

1 **TITLE PAGE**

2

3 **Assessing the impact of sustainable logging on arboreal**  
4 **primates: Occupancy modelling of the critically endangered**  
5 **brown-headed spider monkey (*Ateles fusciceps fusciceps*).**

6

7 **Authors**

8

9 Spaan, Densie.<sup>1</sup>, Moscoso Paola.<sup>2</sup>, Morelos Citlalli<sup>2</sup>, Nijman Vincent<sup>1</sup> & Peck, Mika<sup>2</sup>

10

11 1. Department of Social Sciences and Law, Oxford Brookes University, Oxford OX3 0BP, UK.

12

13 2. Department of Life Sciences, University of Sussex, Brighton BN19QJ, UK.

14

15 **Corresponding author**

16 Dr Mika Peck, Department of Life Sciences, University of Sussex, Brighton BN19QJ, UK.

17 Email; m.r.peck@sussex.ac.uk

18 Tel: 01273 877332

19

20 **Abstract**

21 Occupancy modelling is a presence/absence survey technique based on fixed point sampling that  
22 overcomes many logistical limitations of standard primate survey techniques. Our aim was to  
23 identify habitat factors that affect the presence of the critically endangered brown-headed spider  
24 monkey (*Ateles fusciceps fusciceps*) in a matrix of sustainably logged and primary forest in  
25 Tesoro Escondido (Esmeraldas, NW Ecuador). Using occupancy modelling we quantified  
26 occurrence and distribution of *A. f. fusciceps* based on presence/absence surveys undertaken  
27 between May-July 2013. Both primary and logged areas were occupied with *Ateles f. fusciceps*  
28 and they were detected at 29/71 sites (naïve occupancy estimate=0.41). Tree density and altitude  
29 were significant indicators of presence, with primary forest sites and lower altitudes associated  
30 with higher detectability. Even replication across sample sites generated the highest detectability,  
31 with 5 site repeats found most cost-effective. Occupancy in logged sites is slightly lower than in  
32 primary sites suggesting that the spider monkey may be able to persist in this mosaic habitat,  
33 however it is likely to be the ratio of primary to selectively logged habitat that determines long  
34 term survival as loggers target key fruiting trees also favoured by *A. f. fusciceps* (i.e. *Brosimum*  
35 *utile*). It is suggested that future field studies incorporate occupancy modelling to investigate  
36 distribution and impacts of hunting and habitat degradation on remaining populations of *A. f.*  
37 *fusciceps*. Occupancy modelling provides a particularly powerful tool to investigate impacts of  
38 habitat degradation and hunting on arboreal mammals in difficult terrain.

39 **Keywords**

40 Ecuador, Chocó, Conservation, Detectability.

41

## 42 **Introduction**

43 Primates are increasingly coming in closer contact with humans, and their presence in and close  
44 to anthropogenically altered habitats is becoming more common (Estrada and Coates-Estrada,  
45 1996). The need to study primates in such habitats (Baker et al., 2011) and understand how  
46 anthropogenic factors such as habitat degradation and loss affects them is of increasing  
47 importance for the development of effective conservation action plans. Focusing on studying  
48 changes in primate distribution and abundance in response to environmental change provides the  
49 scientific understanding needed to underpin effective species-specific conservation action plans,  
50 particularly for endangered primates.

51 The brown-headed spider monkey (*Ateles f. fusciceps*) is endemic to northwest Ecuador (Peck et  
52 al, 2011), however an 80% reduction in its historic distribution due to agricultural expansion,  
53 logging and hunting (Tirira, 2004) have placed it on the Primates in Peril top 25 most endangered  
54 primates list (Mittermeier et al, 2012). It is listed by the IUCN as Critically Endangered, due to an  
55 estimated 80% decline in population size over the last 45 years (Cuarón et al, 2008) making the  
56 development of effective species action plans imperative to bring this species back from the brink  
57 of extinction. Previous work has identified areas of importance for the survival of these spider  
58 monkeys in several unprotected areas in NW Ecuador - with a particularly important site at  
59 Tesoro Escondido (Esmeraldas Province NW Ecuador), a community of colonist landowners  
60 where primary forest still remains and hunting does not currently occur (Moscoso, 2010; Peck et  
61 al, 2011).

62 With commercial logging companies in lands surrounding Tesoro Escondido, and sites of  
63 historically logged areas in Tesoro Escondido, we were interested in determining the effects of  
64 sustainably logged areas on habitat use by *A. f. fusciceps*. We hypothesized that the spider  
65 monkeys would prefer areas of lower elevation (Peck et al. 2011), and that logging would be the  
66 strongest predictor of presence in an area as previous studies have shown that spider monkeys

67 prefer mature primary forest (van Roosmalen and Klein, 1988; Aldana et al, 2008), tending to  
68 disappear from disturbed forest (Estrada et al, 2004; Aldana et al, 2008; Asensio et al, 2012

69 Occupancy modelling is a presence/absence survey technique that is based on fixed point  
70 sampling. A series of points are visited for a minimum of three repeats (MacKenzie and Royle,  
71 2005) for a set duration of time. Occupancy refers to the number of sites that are being occupied  
72 by a species (Guillera-Arroita et al, 2010). However, due to the difficulty in being certain that a  
73 point is occupied, the definition also applies to sites that are being used by a species. Modelling  
74 occupancy has been used to study several primate species (lemurs; Guillera-Arroita et al, 2010;  
75 Keane et al, 2012; gibbons; Gray et al, 2010; Neilson et al, 2013; owl monkeys; Campbell, 2010;  
76 Sclater's monkey; Baker et al, 2011). In most of these studies primates occurred in areas that  
77 were difficult to study using other survey methods. For instance, Guillera-Arroita and colleagues  
78 (2010) studied lemurs in marshy areas by canoe. Occupancy models both occupancy and  
79 detectability (MacKenzie et al, 2006). Modelling detectability eliminates false absences that can  
80 occur in presence-absence surveys (MacKenzie et al, 2006) when animals are not encountered  
81 during the survey period but occupy the survey area. Occupancy modelling is based on a series of  
82 assumptions. Sites must be closed to changes in occupancy during the survey season, the species  
83 is always identified correctly, and all sites are independent of one another (MacKenzie et al,  
84 2002). The aim of this investigation was to identify which habitat factors affect the presence of *A.*  
85 *f. fusciceps* in Tesoro Escondido using occupancy modelling to aid in the development of a  
86 conservation action plan for this critically endangered species.

## 87 **Methods**

### 88 **Study Site: Tesoro Escondido**

89 Tesoro Escondido is a cooperative of landowners located in the Canande watershed, part of the  
90 Cotacachi-Cayapas Ecological Reserve (RECC) buffer zone in Esmeraldas Province, NW

91 Ecuador (79° 9' 32.37" W 0°27' 21.16"N, Figure 1). The cooperative spans an area of 30 km<sup>2</sup>,  
92 and all land in Tesoro Escondido is privately owned by 42 families, and houses 10 of these  
93 families. The lowland evergreen forests are interspersed with selectively logged forest and  
94 deforested areas. Logging is performed for wood extraction, cattle farming and agricultural  
95 practices such as cacao farming. Selective logging is also carried out using cables (Figure 2) by  
96 the timber company EcoMadera. This is a sustainable timber extraction method in which the trees  
97 are extracted from the forest by use of cables instead of the widely used, and more destructive,  
98 bulldozers. Logging using cables and a portable sawmill (EcoMadera Forest Conservation, 2013)  
99 last took place between 8-9 months ago. Habitat loss and degradation are the primary  
100 conservation threats in Tesoro Escondido. Tesoro Escondido was selected as the study site  
101 because previous studies have shown that it houses the highest density of *A. f. fusciceps* in NW  
102 Ecuador at 8.5 individuals per km<sup>2</sup> (Moscoso, 2010) and 7.5 individuals per km<sup>2</sup> (Peck et al,  
103 2011).

#### 104 **Occupancy Modelling**

105 Occupancy by brown-headed spider monkeys in Tesoro Escondido was modelled using a single-  
106 season standard occupancy model. Seventy one occupancy points were distributed amongst 4 pre-  
107 existing trails (table 1). At each point, covariates of occupancy were measured; tree density,  
108 canopy connectivity, altitude and tree diameter at breast height (DBH). These measurements were  
109 taken only once for each point. Points were visited during the months of May-July 2013, the  
110 Ecuadorian summer, thereby assuming that the points were closed to changes in occupancy, one  
111 of the assumptions of the model (MacKenzie et al, 2006; Guillera-Arroita et al, 2010). Points  
112 were visited for 10 minutes during each repeat. We placed survey points every 200 meters along  
113 the four trails A, B, C and D to limit overlap between the points, thereby ensuring independence  
114 of the occupancy sites (MacKenzie et al, 2006). The trails were flanked by steep declines at  
115 several points and therefore the terrain was too difficult to place the points randomly. The nearest

116 tree at each point was flagged to ensure that the same point was visited on subsequent visits.  
117 During each visit, records were made of the time of day, the climate, and whether after 10  
118 minutes the point was considered to be occupied. A point was considered occupied by *A. f.*  
119 *fusciceps* if they were seen (visual sighting) or heard (audio) less than 100 m away (to avoid  
120 overlap between the points). Due to the difficulty of distinguishing primate bite marks from other  
121 mammal species present in the forest, consumed fruits were not included as a way to determine  
122 site occupancy.

123 Covariates were measured to address the assumptions that changes in occupancy and detectability  
124 across points can be explained by factors of habitat and weather (Baker et al, 2011). We predicted  
125 that canopy cover, altitude, tree density, tree height, tree diameter at breast height (DBH), and  
126 logging would affect occupancy, and that weather would influence the probability of detecting  
127 spider monkeys at a site. We also modelled other habitat characteristics as measures of  
128 detectability as, for example, the removal of trees by logging creates clearances that can enhance  
129 vision and increase the chance of spotting the spider monkeys (Figure 2). Because covariates  
130 influence one another, in the aforementioned example, models were run using all two x two  
131 combinations of covariates.

132 We measured canopy cover by placing a 1cm x 1cm square grid over the cut off end of a 2 L  
133 plastic bottle and counting the number of complete squares through which leaves were visible.  
134 Canopy cover was calculated as a percentage of total grid cover. Where possible, only the top  
135 levels of the canopy were included in the analysis. The lower levels of the canopy were ignored.  
136 We took GPS readings using a Garmin HCx GPS ( $\pm 3$ m accuracy) at each occupancy point to  
137 measure altitude, with an accuracy of  $< 8$  m in a vertical plane. Additionally, at all occupancy  
138 points we recorded weather using a 0-5 scale; with 0=heavy rain, 1, little rain, 2=cloudy,  
139 3=partially cloudy, 4=some clouds and clear sky, 5=very sunny. The density of trees was  
140 estimated using the point-quarter method (Setchell et al, 2011) around the flagged tree marking

141 the occupancy point. At each quarter point we only recorded trees with a minimum circumference  
142 of 15 cm (the minimum size reported as used by *A. f. fusciceps*). We also estimated tree height  
143 and DBH for the four trees at each point. All data were collected with the help of locally trained  
144 and employed parabiologists. Parabiologists are members of the local community that were  
145 trained in data collection methods. This approach also provides alternative livelihoods and  
146 enhances local conservation awareness.

### 147 **Data Analysis**

148 We first carried out Chi-square tests to determine whether there was a difference between the  
149 number of spider monkeys observed in the morning and the afternoon (with significance set at the  
150  $p < 0.05$  level). Covariates included in analysis were; tree density, DBH, forest type, canopy  
151 connectivity, weather and altitude. Forest type refers to areas that showed any signs of logging  
152 within a 50m radius of the occupancy point. For instance, the presence of logging cables,  
153 sustainably logged areas and secondary forest. It also included areas that had been completely  
154 logged such as pastures. We calculated the median for weather at each site for all the visits to the  
155 site. We normalised covariate data using the equation  $\text{Log}^{10}(x + 1)$ , where  $x$  represents the  
156 covariate value at the site, before entering the data into the model. The log transformation did not  
157 normalize the altitudinal data and therefore we entered the data into the model as non-normal  
158 data.

### 159 **3.3.4 Occupancy modelling**

160 Sites were visited between 5 and 10 times. A detection history ( $H_i$ ) was created by assigning a 1  
161 to sites that were occupied and a 0 to those that were not (Guillera-Arroita et al, 2010) and the  
162 predicted detection history (MacKenzie et al, 2002; MacKenzie et al, 2006) used to devise a  
163 probability model with parameters  $\psi_i$  and  $p_i$ .  $\psi_i$  refers to the probability that the spider monkeys  
164 are using a site of interest ( $i$ ), i.e. that the site is occupied.  $p_i$  refers to the probability of detecting  
165 the spider monkeys at the site, if they use the site of interest (MacKenzie et al, 2002). Detection

166 histories for each occupancy site were combined to create a maximum likelihood model using the  
167 program PRESENCE 5 (Bailey and Adams, 2005).

168 We used the detection histories for *A. f. fusciceps* to run a fixed model in which  $\psi$  and  $p$  were  
169 kept constant. We ran this for all replicates, all sites with 10 replicates, and all sites with only 5  
170 replicates. Covariates were then added to the model to determine what factors affect presence of  
171 *A. f. fusciceps*. Covariates included: altitude, forest type, tree DBH, tree density, weather, and  
172 canopy connectivity. We ran models with covariates for all sites with 5 replicates to ensure that  
173 the 71 study sites could all be included in the model, and that a difference in survey effort did not  
174 bias results. We determined the best fit model using Akaike Information Criterion (AIC;  
175 MacKenzie et al, 2006; Mazerolle, 2006). We selected the top 8 models that were within 4 AIC  
176 units difference from the top ranking model (Campbell, 2010; Guillera-Arroita et al, 2010). We  
177 tested model fit using

178 parametric bootstrapping (100 runs) and a Pearson's chi-square test (MacKenzie and Bailey,  
179 2004).

## 180 **Results**

181 Every occupancy point was visited between 5 and 10 times with a mean of 7.8 visits with survey  
182 effort summarised in Table 1. After 99 hours and 30 minutes of surveying, *A. f. fusciceps* was  
183 seen on 32 occasions and heard at a distance of <100 m three times. This includes repeated  
184 sightings of some groups. The animals were detected at sites between 6:34 in the morning and  
185 15:12 in the afternoon (Figure 3). There was a significant difference between the number of  
186 monkeys detected and the number of monkeys that were expected to be observed throughout the  
187 day( $X^2= 25.847$ , d.f.=3,  $p<0.001$ ).

188 *Ateles f. fusciceps* were detected at 29 out of 71 sites in Tesoro Escondido, giving a naïve  
189 occupancy estimate of 0.4085. The model in which occupancy and detectability were kept



190 constant ( $\psi(\cdot)p(\cdot)$ ), gave an occupancy estimate of 1.0 and a detectability estimate of 0.059. An  
191 occupancy value of one indicates that all occupancy points should have been occupied or used by  
192 the spider monkeys, and that a lower naïve occupancy value means that not all animals were  
193 detected. Detectability could have been influenced by forest structure, observer error or time of  
194 site visit. When occupancy was modelled for the first 5 site repeats, naïve occupancy fell to 0.32,  
195 as spider monkeys were seen or heard only 23 times at 71 occupancy points. Occupancy remained  
196 constant at 1 for  $\psi(\cdot)p(\cdot)$  and detectability with 5 site repeats was 0.068. This is higher than with a  
197 range of 5-10 site repeats. Occupancy was subsequently modelled with 10 site repeats for 29  
198 sites. Naïve occupancy was 0.52, as spider monkeys were seen or heard 20 times. Occupancy for  
199 the fixed model came out as 1.0 and detectability was 0.069. Though occupancy values stayed the  
200 same when modelling with different site repeats, the detectability increased when keeping site  
201 repeats constant across sites and when performing many repeats.

## 202 **Modelling with Covariates**

203 To test the effect of habitat characteristics on  $\psi$  and  $p$ , habitat covariates were modelled for 5 site  
204 repeats. The top 8 ranked models are presented in table 2. The model in which occupancy was  
205 affected by forest type and altitude, whilst keeping detectability constant, came out on top (Table  
206 5). Goodness of fit was tested for the fixed model ( $X^2=10.28$ ,  $P=0.69$ ,  $\hat{C}=0.5078$ ), the most  
207 parameterized model ( $N=5$ ) ( $X^2=11.57$ ,  $P=0.71$ ,  $\hat{C}=0.5445$ ) and top model ( $X^2=11.08$ ,  $P=0.75$ ,  
208  $\hat{C}=0.497$ ). The model was a good fit to the data. Tree density and altitude came out of the model  
209 as the most important indicators of spider monkey presence in Tesoro Escondido. Sites of all tree  
210 densities and elevations were occupied by *A. f. fusciceps*. Altitude was the main indicator of the  
211 probability of detecting *A. f. fusciceps*. With increasing altitude, the ability to detect the spider  
212 monkeys decreased. Beyond 600m, detectability dropped to approximately 4 % (Figure 4).

213 **Discussion**

214 Previous studies of the *Ateles fusciceps fusciceps* have focused on determining population  
215 densities (Moscoso, 2010; Peck et al, 2011), identifying Tesoro Escondido as having the highest  
216 density of spider monkeys in NW Ecuador. This species is difficult to study as it lives in  
217 challenging terrain; making traditional line transect surveys more challenging. Additionally, Peck  
218 and colleagues (2011) noted that play-back methods may underestimate primate abundance.  
219 Recently, occupancy modelling has proven to be a useful technique to study arboreal mammals in  
220 difficult terrain (Campbell, 2010; Gray et al, 2010; Neilson et al, 2013). Our aim was to test a  
221 novel method to determine the factors that affect habitat use by brown-headed spider monkeys  
222 (*Ateles f. fusciceps*) to guide future conservation efforts in the area.

223 Occupancy modelling revealed that all forest sites in Tesoro Escondido should be occupied by *A.*  
224 *f. fusciceps*. This would make Tesoro Escondido a site of high conservation priority for the future  
225 survival of this species. Keane et al (2012), also found occupancy values of 1.0 for *Propithecus*  
226 *diadema* and *Eulemur fulvus*. The model showed that detectability was low across all ranges of  
227 site repeats, but was highest when the number of site repeats was the same across all sites. With 5  
228 site repeats occupancy was found to be 1.0 and detectability was 0.068, only slightly lower than  
229 with 10 repeats. This would indicate that only 5 repeats per site are needed in future to determine  
230 the presence of spider monkeys at sites in and around Tesoro Escondido. By performing 5 instead  
231 of 10 repeats, more sites can be visited and it is more cost effective. Occupancy modelling in this  
232 way, allows for the long-term monitoring of sites of conservation priority through the comparison  
233 of site occupancy across years and the factors that could influence changes in occupancy.  
234 Weather was not a good predictor of detectability in Tesoro Escondido with no significant impact  
235 on sightings. Instead, increases in altitude lead to a decrease in detectability. The higher altitude  
236 sites in Tesoro Escondido often had drops into valleys flanking either side of the trail. This could

237 have reduced the ability to see the spider monkeys as one of the main ways to detect a group was  
238 by the noise of branches moving.

239 Modelling occupancy with covariates showed that altitude was an important indicator of site use  
240 by *A. f. fusciceps*. Spider monkeys range from sea level to 1800 m in altitude (Shanee, 2009). The  
241 model revealed that the brown-headed spider monkeys were using all the tested sites in Tesoro  
242 Escondido within an altitudinal range of 287 m - 634 m above sea level. Shanee (2009) found  
243 brown-headed spider monkeys up until 1350 m above sea level. It has been suggested that  
244 hunting pressure forces the primates up into higher altitude and less suitable sites (Peck et al,  
245 2011), requiring them to adapt and reduce their group sizes (Shanee, 2009) due to a reduction in  
246 the availability of fruit at higher altitudes (Hanya et al, 2003). The presence of *A. f. fusciceps* at  
247 low altitude in Tesoro Escondido provides evidence to support the current lack of hunting  
248 pressure in the cooperative. However, Tesoro Escondido, made up of mestizos (colonists) borders  
249 indigenous communities that continue to hunt *A. f. fusciceps*).

250 Modelling occupancy of *A. f. fusciceps* showed that tree density was an important indicator of site  
251 occupancy. At lower tree densities (fewer trees per hectare), more sites were occupied. Primary  
252 forest is characterized by having lower tree densities due to the higher number of large trees. This  
253 suggests that *A. f. fusciceps* prefers primary forest which is in line with other members of the  
254 *Ateles* genus (Aldana et al, 2008). Plotting the relationship between patch occupancy and tree  
255 density shows that spider monkeys in Tesoro Escondido are using selectively logged areas. Both  
256 small scale and large scale selective logging are rife in and around Tesoro Escondido. Logging  
257 activity changes forest structure by eliminating large trees and with the disappearance of larger  
258 trees spider monkeys are forced to adapt. Selective logging also increases sun exposure to small  
259 and medium sized trees due to the removal of large trees, thereby increasing fruiting of smaller  
260 and mid-sized trees (Johns, 1991; Ganzhorn, 1995). This generates habitat similar to forest edge  
261 habitat. This increased fruiting might suggest that ripe-fruit specialists, such as spider monkeys

262 (van Roosmalen and Klein, 1988; DiFiore et al, 2011) would benefit from increased fruit  
263 production. However, previous studies found that spider monkeys do not use edge habitats (van  
264 Roosmalen and Klein, 1988) as they generally feed on larger trees (Chapman et al, 1995). It is of  
265 note that these larger trees tend to be the very hardwood species targeted by logging companies.

266 Our recent work at Tesoro Escondido has shown that *A. f. fusciceps* have a feeding preference for  
267 fruits with higher levels of fats from larger hardwood tree species that are also those targeted and  
268 favoured by loggers, in particular *Brosimum utile* (local name Sande) (In prep.). So, although *A.*  
269 *f. fusciceps* is detected as present in selectively logged areas it may simply be using these areas to  
270 transit between more productive primary forest sites. The results from occupancy analysis  
271 provide an indication that degraded forest still ensures connectivity, but more detailed analysis of  
272 activity and feeding behaviour are needed to understand whether selectively logged forest  
273 actually contributes to the long term maintenance of the species. The ratio of primary to  
274 selectively logged forest is likely to be more critical in maintaining *A. f. fusciceps* within a mixed  
275 use forest landscape. Logging also opens up areas to other anthropogenic pressures such as  
276 hunting and the primate pet trade, through the building of roads and trails into the forest. Spider  
277 monkeys are preferred targets for hunting in the Neotropics (Peres, 2000) due to their large size  
278 and pleasant taste (Ramos-Fernandez and Wallace, 2008). They are often the first primates to  
279 disappear from forests where they are hunted (Franzen, 2006; Peres, 1990) and the abundance of  
280 spider monkeys in hunted areas is lower than in areas without hunting (Peres, 2000; de Thoisy et  
281 al, 2005). Tesoro Escondido does not currently experience hunting pressure (Peck et al, 2011) and  
282 further research is needed to investigate if the presence of *A. f. fusciceps* in secondary and  
283 selectively logged forest can be explained by the absence of hunting pressure. Spider monkeys  
284 have been found in disturbed forest (Aldana et al, 2008) within 200m of primary forest (Johns  
285 and Skorupa, 1987) and regenerating forest (Chapman et al, 1989). As it stands, the results  
286 suggest that as long as there is enough primary forest left in Tesoro Escondido, the spider

287 monkeys may be able to persist in a mosaic habitat and urgent action is recommended to conserve  
288 the remaining primary forest habitat.

289 These results should be extrapolated to other areas, with care. However, as this study has  
290 demonstrated, occupancy can be used to investigate the distribution of *A. f. fusciceps* across a site  
291 of interest, involving relatively little effort and cost. It is therefore suggested that future  
292 conservation efforts incorporate occupancy modelling to investigate where other populations of  
293 *A. f. fusciceps* are located, especially when surveying areas in which they are being hunted (Baker  
294 et al, 2011) and line transects may not be as applicable due to the difficult terrain (Neilson et al,  
295 2013) and we recommend urgent surveys in and around the Cotacachi-Cayapas Ecological  
296 Reserve (RECC, in which the terrain is challenging and hunting occurs) to provide information  
297 required to identify protected and connected habitat corridors for this species. The ability to  
298 generate information on habitat preferences in addition to estimates of presence and a metric to  
299 assess abundance supports the use of occupancy in providing vital information to underpin  
300 effective conservation action planning.

## 301 **References**

- 302 Aldana, A. M., Beltrán, M., Torres-Neria, J. & Stevenson, P. R. (2008). Habitat characterization  
303 and population density of brown spider monkey (*Ateles hybridus*) in Magdalena Valley,  
304 Colombia. *Neotropical Primates*, 15, 46-50.
- 305 Asensio, N., Lusseau, D., Schaffner, C. M. & Aureli, F. (2012). Spider monkeys use high-quality  
306 core areas in a tropical dry forest. *Journal of Zoology*, 287, 250-258.
- 307 Bailey, L. & Adams, M. (2005). *Occupancy models to study wildlife. U.S. Geological Survey fact*  
308 *sheet 3096*. USA: USGS.

309 Baker, L. R., Arnold, T. W., Olubode, O. S., Garshelis, D. L. (2011). Considerations for using  
310 occupancy to monitor forest primates: a case study with Sclater's monkey (*Cercopithecus*  
311 *sclateri*). *Population Ecology*, 53, 549-561.

312 Campbell, N. (2010). The Peruvian night monkey, *Aotus miconax*; a comparative study of  
313 occupancy between Cabeza del Toro and Cordillera de Colán, Peru. MSc. thesis, Oxford Brookes  
314 University, Oxford.

315 Chapman, C. A., Chapman, L. & Glander, K. E. (1989). Primate populations in northwestern  
316 Costa Rica: potential for recovery. *Neotropical Primates*, 10, 37-44.

317 Chapman, C. A., Wrangham, R. W. & Chapman, L. J. (1995). Ecological constraints on group  
318 size: an analysis of spider monkey and chimpanzee subgroups. *Behavioural Ecological*  
319 *Sociobiology*, 36, 59-70.

320 Cuarón, A.D., Morales, A., Shedden, A., Rodríguez-Luna, E. & de Grammont, P.C. (2008).  
321 *Ateles fusciceps ssp. fusciceps*. In: IUCN 2012. IUCN Red List of Threatened Species. Version  
322 2012.2. <[www.iucnredlist.org](http://www.iucnredlist.org)>. Downloaded on 1 September 2013.

323 De Thoisy, B., Renoux, F. & Julliot, C. (2005). Hunting in northern French Guiana and its impact  
324 on primate communities. *Oryx*, 39, 149-157.

325 Di Fiore, A., Link, A. & Campbell, C. J. (2011). The atelines: behavioural and socioecological  
326 diversity in a New World monkey radiation. In: Campbell, C. J., Fuentes, A., MacKinnon, K. C.,  
327 Bearder, S. K. & Stumpf, R. M. (Ed.), *Primates in Perspective* 2<sup>nd</sup> ed. (pp. 155-188). New York:  
328 Oxford University Press.

329 Estrada, A. & Coates-Estrada, R. (1996). Tropical rain forest fragmentation and wild populations  
330 of primates at Los Tuxtlas, Mexico. *International Journal of Primatology*, 17, 759-783.

331 Estrada, A., Luecke, L., van Belle, S., Barrueta, E. & Rosales Meda, M. (2004). Survey of black  
332 howler (*Allouata negra*) and spider (*Ateles geoffroyi*) monkeys in the Mayan sites of Calakmul  
333 and Yaxchilan, Mexico and Tikal, Guatemala. *Primates*, 45, 33-39.

334 Franzen, M. (2006). Evaluating the sustainability of hunting: a comparison of harvest profiles  
335 across three Huaorani communities. *Environmental Conservation*, 33, 36-45.

336 Ganzhorn, J. (1995). Low-level forest disturbance effects on primary production, leaf chemistry,  
337 and lemur populations. *Ecology*, 76, 2084-2096.

338 Gray, T. N. E., Phan, C. & Long, B. (2010). Modelling species distribution at multiple spatial  
339 scales: gibbon habitat preferences in a fragmented landscape. *Animal Conservation*, 13, 1-9.

340 Guillera-Aroita, G., Lahoz-Monfort, J. J., Milner-Gulland, E. J., Young, R. P & Nicholson, E.  
341 (2010). Using occupancy as a state variable for monitoring the Critically Endangered Aloatran  
342 gentle lemur *Hapalemur aloatrensis*. *Endangered Species Research*, 11, 157-166.

343 Hanya, G., Noma, N., Agetsuma, N. (2003). Altitudinal and seasonal variation in the diet of  
344 Japanese macaques in Yakushima. *Primates*, 44, 51059.

345 Johns, A. D. (1991). Forest disturbance and Amazonian primates. In: Box, H. O. (Ed.) *Primate*  
346 *Responses to Environmental Change* (pp. 115-135). Cambridge: Chapman and Hall.

347 Johns, A. D. & Skorupa, J. P. (1987). Responses of rain-forest primates to habitat disturbance: a  
348 review. *International Journal of Primatology*, 8, 157-191.

349 Keane, A., Hobinjatovo, T., Razafimanahaka, H. J., Jenkins, R. K. B. & Jones, J. P. G. (2012).  
350 The potential of occupancy modeling as a tool for monitoring wild primate populations. *Animal*  
351 *Conservation*, 15, 457-465.

352 MacKenzie, D. I., Nichols, J. D., Lachman, G. B., Droege, S., Royle, J. A. & Langtimm, C. A.  
353 (2002). Estimating site occupancy rates when detection probabilities are less than one. *Ecology*,  
354 83, 2248-2255.

355 MacKenzie, D. I. & Royle, A. (2005). Designing occupancy studies: general advice and  
356 allocating survey effort. *Journal of Applied Ecology*, 42, 1105-1114.

357 MacKenzie, D. I., Nichols, J. D., Royle, J. A., Pollock, K. H., Bailey, L. L. & Hines, J. E. (2006).  
358 *Occupancy Estimation and Modeling Inferring Patterns and Dynamics of Species Occurrence*.  
359 Elsevier Inc., USA. Pp 92-94.

360 MacKenzie, D. I. & Bailey, L. L. (2004). Assessing the fit of site-occupancy models. *Journal of*  
361 *Agricultural, Biological, and Environmental Statistics*, 9, 300-318.

362 Mazerolle, M. J. (2006). Improving data analysis in herpetology: using Akaike's Information  
363 Criterion (AIC) to assess the strength of biological hypotheses. *Amphibia-Reptilia*, 27, 169-180.

364 Mittermeier, R. A., Schwitzer, C., Rylands, A. B., Taylor, L. A., Chiozza, F., Williamson, E. A.  
365 & Wallis, J. (eds.). 2012. *Primates in Peril: The World's 25 Most Endangered Primates 2012–*  
366 *2014*. IUCN/SSC Primate Specialist Group (PSG), International Primatological Society (IPS),  
367 Conservation International (CI), and Bristol Conservation and Science Foundation, Bristol, UK.  
368 40pp.

369 Moscoso Rosero, P. (2010). Estado poblacional del mono araña de cabeza café (*Ateles fusciceps*)  
370 en el noroccidente del Ecuador, con notas ecológicas de una relación interespecífica con *Alouatta*  
371 *palliata*. MSc. Thesis. Universidad Católica del Ecuador, Quito.

372 Neilson, E., Nijman, V. & Nekaris, K. A. I. (2013). Conservation assessments of arboreal  
373 mammals in difficult terrain: occupancy modeling of pileated gibbons (*Hylobates pileatus*).  
374 *International Journal of Primatology*, 34, 823-835.



375 Peck, M., Thorn, J., Mariscal, A., Baird, A., Tirira, D. & Kniveton, D. (2011). Focusing  
376 conservation efforts for the Critically Endangered brown-headed spider monkey (*Ateles*  
377 *fusciceps*) using remote sensing, modeling, and playback survey methods. *International Journal*  
378 *of Primatology*, 32, 134-148.

379 Peres, C. A. (1990). Effects of hunting on western Amazonian primate communities. *Biological*  
380 *Conservation*, 54, 47-59.

381 Peres, C. A. (2000). Effects of subsistence hunting on vertebrate community structure in  
382 Amazonian forests. *Conservation Biology*, 14, 240-253.

383 Ramos-Fernández, G. & Wallace, R. B. (2008). Spider monkeys conservation in the twenty-first  
384 century: recognizing risks and opportunities. In: Campbell, C. J. ed. *Spider monkeys behaviour,*  
385 *ecology and evolution of the genus Ateles* (pp.351-376). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

386 Shanee, S. 2009. Modelling spider monkeys *Ateles* spp. Gray, 1825: ecological responses and  
387 conservation implications to increased elevation. *Journal of Threatened Taxa*, 1, 450-456.  
388

389 Tirira, D. (2004). Estado actual del mono araña de cabeza café (*Ateles fusciceps* Gray, 1866)  
390 (Primates: Atelidae) en el Ecuador. *Lyonia*, 6, 17-24.  
391

392 Van Roosmalen, G. M. & Klein, L. L., (1988). The Spider Monkeys, Genus *Ateles*. In:  
393 Mittermeier, R. A., Rylands, A. B., Coimbra-Filho, A. & Fonseca, G. A. B, ed. 1988. *Ecology*  
394 *and Behaviour of Neotropical Primates Volume 2*. Washington D.C.: World Wildlife Fund, pp.  
395 455-537.

396

397 Table 1. Occupancy survey effort and number of survey points on trails at Tesoro Escondido.

398

<b>Trail</b>	<b>Length of Trail (km)</b>	<b>Number of Points on Trail</b>	<b>Survey effort</b>
Trail A	4.3	21	35 hr 00 min
Trail B	4.3	22	29 hr 10 min
Trail C	2.3	12	10 hr 00 min
Trail D	3.0	16	25 hr 20 min
<b>Total</b>	<b>13.9</b>	<b>71</b>	<b>99 hr 30 min</b>

399

400 Table 2. Occupancy models of *A. f. fusciceps* in Tesoro Escondido for the 8 top-ranking models  
 401 with **AIC**: Akaike Information Criterion,  **$\Delta$ AIC**: Akaike difference, **AICw**: Akaike weight, **N**:  
 402 Number of parameters; Model names comprise the covariate that was modelled for the  
 403 probability of occupancy ( $\Psi$ ) and the probability of detecting (p) spider monkeys. Covariates of  
 404 the top models included: presence/ absence of forest disturbance as a result of logging (FOR),  
 405 altitude (ALT), canopy connectivity (CAN), tree density (DEN), tree diameter at breast height  
 406 (DBH) and climate (CLI). Models in which covariates were kept constant were denoted by (.).

<b>Model</b>	<b>AIC</b>	<b><math>\Delta</math>AIC</b>	<b>AIC w</b>	<b>N</b>	<b><math>\Psi</math></b>
$\Psi(\text{FOR, ALT}),p(.)$	175.26	0	0.0827	4	0.845
$\Psi(\text{CAN, DEN}),p(\text{CAN})$	175.85	0.59	0.0615	5	0.873
$\Psi(\text{ALT, DEN}),p(.)$	176.09	0.83	0.0546	4	0.859
$\Psi(\text{FOR, ALT}),p(\text{CLI})$	177.16	1.9	0.032	5	0.845
$\Psi(\text{DEN, DBH}),p(\text{ALT})$	177.18	1.92	0.0317	5	0.901
$\Psi(\text{FOR, ALT}),p(\text{DBH})$	177.26	2	0.0304	5	0.845
$\Psi(\text{CAN,DEN}),p(\text{ALT})$	177.44	2.18	0.0278	5	0.873
$\Psi(\text{ALT,DEN}),p(\text{DEN})$	177.88	2.62	0.0223	5	0.873
$\Psi(.),p(.)$	179.65	4.39	0.0092	2	1.0

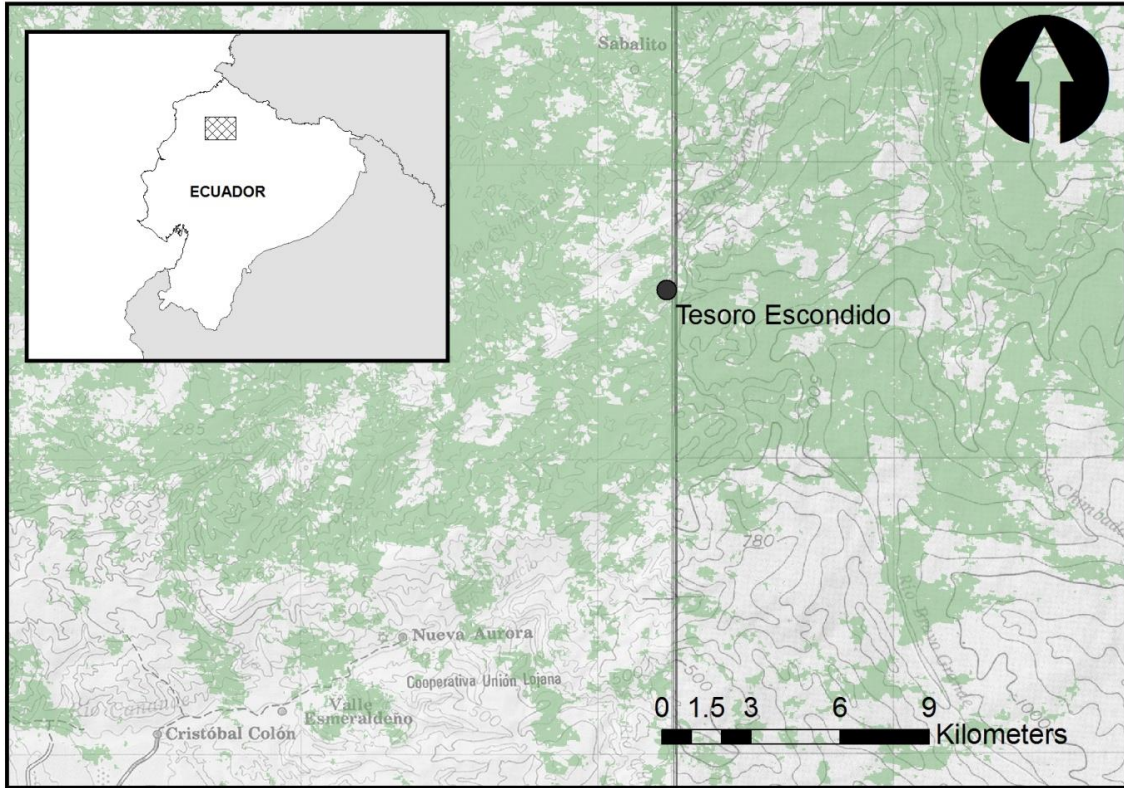
407

408

409

410

411



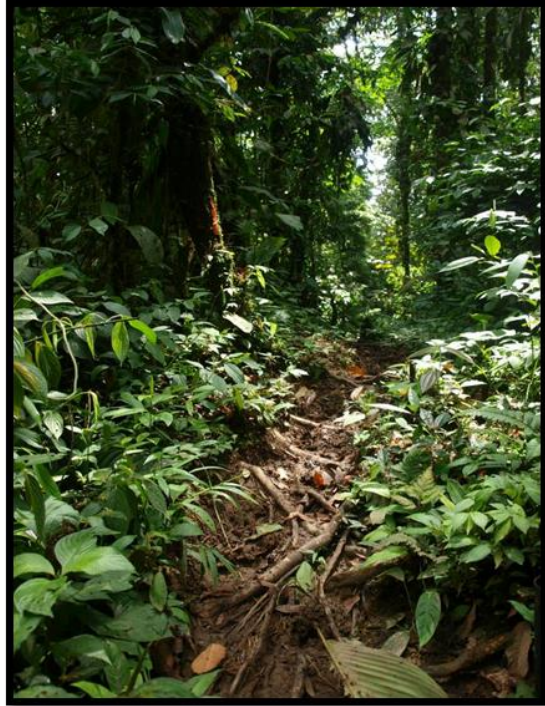
412

413 Figure 1. Tesoro Escondido, focus of the project location in Esmeraldas Province, NW Ecuador,  
414 with light green shaded areas showing remaining forest habitat that require urgent conservation  
415 action (Data and map from remote sensing and GIS analysis in Peck et al, 2011).

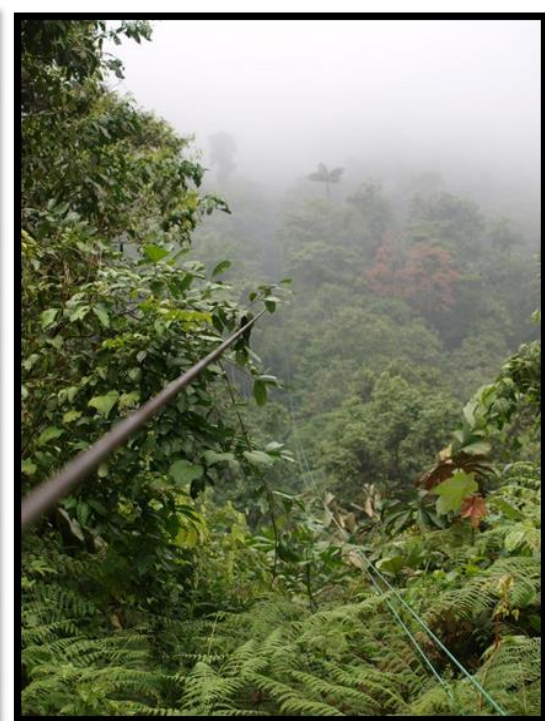
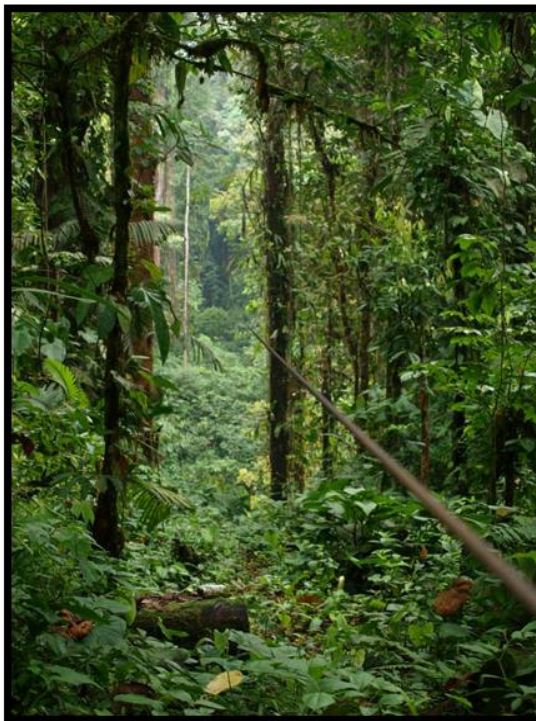
416

417





418

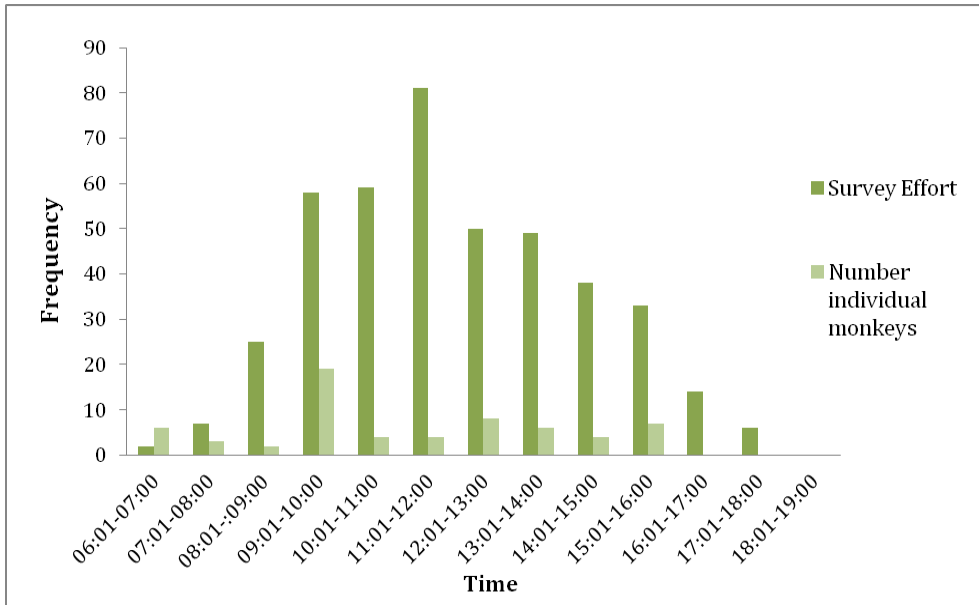


419

420 Figure 2: Top photographs show trail A with primary forest, and bottom ones trail C with primary

421 forest interspersed with logging cables at Tesoro Escondido.

422



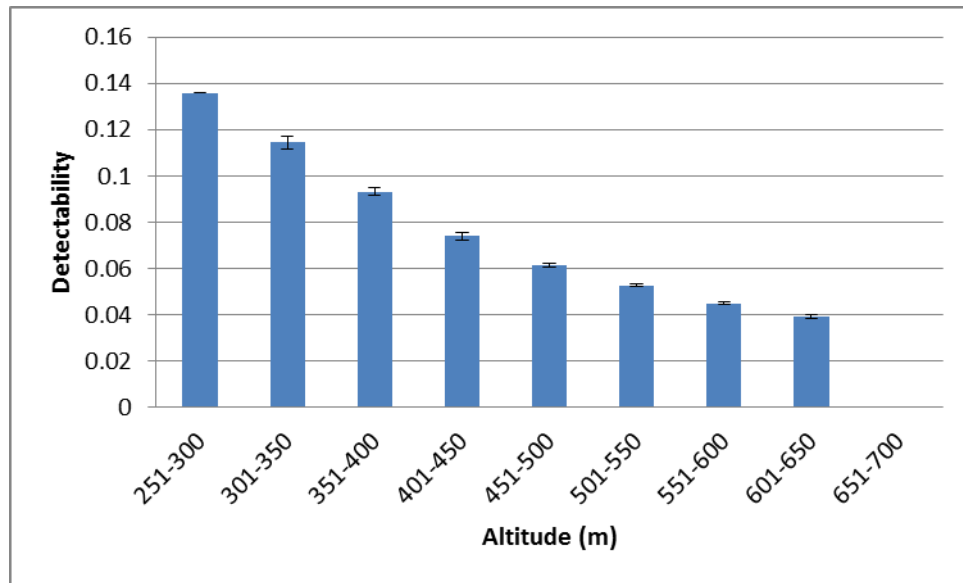
423

424 Figure 3. Survey effort in relation to the number of *A. f. fusciceps* observed throughout the day  
 425 showing survey effort was greatest between 11:00 and 12:00 and the highest number of primates  
 426 sighted from 9:00 to 10:00.

427

428

429



430

431

432 Figure 4. The probability of detection of *Ateles fusciceps fusciceps* in Tesoro Escondido,  
433 northwest Ecuador between May-July 2013, in relation to altitude. Error bars represent standard  
434 error. Probabilities of detection were taken from the model  $\Psi(\cdot), p(ALT)$ .

435