

1 Ecological traits explain wild felid responses 2 to human-modified landscapes in Brazil: an 3 open-data approach for conservation 4

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31 Abstract

32 Understanding how wild felids respond to human-modified landscapes is critical for designing
33 effective conservation strategies, yet comparative assessments across species remain scarce in
34 tropical regions. Here, we assess the habitat selection and road sensitivity of nine wild felid
35 species in Brazil using an integrative and scalable framework based entirely on open-access data.
36 We compiled over 14,000 cleaned occurrence records and modelled habitat associations using
37 generalized linear models across three spatial scales (5, 15, and 30 km). Species were grouped
38 into three ecological categories: generalists, flexible specialists, and strict specialists, based on
39 their ecological plasticity. Our results reveal marked interspecific variation in habitat preferences
40 and responses to roads. While generalists like *Puma concolor* and *Herpailurus yagouaroundi*
41 showed higher tolerance to anthropogenic environments, others like *Leopardus geoffroyi*
42 exhibited more restricted patterns. Flexible specialists like *Panthera onca* and *Leopardus pardalis*
43 avoided roads but used heterogeneous natural landscapes. Strict forest specialists (*L. wiedii*, *L.*
44 *guttulus*, *L. tigrinus*) were highly dependent on forest cover and generally avoided open habitats.
45 Notably, road effects were species-specific and not always aligned with ecological classification.
46 Our findings emphasize that functional classification can aid in anticipating species
47 vulnerabilities, but conservation actions must be tailored to species-level responses. This study
48 highlights the potential of open biodiversity data to inform large-scale conservation planning for
49 Neotropical carnivores, especially in data-poor regions.

50 **Keywords:** habitat selection, roads, *Leopardus*, *Herpailurus*, *Panthera*, *Puma*.

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1. Introduction

62 Carnivore conservation faces multiple challenges driven by accelerated habitat loss due to urban
63 and agricultural expansion and ecosystem alterations caused by global climate change (Ripple et
64 al., 2014). Additionally, their historical conflict with human populations, combined with their low
65 population densities and large area requirements, has led many species to remain in vulnerable
66 or declining conservation status (Ripple et al., 2014; Carter & Linnell, 2016; Inskip &
67 Zimmermann, 2009). Studying these species is particularly challenging due to their elusive
68 behavior, slow life histories, and the need for long-term monitoring across large and often
69 inaccessible areas, which generates high logistical and financial costs (Kays et al., 2015; Ripple et
70 al., 2014; Tucker et al., 2018). As a result, ecological data for many carnivores remain scarce,
71 hindering the development of effective conservation strategies. Although in some instances
72 conservation efforts have succeeded in stabilizing some populations, such as the Eurasian lynx
73 (*Lynx lynx*) in Europe (Chapron et al., 2014), a deep inequality persists in the distribution of
74 ecological knowledge on carnivores and their ecosystems (Ripple et al., 2014; Torres-Romero &
75 Giordano, 2022). These gaps, known as biodiversity shortfalls, reflect missing information on
76 species identity, distribution, abundance, and ecological requirements, ultimately limiting our
77 capacity to anticipate and mitigate the functional collapse of ecosystems (Hortal et al., 2015).
78 Among carnivores, felids represent a diverse yet underrepresented group in ecological research,
79 particularly in tropical regions (Tensen, 2018). Open-access information can provide a valuable
80 starting point to understand species' ecological responses and inform future conservation efforts
81 in such contexts, where field-based data are scarce or unevenly distributed.

82 Despite the growing literature on felid ecology and conservation, most studies have focused on
83 emblematic large predators or local-scale analyses (Inskip & Zimmermann, 2009; Tensen, 2018).
84 There is still an important gap regarding understanding how different felid species, with varying
85 ecological requirements, respond to landscapes dominated by human activities, particularly in
86 megadiverse regions such as Brazil (Tensen, 2018; Torres-Romero & Giordano, 2022).
87 Furthermore, although it is recognized that the ability to adapt to anthropogenic environments
88 varies among generalist and specialist species, few studies have empirically quantified how this
89 variation influences habitat use and tolerance to human infrastructure, such as roads (Bateman
90 & Fleming, 2012; Barbar et al., 2015; Liu et al., 2025). This lack of information hampers the ability
91 to anticipate which species are more vulnerable to habitat loss and fragmentation and which may
92 benefit from or coexist in modified landscapes, thus limiting the formulation of differentiated
93 and compelling conservation actions. Understanding these divergent responses is critical to
94 identifying higher-risk species and designing effective mitigation strategies in rapidly changing
95 landscapes (Santini et al., 2019).

96 To address the widespread data deficiency affecting wild felids in Brazil, we implemented an
97 integrative and scalable approach, based entirely on open-access data. By integrating occurrence
98 records with annual high-resolution land cover data and spatially explicit habitat metrics, we
99 developed a standardized analytical pipeline for modelling species-habitat relationships across
100 nine felid species at three spatial scales throughout Brazil. This approach enables the
101 investigation of habitat preferences, road sensitivity, and detection biases across multiple spatial
102 scales, even for species with limited ecological information. By offering a cost-effective and
103 replicable approach, it contributes to improving conservation planning in tropical, data-deficient
104 contexts.

105 Specifically, our main objective is to assess whether interspecific differences in ecological
106 strategies can predict distinct habitat use patterns and road infrastructure tolerance. To facilitate
107 this analysis, we propose an exploratory functional classification based on general trends
108 observed in the literature regarding habitat use and ecological plasticity for each species
109 (Appendix A in Supplementary Data). We group the species into three categories: (i) generalists,
110 characterized by high plasticity in habitat and resource use (e.g., *Puma concolor*, *Herpailurus*
111 *yagouaroundi*, *Leopardus geoffroyi*); (ii) flexible specialists, which exhibit a preference for natural
112 habitats but demonstrate some adaptive capacity in modified environments (e.g., *Leopardus*
113 *pardalis*, *Panthera onca*, *Leopardus colocolo* (Colocola complex)); and (iii) strict specialists,
114 dependent on specific habitats such as forests, with low tolerance to landscape modification
115 (e.g., *Leopardus wiedii*, *Leopardus guttulus*, *Leopardus tigrinus*). This functional grouping aligns
116 with recent findings that ecological traits such as home range size and behavioral flexibility help
117 predict species' responses to anthropogenic pressures (Liu et al., 2025).

118 Based on this classification, we propose the following hypotheses: (H1) Generalist species will
119 exhibit a more pronounced use of anthropogenic habitats (agriculture and pasture) and a greater
120 tolerance to proximity to road infrastructure; (H2) Flexible specialist species will preferentially
121 select natural habitats and demonstrate lower affinity for anthropogenic environments, including
122 reduced tolerance to road proximity. Finally, (H3) Strict specialist species will exhibit a strong
123 preference for forest cover and will avoid both natural non-forest areas and proximity to road
124 infrastructure.

125 To our knowledge, this is the first study to propose and evaluate a functional classification of
126 Brazil's felid species based on ecological traits and habitat plasticity. While we acknowledge that
127 multiple factors beyond general ecological traits influence species responses, this framework
128 offers a helpful structure for generating testable hypotheses, highlighting functional trends, and
129 identifying species that deviate from expected patterns. Such deviations are, in themselves,
130 informative for conservation planning.

131 2. Methods

132 2.1. Step 1: Data Collection and Preprocessing

133 We compiled occurrence records for wild felids in Brazil from multiple public databases and
134 institutional sources (Appendix B, Table A, in Supplementary data). Data cleaning involved
135 removing records with spatial errors (e.g., missing or erroneous coordinates), taxonomic
136 inconsistencies, non-native species, missing temporal information, or observations derived from
137 unverifiable methodologies (e.g., interviews or unverified tracks). Furthermore, we excluded all
138 records collected before 2000 to ensure temporal consistency with the environmental layers.

139 Valid occurrence records were grouped by species and classified into seven temporal intervals:
140 2000–2004, 2005–2008, 2009–2012, 2013–2016, 2017–2019, 2020–2021, and 2022–2024. Each
141 temporal group was associated with a central reference year for subsequent spatial modelling
142 utilizing Mapbiomas datasets from 2001, 2005, 2009, 2013, 2017, 2021, and 2022, respectively
143 (MapBiomas, 2024). This approach aimed to maximize each species' temporal precision and
144 spatial representativeness (Figure 1). Given recent taxonomic revisions, we treated *L. colocolo*, *L.*
145 *braccatus* and *L. munoai* as a single unit, the Colocola complex, following proposals supporting
146 their lumping into a broader species concept (Nascimento et al., 2021).

147 Environmental layers were obtained from the MapBiomas project (MapBiomas, 2024; Souza et
148 al., 2020) for each reference year, encompassing four key landscape cover categories: forest,
149 natural non-forest formations (hereafter natural), pasture, and agriculture (Appendix B, Table B
150 in Supplementary data). We generated binary (presence/absence) maps for each land cover
151 category. Subsequently, we employed LSMetrics (Niebuhr, 2018) to calculate Euclidean distance
152 rasters based on these binary layers, generating continuous surfaces representing each pixel's
153 distance to the nearest habitat patch of each type. This approach enables us to assign negative
154 distance values to pixels located inside habitat patches (indicating proximity to the edge) and
155 positive values to those outside (indicating increasing distance from the patch). This dual
156 representation allows for a nuanced interpretation of habitat edge use versus matrix avoidance,
157 which may be ecologically relevant for cryptic or edge-adapted species. All layers were processed
158 individually for each species and reference year, ensuring spatial alignment with the
159 corresponding UTM zone of the occurrence data. All rasters were either resampled or maintained
160 at a spatial resolution of 30 meters.

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2.2. Step 2: Pseudo-Absence Points in multiple spatial scales

162 We generated random pseudo-absence points within circular buffers for each occurrence point
163 by species from databases (Appendix B, Table C - Total sample size), and reference year map,
164 employing a proportional sampling strategy: 100 points within 5 km buffers, 250 points within 15
165 km buffers, and 500 points within 30 km buffers (Figure 1). This proportional sampling strategy
166 was adopted to balance the spatial extent of each buffer size with an adequate number of
167 pseudo-absences, ensuring sufficient contrast between presences and available habitats. Larger
168 buffers, encompassing greater landscape heterogeneity and a wider range of environmental
169 conditions, necessitate a high number of pseudo-absence points to capture this variability
170 adequately (Wisiz et al., 2008). Additionally, maintaining a comparable sampling density across
171 spatial scales enhances the robustness of habitat selection model inference by accounting for the
172 accessible area hypothesis (Barve et al., 2011).

173

2.3. Step 3: Habitat Selection and Road Effects

174 For habitat selection models, we fitted 80 unique combinations of predictor variables in
175 Generalized Linear Models (GLMs) for each species and random-point sampling scale
176 (Supplementary Tables). To mitigate conceptual collinearity, binary and distance-based
177 representations of the same land cover type were not included concurrently within any model
178 formulation. Models were ranked using Akaike's Information Criterion (AIC), and the model with
179 the lowest AIC value was selected as the best-performing model for each species and spatial scale
180 (Figure 1). Although cross-validation was not conducted, our model selection relied on AIC-based
181 ranking, a well-established approach for identifying parsimonious ecological models (Burnham &
182 Anderson, 2002), particularly suitable for comparative inference across nested formulations.
183 After model selection, we re-evaluated the multicollinearity among predictors included in the
184 top-ranked model by assessing pairwise Spearman correlation coefficients (ρ), ensuring all
185 correlations were below 0.7, and by calculating the Variance Inflation Factor (VIF), retaining only
186 models with VIF values below 3 (Zuur et al., 2010). The goodness of fit of the selected models
187 was evaluated using the DHARMA package (Hartig, 2022), which provides simulation-based
188 diagnostics to test residual uniformity, overdispersion, and the presence of outliers in generalized
189 regression models. Diagnostic tests indicated a good fit for the majority of models, except for *P.*
190 *onca*; we adjusted the pseudoabsence ratio to 1:2 due to overdispersion. For *L. tigrinus*, one
191 influential outlier (value >1) was removed to improve model performance (Appendix C).

192 We obtained road vector layers for Brazil from the National Department of Transport
193 Infrastructure (DNIT, 2016) to evaluate the potential influence of roads on felid occurrence. We
194 conducted two complementary analyses. First, we calculated a detectability index for each
195 species by identifying occurrence records located within ≤ 10 meters of a road and estimating

196 their proportion relative to the total number of records (Figure 1). This index was used to
197 estimate the proportion of records near roads, which may reflect either increased detectability
198 due to sampling bias (Kadmon et al., 2004), or true ecological tolerance to anthropogenic
199 infrastructure (Tucker et al., 2018). Second, we evaluated the influence of roads on species
200 occurrence using binomial Generalized Linear Models (GLMs), fitted separately for each species
201 using presence and pseudo-absence data generated within 5 km buffers. Distance to the nearest
202 road was included as a predictor variable. Model adequacy and assumption validation were
203 conducted using simulation-based residual diagnostics implemented in the DHARMA package
204 (Hartig, 2022). All modelling procedures were performed in R (R Core Team, 2024), utilizing the
205 base stats package for GLM fitting and complementary packages for spatial data handling and
206 diagnostics.

207 3. Results

208 We compiled 38,606 occurrence records of wild felids from Brazil, retrieved from 13 open-access
209 data sources (Appendix B, Table A). Following a thorough data cleaning process, we retained
210 14,341 valid occurrences, representing nine species. The majority of records were located in
211 forested habitats (e.g., *P. concolor* with 2,209 and *L. pardalis* with 2,526 occurrences), with
212 average depths of entry ranging from 331.9 m (*L. guttulus*) to 993.2 m (*L. pardalis*). Conversely,
213 pasture and agricultural areas consistently yielded the lowest number of occurrences, with
214 species such as *L. geoffroyi* and the Colocola complex exhibiting non or very few records in these
215 habitats. Although less represented than forests, natural non-forest areas were still relevant for
216 species like *L. geoffroyi* (213 records) (Appendix B, Table C).

217 3.1. Habitat selection

218 To clarify our species-specific habitat selection patterns, we grouped the models according to the
219 three proposed ecological categories: generalists, flexible specialists, and strict specialists
220 (Appendix A). Across spatial scales, models using pseudo-absence points at the 5-km buffer
221 consistently outperformed those at 15 km and 30 km and were thus selected for reporting the
222 results.

223 - Generalist species

224 Among generalist species, *Puma concolor* and *Herpailurus yagouaroundi* exhibited contrasting
225 patterns regarding native and anthropogenic habitats (Figure 2). *P. concolor* displayed a higher
226 probability of occurrence in forested ($\beta = 0.67$, $p < 0.001$) and natural non-forest habitats ($\beta =$
227 0.88 , $p < 0.001$), based on presence/absence variables. Furthermore, *P. concolor* showed a
228 tendency to be located closer to pastures ($\beta = -0.09$, $p < 0.001$) and agricultural areas ($\beta = -0.40$,

229 $p < 0.001$), suggesting a degree of tolerance to human-modified environments. In contrast, *H.*
230 *yagouaroundi*, modelled using distance-based variables, was more frequently observed farther
231 from both forested ($\beta = 0.29, p < 0.001$) and natural non-forest areas ($\beta = 0.21, p < 0.001$),
232 indicating avoidance in the inner depth of these native habitats. The species also exhibited strong
233 avoidance of pasture presence ($\beta = -1.00, p < 0.001$) yet occurred closer to agricultural areas (β
234 $= -0.48, p < 0.001$), suggesting some level of tolerance to agricultural landscapes. *Leopardus*
235 *geoffroyi* showed an association nearest to the forest cover ($\beta = -0.16, p < 0.05$) but tended to
236 occur at greater distances from pasture ($\beta = 0.45, p < 0.001$) and natural non-forest vegetation
237 ($\beta = 0.45, p < 0.001$). *L. geoffroyi* avoided agricultural areas, as indicated by a negative association
238 with agricultural presence ($\beta = -1.5, p < 0.001$). These findings suggest that, despite being
239 grouped as generalists, these species exhibit distinct habitat preferences and varying degrees of
240 tolerance or avoidance in relation to anthropogenic landscapes.

241 - Flexible Specialist species

242 Flexible specialists exhibited variable responses to natural non-forest areas and anthropogenic
243 habitats (Figure 2). *Leopardus pardalis* displayed significant positive selection for forested ($\beta =$
244 $0.50, p < 0.001$) and natural non-forest areas ($\beta = 0.52, p < 0.001$) while avoiding pasture ($\beta = -$
245 $0.70, p < 0.001$). The species also occurred closer to agricultural areas, as indicated by the
246 negative association with agriculture distance ($\beta = -0.16, p < 0.001$), suggesting a degree of
247 tolerance to modified landscapes. *Panthera onca* showed a tendency to be at greater distances
248 from forests ($\beta = 0.45, p < 0.001$) and pastures ($\beta = 0.42, p < 0.001$), potentially reflecting the
249 utilization of intermediate or edge habitats. In contrast, *P. onca* was more frequently observed
250 near natural non-forest vegetation ($\beta = -0.71, p < 0.001$), and strongly avoided agricultural areas,
251 with occurrences concentrated at greater distances from such landscapes ($\beta = 0.73, p < 0.001$).
252 The Colocola complex showed a negative association with forested areas ($\beta = -0.44, p = 0.09$)
253 and avoided pasture when present ($\beta = -0.77, p < 0.05$), while being more likely to occur farther
254 from agricultural lands ($\beta = 0.25, p < 0.001$), indicating apparent avoidance of highly modified
255 environments. Natural non-forest vegetation had no significant effect ($p = 0.16$). These flexible
256 specialists exhibited a broad spectrum of habitat responses, ranging from a strong affinity for
257 native environments to an apparent avoidance of anthropogenic landscapes. The Colocola
258 complex showed the most restrictive habitat use pattern within this group.

259 - Strict Specialist species

260 Strict specialists demonstrated consistently strong associations with natural habitats and general
261 avoidance of anthropogenic landscapes (Figure 2). *Leopardus wiedii* exhibited a strong positive
262 association with forest ($\beta = 0.86, p < 0.001$) and a negative association with natural non-forest
263 areas ($\beta = -0.68, p < 0.001$), indicating a clear preference for forest habitats and avoidance of

264 natural non-forest formations. This species also occurred farther from pastures ($\beta = 0.34, p <$
265 0.001), suggesting avoidance of these modified areas, while showing a higher probability of
266 occurrence closer to agricultural zones ($\beta = -0.45, p < 0.001$), which may reflect some tolerance
267 to agriculture edges or nearby transitional zones. *Leopardus guttulus* was significantly more likely
268 to occur closer to forests ($\beta = -0.44, p < 0.001$) and avoided pastures ($\beta = -0.68, p < 0.001$). They
269 were also found closer to agricultural areas ($\beta = -0.55, p < 0.001$), indicating that areas where
270 they persist are inserted in forest-agriculture mosaics. However, their strong preference for
271 proximity to forests suggests a dependence on native cover. *Leopardus tigrinus* exhibited a
272 positive association with forested areas ($\beta = 0.42, p < 0.01$) and a tendency to occur farther from
273 pastures ($\beta = 0.69, p < 0.001$), indicating a preference for forested areas and a tendency to avoid
274 natural non-forest and anthropogenic areas. They also occurred closer to agricultural areas ($\beta =$
275 $-1.18, p < 0.001$), suggesting that, despite their overall selectivity, they persist in areas with some
276 degree of proximity to human-altered environments. The association for this species was not
277 statistically significant for natural non-forest areas ($\beta = -0.41, p = 0.08$). Strict specialists
278 consistently favored forested environments while avoiding open habitats such as pasture and
279 natural non-forest vegetation. Notably, all three species showed higher occurrence probabilities
280 closer to agricultural areas, which may reflect a complex interplay between edge effects,
281 tolerance thresholds, and spatial constraints within the remaining fragments of native habitat.

282 3.2. Road effects

283 We analyzed the effect of road proximity on the occurrence of nine wild felid species in Brazil
284 using generalized linear models (GLMs), with distance to roads as a continuous predictor variable.
285 The proportion of records within 10 meters of a road varied considerably among species. *L.*
286 *geoffroyi* exhibited the highest proportion of detections near roads (35.8%), followed by Colocola
287 complex (22.6%), *H. yagouaroundi* (7%), and *L. wiedii* (5.3%). In contrast, *L. guttulus* and *P. onca*
288 displayed extremely low proportions near roads (0.001% and 0.5%, respectively), suggesting
289 apparent avoidance of road infrastructure. The remaining species showed intermediate
290 proportions, with values of 1% in *P. concolor*, 2.4% in *L. pardalis*, and 4% in *L. tigrinus*. GLMs
291 revealed substantial interspecific differences in responses to distance from roads (Appendix C,
292 Road Effects). *P. onca* showed a strong and significant positive relationship between road distance
293 and occurrence probability ($\beta = 2.11e-06, p < 0.001$), indicating apparent road avoidance. This
294 trend was also evident in *L. wiedii* ($\beta = 8.98e-06, p < 0.001$) and *L. geoffroyi* ($\beta = 2.48e-2, p <$
295 0.001), the latter being a generalist species, which suggests unexpected sensitivity to road
296 proximity despite its functional classification. Conversely, *P. concolor* ($\beta = -3.35e-06, p < 0.001$),
297 *H. yagouaroundi* ($\beta = -4.36e-06, p < 0.001$), and *L. tigrinus* ($\beta = -1.71e-05, p < 0.001$) were the
298 only species that exhibited significant negative associations with distance to roads, indicating a
299 higher likelihood of occurrence near roads. These results may reflect greater tolerance or even

300 selective use of areas near road networks or suggest that those species could persist in habitats
301 with higher road densities. The remaining species, *L. guttulus*, *L. pardalis*, and the Colocola
302 complex, showed no significant associations ($\beta = 5.81 \times 10^{-6}$, $p = 0.25$; $\beta = 2.21 \times 10^{-7}$, $p = 0.35$; $\beta =$
303 9.37×10^{-7} , $p = 0.88$, respectively), suggesting neutral responses or more complex patterns not
304 captured by the simple univariate model applied. These findings underscore the need for species-
305 specific mitigation strategies in road planning and wildlife conservation (Figure 3).

306 We further explored the spatial distribution and identified specific road segments where the
307 three species exhibited the highest number of detections within 10 meters of the roads. *L.*
308 *geoffroyi* was recorded on 23 distinct roads, with a notable concentration of up to 30 detections
309 along a single route near Estação Ecológica do Taim in Rio Grande do Sul. *L. pardalis* was detected
310 along 33 different roads, with up to 12 occurrences each on two separate routes, one located in
311 São Paulo State and the other in Mato Grosso do Sul. *H. yagouaroundi* exhibited the widest
312 distribution near roads, recorded on 54 different routes, including four key roads in Rio Grande
313 do Sul, where they were detected with a frequency of five to seven times per road (Figure 4).
314 Other relevant observations were the frequent presence of *P. concolor* on 24 roads, one with
315 seven frequencies close to 10 meters, on the road from Ilha Solteira to Rio Claro in São Paulo. *P.*
316 *onca* was observed on five roads and at five frequencies on the road located in the Encontro das
317 Aguas State Park, Mato Grosso. Complexo colocola, on 13 roads, two of them with five
318 frequencies on roads near Miranda, Mato Grosso do Sul, and one road near Alegrete, Rio Grande
319 do Sul. Finally, *L. wiedii* was observed on 34 roads, one with seven frequencies near Porto Alegre,
320 Rio Grande do Sul (Codes proposed by DNIT in Appendix C - Supplementary Material).

321 Discussion

322 Our results indicated that the proposed functional classification and tested hypothesis, based on
323 ecological literature and general ecological plasticity trends, had predictive value, although not
324 entirely independent. Regarding hypothesis H1 (generalists tolerate anthropogenic
325 environments and roads), we observed that species classified as generalists, such as *Puma*
326 *concolor* and *Herpailurus yagouaroundi*, demonstrated greater tolerance to anthropogenic
327 habitats, including agriculture, pasture, and proximity to roads. However, unexpectedly,
328 *Leopardus geoffroyi*, also categorized as a generalist, showed avoidance patterns for modified
329 areas and proximity to forests, suggesting a stricter preference for forests or an underestimated
330 sensitivity potentially linked to its restricted distribution in Brazil. For hypothesis H2 (flexible
331 specialists preferentially select natural habitats and less anthropogenic environments), species
332 such as *Leopardus pardalis* and *Panthera onca*, as predicted, primarily selected natural habitats.
333 While *P. onca* showed an apparent preference for natural non-forest vegetation and avoidance
334 of forest, this could reflect the utilization of forest edge habitats or the influence of

335 anthropogenic pressure on their current distribution. Species within the Colocola Complex
336 exhibited a conservative response, apparently avoiding anthropogenic environments. Notably,
337 all species in this category tended to avoid roads. These findings reveal that even within this
338 group characterized by higher ecological plasticity in habitat use, distinct species-specific
339 strategies exist, suggesting that habitat loss and fragmentation do not produce homogeneous
340 responses and presence in habitat mosaics does not necessarily imply functional adaptation or
341 long-term population persistence. Finally, strict specialists (*L. wiedii*, *L. guttulus*, and *L. tigrinus*)
342 corroborated our hypothesis H3 (dependent on specific habitats with low tolerance to landscape
343 modification) by exhibiting a clear preference for forest habitats and avoidance of open areas,
344 including pasture and natural non-forest vegetation. However, these species' utilization of areas
345 near agricultural land suggests a complex interplay between dependence on native habitat, edge
346 effects, and limitations within the available landscape. Among these species, *L. tigrinus* showed
347 a positive response to proximity to roads. Below, we discuss how each ecological group
348 responded to habitat and infrastructure variables and the conservation implications of these
349 patterns.

350 Although *P. concolor*, *H. yagouaroundi*, and *L. geoffroyi* were grouped as generalists based on
351 ecological traits compiled from the IUCN and literature, our results, in line with previous
352 literature, further demonstrate that generalist traits alone cannot predict consistent responses
353 to anthropogenic landscapes. Despite the resilience of *P. concolor* to land-cover change and
354 anthropogenic pressure, studies in Neotropical ecosystems underscore the importance of
355 forested habitat patches for the species (Nanni et al., 2023; Azevedo et al., 2020; Coon et al.,
356 2020; Angeliere et al. 2016). Furthermore, some studies also suggest the necessity of considering
357 factors beyond land cover, emphasizing prey availability as critical for ensuring the long-term
358 persistence of pumas within human-modified areas (Magioli and Ferraz, 2021; LaBarge et al.,
359 2022; Azevedo et al., 2025). *H. yagouaroundi* appears more constrained, avoiding open areas and
360 forest interiors and relying on dense vegetation near agricultural edges (Giordano, 2015),
361 contrary to recent findings by Harmsen et al. (2024), who reported positive associations with
362 non-tree vegetation and human land-use. These contrasting findings may reflect regional or
363 scale-related differences in habitat use, but they also emphasize the species' potential
364 vulnerability to landscape alterations. Supporting this, a global assessment of road impacts on
365 carnivores identified *H. yagouaroundi*, *P. concolor*, and *P. onca* among the top 5% of species most
366 exposed to road expansion, with 60%, 69%, and 38% of their respective distributions affected
367 (Ceia-Hasse et al., 2017). *L. geoffroyi*, despite its generalist classification, avoided natural non-
368 forest and human-modified habitats and had a negative association with road proximity. Studies
369 have shown that *L. geoffroyi* concentrates its activity in riparian forest remnants and avoids
370 human infrastructure despite being present at relatively high densities (Tirelli et al., 2019). This
371 response may suggest finer-scale specialization or ecological constraints, potentially influenced

372 by edge-of-range dynamics (Doherty et al., 2003). Alternatively, the pattern of our result could
373 also reflect limitations in detection or data availability in certain habitat types rather than actual
374 ecological intolerance (Tensen, 2018). Such findings underscore the limitations of functional
375 classifications when not complemented by species-specific behavioral and distributional data.

376 The species classified as flexible specialists in our study, *Leopardus pardalis*, *Panthera onca*, and
377 the Colocola complex, exhibited contrasting strategies in their interaction with human-modified
378 landscapes. *L. pardalis* maintained strong associations with native vegetation but also showed
379 some tolerance to agricultural zones, a pattern consistent with prior studies emphasizing its
380 reliance on dense cover for concealment and prey capture while occasionally using edge habitats
381 (Sergeyev et al., 2023; Wang et al., 2019). *P. onca*, although capable of wide-ranging movement
382 and behavioral plasticity, showed consistent avoidance of roads in our study, suggesting high
383 sensitivity to infrastructure across broad spatial scales. These results contrast with telemetry-
384 based studies that have reported jaguars occasionally using roads or their edges, particularly at
385 night or during territorial or reproductive movements (Alegre et al., 2023, 2024; Cerqueira et al.,
386 2021; Morato et al., 2018). However, such use has been described as brief and associated with
387 increased movement speed, suggesting that roads are tolerated but not selected (Alegre et al.,
388 2024). Moreover, our data indicated a stronger selection by jaguars for natural non-forest areas,
389 which may seem contradictory given their known preference for forests. This pattern is likely
390 influenced by the spatial distribution of our records, which were heavily concentrated in regions
391 such as the Pantanal and transitional zones, where jaguar populations are known to occupy a
392 diversity of habitats, including open wetlands and savannas (Alvarenga et al., 2021) In contrast,
393 the Amazon biome, which holds the largest and continuous habitats that harbour most stable
394 jaguar populations globally (Alvarenga et al., 2025; Jedrzejewski et al., 2023), was
395 underrepresented in our dataset. Moreover, jaguars are closer to extinction in the Atlantic
396 Forest, a forest-dominated biome (Paviolo et al., 2016). This geographic bias may have skewed
397 our findings towards more open biomes, underestimating forest associations observed in
398 Amazonian populations. These observations underscore the importance of considering both
399 habitat availability and sampling distribution when interpreting large-scale patterns of habitat
400 selection. Lastly, the Colocola complex showed the most restrictive pattern within this group,
401 avoiding forested and agricultural areas, suggesting a narrower niche than previously assumed.
402 Their distribution is associated with naturally open-vegetation biomes such as the Pampa,
403 Cerrado, and Pantanal (Lucherini et al., 2016). However, our findings advance the understanding
404 of this wildcat species complex, whose habitat use remains one of the least documented among
405 felids in Brazil. This behavior may reflect ecological specialization within specific complex lineages
406 (Nascimento et al., 2021), calling for conservation actions that account for taxonomic uncertainty
407 and local ecological requirements. These findings highlight the need to recognize cryptic diversity

408 and localized specialization within this complex, moving beyond coarse taxonomic units in
409 conservation planning.

410 The strict specialists in our study, *Leopardus wiedii*, *L. guttulus*, and *L. tigrinus*, consistently
411 selected forested habitats and avoided open or modified environments, highlighting their strong
412 reliance on forest. *L. wiedii* showed a clear preference for dense forest and avoidance of natural
413 non-forest and pasture areas, aligning with its arboreal and cryptic behavior, likely contributing
414 to its low detectability in camera trap surveys (Harmsen et al., 2021). *L. guttulus*, restricted to the
415 Atlantic Forest, was strongly associated with high forest cover and showed limited use in non-
416 forest areas. Although it may tolerate mosaics that include small-scale agriculture, its occurrence
417 is tightly linked to the availability of continuous forest habitat (Sartor et al., 2024; de Oliveira et
418 al., 2024). Habitat models and genetic analyses reveal that populations are fragmented and
419 genetically isolated, particularly in southern Brazil, and may not remain viable without increased
420 connectivity between forest patches (de Oliveira et al., 2024). *L. tigrinus*, while similarly forest-
421 dependent, exhibits a slightly broader tolerance for more open biomes such as the Cerrado and
422 Caatinga but remains constrained to structurally complex habitats with vegetation cover
423 (Oliveira-Santos et al., 2012). Overall, these patterns reinforce the idea that strict forest
424 specialists among Neotropical felids are highly vulnerable to habitat loss and fragmentation and
425 that conservation efforts should focus on protecting remaining forest blocks and restoring
426 ecological corridors to sustain long-term population viability.

427 Our findings underscore the ecological diversity and functional disparity among Neotropical cats
428 when confronted with human-altered environments. While some species showed tolerance to
429 modified landscapes, others exhibited marked avoidance, even within the same functional group,
430 highlighting the limitations of assuming uniform responses across taxa. These patterns result
431 from a complex interaction between species traits and human pressures' structure, intensity, and
432 spatial configuration. For example, agricultural complexity, such as crop type, structure, size, and
433 proximity to native areas, as well as chemical use, could influence cats' ability to traverse or utilize
434 agricultural matrices (Fischer and Lindenmayer, 2007; Sanches et al., 2021). Our findings
435 reinforce the idea that land-use impacts should not be considered in binary terms but rather as
436 gradients of ecological pressure. While the functional classification proposed here did not fully
437 predict individual species' responses, it was a valuable framework to highlight general trends,
438 identify deviations from expected patterns, and guide comparative assessments. As such, it offers
439 a complementary tool for anticipating potential vulnerabilities, prioritizing monitoring efforts,
440 and informing conservation strategies in dynamic and heterogeneous landscapes. Therefore,
441 landscape conservation must integrate structural complexity, spatial connectivity, and species-
442 specific needs to maintain felid functional diversity.

443 Also, integrating open data from multiple platforms, as applied herein with 13 data sources,
444 proves to be a robust and scalable alternative for assessing habitat selection and sensitivity in
445 data-deficient tropical systems. In a country with continental dimensions such as Brazil,
446 maintaining long-term, standardized field monitoring presents considerable challenges. Despite
447 some limitations, access to continuous information from diverse sources enables a more
448 comprehensive understanding of changes in species distribution and the effects of
449 environmental transformations, facilitating the identification of priority areas and informed
450 conservation actions. Furthermore, a more accurate analysis of habitat selection can significantly
451 contribute to the future assessment of feline extinction risk, supporting effective management
452 and conservation strategies. This analysis is particularly important for environmental agencies
453 responsible for global, national, and regional species assessments.

454 However, we also recognize the limitations associated with working with open-access data. These
455 datasets are often biased toward areas with greater accessibility, including protected zones, and
456 may reflect uneven observer effort, detection probability, and temporal sampling (Tensen, 2018).
457 Furthermore, given Brazil's continental dimensions, the sampling and availability of open data
458 may be influenced by regional political and economic factors, such as the concentration of
459 research funding in the southeast region compared to other areas (Oliveira et al., 2016). For
460 instance, camera trap studies are frequently concentrated in specific areas, avoiding more
461 anthropized areas to prevent theft or loss. Despite these limitations, the preliminary insights
462 presented in this study offer a valuable starting point for refining future monitoring strategies,
463 identifying ecological knowledge gaps, and enhancing the focus of research efforts on
464 underrepresented felid species. Moreover, this approach provides a foundation for developing
465 evidence-based conservation proposals and long-term ecological studies.

466 Implications for Felid Conservation

467 Our findings provide a framework for prioritizing conservation actions in Brazil's diverse wild cat
468 community. We identified key vulnerabilities and adaptive potential by distinguishing species
469 based on their ecological strategies and responses to human-modified landscapes. Generalist
470 species such as *Puma concolor* and *Herpailurus yagouaroundi* can persist in modified habitats,
471 provided remnants of native vegetation and structural heterogeneity are maintained (Azevedo
472 et al., 2020; LaBarge et al., 2022). For these species, conservation planning should emphasize
473 biodiversity-friendly land uses, including agroforestry, riparian corridors, and mixed-use matrices
474 (Fischer & Lindenmayer, 2007). However, *Leopardus geoffroyi*, also categorized as a generalist,
475 consistently avoided modified open habitats, including roads, suggesting fine-scale specialization
476 or regional ecological constraints. As such, conservation measures for this species must go
477 beyond the generalist label and prioritize protecting and restoring riparian and forest fragments
478 (Tirelli et al., 2019), creating road-free buffer zones, and actively mitigating rural threats,

479 including hunting, poisoning, and habitat degradation. These efforts are particularly critical in
480 ecotonal regions and the northern edge of its distribution, where populations are more isolated
481 and conservation attention remains limited.

482
483 Flexible specialists such as *Panthera onca*, *Leopardus pardalis*, and the Colocola complex
484 demonstrate sensitivity to habitat and infrastructure disturbance. However, they were recorded
485 in heterogeneous landscapes, suggesting that their persistence may be influenced by residual
486 habitat continuity or proximity. Although explicit connectivity metrics were not assessed in this
487 study, the observed occurrence patterns are consistent with the idea that specific landscape
488 configurations can facilitate movement or occupancy. This reinforces the relevance of landscape
489 planning tools, such as corridor design, road mitigation, and buffering of core habitats, to support
490 ecological processes likely required by these species, including dispersal and gene flow (Hilty et
491 al., 2020). In the case of the Colocola complex, where environmental and taxonomic uncertainties
492 persist, flexible conservation units and regional monitoring are key to avoiding overlooking
493 unique lineages (Crandall et al., 2000). Strict forest specialists, *L. guttulus*, *L. wiedii*, and *L. tigrinus*,
494 remain the most vulnerable under current land-use trends. These species require large
495 contiguous forest blocks, functional landscape connectivity, and strict native habitat protection
496 to ensure long-term persistence. Their limited plasticity and fragmented ranges increase their
497 susceptibility to local extinctions, even in landscapes with apparent habitat mosaics. Lastly, it is
498 essential to consider the landscape scale, as habitat connectivity may be perceived differently
499 depending on the species' body size.

500
501 Finally, our study highlights the heuristic value of using functional classifications to structure
502 hypotheses and identify general patterns across species. While this framework proved helpful in
503 guiding our analyses and discussion, our results also underscore that functional groupings do not
504 fully determine species responses. Therefore, addressing conservation gaps will require species-
505 specific assessments that consider local ecological and geographic contexts and improved data
506 coverage in under-sampled regions such as the Pampas, the Caatinga, and the interior Amazon.
507 Integrating open-access biodiversity data with information on landscape structure and function
508 can enhance the effectiveness and equity of conservation planning. Although functionally
509 informed strategies provide a valuable starting point, the long-term persistence of vulnerable
510 felids, including strict forest specialists and potentially overlooked flexible species like the
511 Colocola complex, depends on tailored, context-specific conservation actions.

512
513 Beyond species-specific recommendations, our findings offer a strategic tool for national-level
514 conservation planning. They contribute directly to Brazil's National Action Plans for the
515 Conservation of Small and Large Felids (PAN Pequenos Felinos and PAN Grandes Felinos; ICMBIO,
516 2024a, b), particularly by addressing key knowledge gaps related to habitat use, road sensitivity,

517 and species-specific vulnerabilities. By integrating open-access data with spatially explicit
518 modelling, this work supports core actions outlined in both PANs, including the identification of
519 anthropogenic pressures, developing predictive habitat models, and improving conservation
520 planning in under-sampled regions. Furthermore, these functionally informed, data-driven
521 strategies align with global conservation priorities such as the IUCN Global Species Action Plan
522 (IUCN, 2023), which highlights the importance of adaptive planning and integrative data use for
523 threatened species management.

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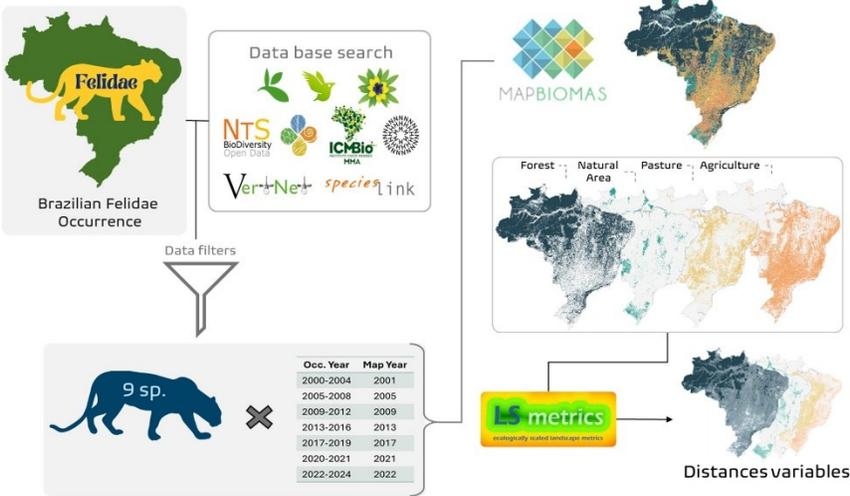
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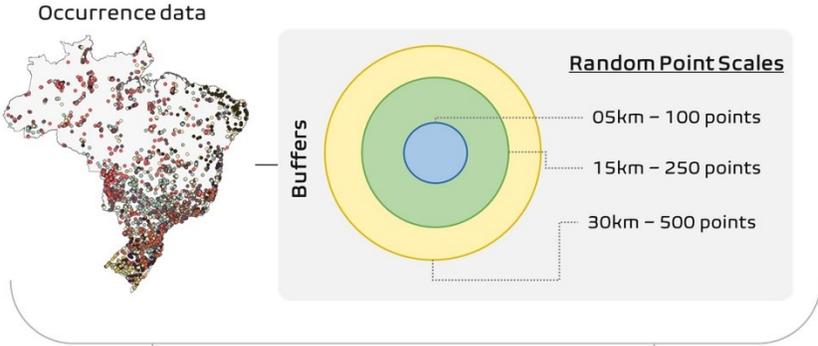
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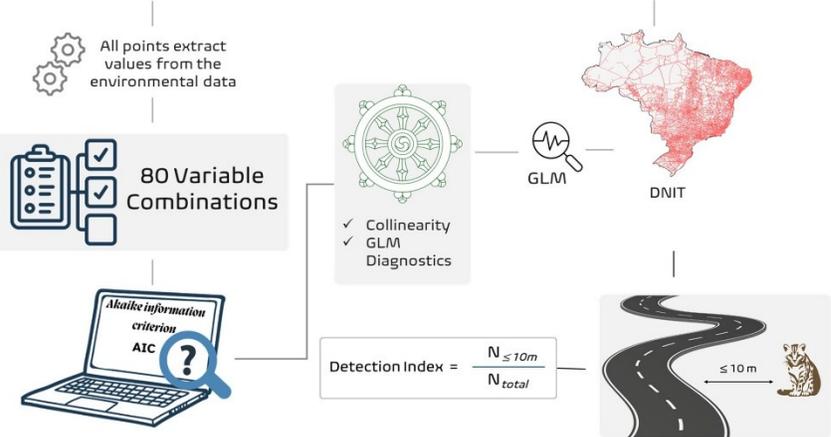
Step 1. Data Collection and Preprocessing



Step 2. Pseudo-Absence Points in multiple spatial scales

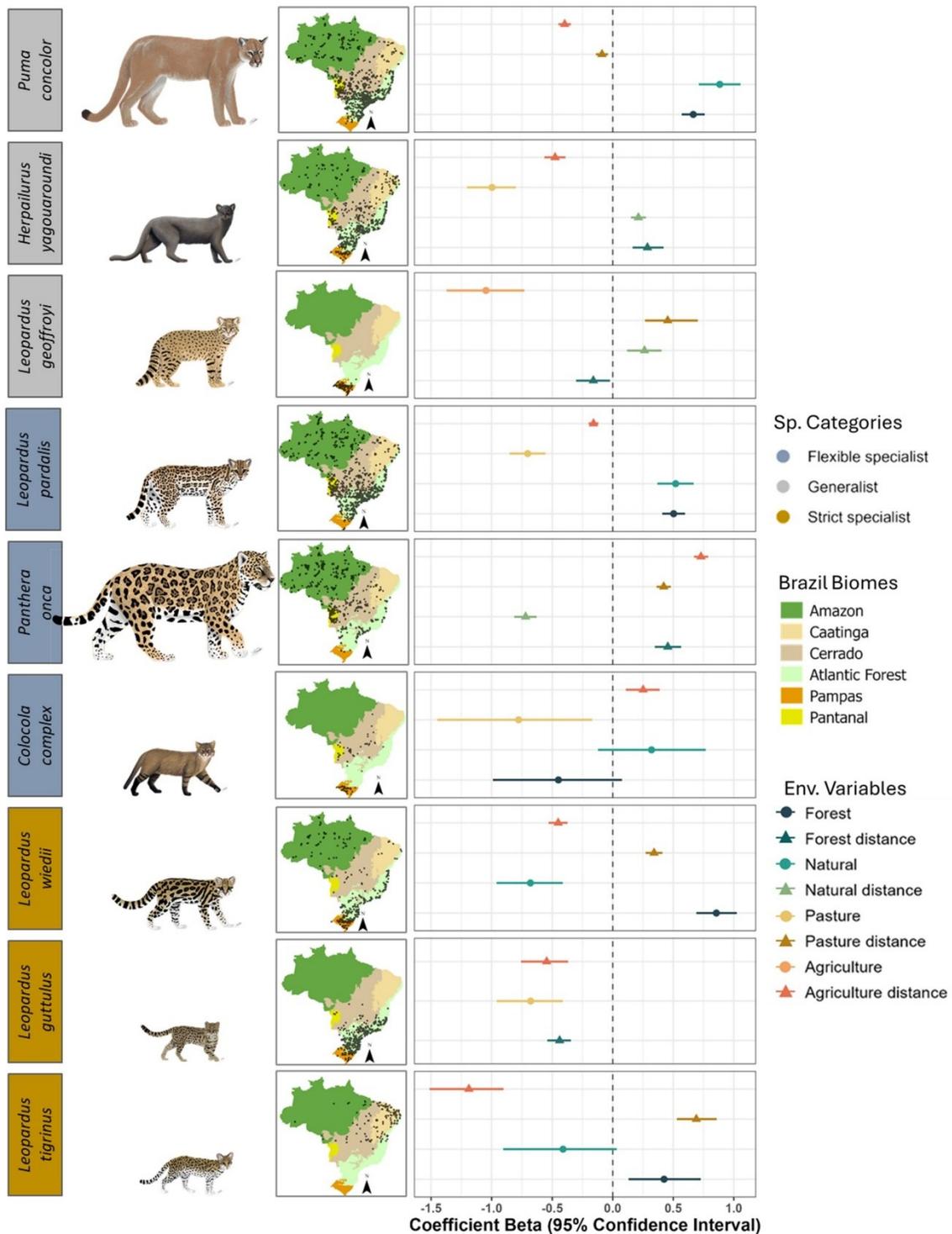


Step 3. Habitat Selection and Roads Effects

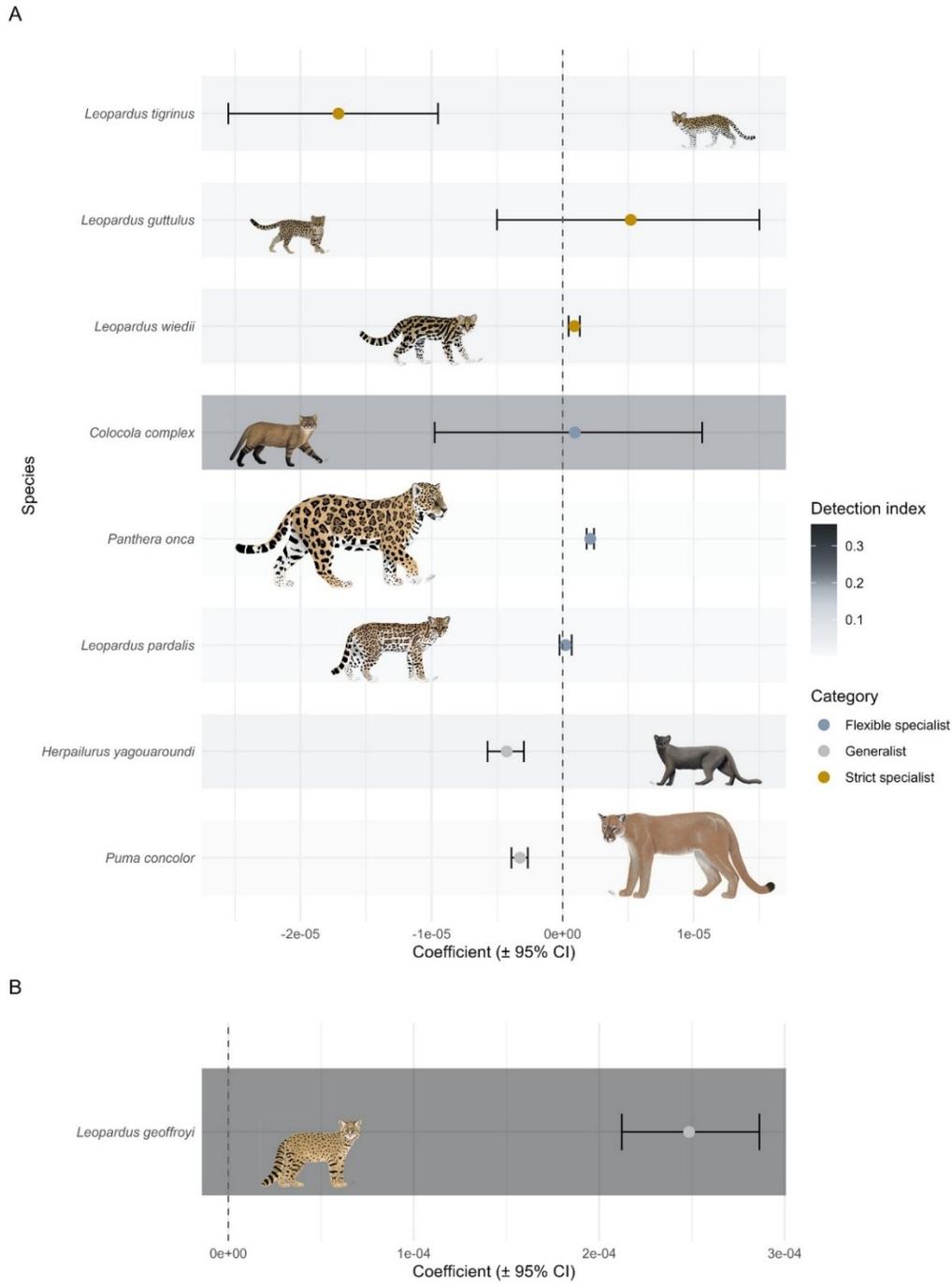


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Figure 1. Workflow: Step 1: Collect data and preprocess environmental variables. Step 2: Prepare the dataset for the models according to species, year, and coordinates. Step 3: Use the dataset to run the habitat selection and road effect models.



758 Figure 2. Species are organized into categories, along with their data distribution maps in the different
 759 Brazilian biomes. Beta coefficients estimated from the habitat selection model for the different species.
 760 Positive binary values indicate habitat selection, while negative ones indicate avoidance. The values
 761 correspond to the distances to landscape elements. Negative beta coefficients indicate selection of
 762 habitats close to said elements, while positive ones indicate selection of more distant sites. The graphs by
 763 coefficient are found in Supplementary Material, Appendix B, figure A. Illustrations of the cats by Ricardo
 764 Ribeiro da Silva.



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Figure 3. Beta coefficients are estimated from the road effects model for all species. Values correspond to distances to roads. Negative beta coefficients indicate proximity to roads, while positive beta coefficients indicate more distant selection. Species categories are shown in three different colors, and the species detection index according to our data is shown in gray gradients. For a better appreciation of the figure, A and B were created to highlight the limits of the coefficients, with B for *Leopardus geoffroyi* exhibiting greater detectability than the others. Illustrations of the cats by Ricardo Ribeiro da Silva.

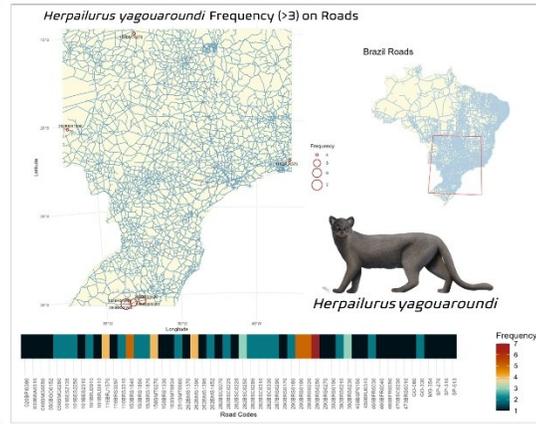
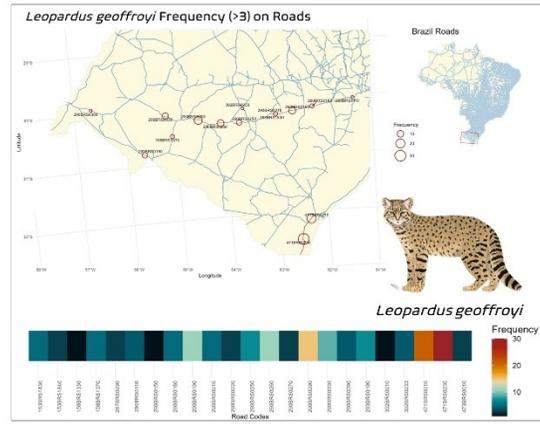
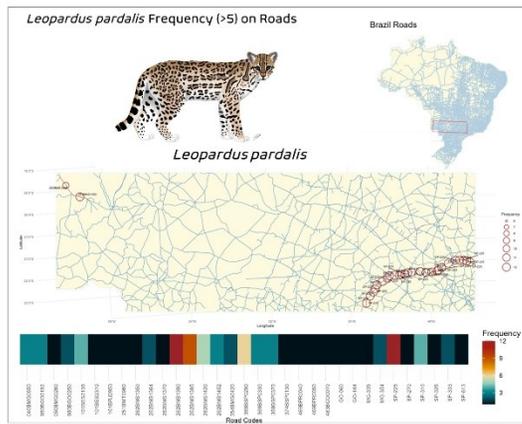
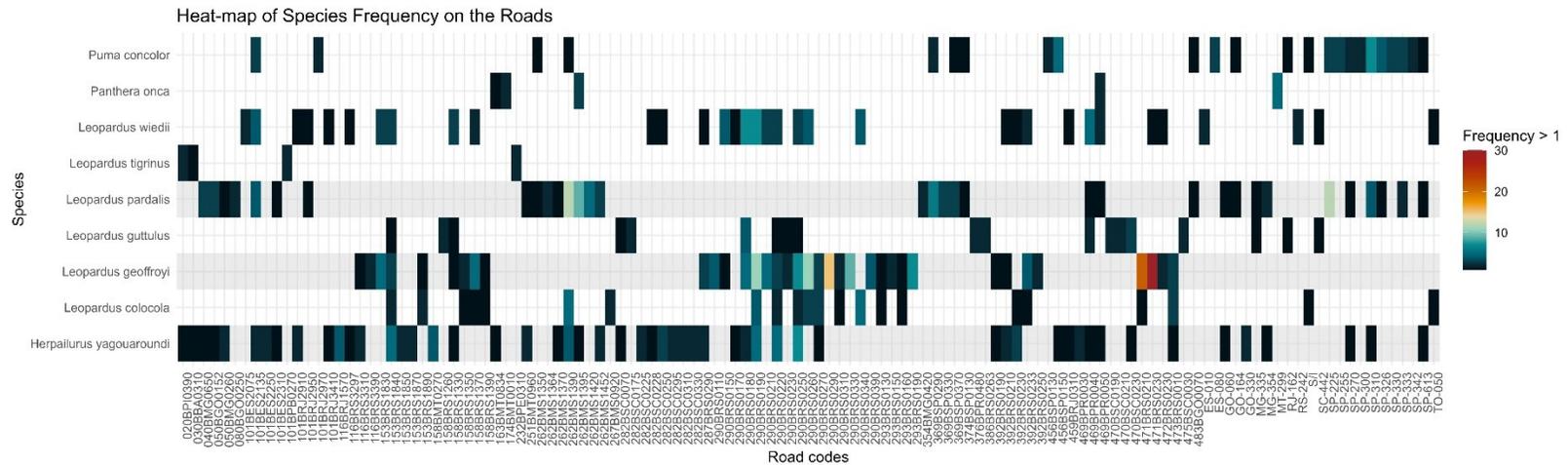


Figure 4. Heat map showing the frequency of recorded data by species along a specific road, identified by its codes. The gray lines in the background highlight the three species with the highest data frequencies on these roads (top). These three species have the highest frequencies on roads no wider than 10 meters. From left to right, they are: *Leopardus pardalis* (map representation with more than five recorded data frequencies), *Leopardus geoffroyi*, and *Herpailurus yagouaroundi* (both map representations with a data frequency of three times). Below each figure, the total data frequencies and corresponding codes for each species are shown (bottom). For viewing more details in the figures by species, see the supplementary material, Appendix C. Illustrations of the cats by Ricardo Ribeiro da Silva.