation initiatives have been enacted, such as the

community of Yambrasbamba in Amazonas, hunting of the species has been largely eliminated

and populations of *L. flavicauda* have increased (Shanee *et al.* 2015). In addition to hunting,

different regions in Peru have varying wildlife trafficking trends and pathways in which primates

are often trafficked as pets or tourist attractions, with large-bodied primates being the most

common victims (Shanee *et al.* 2017). Given this, using pressures from human hunting and

trafficking activity as variables in models like this may require more detailed surveying of local

practices to get a more nuanced representation of localized anthropogenic pressures.

While both models showed high statistical accuracies in their predictions, our MaxEnt

model performed better. While the GLM was more conservative in the predicted amount of

suitable habitat in the southern regions, there was a large amount of overlap in predictions

between both models. As with all models, ours are only as accurate as the data used. We were

limited by the relatively low number of localities compared to many other primate habitat

suitability models (Liu *et al.* 2019). Regardless, our model predictions and survey results should

encourage the continuation of surveys in southern Peru to increase presence data and model

accuracy for the species.

Overlaying the PA network and the MaxEnt predictions showed that ~75% of suitable

habitat is currently unprotected, with most protection being in the northern regions of the

species' range (Fig. 5c). This is much lower than that of a gap analysis performed in 2009

(Buckingham and Shanee 2009), likely due to the recent growth of private and communal

protected areas, as well as increases in state parks in the northern regions of the *L. flavicauda*

range (Shanee et al. 2017; Shanee 2018; Shanee et al. 2020). Peru has 18.8% of its land covered

by the current PA network, with 91.7% being within governmental PAs and 8.3% in private or

communal PAs (Shanee *et al.* 2020). While national PAs generally cover larger areas, they

operate at a regional scale and rarely give rights or leadership roles to local people (Shanee *et al.*

2017; Horwich *et al.* 2012). The use of protected areas is key for the conservation of *L.*

flavicauda, but new state protected areas can require large areas, free of other land uses, and can

take years to formally create. Private and communal PAs, on the other hand, have proven

effective for conservation in the regions of Amazonas and San Martin where relatively high

human population densities limit opportunities for large state-run PAs (Horwich *et al.* 2012;

Shanee *et al.* 2020). In these areas, local people are the primary decision makers and enforce

their own regulations, ensuring that the methods of protection are in line with the values of their

community. The promotion of communally and privately managed protected areas, particularly

in key corridor areas, and education across landscapes can provide much needed protection

(Shanee *et al*. 2015). Further, conservation concessions cover a great amount of suitable habitat

in San Martín (Fig. 5). The inclusion of the conservation concessions caused the proportion of

Very Good habitat within protected areas to increase from 34.63% to 38.1 %.

In the southern portion of the species range, our analysis illustrated that only the small

areas of Pampa Hermosa and Pui Pui cover an area with some suitable *L. flavicauda* habitat near

the southern most populations. As such, the development of PA and community conservation

initiatives in the species' southern distribution are urgently needed, though successful

conservation actions in the areas highlighted here will depend on an understanding of the

socioeconomic and political situation to be able to garner local support (Chazdon *et al.* 2009).

Monitoring distributions, gene flow, and habitat suitability is critical to the conservation

of *L. flavicauda*. Future research should use genetic assessments of diversity between the

southern and northern populations of *L.* flavicauda to determine if gene flow is occurring.

Patterns of environmental variables should also be analysed between populations to better

understand factors that facilitate migration between populations, and how they could be

constrained with climate change and increasing human development (Sales *et al.* 2019). Using

landscape genetic methods could also determine what landscape and/or ecological features

strongly facilitate or hinder gene flow between populations and be used in planning new PAs or

corridors (Olah *et al.* 2016).

Further investigation of the home ranges, and resource and land use of *L. flavicauda* will

allow for better interpretation of the importance of SDM predictor variables. Differences in these

attributes between the northern populations and the newly-discovered Junín populations will

specifically indicate the necessary factors a habitat needs to sustain viable populations. This

should involve working with local communities near and within the protected areas containing

suitable habitat in the south, with a particular focus on environmental education as our

experience suggests a lack of understanding of the importance of animals and ecosystem

function within many local immigrant (i.e., non-indigenous) communities. The presence of drug

traffickers and armed groups limited which sites we could visit, particularly in the area of

Vizcatán in southern Junín, thus this area remains un-surveyed, a situation which needs to be

urgently rectified once conditions allow. Further successful surveys will increase the number of

presence and absence points for the species, will allow for more accurate analyses of their

environmental needs, and encourage the initiation of conservation efforts in these areas to

continue the growth of both state and private/community led efforts for *L. flavicauda*. This will

also increase the likelihood of finding other high-altitude primate species localities and help us

understand their distributions and conservation needs.

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