1 **Title**
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3 Range-wide factors shaping space use and movements by the Neotropic's flagship predator: the
4 jaguar
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ABSTRACT

107   The range-wide management of the jaguar (*Panthera onca*) depends upon maintaining core

108   populations connected through multi-national, transboundary cooperation, which is dependent

109   upon understanding the movement ecology and space use of jaguars throughout their range. Using

110   117 telemetry trajectories from 12 ecoregions, we examined the landscape-level environmental

111   and anthropogenic factors related to jaguar home range size and movement parameters. Range-

112   wide and at the ecoregional scale home range size decreased with increasing net productivity and

113   increased with increasing road density. Also, range-wide, home range size decreased with

114   increasing forest cover and decreasing human population density. Movement within home ranges

115   was best explained by a different set of environmental covariates. Range-wide predictions of

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home range size were consistent with expectations based upon density estimates. Our findings

provide a mechanism to evaluate range-wide habitat quality for jaguars and an inferential

modeling framework that can be adapted to the conservation of other large terrestrial carnivores.

INTRODUCTION

Globally, anthropogenic disturbance is driving mass extinction across taxa by decreasing

species abundance, populations, and distributions which has been especially acute for large

terrestrial carnivores, stemming from habitat loss and fragmentation, persecution (fear,

retaliation), utilization (black market trade, hunting), infrastructure development, and prey

depletion, which are exacerbated by climate change (*1*). The disproportionately high threat to

large terrestrial carnivores is of importance since these species play key roles in controlling

ecosystem function through top-down trophic effects (*1*) and as their occurrence conserves a

greater proportion of biodiversity (i.e., umbrella effect) compared to areas where large carnivores

are absent (*2*).

The conservation of large carnivores, however, is challenging given their large spatial

needs, dependence on high prey densities, and conflictive relationship with people (*1*). The

persistence of large carnivore populations is driven by how individuals use space (*3*, *4*) and

consequently, movement ecology is an important and common component of carnivore research

(*5*). Due to the large spatial needs of large carnivores their conservation is often multi-national in

context and consequently, from both an ecological and a geo-political perspective an

understanding of their space use in response to anthropogenic and environmental factors is key

for their conservation, the ecosystems they inhabit, the biodiversity for which they are proxy (*6*),

and the services that they provide to society (*3*, *7*).

Throughout the majority of the Neotropics the jaguar (*Panthera onca*) is the largest felid,

an apex predator, and an important flagship and umbrella species for ecosystem and biodiversity

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141   conservation (*2*), however its distribution has decreased by >50% from its historic extent (*8*). The

142   loss of the Neoptropic's apex predator over such a large area (~7.3 million km^2) is of concern, not

143   only for the conservation of the jaguar, but the implications for overall biodiversity conservation

144   in the region and subsequently, ecosystem function and the implicit regional and global

145   implications for human well-being via resource provisioning and climate change mitigation. The

146   critical ecological role played by the jaguar in overall biodiversity conservation and in positively

147   affecting human well-being is globally recognized and the focus of multi-national initiatives to

148   conserve the species and its benefits to society (*9*).

149   The distribution of the jaguar is associated with both environmental and anthropic factors

150   (*10*), and while the drivers of home range size and resource selection have been confined to

151   individual ecoregions (*11–13*), or across ecoregions (*14–17*), demonstrating relationships with

152   environmental and anthropogenic factors (*13–18*) and sex (*15*, *16*, *19*), there have been no range-

153   wide comparative studies of jaguar space use. Since home range size is critical in determining

154   density and ultimately abundance(*20*), the conspicuous lack of range-wide analyses of jaguar

155   space use is of concern as conservation initiatives for the jaguar are range-wide in scope,

156   involving 18 range countries. Consequently, much of the success of those initiatives depends

157   upon gaining inferences on jaguar space use range-wide to facilitate trans-boundary and multi-

158   national cooperation and for maintaining connectivity among core populations (*9*).

159   Recognizing the need to understand the factors that determine space use by jaguars

160   throughout its range we examined the range-wide drivers of jaguar space use using GPS telemetry

161   data from 113 jaguars from six countries, 12 ecoregions, and two continents (*21*; Fig. 1), covering

162   the breadth of the jaguar's extant range. We estimated jaguar home range size and movement

163   parameters, evaluating their relationships with environmental and anthropogenic variables from

164   the range-wide to ecoregional scales. We identified and quantified the effects of landscape-level

165   anthropogenic and environmental factors on jaguar space use and movement, finding strong

166 commonalities range-wide and within ecoregions. Our study employs the largest movement data

167 set for a large felid to date and is the first to quantify the range-wide drivers of space use and

168 movement by a large felid. In doing so our study has important applications for jaguar

169 conservation, and more broadly provides a framework for gaining inferences for the conservation

170 of large terrestrial carnivores, the services that they provide, and the associated biodiversity that

171 they protect.

172

173 **RESULTS**

174 **Home range and movement parameter estimation**

175   Using published GPS telemetry data from 111 (52 males, 59 females) jaguars in 6

176 countries and 12 ecoregions (*21*), and additional data from 2 jaguars (1 male, 1 female) from the

177 Colombian Llanos (Fig. 1), we developed 117 telemetry trajectories for 113 individuals. For four

178 individuals we separated their data into two distinct sampling periods each as they were

179 monitored for two periods that were separated by two to three years. We fit continuous-time

180 stochastic movement models to our data (*22*), and using the best fit model, estimated 95% home

181 range areas using autocorrelated kernel density estimation (*22*), as well as home range crossing

182 time, mean daily movement (hereafter speed), and autocorrelation timescale (*23*) .

183   All individuals demonstrated range residency, with their movements best characterized by

184 the Ornstein–Uhlenbeck or Ornstein–Uhlenbeck with foraging models (*22*), and 95% home range

185 areas ranging from 17 km^2 to 2453 km^2 with home range size for males ranging from 32 – 2453

186 km^2 and 17 – 1815 km^2 for females (Table S1). For males home range crossing times ranged from

187 0.8 – 23.8 days and 1.03 – 28.9 days for females, autocorrelation timescale ranged from 0.16 –

188 5.23 hours and 0.16 – 5.4 hours for males and females, respectively, and speed ranged from 6.1 –

189 40.2 km/day for males and 1.4 – 49.5 km/day for females (Table S1).

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191 **Factors associated with home range size and movement parameters**

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We modeled the relationship of the estimates of home range, speed, autocorrelation timescale, and home range crossing time with the covariates using generalized linear mixed models (GLMM) (*24*) in maximum likelihood and Bayesian frameworks. We used sex as a random effect to evaluate range-wide factors associated with movement parameters and ecoregion as a random effect to evaluate relationships among covariates and movement parameters at the ecoregion scale.

At both the range-wide and ecoregional scales, for each movement parameter there was a single best-fit model (see Methods, Table S2). For home range size at the range-wide scale the best-fit model contained percent forest cover and net primary productivity which negatively affected home range size and a positive effect from sex (male), human population density, and road density. Based upon the posterior distributions of the effect size of sex from the best-fit model analyzed in a Bayesian framework, males had a 94% probability of having larger home ranges than females (Table 1, Table S3), while percent forest cover and net primary productivity had a 95% and 100% probability, respectively of being related with smaller home range size. Both human population density and road density had 100% probabilities of being related to increasing home range size (Fig. 2, Table S3).

Comparatively, at the ecoregional scale estimated home range size was positively affected by sex (male) and road density and a negatively affected by net primary productivity. Sex and road density had a 100% probability of a positive relationship with home range size and net primary productivity a 92% probability of being associated with decreasing home range size (Fig.3, Table S3). Comparing estimated home size among ecoregions by fixing the transformed covariate values to zero so that estimates are based upon model intercepts, estimated mean home range size was largest for the Cerrado (620.5 km^2) and smallest for the Pantanal (74.4 km^2) which had probabilities of being 92% greater and 81% smaller, respectively than the mean across all ecoregions (Table 1, Table S4, Fig. S1).

The relationship of estimated home range size and movement parameters with covariates demonstrates that at both the range-wide and ecoregional scale most responses are nearly linear, except for human population density at the range-wide scale and net primary productivity at both scales (Fig. 2, Fig. 3). At both scales home range size was estimated to sharply decline and then level off as net primary productivity approached about 5 kg C/m^2/yr, although the effect was stronger at the range-wide scale. Estimated home range size was sensitive to increasing human population density at the range-wide scale as human density increases from 0 to about 3 people/ km^2, with a reduced increase in the effect thereafter (Fig. 2).

Using the parameter estimates from the best-fit range-wide home range model and the corresponding landscape covariates, we spatially modeled the predicted mean home range size across the jaguar's current distribution, showing that ecoregions with lower productivity or higher road and human density such as the Caatinga, Cerrado, Dry Chaco, Central America and Mexican dry forests, and the Caribbean slope of Colombia were predicted to have larger home ranges (Fig. 4). Conversely, systems with high productivity and forest cover or with lower human and road densities such as the eastern slope of the Andes and portions of the Pantanal, Llanos, Amazon Basin, Atlantic forest, and humid Mesoamerican forests had the smallest predicted home range size (Fig. 4). However, within high productivity systems, including Atlantic forest, Amazon basin, Pantanal, and the Llanos, there are areas with high human population and road densities and relatively low forest cover, where predicted home range sizes were considerably larger compared to the expected values for the region.

At both the range-wide and ecoregional scales speed was strongly negatively related to percent forest cover and mean annual precipitation with both covariates having a 100% probability of being related to decreasing speed (Fig. 2,3; Table S2, S3). Although at the ecoregional scale sex was not significantly related to speed, at the range-wide scale males had a 95% probability of faster movement (Table 1, Table S2). Based upon mode intercepts the

differences in speed across ecoregions were small with jaguars in the Yucatán dry forest having

the highest mean estimated speed (14.2 km/day) and the Alto Paraná Atlantic forest the lowest

(12.3 km/day), with only a 55% and 47% probability of being greater than the ecoregional mean

and an 56% probability that speed of jaguars in the Yucatán dry forest was greater than those in

the Alto Paraná Atlantic forest (Table 1, Fig. S1).

At the range-wide scale males had a 70% probability of having a greater autocorrelation

timescale, while there was a 100% probability of the autocorrelation timescale being positively

affected by mean annual precipitation (Fig. 2, Table S3). For home range crossing time at the

range-wide scale the best fit model had a 98% probability of a positive effect from percent forest

cover, with females having an 89% probability of a greater home range crossing time than males

(Fig. 2, Table S3). At the ecoregional scale the autocorrelation timescale and home range crossing

time were not affected by covariates, but differed among ecoregions. Jaguars had the smallest

mean autocorrelation timescale (0.59 h) in the Humid Chaco and the largest (2.76 h) in the Péten-

Veracruz moist forest, while the shortest estimated mean home range crossing time was in the

Llanos and Cerrado (4.1 days) and the longest in the Purus várzeá of the Amazon (6.0 days; Table

S4, Fig. S1).

DISCUSSION

We demonstrated that jaguar home range size increased with increasing anthropogenic

factors (human population density, road density), illustrating both the negative effects of human

impacts and the plasticity in jaguar space use to cope with anthropogenic habitat degradation (*10*,

14). We also showed that increasing forest cover and ecosystem productivity were related to

decreasing home range size. Additionally, jaguar movement within home ranges (speed,

autocorrelation timescale, home range crossing time) was independent of home range size and

instead related to a different suite of factors which did not include anthropogenic covariates. This

indicates that decisions about movement at the relatively short sampling scale of our data

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268 (generally 1 – 4 hours) were most dependent upon environmental factors and that jaguars adjust

269 their behavior to account for anthropogenic factors (*14*, *18*, *19*).

270   Our range-wide predictions of home range size coincide with predicted range-wide

271 densities, which is intuitive as net primary productivity is strongly associated with jaguar

272 densities (*10*). Range-wide, forest cover and net primary productivity were important in

273 determining jaguar home range size and regions with predicted smaller home range sizes

274 coincided with observed high jaguar densities in productive systems such as the Pantanal (*25*),

275 Llanos (*26*), lowland Amazon forest (*27*), Amazon flooded forest (*28*), and western Amazon (*29*).

276 Similarly, regions with the largest predicted home range sizes coincided with semi-arid systems

277 with recorded low jaguar densities such as the Caatinga, Cerrado, Sonoran-Sinaloan subtropical

278 dry forest, and Dry Chaco, where net primary productivity is comparatively low and forest cover

279 is reduced due to biotic factors and land use (*30–33*).

280   The relationship between home range size and density can be attributed to a greater

281 amount of preferred habitat and prey in more productive systems which allows for smaller spatial

282 needs, and conversely larger home ranges and lower densities in less productive systems (*34*).

283 Concurrently, habitat degradation, prey reduction, and direct killing stemming from increasing

284 human population density, and facilitated by greater road density, can be attributed to increasing

285 home range size as jaguars require larger areas to meet metabolic needs (*34*, *35*). These

286 observations are consistent with the relatively large home range sizes predicted by our models,

287 and the relatively low estimated densities or occurrence probabilities, in portions of productive

288 systems with strong anthropogenic impacts including the Atlantic Forest (*13*, *15*, *36*), Llanos (*17*),

289 and western Amazon (*29*).

290   Within ecoregions, as at the range-wide scale, increasing net primary productivity was

291 associated with smaller home range size and increasing road density with larger home range size.

292 A lack of an effect from forest cover and human population density within ecoregions can be

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293 attributed to homogeneity and low variability of both factors within ecoregions where the

294 movement data were collected (*13*). Importantly, we illustrated that ecosystem productivity and

295 the presence of roads drive jaguar home range size, both range-wide and among ecoregions,

296 which is consistent with observed behavior of jaguars (*10*, *29*) and other felids (*37*, *38*). We do

297 note, however, that for several ecoregions sample sizes were low and subsequently, despite our

298 efforts to account for this in our modeling, our site-specific results at the ecoregional scale need to

299 be interpreted within the context of the associated uncertainty.

300   Additionally, apart from determining the covariates at the range-wide and ecoregional

301 scales associated with home range size, we demonstrated a high sensitivity of home range size to

302 increasing net primary productivity at both scales, and to human population density range-wide, at

303 the lower range of the values of those covariates. As expected from previous research (*13*, *15*,

304 *16*), males had larger home ranges than females range-wide and among ecoregions. Male home

305 range size is driven by both food availability and the need to maintain reproductive opportunities

306 by maximizing their contact with females; consequently, their home ranges tend to be larger. In

307 contrast, females have comparatively smaller home ranges to minimize metabolic costs while

308 maximizing food availability and reproductive success (*39*, *40*). Supporting this interpretation,

309 and as indicated by previous research (*15*, *16*, *19*), we found that males moved farther, faster, and

310 more directionally than females which is consistent with male requirements to maintain larger

311 home range areas.

312   The negative relationship of speed with percent forest cover and mean annual precipitation

313 suggests that forest availability, and potentially forest structure from increased precipitation, as

314 well as a greater availability of water, results in more homogenous, high quality habitat which

315 consequently does not force jaguars to avoid sub-optimal habitats (*14*, *18*). Since daily speed was

316 negatively related with forest cover, a positive relationship in home range crossing time with

317   percent forest cover is logical, as it would be expected that when individuals move slower, they

318   take a longer time to cross their home ranges.

319   The increase in the autocorrelation timescale with increasing precipitation range-wide

320   suggests that, as with speed, habitat homogeneity and water availability lead to more directional

321   movements (*14*, *18*). Autocorrelation timescale and home range crossing time exhibited a lack of

322   relationship with landscape covariates within ecoregions. This likely indicates that factors

323   different from those that we considered drive jaguar movement behaviors within ecoregions, or

324   may potentially be due to homogeneity in covariates among home ranges within ecoregions.

325   Given individual-level fine scale movement decisions by jaguar (*19*, *21*) the lack of clear

326   relationships among movement parameters and the landscape factors we evaluated is not

327   unexpected and points to a need for analyses of localized, fine-scale movement decisions by

328   jaguars across its range.

329   Our data set and analysis is the largest to date on the movement ecology of the jaguar, or

330   for any large felid, spanning its complete extant range from its southernmost limits in the

331   province of Misiones, Argentina to its northernmost extent in the state of Sonora, Mexico

332   representing the spectrum of habitat types that jaguars inhabit, including dry and humid forest and

333   wetlands, and varying levels of anthropogenic transformation. We corroborated prior research

334   documenting that the anthropogenic and environmental factors affecting jaguar space use and

335   movement at local and regional scales (*14*, *18*, *19*) act similarly across ecoregions, continents, and

336   range-wide to affect jaguar space use and movements, demonstrating that jaguars perceive their

337   environment similarly, regardless of geographic location or habitat type. In doing so, we provide a

338   set of landscape metrics and a mechanism to evaluate jaguar habitat quality throughout the

339   species' range, facilitating transboundary conservation planning among jaguar range states, which

340   is of significance as the range-wide conservation vision for the jaguar is based upon international

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341 collaboration and trans-boundary decision making to maintain connectivity among core jaguar

342 populations (Jaguar Conservation Units) (*9*).

343   Our analysis is unique in that it is the first to elucidate the range-wide drivers of space use

344 by a terrestrial apex predator, and given the geographic and ecological breadth of our analysis,

345 and its accounting for uncertainty in the data, our inferences not only provide robust

346 generalizations which address key needs for the jaguars' range-wide conservation (*9*), but also for

347 the conservation of other large cats, and large terrestrial carnivores in general. We provide a

348 modeling framework to identify the environmental and anthropogenic factors associated with

349 carnivore space use, which is of significance as understanding the drivers of space use is of

350 critical importance for the range-wide conservation decision-making for not only jaguars (*9*), but

351 other species of large felids (*41–43*), and terrestrial carnivores in general (*1*). Our findings, and

352 the framework presented herein, therefore have immediate and direct applications for the range-

353 wide conservation of jaguars, other large cats, and large terrestrial carnivores around the world

354 and the biodiversity for which they are proxy.

355
356 **MATERIALS AND METHODS**
357 **Home range and movement parameter estimation**

358   To estimate home range size we fit continuous-time stochastic movement models to our

359 data to account for autocorrelation structure in the data over time and for variable sampling

360 intervals (*22*). We fit models in a maximum likelihood framework using starting values derived

361 from semi-variance functions, ranking model fit using Akaike Information Criteria adjusted for

362 small sample size (AICc) and model weights (*23*). We tested three movement models 1) a random

363 search model (Brownian motion) with uncorrelated velocities and no limits to space use, 2) a

364 random search model with constrained space use (Ornstein–Uhlenbeck, OU), and 3) the

365 Ornstein–Uhlenbeck motion with foraging (OUF) which is the OU process with correlated

366 velocities (*22, 23*). All these models account for autocorrelation in positions, while the OU and

367 OUF models include range residency (home range), and the OUF model accounts for

368 autocorrelation in velocities. Consequently, the OU and OUF models produce estimates of home

369 range size and home range crossing time, while the OUF model additionally estimates the

370 velocity autocorrelation time scale (time over which movements are correlated) and mean

371 distance traveled per day (speed) (*23*).

372   If individuals exhibited range residency, 95% home range areas were estimated using

373 autocorrelated kernel density estimation (AKDE) based upon the best fitting model. Semi-

374 variogram analysis, model selection, and AKDE were undertaken using the *ctmm* package (*23*)

375 with the software R. Irregular sampling schedules in the data were accounted for using the *dt*

376 argument within the *variogram* function in the *ctmm* package (*23*).

377

378 **Modeling factors affecting home range size and movement parameters**

379   Based upon previous research on factors related to jaguar distribution and home range size

380 (*10*, *13*, *15*, *16*) we hypothesized that nine environmental and four anthropogenic covariates could

381 potentially be determinants of home range size of jaguar across its distribution. For each home

382 range area we derived the 1) mean percent forest cover, 2) mean percent area in forest, 3) mean

383 forest patch area, 4) perimeter:area ratio of forest patches, 5) density of forest edge, 6) percent

384 protected area, 7) mean annual precipitation, 8) mean seasonality in precipitation, 9) mean net

385 primary productivity, 10) mean human population density, 11) mean Human Footprint Index, 12)

386 mean cattle density, and 13) primary road density (Table S5). Additionally, we included sex as a

387 covariate based upon exploratory analysis of the data and that sex-based differences in jaguar

388 movements have been illustrated (*15*, *16*, *19*), while we also considered the effect of body mass as

389 it has been shown to be a factor associated with jaguar distribution (*10*).

390   We tested for correlation among covariates using Pearson's Correlation Coefficient, with

391 coefficient values between -0.6–0.6 considered uncorrelated. Of the original covariate set, seven

392   were uncorrelated with other covariates; mean percent forest cover, percent protected area, mean

393   annual precipitation, mean seasonality in precipitation, mean net primary productivity, mean

394   human population density, and road density. Also, body mass was significantly associated with

395   sex (Kruskal-Wallis χ^2 test, p=0.04) and was not included in the models. We examined covariates

396   for normality with Shapiro-Wilk tests and inspection of Q-Q plots and log transformed covariates

397   if necessary, to ensure normality. If not log transformed, covariates were z-transformed so that

398   their means value were equal to zero.

399   We modeled the relationship of the estimates of home range, speed, autocorrelation

400   timescale, and home range crossing time with the covariates using generalized linear mixed

401   models (GLMM) (*24*) in maximum likelihood and Bayesian frameworks with sex as a random

402   effect to evaluate range-wide factors associated with movement parameters and with ecoregion

403   (as defined by (*44*)) as a random effect to evaluate relationships among covariates and movement

404   parameters at the ecoregion scale. We chose to employ GLMMs since incorporating random

405   effects allowed for borrowing of information and improved accounting of variability and

406   psuedoreplication in our data, which in turn improved the strength of our inferences given low

407   sample sizes for several sites (*24*). We separated our analysis into two components (range-wide

408   and ecoregional) due to a failure of models including sex and ecoregion hierarchies to

409   convergence which we attribute to sample size.

410   Using a maximum likelihood framework, we chose a most parsimonious model to explain

411   home range size and each movement parameter by starting with the global model and sequentially

412   eliminating the least informative parameter based upon the value of the estimate divided by its

413   standard error until no reduction in AIC was obtained (*45*). Using the best fit maximum likelihood

414   models at each scale for home range size and movement parameters, we modeled the GLMMs in

415   a Bayesian framework which allowed us to incorporate all uncertainty in our data, estimate the

15

effect size of sex and ecoregion, and quantify the strength of covariate effects as probabilities

based upon posterior distributions.

The strength of the covariate effects on home range size and movement parameters was

measured by the proportion of the parameter posterior distributions above or below 0 (no effect).

To test for differences in home range and movement parameters between sexes and among

ecoregions we tested the difference between parameter posterior distributions by randomly

selecting 1 million values with replacement from posterior distributions, comparing the

proportion of times that the selected values from a distribution were greater or smaller than the

selected values from the distribution being compared. Where these proportions were 0.5 there was

no difference between parameters since they had equal probability of being different (50%:50%),

while where the proportional difference was 1 the probability of a difference between

distributions was 100%.

For modeling maximum likelihood GLMMs we used the lme4 package (*46*) with the

software R (Table S5) and for the development of the Bayesian GLMMs we used WinBUGS (*47*)

and the *R2winBUGS* package (*48*), running 3 chains for 1 million iterations, a burn-in period of

100,000 iterations, and a thinning rate of 30. For the prior distributions in the modeling we used

diffuse uniform distributions for the random effects and normal distributions for the covariate

effects, confirming model convergence with a scale reduction factor ≤1.01 and visual inspection

of trace plots for lack of autocorrelation (*24*).

Using the parameter estimates for each covariate from the range-wide best-fit model for

home range size and the corresponding spatial covariate values we predicted mean home range

size throughout the extant home range of the jaguar. The coverage of road density was resampled

to a resolution of 0.1 decimal degrees, while all other spatial data and the final map was at a

resolution of 0.01 decimal degrees. Additionally, using the mean covariate values range-wide and

within ecoregions we estimated mean home range size and movement parameter values by sex

and ecoregion. All spatial data manipulation was undertaken using QGIS 3.12.0.

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data.

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Data and materials availability: Data used in the analysis are available at

https://datadryad.org/stash/dataset/doi:10.5061/dryad.2dh0223

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Figures and Tables

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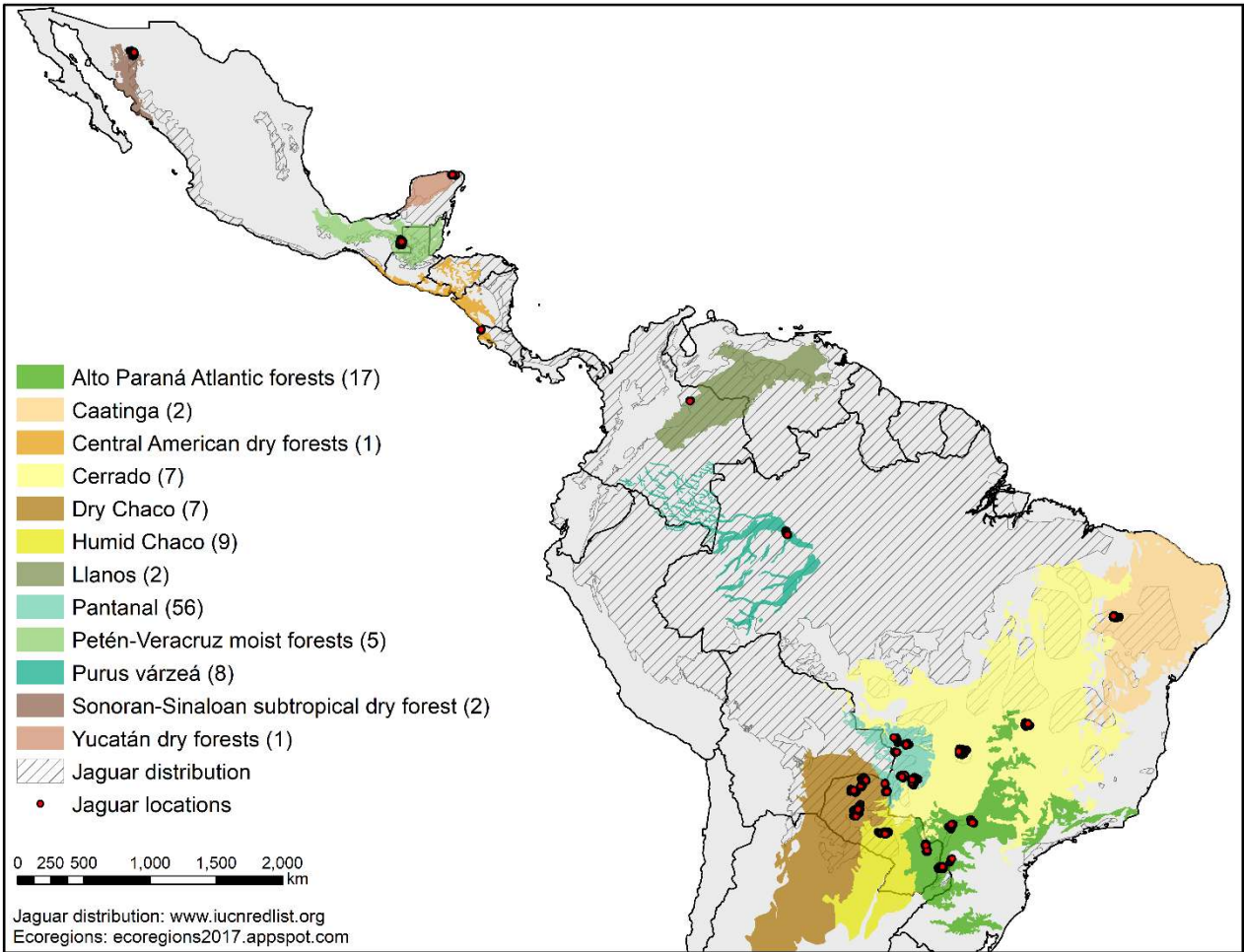
Fig. 1. **Telemetry data locations**. Locations in North and South America by ecoregion of telemetered jaguars included in the analysis. Numbers next to ecoregions represent the number of individuals telemetered.
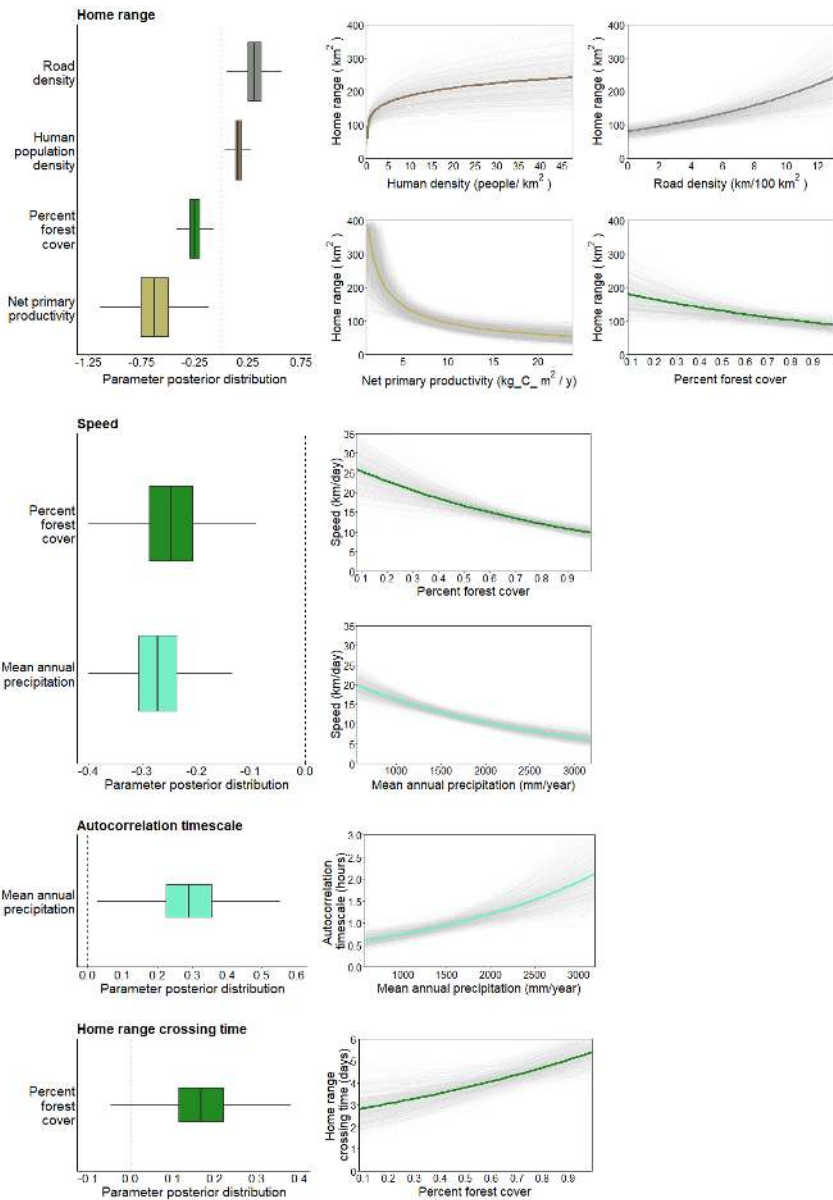
Fig. 2. Range-wide scale relationships of home range size with covariates. (left) Posterior

distributions of the parameter estimates from the Bayesian analysis of the best fit range-wide

generalized linear mixed model with sex as a random effect for home range size, speed,

autocorrelation timescale, and home range crossing time. Boxplots represent the median, 25th and

75th quantiles and whiskers 1.5 times the upper and lower interquartile range, with the dashed line

representing the value of no effect upon the movement parameter by the covariate. (right)

Estimated responses of home range size and movement parameters to landscape covariates.

Colored lines represent mean effect and gray lines are 500 estimated responses based upon

random draws from the parameter posterior distributions.

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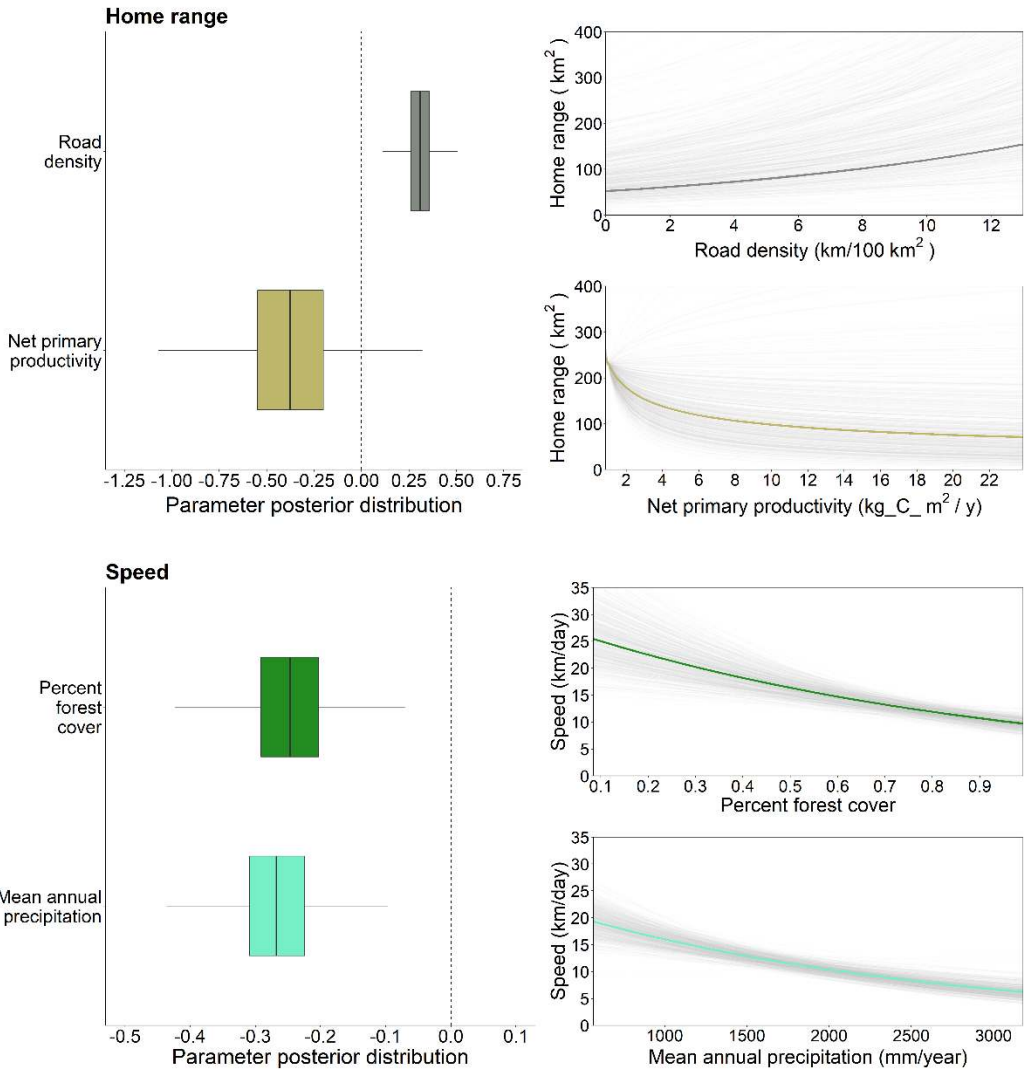
Fig. 3. Ecoregional scale relationships of home range size with covariates. (left) Posterior

distributions of the parameter estimates from the Bayesian analysis of the best fit ecoregional

scale generalized linear mixed model with ecoregion as a random effect for home range size and

speed. Boxplots represent the median, 25th and 75th quantiles and whiskers 1.5 times the upper

and lower interquartile range, with the dashed line representing the value of no effect upon the

movement parameter by the covariate (left). Estimated responses of home range size and

movement parameters to landscape covariates (right). Colored lines represent mean effect and

gray lines are 500 estimated responses based upon random draws from the parameter posterior

distributions.

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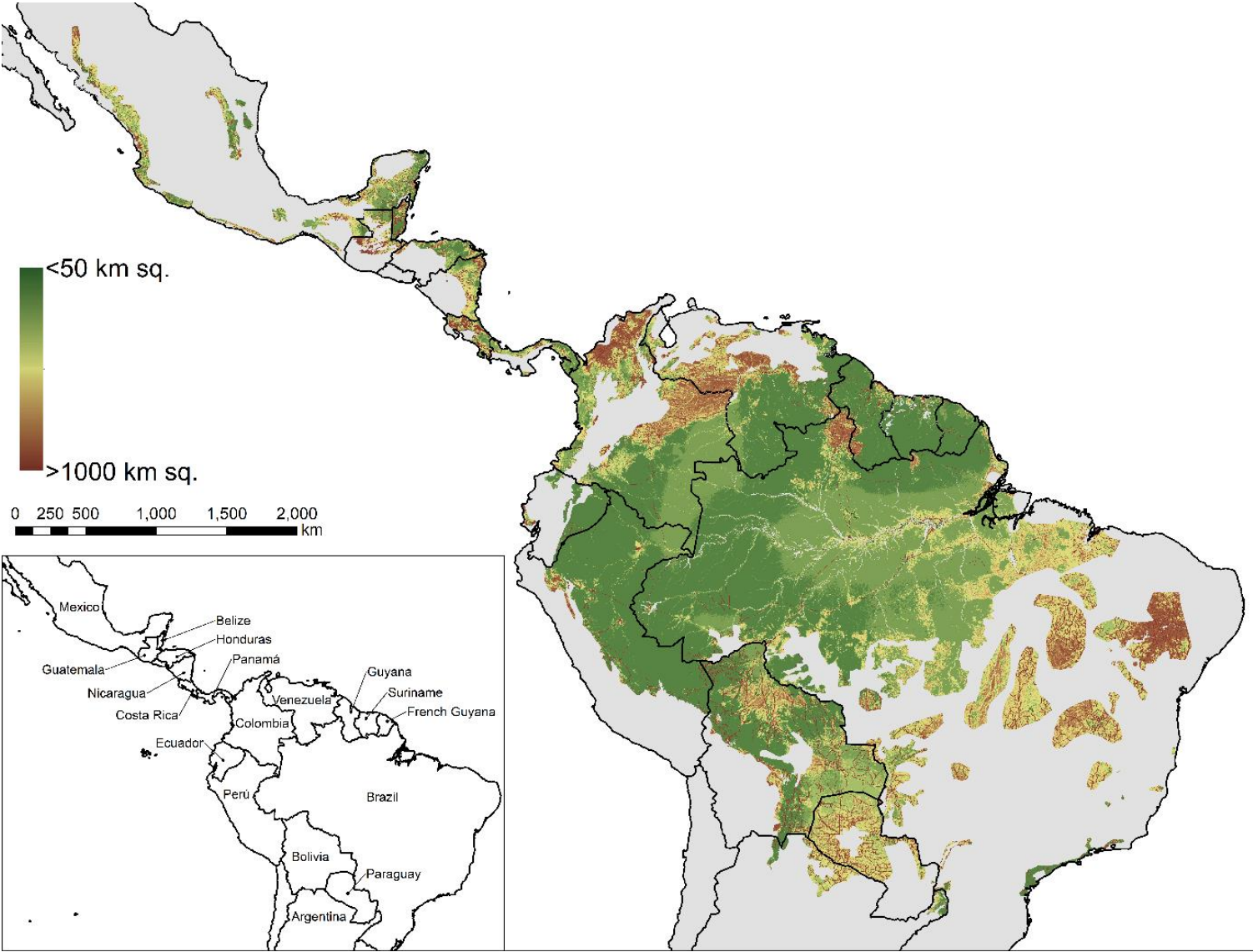
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Fig. 4. Range-wide predicted mean jaguar home range size. Predicted mean home range size

for jaguar across its distribution based upon the best fit range-wide home range model and

corresponding covariates.

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Table 1. Model estimates of jaguar home range size and movement parameters. Estimated mean movement parameters and 95% credibility intervals (CRI) range-wide and by ecoregion from the Bayesian form of the best fit range-wide and ecoregion-scale generalized linear mixed model with transformed covariates equal to 0.

Sex	Home range (km^2)		Speed (km/day)		Autocorrelation timescale (hours)		Home range crossing time (days)	
	Mean	CRI	Mean	CRI	Mean	CRI	Mean	CRI
Female	491.4	192.5–1041.9	12.3	10.4–14.4	0.91	0.68–1.19	4.9	3.9–6.0
Male	1255.4	505.3–2617.6	14.3	12.6–17.0	0.97	0.74–1.26	4.0	3.2–5.0
Ecoregion								
Alto Paraná Atlantic forest	212.9	37.2–683.4	12.3	8.9–15.0	1.35	0.75–2.25	4.4	3.1–5.9
Caatinga	278.7	63.4–810.8	13.0	9.0–16.8	0.86	0.30–1.84	5.2	3.0–9.4
Central American dry forest	167.2	21.2–593.5	13.4	9.3–18.2	1.05	0.30–2.50	4.7	2.4–8.0
Cerrado	618.7	148.3–1752.9	13.0	9.8–16.3	1.03	0.55–1.74	4.1	2.4–5.9
Dry Chaco	230.2	85.6–503.7	13.3	10.2–16.9	1.46	0.79–2.52	5.4	3.6–8.6
Humid Chaco	158.8	47.5–393.1	13.8	11.0–17.9	0.59	0.30–1.05	5.1	3.5–7.7
Llanos	83.4	12.8–275.3	13.6	9.9–18.5	0.91	0.33–1.94	4.1	1.9–6.5
Pantanal	74.2	20.7–189.8	14.0	12.2–16.4	0.80	0.60–1.05	4.2	3.3–5.1
Petén–Veracruz moist forest	210.2	44.2–623.9	13.0	8.9–16.8	2.76	1.08–5.98	5.7	3.6–10.0
Purus várzeá	167.8	33.0–506.2	13.1	9.0–17.0	1.70	0.90–2.99	6.0	3.9–10.1
Sonoran–Sinaloan subtropical dry forest	209.9	57.6–546.2	13.4	8.9–19.0	1.41	0.24–4.43	4.7	2.6–7.9
Yucatán dry forest	263.5	35.0–959.1	14.2	10.4–21.4	0.99	0.28–2.33	4.6	2.3–7.9

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Supplementary Materials
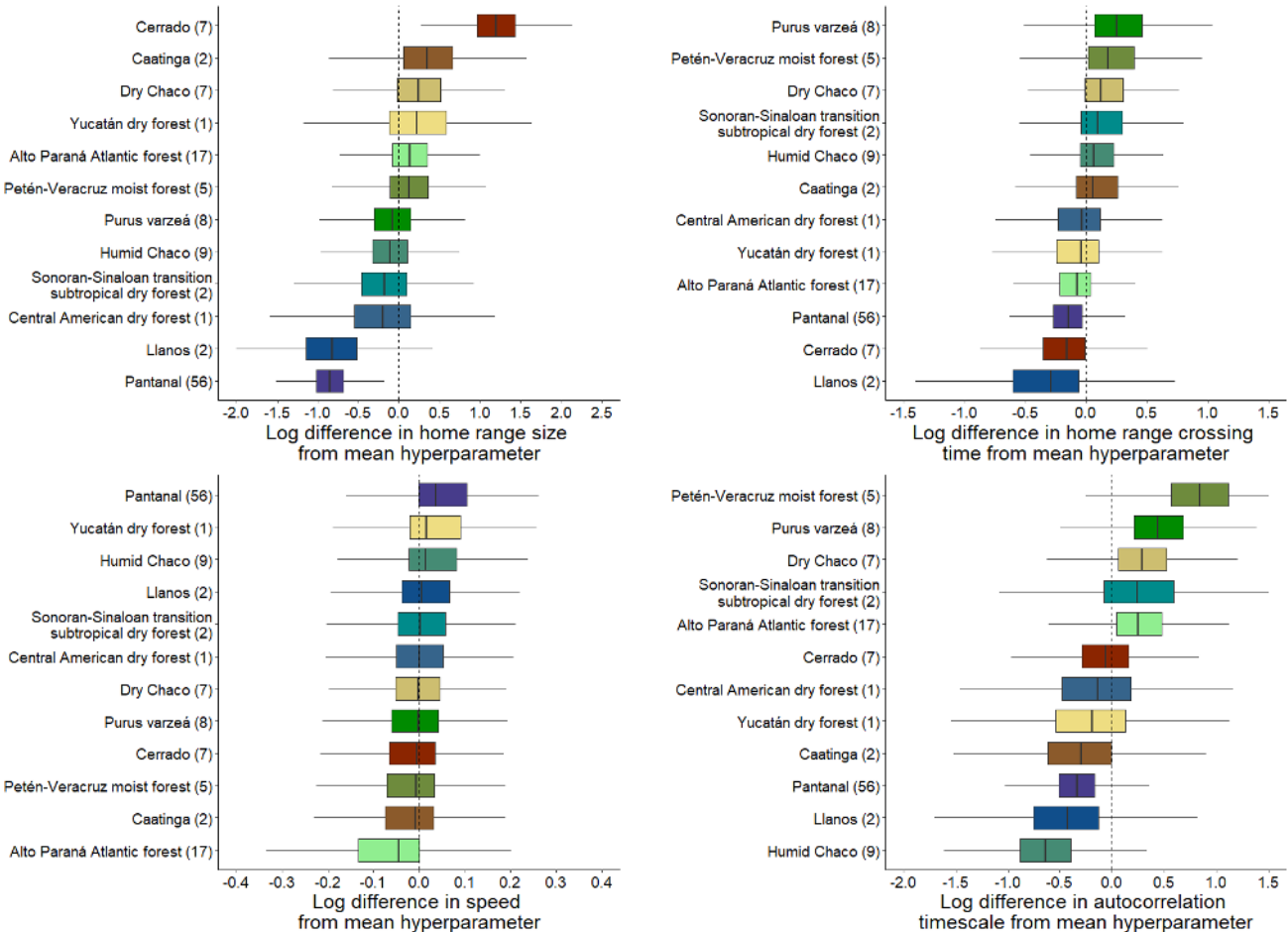
Fig. S1. Estimated ecoregion effect on home range size and movement parameters. Posterior

distributions of the effect size of ecoregion compared to the mean effect from the ecoregional

generalized linear mixed model with ecoregion as a random effect for home range size, speed,

autocorrelation timescale, and home range crossing time. Dashed line represents the mean value

of the ecoregion hyper–parameter. Boxplots are ordered by median value and represent the

median, 25th and 75th quantiles and whiskers 1.5 times the upper and lower interquartile range.

Sample size for each ecoregion is in parentheses.

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Table S1. Estimated movement parameters for individual jaguars in the analysis.

Autocorrelated kernel density estimated home ranges and movement parameters for jaguars used

in the analysis.

Ecoregion	Sex	95% AKDE home range (km²)	Home crossing time (day)	Autocorrelation timescale (hours)	Speed (km/day)
Alto Paraná Atlantic forest	Female	105.6 (83.5–130.2)	2.4 (1.5–3.9)	3.68 (1.43–9.49)	6.0 (4.6–7.3)
Alto Paraná Atlantic forest	Female	146.0 (107.1–191.0)	6.0 (4.0–8.9))	0.82 (0.07–10.34)	9.3 (5.7–13.0)
Alto Paraná Atlantic forest	Female	51.3 (31.1–76.4)	5.3 (2.5–11.1)	—	—
Alto Paraná Atlantic forest	Female	133.3 (75.8–206.7)	1.0 (0.0–3.0)	1.03 (0.0–2.96)	4.5 (0.86–8.46)
Alto Paraná Atlantic forest	Female	115.8 (77.3–161.9)	4.4 (2.6–7.3)	—	—
Alto Paraná Atlantic forest	Female	260.0 (141.4–414.1)	16.5 (0.0–34.0)	—	—
Alto Paraná Atlantic forest	Female	256.8 (191.1–332.0)	7.3 (5.1–10.6)	—	—
Alto Paraná Atlantic forest	Female	722.8 (296.8–1335.1)	18.5 (4.7–72.6)	—	—
Alto Paraná Atlantic forest	Female	144.4 (97.9–199.8)	2.4 (1.2–4.9)	—	—
Alto Paraná Atlantic forest	Female	235.0 (170.0–310.4)	7.9 (5.4–11.6)	1.56 (1.22–1.98)	7.5 (7.0–8.1)
Alto Paraná Atlantic forest	Female	137.6 (112.2–165.5)	1.6 (1.2–2,1)	2.19 (1.49–3.22)	10.0 (9.0–11.0)
Alto Paraná Atlantic forest	Male	151 (117.8–188.1)	4.5 (3.3–6.1)	0.04 (0.03–0.05)	7.1 (6.6–7.6)
Alto Paraná Atlantic forest	Male	112.6 (88.9–139.1)	1.6 (1.1–2.2)	—	—
Alto Paraná Atlantic forest	Male	702.3 (528.4–900.6)	2.1 (1.4–3.2)	—	—
Alto Paraná Atlantic forest	Male	504.8 (400.4–621.2)	4.6 (3.5–6.1)	0.89 (0.25–3.21)	21.8 (14.9–28.8)
Alto Paraná Atlantic forest	Male	174.8 (69.1–328.7)	10.6 (2.5–43.8)	0.6 (0.45–0.80)	8.5 (7.8–9.2)
Alto Paraná Atlantic forest	Male	685.1 (264.8–1301.7)	6.3 (1.2–31.5)	—	—
Caatinga	Male	2188.7 (795.5–4274.5)	1.9 (0.38–10.1)	0.81 (0.78–0.84)	10.7 (10.6–10.9)
Caatinga	Male	476.0 (86.3–1191.8)	23.8 (20.0–26.6)	0.38 (0.33–0.44)	11.7 (11.2–12.1)
Central America dry forest	Female	84.9 (73.0–97.8)	3.1 (2.6–3.7)	0.73 (0.68–0.78)	11.3 (11.1–11.6)
Cerrado	Female	1141.7 (683.7–1715.2)	14.3 (7.8–26.5)	0.37 (0.28–0.48)	23.4 (21.1–25.7)
Cerrado	Female	1815.7 (368.5–4394.6)	1.2 (0.0–2.7)	1.89 (0.50–7.08)	8.0 (5.7–10.3)
Cerrado	Male	2131.9 (754.4–4212.3)	1.2 (0.2–7.0)	1.07 (0.88–1.30)	10.9 (10.1–11.6)
Cerrado	Male	1003.4 (837.3–1184.2)	3.4 (2.8–4.1)	0.76 (0.66–0.88)	34.6 (32.8–36.4)
Cerrado	Male	2453.5 (1118.4–4304.2)	1.2 (0.4–3.5)	0.71 (0.59–0.86)	15.9 (14.7–17.0)
Cerrado	Male	1278.2 (780.3–1896.8)	6.9 (3.8–12.5)	0.83 (0.76–0.91)	25.9 (25.3–26.6)
Cerrado	Male	1171.3 (835.4–1563.1)	4.5 (3.0–6.7)	1.91 (1.61–2.27)	20.2 (19.3–21.1)
Dry Chaco	Female	504.4 (359.0–673.2)	9.5 (6.4–14.0)	1.72 (1.49–1.99)	9.7 (9.3–10.1)
Dry Chaco	Female	612.8 (425.3–833.8)	11.5 (7.6–17.5)	1.09 (0.89–1.34)	11.9 (11.1–12.6)
Dry Chaco	Male	410.8 (351.5–474.5)	2.7 (2.3–3.2)	1.37 (1.27–1.49)	17.1 (16.7–17.4)
Dry Chaco	Male	2326.7 (1691.6–3061.4)	8.0 (5.6–11.5)	1.15 (0.96–1.37)	28.8 (27.1–30.5)
Dry Chaco	Male	352.2 (240.1–485.4)	11.5 (7.3–18.0)	1.78 (1.51–2.10)	7.9 (7.5–8.3)
Dry Chaco	Male	563.5 (356.8–816.5)	3.5 (2.0–6.2)	1.93 (1.65–2.25)	15.1 (14.8–15.7)
Dry Chaco	Male	1052 (812.9–1321.5)	4.8 (3.6–6.4))	2.15 (1.90–2.43)	19.3 (18.6–20.0)
Humid Chaco	Female	309.7 (214.4– 422.3)	6.2 (3.9–9.9)	1.52 (0.93–2.48)	9.3 (7.9–10.6)
Humid Chaco	Female	96.9 (79.6–115.9)	1.2 (0.91–1.62)	0.47 (0.01–24.29)	21.0 (12.3–29.8)
Humid Chaco	Female	86.3 (41.3–147.8)	5.7 (2.1–15.5)	—	—
Humid Chaco	Female	124.0 (74.4–186.0)	9.9 (5.4–17)	0.16 (0.09–0.28)	14.1 (11.3–16.9)
Humid Chaco	Female	245.1 (172.2–330.8)	9.2 (6.2–13.7)	0.15 (0.09–0.23)	22.6 (18.7–26.4)
Humid Chaco	Female	111.6 (78.4–150.6)	9.4 (6.3–14.1)	0.16 (0.63–0.42)	14.2 (10.1–18.3)
Humid Chaco	Male	1066.7 (594.0–1675.6)	5.9 (2.7–12.7)	—	—

Humid Chaco	Male	430.1 (293.5–592.3)	4.4 (2.9–7.0)	1.42 (1.2–1.67)	15.0 (14.4–15.6)
Humid Chaco	Male	352.2 (227.1–504.4)	5.3 (3.2–9.1)	0.85 (0.60–1.22)	13.5 (12.0–14.9)
Llanos	Female	35.0 (19.9–54.2)	1.7 (0.8–3.7)	0.3 (0.13–0.70)	20.2 (15.4–24.9)
Llanos	Male	100.3 (77.4–134.0)	2.0 (1.3–3.2)	1.31 (0.58–2.97)	11.1 (8.9–13.4)
Pantanal	Female	475.5 (182.9–905.4)	25.6 (5.84–112.1)	0.36 (0.33–0.40)	11.7 (11.3–12.0)
Pantanal	Female	27.5 (20.6–36.2)	20.5 (14.9–28.3)	0.31 (0.26–0.36)	19.7 (18.7–20.6)
Pantanal	Female	37.2 (28.6–46.9)	2.0 (1.5–2.7)	4.3 (3.4–5.4)	26.9 (24.4–29.5)
Pantanal	Female	39.9 (28.3–53.5)	1.3 (0.9–1.9)	5.02 (3.21–7.85)	34.3 (28.7–53.5)
Pantanal	Female	36.2 (27.4–46.3)	3.3 (2.4–4.6)	—	—
Pantanal	Female	30.7 (22.4–40.3)	2.0 (1.3–2.9)	—	—
Pantanal	Female	36.3 (24.5–50.4)	1.6 (0.7–3.5)	2.88 (0.64–12.8)	4.9 (3.7–6.2)
Pantanal	Female	49.0 (40.9–57.9)	2.9 (2.3–3.5)	—	—
Pantanal	Female	30.9 (21.8–41.5)	2.1 (1.2–3.4)	—	—
Pantanal	Female	98.2 (79.7–118.7)	1.2 (0.9–1.7)	—	—
Pantanal	Female	68.3 (46.4–94.5)	2.7 (1.6–4.5)	—	—
Pantanal	Female	19.3 (14.9–24.2)	3.7 (2.8–4.9)	0.33 (0.31–0.36)	7.2 (7.1–7.4)
Pantanal	Female	16.7 (7.9–28.7)	3.0 (1.1–8.4)	0.27 (0.20–0.36)	7.7 (7.0–8.4)
Pantanal	Female	116.6 (89.9–146.7)	3.1 (2.3–4.1)	0.23 (0.21–0.26)	23.9 (22.9–24.9)
Pantanal	Female	64.6 (52.8–77.6)	2.6 (2.0–3.2)	—	—
Pantanal	Female	89.8 (71.2–110.5)	4.3 (3.3–5.6)	1.12 (0.94–1.35)	7.9 (7.4–8.3)
Pantanal	Female	60.1 (43.4–79.6)	3.1 (2.1–4.4)	0.24 (0.21–0.28)	15.2 (14.4–16.0)
Pantanal	Female	61.5 (50.5–73.5)	2.5 (2.0–3.1)	0.19 (0.17–0.22)	19.1 (18.2–19.9)
Pantanal	Female	143.0 (92.4–204.4)	3.7 (2.2–6.1)	0.07 (0.05–0.09)	40.8 (35.7–45.8)
Pantanal	Female	26.1 (17.7–36.0)	19.6 (12.4–31.0)	0.05 (0.3–0.09)	49.5 (40.4–58.6)
Pantanal	Female	52.2 (33.3–75.1)	7.9 (4.7–13.3)	0.01 (0.04–0.20)	25.2 (15.4–35.03)
Pantanal	Female	477.2 (193.1–887.7)	9.8 (2.4–40.2)	1.07 (0.62–1.85)	10.8 (9.0–12.6)
Pantanal	Female	68.8 (59.3–79.1)	2.4 (2.03–2.82)	—	—
Pantanal	Female	55.2 (43.3–68.6)	15.0 (10.7–21.0)	—	—
Pantanal	Female	48.1 (39.5–57.5)	4.5 (3.6–5.5)	—	—
Pantanal	Female	95.6 (50.8–154.6)	6.6 (2.9–14.9)	—	—
Pantanal	Female	36.6 (31.1–42.6)	1.2 (1.0–1.5)	—	—
Pantanal	Female	142.3 (131.4–153.8)	8.8 (7.9–9.9)	—	—
Pantanal	Female	119.9 (92.2–151.1)	3.8 (2.8–5.1)	0.87 (0.66–1.15)	9.9 (9.0–10.8)
Pantanal	Female	37.5 (25.6–51.6)	4.2 (2.7–6.4)	0.39 (0.36–0.43)	8.3 (8.1–8.5)
Pantanal	Male	37.3 (29.3–46.3)	3.3 (2.5–4.3)	0.30 (0.28–0.33)	12.3 (11.9–12.6)
Pantanal	Male	726.9 (57.5–2223.4)	14.7 (0.0–38.0)	0.40 (0.27–0.60)	17.5 (15.4–19.6)
Pantanal	Male	280.8 (173.3–413.8)	3.9 (2.2–6.8)	0.39 (0.35–0.45)	23.5 (22.6–24.4)
Pantanal	Male	107.8 (71.6–151.2)	4.9 (3.06–7.8)	0.33 (0.29–0.37)	13.7 (13.2–14.2)
Pantanal	Male	92.4 (60.3–131.2)	9.4 (5.8–15.4)	0.32 (0.30–0.35)	9.5 (9.2–9.7)
Pantanal	Male	36.0 (12.2–72.3)	6.5 (0.9–44.7)	0.16 (0.08–0.32)	9.1 (7.3–10.8)
Pantanal	Male	561.0 (394.8–756.1)	6.2 (4.2–9.2)	0.54 (0.52–0.56)	21.7 (21.4–21.9)
Pantanal	Male	423.1 (316.4–545.1)	3.4 (2.4–4.8)	1.39 (1.13–1.70)	16.7 (15.7–17.7)
Pantanal	Male	63.5 (45.0–85.2)	1.0 (0.6–1.8)	0.61 (0.0–1.42)	16.4 (7.6–25.2)
Pantanal	Male	200.7 (136.0–278.0)	3.8 (2.3–6.2)	—	—
Pantanal	Male	32.9 (14.3–59.0)	6.2 (1.8–20.9)	—	—
Pantanal	Male	69.8 (50.4–92.2)	1.8 (1.1–2.9)	—	—
Pantanal	Male	58.0 (39.7–79.7)	2.1 (1.1–4.0)	1.42 (0.01–2.3)	8.0 (5.0–11.0)
Pantanal	Male	172.6 (134.4–215.5)	2.2 (1.5–3.0)	2.09 (1.33–3.29)	11.9 (10.2–13.5)

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Pantanal	Male	89.4 (72.2–108.4)	21.4 (12.6–36.3)	1.7 (0.08–34.3)	13.4 (8.7–18.2)
Pantanal	Male	76.8 (67.4–86.8)	1.2 (1.0–1.4)	—	—
Pantanal	Male	302.7 (156.5–496.4)	6.0 (2.3–15.9)	2.36 (1.19–4.65)	7.8 (6.4–9.2)
Pantanal	Male	181.7 (99.3–288.6)()	3.9 (1.8–8.3)	0.09 (0.06–0.12)	40.2 (35.7–44.7)
Pantanal	Male	457.7 (214.5–791.6)	2.1 (0.8–5.7)	0.2 (0.18–0.22)	10.7 (10.4–11.0)
Pantanal	Male	248.4 (198.2–304.1)	2.1 (1.5–2.8)	1.2 (0.89–1.61)	17.7 (15.9–19.4)
Pantanal	Male	401.1 (237.8–606.5)	3.1 (1.5–6.2)	0.65 (0.33–1.28)	24.4 (19.3–77.1)
Pantanal	Male	187.5 (140.3–241.3)	22.7 (14.7–35.0)	1.39 (0.84–2.31)	21.1 (18.6–23.6)
Pantanal	Male	98.7 (63.1–142.3)	3.5 (1.9–6.3)	0.79 (0.41–1.52)	10.4 (8.6–12.3)
Pantanal	Male	122.8 (97.0–151.5)	1.3 (0.9–1.7)	0.32 (0.0–0.70)	30.9 (15.4–46.5)
Pantanal	Male	219.5 (166.7–279.5)	1.0 (0.7–1.5)	—	—
Pantanal	Male	209.3 (109.7–340.7)	16.0 (7.1–36.2)	0.4 (0.36–0.43)	10.2 (9.9–10.4)
Petén–Veracruz moist forest	Female	643.1 (360.6–1005.9)	28.9 (13.4–62.2)	—	—
Petén–Veracruz moist forest	Female	45.7 (6.06–124.5)	9.4 (0.0–23.5)	5.40 (2.40–12.14)	1.4 (1.2–1.7)
Petén–Veracruz moist forest	Female	258.7 (190.9–336.7)	5.9 (4.1–8.7)	2.91 (2.24–3.77)	7.0 (6.4–7.5)
Petén–Veracruz moist forest	Male	370.2 (294.0–454.9)	4.5 (3.4–6.0)	4.27 (3.55–5.13)	8.0 (7.6–8.4)
Petén–Veracruz moist forest	Male	718.4 (415.1–1103.5)	4.8 (1.9–12.3)	5.24 (2.93–9.33)	9.6 (8.3–11.0)
Purus várzeá	Female	86.9 (45.8–140.8)	9.8 (4.1–23.2)	2.53 (1.97–3.26)	3.3 (3.05–3.49)
Purus várzeá	Female	49.4 (38.0–62.4)	4.8 (3.5–6.7)	0.88 (0.39–2.0)	6.0 (4.8–7.4)
Purus várzeá	Female	70.2 (52.2–90.7)	7.7 (5.6–10.7)	1.03 (0.96–1.11)	5.5 (5.4–5.6)
Purus várzeá	Female	232.2 (85.4–451.1)	28.7 (0.0–59.1)	2.58 (0.4–16.7)	3.3 (2.4–4.2)
Purus várzeá	Male	207.7 (157.5–264.8)	6.8 (5.0–9.4)	2.61 (2,21–3.09)	6.3 (6.0–6.6)
Purus várzeá	Male	254.9 (171.2–355.0)	5.9 (3.6–9.7)	3.36 (2.72–4.14)	6.5 (6.1–6.9)
Purus várzeá	Male	75.8 (42.0–118.6)	3.4 (1.1–11.1)	1.87 (1.02–3.41)	6.1 (5.1–7.0)
Purus várzeá	Male	312.2 (177.9–483.6)	20.4 (10.1–41.0)	—	—
Sonoran–Sinaloan subtropical dry forest	Female	462.9 (245.5–748.1)	9.8 (4.4–21.9)	—	—
Sonoran–Sinaloan subtropical dry forest	Male	805.3 (698.0–920.2)	1.8 (1.5–2.1)	—	—
Yucatán dry forest	Male	305.2 (239.8–378.3)	2.8 (2.1–3.7)	0.57 (0.45–0.71)	25.5 (23.7–27.3)

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Table S2. Best fit models. Range–wide and ecoregion scale best fit generalized linear mixed models for home range size, speed, home range crossing time and autocorrelation timescale with sex and ecoregion, respectively as a random effect.

Range–wide	

Random effect	$\alpha \sim Normal(mean_{sex}, var_{sex})$
Home range	$log(home\ range_i)$
	$= \alpha_{sex_i} + \beta_1(forest_i) + \beta_2(net\ primary\ productivity_i)$
	$+ \beta_3(human\ population\ density_i) + \beta_4(road\ density_i)$
Speed	$log(speed_i) = \alpha_{sex_i} + \beta_1(forest_i) + \beta_2(mean\ annual\ precipitation_i)$
Home range crossing time	$log(home\ range\ crossing\ time_i) = \alpha_{sex_i} + \beta_1(forest_i)$
Autocorrelation timescale	$log(autocorrelation\ timescale_i) = \alpha_{sex_i} + \beta_1(mean\ annual\ precipitation_i)$

Ecoregion	

Random effect	$\alpha \sim Normal(mean_{ecoregion}, var_{ecoregion})$
Home range	$log(home\ range_i)$
	$= \alpha_{ecoregion_i} + \beta_1(net\ primary\ productivity_i)$
	$+ \beta_2(road\ density_i) + \beta_3(sex_i)$
Speed	$log(speed_i) = \alpha_{ecoregion_i} + \beta_1(forest_i) + \beta_2(mean\ annual\ precipitation_i)$
Home range crossing time	$log(home\ range\ crossing\ time_i) = \alpha_{ecoregion_i}$
Autocorrelation timescale	$log(autocorrelation\ timescale_i) = \alpha_{ecoregion_i}$

Table S3. Range–wide scale parameter estimates. Covariate parameter estimates and 95%

768 credibility intervals (CRI) for the Bayesian form of the best fit generalized linear mixed model at

769 the range–wide scale with sex as a random effect.

Parameter	Log home range (km²)		Log speed (km/day)		Log autocorrelation timescale (h)		Log home range crossing time (d)	
	mean	95% CRI	mean	95% CRI	mean	95% CRI	mean	95% CRI
Percent forest cover	-0.18	-0.36–0.00	-0.25	-0.37--0.13	–	–	0.17	0.01–0.32
Net primary productivity	-0.63	-1.01--0.25	–	–	–	–	–	–
Human population density	0.16	0.07–0.26	–	–	–	–	–	–
Road density	0.31	0.13–0.50	–	–	–	–	–	–
Mean annual precipitation	–	–	-0.27	-0.38--0.17	0.30	0.11–0.49	–	–
Male (intercept)	7.05	6.22–7.88	2.68	2.53–2.83	-0.03	-0.30–0.23	1.38	1.15–1.60
Female (intercept)	6.11	5.26–6.96	2.50	2.34–2.66	-0.09	-0.37–0.20	1.57	1.36–1.79
Sex hyperparameter	6.56	2.77–10.34	2.59	-0.35–5.47	-0.05	-2.80–2.75	1.47	-1.46–4.39

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774 **Table S4. Ecoregional scale parameter estimates.** Covariate parameter estimates and 95%

775 credibility intervals (CRI) for the Bayesian form of the best fit generalized linear mixed model

776 with ecoregion as a random effect.

Parameter	Log home range (km²)		Log speed (km/day)		Log autocorrelation timescale (h)		Log home range crossing time (d)	
	mean	95% CRI	mean	95% CRI	mean	95% CRI	mean	95% CRI
Percent forest cover	–	–	-0.25	-0.38--0.12	–	–	–	–
Net primary productivity	-0.37	-0.87–0.15	–	–	–	–	–	–
Road density	0.31	0.16–0.45	–	–	–	–	–	–
Mean annual precipitation	–	–	-0.26	-0.39--0.12	–	–	–	–
Sex	0.81	0.55–1.08	–	–	–	–	–	–
Ecoregion intercepts								
Alto Paraná Atlantic forest	5.09	3.62–6.50	2.50	2.18–2.71	0.26	-0.28–0.81	1.46	1.13–1.77
Caatinga	5.41	4.14–6.68	2.55	2.20–2.82	-0.25	-1.20–0.61	1.60	1.10–2.23
Central American dry forest	4.77	3.06–6.39	2.58	2.23–2.90	-0.09	-1.20–0.92	1.49	0.84–2.09
Cerrado	6.23	5.00–7.46	2.56	2.28–2.79	-0.02	-0.59–0.55	1.39	0.88–1.77
Dry Chaco	5.34	4.46–6.21	2.58	2.32–2.83	0.33	-0.24–0.92	1.65	1.27–2.15
Humid Chaco	4.92	3.86–5.96	2.62	2.39–2.88	-0.57	-1.21–0.05	1.61	1.24–2.04
Llanos	4.12	2.53–5.60	2.60	2.29–2.92	-0.19	-1.12–0.66	1.38	0.65–1.87
Pantanal	4.15	3.03–5.22	2.64	2.50–2.80	-0.23	-0.51–0.05	1.42	1.20–1.62
Petén–Veracruz moist forest	5.12	3.78–6.43	2.55	2.18–2.82	0.92	0.08–1.79	1.70	1.30–2.30
Purus várzeá	4.88	3.50–6.22	2.56	2.20–2.84	0.48	-0.11–1.10	1.76	1.36–2.31
Sonoran–Sinaloan subtropical dry forest	5.18	4.06–6.30	2.58	2.19–2.94	0.04	-1.42–1.49	1.52	0.96–2.07
Yucatán dry forest	5.22	3.56–6.84	2.64	2.34–3.06	-0.15	-1.27–0.85	1.48	0.82–2.06
Ecoregion hyperparameter	5.04	3.82–6.22	2.58	2.40–2.74	0.04	-0.45–0.52	1.54	1.27–1.82

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Table S5. Data sources. Data sources used in the analysis.

Landscape variable	Internet address
Ecoregions (*44*)	https://ecoregions2017.appspot.com/
Forest cover (*49*)	www.globalforestwatch.org
Protected area (*50*)	www.protectedplanet.net
Annual precipitation (*51*)	http://worldclim.org/
Seasonality in precipitation (*51*)	http://worldclim.org/
Net primary productivity (*52*)	http://files.ntsg.umt.edu/data/NTSG_Products/MOD17/
Human pop density (*53*)	http://sedac.ciesin.columbia.edu/data/set/gpw–v4–population–density–rev10
Human footprint index (*54*)	https://wcshumanfootprint.org/
Cattle density (*55*)	https://livestock.geo–wiki.org/home–2/
Primary Roads (*56*)	http://sedac.ciesin.columbia.edu/data/set/groads–global–roads–open–access–v1

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