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3 Global patterns of carnivore spatial ecology research in agroecosystems

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16 **Abstract**

17 The growing needs for agricultural expansion and intensification will likely continue to reduce and
18 fragment the terrestrial habitats fundamental to mammalian carnivores. Recent research identified
19 benefits of agroecosystems to carnivores recognizing their multifunctionality, mostly for common
20 species. However, the variability of carnivore ecology investigated in agroecosystems, biases in
21 agriculture types and species targeted, and methodological approaches may affect available
22 knowledge to reconcile conservation and production goals. To fill this gap, we conducted a
23 systematic literature review to identify which aspects of and how is carnivore spatial ecology being
24 investigated within agroecosystems. Of the 110 reviewed studies, most focused on agricultural
25 crops (55%) and grasslands (47%) and half referred to monocultures. We found that 61% of the
26 studies were conducted in Europe and North America. Eighty-four species were studied, 73%
27 classified as Least Concern, with 67% of the studies targeting a single species and 30% focused on
28 only seven common species. Almost all studies included some form of habitat use analysis and
29 species' home-range and its attributes (e.g. size, resource selection) were the most common spatial
30 ecology aspects studied. Most studies suggested that agriculture act as food provisioning areas
31 (69%) but few used direct food availability measures. Our results highlight that studies tend to be
32 descriptive and geographically biased towards northern hemisphere and to non-forested agricultural
33 types. We suggest that future carnivore spatial ecology research in agroecosystem should be
34 hypotheses-driven, with greater focus on the mechanisms and processes through which
35 agroecosystems might affect carnivore spatial ecology in high priority regions for carnivore
36 conservation.

37

38 **Key words**

39 Agriculture, *Carnivora*, biodiversity conservation, land use, landscape functionality, research
40 synthesis, space use

41

42 **Introduction**

43 Unprecedented rates of agricultural expansion and intensification (Foley et al., 2011; Tilman et al.,
44 2011) are leading to biodiversity loss, habitat loss and fragmentation, and the deterioration of
45 ecosystem services (Cardinale et al. 2012; Visconti et al. 2016; IUCN 2016; Joppa et al. 2016).
46 Currently, about 40% of the terrestrial earth surface is agricultural land (FAO 2015), and further
47 expansion and intensification is expected to meet growing demands for food (Tilman et al. 2011).
48 Land use conversion to agriculture (crops, production forests, pastures) is responsible for increasing
49 local extinction and species turnover, decreasing local and regional diversity (Newbold et al. 2015),
50 altering the distribution and abundance of species (Dobrovolski et al. 2013), and ultimately
51 influencing species demographic and evolutionary processes (Verdade et al. 2014). Agriculture may
52 have additional deleterious effects on species, through environmental contamination (Novotny
53 1999) or favoring the spread of invasive species (Turbelin et al. 2017). Some biodiversity might,
54 however, be able to cope and thrive in agricultural systems with certain conditions (Cox and
55 Underwood 2011; Mendenhall et al. 2014). For example, agroecosystems (ecosystems in which
56 indigenous plants and animals are partially or completely replaced with crops and livestock; Altieri
57 and Koohafkan 2004) can support moderate to high biodiversity levels depending on agricultural
58 intensity and presence of residual native vegetation (Daily et al. 2003). However, more evidence is
59 needed about the role of agroecosystems in conservation (Chazdon et al. 2009), as their associated
60 biodiversity and functions are not yet clear (Henle et al. 2008). We thus need to better understand
61 under which conditions goals for biodiversity conservation and agricultural production can be
62 aligned (Adams et al. 2004; Scherr and McNeely 2008; Kueffer and Kaiser-Bunbury 2014).

63 Research about biodiversity in agroecosystems has grown exponentially over the last two
64 decades, and it has also increased for terrestrial mammalian carnivores (hereafter ‘carnivores’)
65 (Ferreira et al. 2018). Agriculture is considered the leading driver of carnivore extinctions and

66 population declines (Visconti et al. 2011; Di Marco et al. 2014). Losses of carnivore species can
67 have major cascading effects on ecosystems, as they play an important role in ecosystem regulation,
68 via resource facilitation or top-down control of lower trophic levels (Sergio et al. 2008; Roemer et
69 al. 2009; Prugh et al. 2009; Ripple et al. 2014). Agricultural impacts on carnivore populations may
70 also disrupt the benefits these species provide to human wellbeing (O'Bryan et al. 2018), such as
71 disease mitigation, carrion removal, or even as pest control agents indirectly increasing agricultural
72 production (e.g. Williams et al. 2018). Future agricultural expansion is predicted to greatly overlap
73 important areas for carnivore conservation (Dobrovolski et al. 2013). In recent decades, however,
74 there is growing evidence that agroecosystems might also provide carnivore habitat (e.g. avocado
75 orchards: Nogueira et al. 2013; cork oak agroforestry: Rosalino et al. 2005, Santos et al. 2016;
76 agroforestry: Verdade et al. 2014, etc) and allow connectivity (Matos et al. 2009), being potentially
77 multifunctional for many species, especially those requiring large areas for their territory and
78 movements (Norris 2008). Agroecosystems may thus support biodiversity depending on the type of
79 agriculture, its intensity, and whether residual native vegetation is maintained (Daily et al. 2003).
80 Therefore, if agroecosystems provide habitat and support biodiversity, they can also act
81 complementary to networks of protected areas to increase regional ecological integrity, by
82 supporting population persistence and promoting connectivity (Ekroos et al. 2016).

83 A detailed understanding of how wildlife, specifically carnivore species, use agroecosystems
84 is needed to answer the challenge of including agroecosystems in conservation portfolios
85 (Sutherland 2003). Such information can be affected by literature biases and knowledge shortfalls
86 (e.g. Wallacean, Prestonian and Darwinian; Hortal et al. 2015). Here, we conducted a systematic
87 literature review to identify trends and inform gaps in conceptual and methodological approaches to
88 carnivore spatial ecology research in agroecosystems. We specifically focused on spatial ecology
89 since spatial patterns are often the starting point for more detailed ecological investigations
90 (Cottenie 2005). Moreover, we opted to review studies conducted at the landscape scale, because

91 this is the most suitable scale for land management. We review the literature to describe: 1) which
92 geographical locations, agriculture systems and carnivore species, are being studied? 2) which
93 spatial ecology patterns are being investigated and which methodological approaches are current
94 practice? and 3) which ecological functions and properties of agroecosystems are considered to
95 explain the observed spatial patterns? Finally, we build on the information gathered through the
96 literature review to provide a road-map for future research needs.

97

98 **Materials and Methods**

99 *Data collection*

100 In July 2016 we performed a literature search of peer-reviewed scientific articles using the
101 ISI Web of Science (<https://apps.webofknowledge.com>) and Scopus
102 (<https://www.elsevier.com/solutions/scopus>) databases, and the Google Scholar search engine. We
103 searched for terms within article title, abstract and keywords. The search terms included:
104 ‘carnivore’, ‘*Carnivora*’, ‘agriculture’, ‘agricultural systems/landscapes’, ‘farm’, ‘crops’, ‘forestry’,
105 ‘pasture’, ‘orchards’, ‘grove’ and ‘predator’, as isolated and as combined terms. We extended the
106 search by including bibliographic references cited in the initial set of articles identified in the
107 search. We selected articles that met five criteria: 1) published between 1996-2016, to cover the
108 most recent findings about carnivores in agricultural areas, 2) targeted at least one carnivore
109 species, 3) focused on spatial ecology, 4) conducted at local or regional levels using landscape
110 approaches and 5) carried in landscapes where agricultural land covered more than 15% of the
111 study area, to assure that the proportion of this land use would be non-negligible.

112 For each study, we recorded information on: 1) geographical location; 2) agricultural
113 system(s); 3) carnivore species; 4) spatial ecology aspects; 5) methodological – sampling and
114 analytical - approach(es); 6) functions attributed to agriculture; and 7) properties of the
115 agroecosystem considered (e.g. disturbance, production cycle). This information was coded as

116 categorical binary variables (Table 1), except for species lists. The resulting data was used to
117 calculate the frequency of each category in all reviewed studies.

118

119

120 **Results**

121 Our search generated a total of 146 articles, from which 110 fit our criteria and were used for more
122 detailed review (a list of reviewed studies is provided in S1 Data sources). The number of
123 publications per year increased significantly until 2016 (Spearman's Rank Correlation, $r_s=0.816$,
124 $p<0.001$; Fig. 1) with a 25% average annual growth rate.

125

126 *Characteristics of the studies*

127 More than half of the studies were conducted in Europe and North America. Europe was the
128 continent with the higher number of studies (38%), followed by North America (23%), while
129 remaining studies were evenly distributed between South America (15%), Asia (13%) and Africa
130 (12%) (Fig. 1-2). Our selection did not include studies conducted in Oceania given that the Order
131 *Carnivora* is not native of this continent.

132 The four agricultural types were not evenly represented in the sample of studies we analyzed
133 (Table 1). Studies on crops (55%) and grasslands (47%) dominated the literature, followed by those
134 targeting forestry (31%) and groves (17%) (Fig. 2). Nearly half of the reviewed studies targeted a
135 single agroecosystem type, i.e. monocultures (48%), while the remaining were conducted in mixed
136 agroecosystems. The types of agricultural systems most studied varied per continent, with
137 grasslands most studied in Europe and Africa, crops in North America and groves in Asia (Fig. S1).
138 These mixed agriculture systems were mainly combinations of croplands and grasslands, and of
139 forestry and grasslands. Groves were most often monocultures. There is a geographical bias to
140 common agricultural systems, namely: croplands in Europe (e.g. central European farmlands;

141 Červinka et al. 2013; Šálek et al. 2013) and North America (e.g. row-crop plantations in Indiana;
142 Beasley et al. 2007; Gehring and Swihart, 2003); forestry and grasslands in Europe (e.g.
143 Mediterranean silvo-pastoral systems; Galantinho and Mira, 2009; Hipólito et al. 2016);
144 combination of forestry, grasslands and croplands of South America (e.g. multi-use agriculture
145 system in Southeast Brazil; Dotta and Verdade, 2011a; Lyra-Jorge et al. 2008); groves in Asia (e.g.
146 oil palm plantations; Jennings et al. 2015; Rajaratnam et al. 2007); and grasslands in Africa (e.g.
147 rangeland; Marker et al. 2008).

148 Most studies targeted a single carnivore species (67%). Studies spanned a total of 84
149 carnivore species, about one third of the world's carnivore species (n=284) (Fig. 2, Table S1). The
150 highest number of species in one study was 18, in oil-palm agriculture in Peninsular Malaysia
151 (Azhar et al. 2014) and two other studies each reported 13 carnivore species in multi-use agriculture
152 in South America (Daily et al. 2003; Dotta and Verdade 2011b); on average studies reported on
153 2.7 ± 3 species. Despite the considerable diversity in species richness across studies, seven species
154 accounted for ~30% of all records, namely the red fox (*Vulpes vulpes*), coyote (*Canis latrans*),
155 European badger (*Meles meles*), stone marten (*Martes foina*), mountain lion (*Puma concolor*), and
156 raccoon (*Procyon lotor*) (see Table S1). Regarding species' IUCN conservation status, 73% were
157 classified as 'Low Concern' IUCN status, 11% as 'Near threatened' and the remaining 17% had a
158 higher threat status. Despite the predominance of low concern conservation status, 54% of the target
159 species were reported to have decreasing population trends, 28% stable and only 4% increasing.

160

161 *Spatial ecology and methodological approaches*

162 Home-range studies (36%, e.g. Dellinger et al. 2013; Nakashima et al. 2013) were the most
163 common, followed by the assessments of species distributions (22%, e.g. Nogueira et al. 2013;
164 Ramesh and Downs 2015), and density or relative abundance (18%, e.g. Dotta and Verdade 2011a;
165 Kent and Hill 2013; Fig. 2). Few studies focused on inventories of carnivore species (11%, e.g.

166 Azhar et al., 2014; Daily et al., 2003), and even fewer analyzed animal movements (6%, e.g. Elliott
167 et al. 2015; Nogeire et al. 2015). Independently of the studied spatial ecology aspect, the vast
168 majority of the studies (92%) focused on determining habitat use. Radio-tracking was the most
169 common method used (45% of the studies), while sign surveys and camera-trapping were conducted
170 in 29% and 23% of the studies, respectively.

171

172 *Underlying processes*

173 Three-quarters of the reviewed studies attributed at least one function to agriculture (Fig. 2),
174 food provisioning being the most common function (69%, e.g. Caruso et al. 2016; Jennings et al.
175 2015). Fewer studies suggest agricultural land functions as shelter provider (22%, e.g. Carvalho et
176 al. 2014; Moreira-Arce et al. 2016) or movement path (6%, e.g. Nogeire et al. 2015). About one-
177 third of the reviewed studies associated temporal heterogeneity of the studied agroecosystem with
178 carnivore spatial ecology patterns (36%, e.g. Marker et al. 2008; Santos et al. 2016), but only 16%
179 related this with the agriculture's production cycle (e.g. Borchert et al. 2008; Timo et al. 2015).
180 Similarly, 35% of the studies considered direct disturbance linked to carnivore spatial ecology (e.g.
181 Lara-Romero et al. 2012; Vanthomme et al. 2013). Even fewer studies, 25%, integrated direct
182 resource availability measurements (e.g. Šálek et al. 2010; Silva-Rodríguez et al. 2010).

183

184 **Discussion**

185 The growing needs for agricultural expansion and intensification will likely continue to reduce and
186 fragment the terrestrial habitats fundamental to mammalian carnivore species, forcing carnivore
187 conservation portfolios to extend beyond the boundaries of wilderness and consider land-sharing
188 options (López-Bao et al. 2017). Wildlife-friendly farming, specifically, has been proposed as a
189 solution to meet both needs for food and provide benefits for biodiversity (Scherr and McNeely
190 2008; Verdade et al. 2014). Mounting evidence on carnivore species' ability to exploit the

191 heterogeneity of agroecosystems at large spatial scales (Ferreira et al. 2018) suggests the potential
192 for agroecosystems' multifunctionality at multiple scales (see Ekroos et al. 2016). Yet, the ability to
193 harness potential biodiversity benefits of agroecosystems hinges on our understanding of species'
194 ecology in these altered environments. Here we reviewed conceptual and methodological
195 approaches to carnivore spatial ecology research in agroecosystems. Our results show an
196 exponential growth in publications and in the variety of systems studied, as well as in spatial
197 ecology aspects assessed, and methodologies employed. However, we found a geographical bias
198 towards research in the northern hemisphere and that most carnivore species researched in
199 agroecosystems were of low conservation concern. Of the studies we reviewed, most described
200 spatial ecology patterns based on species use of space, but only few have linked these patterns to
201 population's demography, that ultimately determines the conservation potential of agroecosystems.
202 Perhaps most fundamental was the lack of hypothesis-driven studies aimed to understand
203 agroecosystem functionality.

204

205 *Target systems*

206 Most studies concentrated in Europe and North America, continents with historical and
207 large-scale land conversion to agriculture (Diamond 1997). Conversely, regions like Africa and
208 South America which are experiencing more recent and ongoing agriculture expansion (Gibbs et al.
209 2010; FAO 2015) were less often targeted, although these regions are projected as future hotspots of
210 terrestrial mammal loss (Visconti et al. 2011). Most studies occurred in areas of low priority for
211 carnivore conservation (Di Minin et al. 2016), except for several studies conducted in South East
212 Asia, a carnivore diversity hotspot facing intense agricultural expansion (Koh et al. 2011). A recent
213 review by Ferreira et al. (2018) assessed the global determinants in the use of agricultural lands by
214 carnivores. They found distinct geographical research patterns and highlighted a higher interest for
215 the topic in South America that was not captured by us. However, the reviewed studies included

216 numerous ‘grey literature’ (e.g. Ph.D. and M.Sc. theses) for the region, which were not captured by
217 our review criteria, and Ferreira et al. (2018) did not consider pastoral systems associated with
218 livestock husbandry (here ‘grasslands’) which are prevalent in Europe and Africa.

219 Our review highlighted that the majority of studies were conducted on crops and grasslands,
220 and fewer in forestry or groves. Production forests create low-contrast matrices with native forests
221 and the afforestation of agricultural land has been suggested to provide complementary habitat,
222 buffer edge effects and promote connectivity to a greater extent than the sharper ecotones associated
223 with agricultural types that lack a tree layer (Brockerhoff et al. 2008). Such knowledge biases
224 towards non-forested agriculture may impair our ability to verify and harness benefits of
225 agroecosystems with proposed greater potential for carnivore conservation. Indeed, Ferreira et al
226 (2018) reported eucalyptus, pine and oil palm plantations as the agricultural habitats most
227 frequently used by carnivores. There is, however, some uncertainty in labelling the studied
228 agroecosystems, because many of the studies only provide vague descriptions of the agricultural
229 types and often only state “agriculture”.

230 We found studies targeted a wide variety of carnivore species that occur in agroecosystems
231 but had a greater focus on species with low conservation status, presumably more common in these
232 systems (Ferreira et al. 2018). It remains unclear, however, how agroecosystems contribute to these
233 species conservation since most studies were based on occurrence data, which conveys little
234 information on population persistence (Grouios and Manne 2009), nor on individual condition (e.g.
235 body condition, parasite burden, etc.).

236 Further, many of the carnivore presence records were obtained in remaining native
237 vegetation fragments surrounding or interspersed with agricultural areas (e.g. Azhar et al. 2014).
238 These results corroborate the need to further evaluate the challenges and opportunities for carnivore
239 conservation in agroecosystems (Visconti et al. 2011; Dobrovolski et al. 2013; Di Minin et al.
240 2016), specifically a detailed understanding of its ecological functionality (Ferreira et al. 2018)

241 (discussed further below). Moreover, the predominance of studies targeting single focal species
242 suggests many carnivore species present in agroecosystems remain overlooked. Studies should be
243 expanded to a large fraction of the carnivore species globally, for example by targeting carnivore
244 diversity hotspots in southern hemisphere areas, where agroecosystems expansion is more
245 challenging, as also highlighted by Ferreira et al. (2018).

246

247 *Spatial ecology and methodological approaches*

248 We found a strong predominance of ‘habitat use’ descriptive studies, likely because
249 understanding species-habitat relationships is fundamental to understanding the response of species
250 to land-use change, and species-habitat relationships also form the basis of many management plans
251 (Scherr and McNeely 2008). Home-ranges were the most studied aspect of spatial ecology,
252 providing detailed inferences on individuals’ behaviour and resource use (e.g. home-range
253 establishment and associated environmental determinants; Magrini et al., 2009). Most of the studies
254 were based on high-resolution spatio-temporal information mainly from radio-tracking (Boitani and
255 Powell 2012). Home-range shapes, size and composition, which underlie many of the local
256 ecological adaptations of carnivores (e.g. Gittleman and Harvey 1982), are driven by carnivore
257 body-mass, physiology and interactions such as competition and co-existence, and are fundamental
258 to scale individual behavior to understand population structure (e.g. Johnson et al. 2001), meta-
259 populations, dispersal, and the dynamics of geographical range contraction and expansion.

260 Assessing distribution patterns was the second most common goal of the reviewed studies,
261 providing spatially explicit and population level estimates of species occurrence, often for several
262 species simultaneously. Such information of geographical distributions is important to identify
263 areas and/or landscape features of conservation value for species-level dynamics and to determine
264 threats (Boitani and Powell 2012). However, the robustness of species occurrence estimates is
265 highly influenced by the sampling method and inherent caveats of presence and absence data. Only

266 30% of reviewed distribution studies attempted to correct survey data for imperfect detection (for
267 example, by using hierarchical occupancy modelling, Mackenzie et al. 2006; e.g. Cruz et al. 2015),
268 thus potentially generating biased inferences of distribution (Guillera-Arroita et al. 2014).

269 The detailed description and high-resolution data used to elucidate carnivore space use in
270 agroecosystems with the above approaches, contrasts with the lack of knowledge on the
271 demography of individual species in these environments. Fewer studies estimated carnivore relative
272 abundance or density, and of those about two thirds related the estimates with environmental
273 conditions by, for example, comparing estimates across landscapes with different proportions of
274 agriculture cover (Swanepoel et al. 2015). Only a small fraction of studies provided explicit density
275 estimates. This could be because accurate inferences on density are hard to obtain for low-abundant,
276 wide-ranging and often cryptic carnivore species, particularly for species lacking morphological
277 traits that allow individual identification and use of common capture-recapture approaches (Boitani
278 and Powell 2012). Alternatively, researchers often resort to the use of relative abundance indices, in
279 the format of capture rates, to describe disproportionate distributions of unmarked individuals
280 across heterogeneous agroecosystems. However, such measures can rarely be used for inference
281 about absolute population size as they need to be calibrated to do so, and are particularly susceptible
282 to imperfect and variable detection (Sollmann et al. 2013). This lack of information on population
283 abundance, and more importantly population size and density, hinders the evaluation of carnivore
284 population demographics and landscape features associated with population persistence (discussed
285 below) and limits meaningful comparisons across systems.

286

287 *Underlying processes*

288 The large majority of reviewed studies associated agriculture lands with its capacity to
289 directly (e.g. cereals, fruits) or indirectly (e.g. rodents) provide food for carnivores (e.g. Athreya et
290 al. 2013; Caruso et al. 2016; Jennings et al. 2015; Kaneko et al. 2006; Prange et al. 2004). This

291 longitudinal function of food provisioning is common to several agriculture types, and is in line
292 with previous reviews that suggest that agriculture provides a surplus of food, driving carnivore's
293 space use, and increases carrying capacity (Verdade et al. 2011). Compared to natural vegetation
294 areas, many agroecosystems support a higher abundance of rodents (Gheler-Costa et al. 2012) and
295 ground beetles (da Silva et al. 2008), two taxa often consumed by carnivores (e.g. Verdade et al.
296 2011). Furthermore, fruit production increases the amount of available food used by carnivores,
297 particularly in Mediterranean areas (Rosalino and Santos-Reis 2009). However, only a third of the
298 studies hypothesized *a priori* this function of agriculture and less than 20% explicitly coupled this
299 hypothesis with resource availability data (e.g. Rajaratnam et al. 2007; Šálek et al. 2010; Silva-
300 Rodríguez et al. 2010). Most often, food provisioning is a *post-hoc* explanation for observed spatial
301 patterns, suggesting functionality (e.g. Chamberlain et al. 2009).

302 The role of agricultural lands as shelter for carnivores (e.g. Carvalho et al. 2014; Moreira-
303 Arce et al. 2016) and as movement paths, facilitating connectivity between habitats (e.g. Nogueire et
304 al. 2015), is much less often mentioned. However, this could be due to the way we extracted
305 information from the studies on the ecological functions attributed to agriculture . When such
306 information was not explicitly mentioned by authors, we made our own interpretation of their
307 discussion, which can be subjective. Despite the caveats associated with this approach, we
308 considered this information valuable as it summarizes the most common functions associated with
309 agricultural lands.

310 Fundamental characteristics of agroecosystems were seldom considered. Most studies did
311 not consider the influence of phenology on carnivore spatial patterns and only a small fraction
312 investigated the effect of temporal heterogeneity in ecosystem structure linked to agriculture
313 production cycles (e.g. Borchert et al. 2008). This is an important aspect to consider, as temporal
314 heterogeneity is an inherent characteristic of agroecosystems (Verdade et al. 2014). Previous studies
315 have shown that this higher temporal heterogeneity of agroecosystems often compensates for the

316 temporal discontinuity in resource availability in natural ecosystems (see Driscoll et al. 2013) and,
317 consequently, drives space use patterns by carnivores (e.g. Timo et al. 2015). For example, biomass
318 in sugarcane plantations can range annually from virtually zero to 100 ton ha⁻¹ year⁻¹ (Goldemberg
319 et al. 2008), and its availability may induce strong temporal dynamics in the populations of
320 mammalian prey species (Beatriz Villa et al. 1998). Another issue often disregarded was the effect
321 of human-induced disturbance, expected to be particularly relevant in agroecosystems with a
322 modest to high level of human intervention, mainly around harvesting seasons (Timo et al. 2015).
323 Direct human disturbance factors were only considered in 35% of the studies (e.g. roads,
324 Vanthomme et al. 2013; settlements, Lara-Romero et al. 2012; carnivore interaction with domestic
325 species, Galantinho and Mira 2009; Silva-Rodríguez et al. 2010). Not accounting for such effects
326 will likely lead to misleading results, as disturbance may disrupt species-habitat relationships
327 (Muhly et al. 2011; Vanthomme et al. 2013). Similarly, the demographic impacts and behavioral
328 responses (human-induced fear) of carnivore persecution following human-wildlife conflicts (e.g.
329 crop-raiding, livestock depredation) requires further research (Ferreira et al. 2018).

330

331 *Implications for future research*

332 While impacts of agriculture and its expansion on carnivore populations are widely
333 acknowledged, empirical evidence on the functional role of agroecosystems is lacking. By
334 synthesizing previous research approaches we were able to pinpoint two main areas of research that
335 should be prioritized, namely studying the ecological function of agroecosystem components for
336 carnivore species and understanding carnivore population dynamics in these landscapes.

337 Currently, we have considerable information on species richness, diversity and distribution,
338 space use at the home-range and population level, and how these correlate to agroecosystem
339 attributes (e.g. composition, configuration and connectivity). As we show here, there are many
340 potential roles of agroecosystems and more information is needed to understand the suitability and

341 the potential ecological functions agricultural matrices may provide for carnivores (Driscoll et al.
342 2013). Our first and main suggestion is to move towards a greater understanding of processes
343 underlying carnivore spatial patterns by establishing mechanistic links between species' space use
344 and resources available. Information on available resources in native and agriculture components of
345 the agroecosystem, and how these vary in relation to their surroundings and across production
346 cycles, can be used to test hypothesis on agroecosystems' functionality (Kupfer et al. 2006). For
347 example, croplands and sugar-cane plantations in Brazil both support high rodent density that serve
348 as prey for a suite of local carnivore species, while open pastures do not (Gheler-Costa et al. 2012).
349 Further, the same agricultural type may vary its function with production management or types of
350 harvestable species; e.g. different forestry schemes may provide distinct shelter opportunities
351 dependent on control of understory vegetation (Moreira-Arce et al. 2016). Resulting insights should
352 be further integrated with carnivores' morpho-ecological traits, as suggested by Ferreira et al.
353 (2018). These mechanistic insights can then guide management options that build on the
354 complementary role between agricultural lands and remnant native vegetation fragments (Fahrig et
355 al. 2011).

356 The second suggestion is to gain more understanding on the links between agroecosystem
357 attributes and carnivore population dynamics. Estimates of population abundance/density are the
358 basis for designing conservation actions resilient to dynamic environments, the assessment of
359 conservation progress, and the evaluation of system responses to management options (Nichols
360 2014). The state of populations can then be matched with the agroecosystem's structural and
361 functional characteristics and across sets of management options. Manipulative experiments of land
362 conversion to agriculture, e.g. Before-After-Control-Impact study designs, are hard to implement at
363 carnivores' spatial scale and require long-term studies. Pair-wise comparisons or space-by-time
364 substitution approaches may be more efficient in and sufficient to retrieve this information in the
365 short-medium term (Pickett 1989).

366

367 **Conclusions**

368 Our ability to reconcile biodiversity and production in agroecosystems depends on detailed
369 understanding of species ecology in these altered environments. This is particularly crucial for
370 species such as carnivores, whose primary threats are tightly related to agriculture expansion and
371 intensification. In the present review, we synthesized the current research on carnivore spatial
372 ecology in agroecosystems and identified knowledge gaps fundamental to inform conservation
373 practice (e.g. determine the amount, configuration and fragmentation of protected habitat, establish
374 vegetation corridors, increase matrix quality; Arroyo-Rodríguez et al. 2020). We encourage
375 researchers to expand or revisit available data to complement such gaps. Ultimately, we hope our
376 findings can act as a catalyst towards a greater research variety and understanding of the role of
377 agroecosystems for carnivores and other biodiversity globally, to ultimately assess and promote the
378 conditions under which multi-functionality is possible.

379

380 **Declarations**

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403 GCS and LMR conceived the ideas; LMR led the literature search; GCS conducted the review
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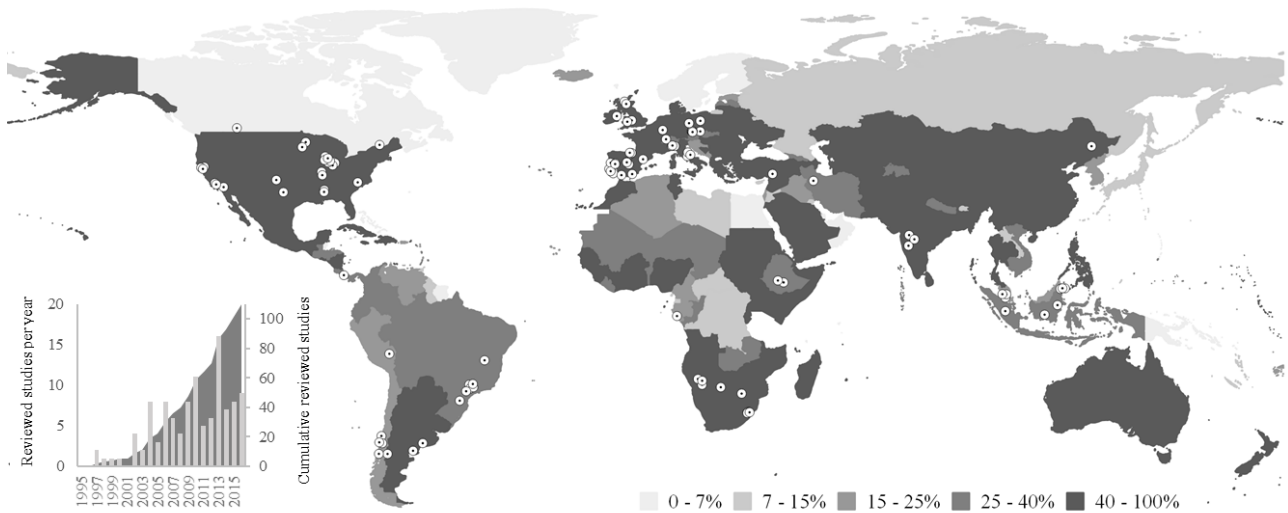
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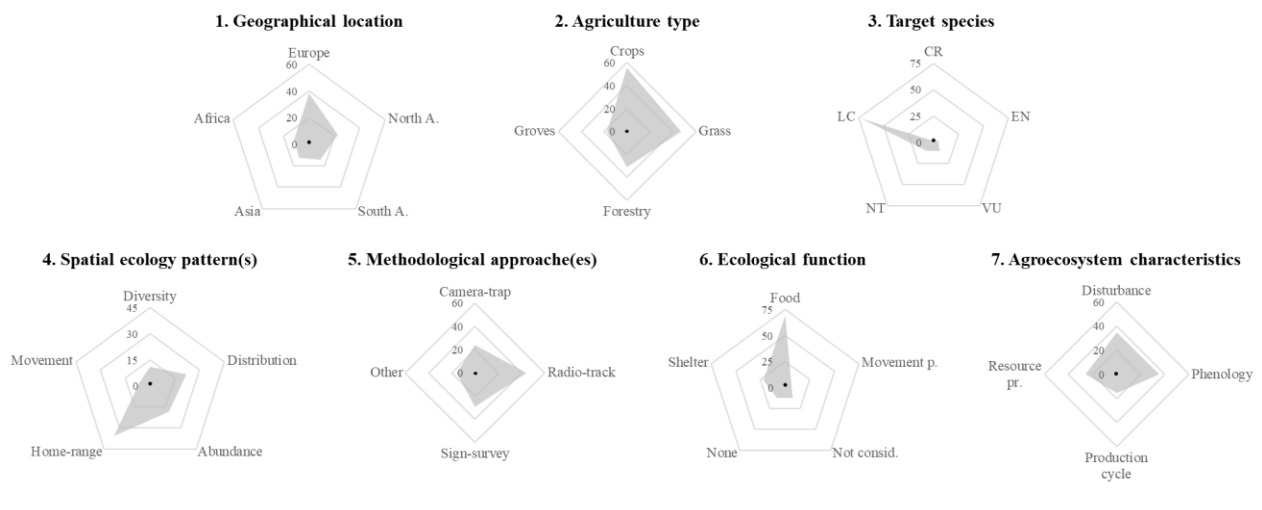
690 Figure 1. Geographical distribution of the reviewed studies on carnivore spatial ecology in agroecosystems.

691 White dots represent the approximate location of each paper included in this review. The grey shading on

692 the map represents the percentage of country area dedicated to agriculture in 2015 (FAO 2015). The bar

693 chart shows the distribution of reviewed studies per year and the cumulative number of studies reviewed

694 (dark grey area).



697 Figure 2. Radar-plots showing the characteristics of reviewed studies according to the defined
 698 characterization framework (Table 1). Results are shown as percentages of all reviewed studies
 699 (n=110). For 'Target species' variables, percentages refer to the total number of species registered
 700 (n=84).

Table 1. Variables recorded from the literature selected with the systematic search approach.

Category	Variable	Description
<i>Target systems</i>		
1. Geographical location	Continent	Africa, Asia, Europe, North America, South America
2. Agricultural system	Crops	Arable land planted with annual or perennial crops, mainly row crops; includes all plantations without pronounced vertical/arboreal strata (e.g. soybean, corn, sugarcane, coffee)
	Forestry	Production forest established through planting or seeding one or more tree species in the process of afforestation or reforestation, often exotic species, usually to produce timber or fuel wood (e.g. eucalyptus, pine stands)
	Grasslands	Herbaceous forage crops, either cultivated or growing wild; usually grazed (e.g. meadows, pastures)
	Groves	Tree plantations for food production or similar commodities, with pronounced vertical strata (e.g. oil palm, olive trees, orchards)
3. Carnivore species	Species list	List of species, native or non-native, mentioned in the study with exception of domestic carnivores (cats <i>Felis silvestris catus</i> and dogs <i>Canis lupus familiaris</i>)
	Red list category	Reported IUCN red list category* for each species
	Population trend	Reported IUCN population trend (decreasing, stable, increasing) for each species
	Single/multi-species	Whether studies targeted one or more species
<i>Spatial ecology and methods</i>		
4. Spatial ecology aspects	Diversity	Metrics of carnivore species richness, diversity, etc.
	Distribution	Information on spatial distribution (e.g. occupancy, occurrence, geographic range)

	Abundance	Metrics of relative abundance or density
	Home-range	Estimates of home-range sizes (and/or complementary metrics, e.g. core area)
	Movement	Movement metrics and behaviour (e.g. travel speed, travel distance)
	Habitat use	Information on habitat use (i.e. relationships between carnivore presence and habitat covariates)
5. Methodological approach(es)	Sampling	Camera-trapping, radio-tracking, sign surveys, other
	Detectability	Explicitly accounts for imperfect detection in data analysis. Not applicable to studies based on radio-tracking
<i>Underlying processes</i>		
6. Ecological function	Food	Agroecosystem is foraging habitat
	Shelter	Agroecosystem is refuge
	Movement path	Agroecosystem connects habitat
	None/Avoidance	Agroecosystem is considered 'non-habitat'
	Not considered	No ecological function is attributed, but not explicitly classified as 'non-habitat'
	Function proposed <i>a priori</i>	Agroecosystem ecological function is hypothesized and tested
7. Agroecosystem characteristics	Phenology	Includes phenology (e.g. daily, seasonal, annual) of the agroecosystem related to spatial ecology patterns
	Production cycle	Includes agroecosystem's production cycle (e.g. harvest and non-harvest) in the assessment of spatial patterns
	Disturbance sources	Assesses effects of anthropogenic disturbance (e.g. roads, settlements, hunting or livestock presence) explicitly
	Resource provision	Explicitly includes measurements of resource availability (e.g. prey abundance) in the assessment of spatial patterns

702 * IUCN categories: NT – Not Threatened, LC – Least Concern, VU – Vulnerable, EN –
703 Endangered, CR – Critically Endangered
704