



UNIVERSIDADE FEDERAL DO RIO GRANDE DO SUL
INSTITUTO DE BIOCÊNCIAS
PROGRAMA DE PÓS-GRADUAÇÃO EM ECOLOGIA



Dissertação de Mestrado

Estimating carcass detection and persistence heterogeneity and roadkill numbers with open
population capture-recapture models

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Porto Alegre, julho de 2020

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Dissertação de Mestrado apresentada ao
Programa de Pós-Graduação em Ecologia, do
Instituto de Biociências da Universidade Federal
do Rio Grande do Sul, como parte dos requisitos
para obtenção do título de Mestre em Ecologia.

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Porto Alegre, julho de 2020

CIP - Catalogação na Publicação

Menger Ribeiro, Talita
Estimating carcass detection and persistence
heterogeneity and roadkill numbers with open
population capture-recapture models / Talita Menger
Ribeiro. -- 2020.
46 f.
Orientador: Andreas Kindel.

Dissertação (Mestrado) -- Universidade Federal do
Rio Grande do Sul, Instituto de Biociências, Programa
de Pós-Graduação em Ecologia, Porto Alegre, BR-RS,
2020.

1. Estimativas de atropelamento de fauna. 2. Erros
de amostragem. 3. Detecção Imperfeita. 4. Persistência
das carcaças. 5. Modelos hierárquicos. I. Kindel,
Andreas, orient. II. Título.

Elaborada pelo Sistema de Geração Automática de Ficha Catalográfica da UFRGS com os
dados fornecidos pelo(a) autor(a).

Talvez não haja melhor demonstração da tolice das vaidades humanas do que essa imagem distante do nosso pequeno mundo. Ela enfatiza nossa responsabilidade de tratarmos melhor uns aos outros e de preservar e valorizar o pálido ponto azul, o único lar que nós conhecemos.

Carl Sagan

Agradecimentos

Quero agradecer a todos que contribuíram das mais diversas formas para que esse trabalho existisse, desde os iniciais “empurrõezinhos nas costas”, passando pelas mesas de bar e conversas soltas, até as resoluções práticas, trocas de conhecimentos e vivências na caminhada científica.

Agradeço a minha família, principalmente aos meus pais, por me permitirem ser criança e nunca medirem esforços para me ajudar a seguir meus sonhos. Um agradecimento especial por receberem tantos ajudantes de campo em casa e por confiarem o carro nas minhas mãos para a realização dos campos. E mãe, obrigada pelas comidas carinhosas e deliciosas (todos sentem saudades)! Vocês são tudo!

Agradeço aos ajudantes de campo (e amigos), tanto aos que conseguiram aproveitar a promessa da praia pós campo, quanto aos que se decepcionaram com o chocolatão do litoral gaúcho: Rafa, Nati, Vini, Ítalo, Pedro, Ingridi e Joice. Um agradecimento especial ao Pedro, que mal sabia que depois de me ajudar nesse campo nunca mais ia parar de ouvir falar nesse mestrado. Obrigada por ouvir, cuidar, amar e compartilhar a vida de perto comigo desde então!

Agradeço a todos os meus amigos, que sempre tornaram a caminhada mais fácil. Aos que vêm junto desde muito tempo, antes da Biologia. Aos que dividiram comigo as alegrias da graduação a as angústias do fim dela também. Um especial para os que estiveram comigo nesses últimos dois anos, colegas da Ecologia, Bio Animal e Botânica pela companhia em disciplinas loucas, almoços no RU e encontros na Cidade Baixa. Em tempos de pandemia, vocês não sabem a falta que me fazem (ou talvez saibam).

Aos amigos do Leveg, pelos tantos cafés que tomamos juntos. Joice, obrigada por me apresentar essa galera e por ser parceria para todas as horas.

Aos roñanicos, que me fazem sentir menos falta de ter uma família pertinho: vocês são família também!

Um agradecimento especial às minhas amigas, mulheres incríveis, inspiradoras e cientistas que compartilham as dores e as delícias dessa caminhada comigo: Mimi, Bel, Lari, Fê Z., Bru, Mel, Marjo, Luti, Fê A., Joice, Anita, Jéssica, Débs, Juju e Bibs. Juju, obrigada pelas tuas risadas gostosas e por confiar em mim para embarcar nas mais diversas aventuras. Bibs, obrigada por dividir a caminhada do mestrado tão juntinha de mim e por ter se tornado tanto na minha vida.

Ao NERF, pela acolhida fácil, desde o início. Que grata surpresa ter me metido no meio de vocês, sou muito orgulhosa de fazer parte desse grupo. Desisti de falar em nomes aqui, cada um de vocês faz parte da construção desse trabalho e do meu aprendizado. Obrigada por sempre toparem uma discussão, por mais fora de hora que fosse e por fazerem um trabalho sério, mas sempre rindo!

Ao Isma, por ter embarcado nessa ideia comigo e com o Andreas. Pela paciência em me explicar muitas vezes as minhas dúvidas, por compartilhar teu conhecimento e principalmente pela tua empolgação com o trabalho e com fazer tudo isso dar certo.

Ao Andreas, por não ter desistido de mim logo de cara e ter lembrado dos meus olhos grandes nas tuas aulas. Por acreditar nos sonhos e nas pessoas e por fazer elas acreditarem também. Por deixar esse processo parecer mais fácil do que é, e por ter sempre esse brilho nos olhos com as coisas que tu faz, isso é lindo e motivador!

Agradeço, por fim, ao PPG Ecologia pela oportunidade e ao CNPq pela bolsa concedida. Que possamos seguir estudando dentro de uma universidade pública e fazendo ciência de qualidade!

Resumo

A contagem de carcaças em rodovias é amplamente utilizada para quantificar o impacto dessas infraestruturas na fauna. Um número confiável de atropelamentos é essencial para tomadas de decisão efetivas quanto a mitigação desse impacto. Para isso, é necessário considerar não apenas a contagem simples de carcaças, mas corrigir as principais fontes de erros da amostragem de fatalidades: a detecção e persistência das carcaças. Os métodos usados consideram os erros constantes no espaço, no tempo e, às vezes, entre espécies. Mas, é esperado que eles apresentem variação, já que podem ser influenciados pelo tráfego de veículos ou condições climáticas, por exemplo. Nesse trabalho, apresentamos uma abordagem com modelos hierárquicos de população aberta, usando inferência Bayesiana e dados de captura e recaptura para estimar taxas de atropelamento e exploramos a variação na detecção e persistência das carcaças em diferentes segmentos de rodovia, períodos de amostragem e entre duas espécies: um mamífero (gambá-de-orelha-branca) e um réptil (lagarto-teiú). Procuramos pelas carcaças em um trecho de 104 km de rodovia no sul do Brasil, subdividido em três trechos, em sete campanhas amostrais com quatro dias consecutivos cada. As carcaças foram marcadas para serem reconhecidas ao longo dos dias dentro da mesma campanha, resultando em um histórico de capturas para cada carcaça. Estimamos as probabilidades de detecção e persistência das carcaças, o número de atropelamentos e taxas diárias de atropelamentos por quilômetro para cada espécie, trecho e campanha. Foram feitas 218 capturas de 94 indivíduos de gambá e 61 capturas de 41 indivíduos de teiú. Houve grande incerteza nas estimativas dos parâmetros, principalmente para o teiú, devido ao menor número de capturas, dificultando a visualização da variação da detecção e da persistência. A taxa de atropelamento que estimamos demonstrou ser o parâmetro mais confiável para avaliar e comparar atropelamentos em rodovias. O padrão estimado pelas taxas no comparativo entre as duas espécies diferiu do observado, embora tenham mais registros de gambás, as taxas de atropelamento são semelhantes entre as espécies.

Palavras-chave: detecção imperfeita; ecologia de rodovias; erros de amostragem; modelos hierárquicos, modelo de superpopulação, taxa de atropelamento

Abstract

The number of carcasses found on roads is widely used to quantify road impact on wildlife. However, only a raw count of carcasses does not represent the actual roadkill number that is essential to support mitigation effort decisions. Carcass detection and persistence are the main sources of error in roadkill estimates. Current methods used to correct carcass counts consider detection and persistence as not varying in space, time and, sometimes, among species. However, it is expected these parameters to vary. Here, we present a hierarchical approach in a Bayesian framework using an open population model and capture-recapture data to directly estimate roadkill rates and explore carcass detection and persistence variation among segments, sampling sessions and two species, a mammal (opossum) and a reptile (tegu). We surveyed carcasses on a 104 km road stretch in Southernmost Brazil splitted in three segments, during seven sampling sessions, each one with four consecutive days. Carcasses were marked and could be recaptured over the sampling days within the same sampling session, resulting in a capture history for each carcass. We estimated carcass detection and persistence probabilities, roadkill numbers and a daily roadkill rate per kilometer for species, segments, and sessions. We recorded 218 captures from 94 individuals of opossums, and 61 captures, from 41 individuals of tegus. Parameter estimates presented large uncertainty, mainly for tegus, due to the lower number of captures, thus variation in detection and persistence was not clear. The roadkill rate is the best parameter to evaluate and compare roadkill numbers. The roadkill rates diverged from the observed pattern when comparing the two species, we found a higher number of opossums carcasses, but estimated roadkill rates were similar with tegus.

Keywords: hierarchical models; imperfect detection; superpopulation model; road ecology; roadkill rates; sampling errors

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Introdução Geral

A amostragem de seres vivos por meio de contagens permeia muitas das perguntas ecológicas que buscamos responder a respeito da natureza (Kery & Schaub, 2012; MacKenzie et al., 2006; Williams et al., 2002). Esse tipo de dado é utilizado para quantificar aspectos demográficos e biogeográficos, como abundância e distribuição de espécies, e para o entendimento de questões desde dinâmica populacional, organização de comunidades, até aspectos ligados à conservação e ao manejo de espécies (ver exemplos em Kellner & Swihart, 2014). Estimativas a partir da contagem de organismos são, portanto, parte de muitos trabalhos ecológicos há bastante tempo. A amostragem por contagem de indivíduos, porém, pode não ser uma boa representação da realidade, pois são raras as situações em que o universo disponível para a amostragem representa o todo do que queremos amostrar (Anderson, 2001). Qualquer amostragem está sujeita à capacidade do método empregado em detectar indivíduos ou espécies na área amostrada, e essa capacidade também está sujeita a diversos fatores, como condições do momento da amostragem, ou características da espécie ou local amostrado, por exemplo. Mesmo que um indivíduo ou espécie esteja presente, ele pode passar despercebido e não ser detectado (Kéry & Schmidt, 2008; MacKenzie et al., 2006). A maioria das observações ecológicas são, portanto, resultantes de um processo ecológico subjacente não diretamente observado e também de um processo amostral que pode mascarar o processo ecológico (Kery & Schaub, 2012).

Os modelos hierárquicos têm se estabelecido como um método que permite modelar explicitamente o processo ecológico e o de amostragem juntos. Eles conseguem separar a variação observada nos dados que é realmente devida à variação de abundância, da que é devida à amostragem, permitindo que se possa fazer inferências confiáveis sobre o processo ecológico de interesse (Royle & Dorazio, 2006). Em um único modelo, a estrutura dos modelos hierárquicos é capaz de acomodar a heterogeneidade em múltiplos parâmetros (como a variação da probabilidade de detecção dos indivíduos ou o efeito de covariáveis na abundância) e propagar

a incerteza entre os níveis hierárquicos do modelo para cada estimativa obtida (Kery & Royle, 2016; Kery & Schaub, 2012).

O interesse em estimar um número de indivíduos de determinadas espécies em um determinado período ou local, entretanto, vai além das populações vivas. Seres humanos são responsáveis por gerar diversos impactos no planeta, dentre eles a mortalidade direta de animais por meio da implantação e operação de inúmeras infraestruturas como prédios, parques eólicos e rodovias (Hill et al., 2019). A contagem de carcaças vem sendo utilizada para estimar a magnitude dessa mortalidade, seja por envenenamentos, colisões de animais com turbinas de energia eólica, com construções humanas ou com veículos em estradas e ferrovias, por exemplo (Dornas et al., 2019; Fleischli et al., 2004; Gonçalves et al., 2018; Machtans et al., 2013; Péron et al., 2013). Quantificar de maneira acurada esse impacto é necessário para entender como ele pode afetar as populações e a persistência de espécies e ajudar no planejamento de medidas de mitigação e na tomada de decisões mais efetivas para a conservação das espécies (Barrientos et al., 2018; Fahrig & Rytwinski, 2009; Kéry & Schmidt, 2008).

Saber quantos indivíduos e quais espécies morrem (ou morrem mais) em determinados locais, ou períodos, em uma rodovia é essencial para tentar evitar ou reduzir as colisões de veículos com animais. Apenas a contagem de carcaças nas rodovias, sem considerar os erros relacionados à amostragem, como muitas vezes ocorre, não é o suficiente para que se possa fazer inferências ou comparações confiáveis entre rodovias ou trechos de uma rodovia, períodos ou espécies (Teixeira et al., 2013). O problema se assemelha a qualquer outro em que existe o interesse de saber o número de indivíduos de determinadas espécies que ocorrem em determinada área ou período, mas nesse caso, são indivíduos atropelados em rodovias.

As principais fontes de erro das amostragens com contagens de carcaças são a detecção imperfeita dos observadores e a remoção de carcaças da pista (Barrientos et al., 2018). Existem algumas abordagens propostas para corrigir esses erros e se obter estimativas mais acuradas de fatalidades. A maioria delas é baseada em modelos utilizados para estimar abundância em

populações vivas com a premissa de população fechada (sem indivíduos entrando ou saindo da população durante o tempo do estudo) e adaptados para o contexto das estimativas de fatalidades (Bernardino et al., 2013; Korner-Nievergelt et al., 2015; Péron, 2018). Entretanto, o sistema que envolve os atropelamentos de animais em rodovias se encaixa melhor dentro de um contexto de população aberta, já que durante o tempo do estudo as carcaças não são um número fixo na estrada. Novos indivíduos podem constantemente ser atropelados e entrar na população, assim como as carcaças podem ser removidas, seja por fluxo de veículos, carniceiros ou outros fatores.

Recentemente surgiram algumas propostas para estimar a abundância de carcaças em estradas e parques eólicos por meio de modelos de população aberta derivados de modelos de captura-recaptura (Guinard et al., 2012; Péron et al., 2013). Nesses modelos se faz uma analogia conceitual dos parâmetros demográficos originalmente usados em populações de animais vivas para o contexto das fatalidades ou, no caso de rodovias, atropelamentos. Onde a população de interesse é a de animais atropelados (carcaças na rodovia), a probabilidade de captura é a probabilidade de detecção das carcaças, a probabilidade de sobrevivência é a probabilidade de persistência das carcaças na rodovia e o recrutamento é a probabilidade de entrada das carcaças na população.

Na maioria das abordagens, porém, as correções relacionadas à detecção imperfeita são consideradas homogêneas no espaço e no tempo, e em alguns casos, entre as espécies também. Isso significa considerar que a capacidade de detecção pelos observadores e a persistência das carcaças é a mesma ao longo de uma rodovia e/ou do tempo, ou para diferentes espécies. Porém, é razoável pensar que exista variação nesses parâmetros. Como ocorre em outras amostragens, a probabilidade de detecção deve variar, entre outros fatores, ao longo de ambientes, entre observadores e entre dias de amostragem (Anderson, 2001; Royle & Dorazio, 2006). Pensando nas rodovias, características da pista, como o tipo de pavimentação, e do tráfego de veículos também podem gerar essa variação (Guinard et al., 2012). O mesmo vale para a persistência das carcaças, que pode ter influência da atividade de carniceiros, condições climáticas e variações

no tráfego de veículos (Beckmann & Shine, 2015; Guinard et al., 2012). Todos estes fatores podem estar sujeitos a variação espacial, temporal e entre espécies. Essa variação nos erros parece óbvia se considerarmos, por exemplo, a persistências de carcaças para espécies de tamanhos diferentes: uma espécie menor tende a ser mais facilmente removida da pista do que uma espécie maior. Alguns estudos já ressaltam a necessidade de estimar o efeito desses erros nas estimativas de fatalidades por espécies ou grupos de espécies (Teixeira et al., 2013).

Não levar em conta essa variação pode implicar numa classificação incorreta de quais estradas ou segmentos de estradas, períodos ou espécies apresentam maior número de atropelamentos. Um trecho que pelo número observado apresenta um grande acúmulo de carcaças, poderia, na verdade, ser um trecho onde as carcaças permanecem por mais tempo ou um trecho onde a capacidade dos observadores de detectarem as carcaças é maior, ou uma combinação de ambos. Essa mesma lógica pode ser aplicada para diferentes períodos ou espécies. Isso pode ter consequências na tomada de decisão em relação à localização de medidas mitigadoras e de espécies (ou grupos alvo) de mitigação, bem como na avaliação da efetividade dessas medidas ao longo do tempo (se elas realmente reduziram o número de fatalidades). Levando em consideração a heterogeneidade desses parâmetros nas estimativas de fatalidades teríamos um número de atropelamentos mais próximo à realidade e confiável para tomar decisões, por isso, nesse trabalho, queremos explorar essa heterogeneidade no espaço, no tempo e entre espécies por meio de uma abordagem hierárquica com modelos de população aberta.

Minha motivação

Talvez pareça estranho que a minha motivação não comece com dúvidas científicas ou curiosidades sobre o tema da ecologia de estradas. Mas a motivação mais clara dentro de mim está na minha infância: a Talita criança, que queria saber sobre animais, sobre ciência e que gostava de estudar. Fui a criança, às vezes estranha, que achava divertido fazer o tema de casa.

Sei que fui privilegiada por poder apenas estudar, brincar e sonhar (como todas as crianças deveriam), e ainda receber incentivo da família, de amigos, professores e até de uma vizinha bióloga, que me deu de presente uma caixa (cheia de coisas legais) para eu brincar de ser cientista.

Quando eu vi, a Talita da caixinha de cientista estava fazendo uma seleção para o mestrado sem saber muito o porquê. Parte dos porquês está justamente na caixinha e a outra, nas aulas do último semestre da graduação. Durante as aulas de Biologia da Conservação eu saia da minha zona de conforto e ficava inquieta. Sem perceber, estava de novo me divertindo com o tema de casa. Foi assim que eu descobri o Núcleo de Ecologia de Rodovias e Ferrovias (NERF) e fui apresentada a um mundo, até então, quase desconhecido para mim.

Durante os primeiros meses no NERF, um pouco perdida, fui me inteirando dos projetos e das questões que o grupo tinha interesse, principalmente, mas não só, em ecologia de rodovias. A primeira ideia de mestrado, mais próxima do que eu tinha me dedicado na graduação, não foi para a frente, principalmente pelo orçamento. Com o passar do tempo, fui conhecendo e me interessando por outras demandas dentro do NERF, e das conversas com os colegas de laboratório, surgiu a oportunidade de fazer esse trabalho. Da busca por estimativas mais acuradas e de explorar as variações nos erros relacionados às amostragens de carcaças em rodovias, junto com a minha curiosidade e vontade de ir para campo foi se desenhando o plano B da minha dissertação, que virou A, rapidamente. Espero com esse trabalho contribuir para geração de informações mais confiáveis e que possam dar suporte para decisões efetivas, principalmente no cenário de mitigação da fauna atropelada.

1 **Estimating carcass detection and persistence heterogeneity and roadkill numbers with**
2 **open population capture-recapture models*¹**

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11

12 **1. Abstract**

13 1. Carcass counting is widely used to quantify the impact of roads on wildlife. However, only
14 a simple count can poorly represent the actual roadkill number. Carcass detection and
15 persistence are the two main sources of error in roadkill estimates. Current methods used to
16 correct carcass counting consider carcass detection and persistence constant in space, time and,
17 sometimes, among species. However, it is expected for these parameters to vary in most cases.
18 Using an open population capture-recapture model we estimated roadkill rates and explored
19 variation in carcass detection and persistence for different road segments, periods, and species.

20 2. We surveyed for carcasses on a 100 km road stretch in Southern Brazil during seven

* Manuscrito formatado conforme normas editoriais da revista Journal of Applied Ecology

21 sampling sessions, each one with four consecutive survey days. We focused on a mammal
22 (opossum) and a reptile (tegu) species since they present different skin and body shape
23 characteristics that can highlight differences in carcass detection and persistence. Individuals
24 were marked and could be recaptured over the survey days within the same sampling session,
25 resulting in a capture history for each individual.

26 3. We estimated carcass detection and persistence probabilities using a hierarchical open-
27 population model using Bayesian inference. We also estimated roadkill numbers and a daily
28 roadkill rate per kilometer.

29 4. We recorded 218 captures, from 94 individuals of opossums, and 61 captures, from 41
30 individuals of tegus. Parameter estimates presented large uncertainty, mainly for tegus, due to
31 the lower number of captures, thus variation in detection and persistence was not clear. The
32 roadkill rate is the best parameter to evaluate and compare roadkill numbers. The roadkill rates
33 diverged from the observed pattern when comparing the two species, opossums presented a
34 higher number of carcasses found, but estimated roadkill rates were similar with tegus,
35 indicating possible implications on identification of mitigation priorities.

36 5. *Synthesis and applications*. Spatial, temporal, and inter-species variation in carcass detection
37 and persistence should be considered to obtain accurate roadkill estimates and make
38 comparisons. The approach presented here, mainly through the roadkill rates, can be used to
39 make reliable prioritization of mitigation efforts.

40 **Keywords**

41 hierarchical models; imperfect detection; superpopulation model; road ecology; roadkill rates;
42 sampling errors

43 2. Introduction

44 Animal-vehicle collisions on roads and railways are a major impact of human
45 infrastructures on wildlife (Beckmann & Shine, 2015; Forman & Alexander, 1998).
46 Quantifying this impact is necessary to understand how it can affect animal populations and
47 how to minimize its negative effects. Roadkill estimates are used to compare different road
48 network segments, periods or species, enabling impact assessment after road pavement or
49 widening, and to plan and assess mitigation effectiveness (Borda-de-Água et al., 2014; Guinard
50 et al., 2012).

51 Carcass surveys on roads are widely used to estimate roadkill numbers, however, the
52 raw count of carcasses may poorly represent the actual number of killed animals. As in most
53 sampling methods, data from carcass counting has false-negative errors due to imperfect
54 detection. False-negatives in carcass counts can be due to: (1) detection probability - not all
55 available carcasses during survey occasions will be seen by the observers; (2) persistence
56 probability - some carcasses are removed from the road before the survey occur and therefore,
57 are not counted; and (3) some carcasses may fall outside the searched road area (Guinard et al.,
58 2012). Not taking these errors into account may bias the estimates and compromise their utility
59 (Guinard et al., 2015; Teixeira et al., 2013).

60 There are different approaches to address the two first sources of bias (detection and
61 persistence) and to correct animal fatalities counts based on carcass surveys, each one adapted
62 for different data and sampling circumstances (Bernardino et al., 2013; Korner-Nievergelt et
63 al., 2015). Most of them are based on the Lincoln-Petersen (LP) estimator, widely used to
64 estimate the population size of living animal populations (Williams et al., 2002) and adapted
65 to the context of carcass abundance estimates (Péron, 2018). Basically, to estimate abundance
66 (N), the LP estimator considers the ratio of the number of individuals detected (n) to the overall
67 detection probability (p^*): $E(N) = n/p^*$. In a capture-recapture framework, p^* is the proportion

68 of marked individuals (from a first sampling) that are recaptured in subsequent occasions
69 (Williams et al., 2002). For carcass abundance estimates, p^* is usually estimated from
70 experiments designed to measure the proportion of carcasses detected by the observers (from
71 a known set) and the carcass persistence probability by following the carcasses fate through
72 time, then both are used to obtain the overall detection probability (Dornas et al., 2019;
73 Gonçalves et al., 2018).

74 Although the LP based estimators aim to obtain a more accurate number of animal
75 fatalities than just the raw counts, some limitations have been highlighted (Péron, 2018).
76 Possibly the major limitation is that the LP based estimators assume a closed-population
77 context (no individuals leaving or entering the population). Recently, there have been some
78 proposals for a shift in the approach for modeling “carcass populations” using open population
79 capture-recapture models and process-based modelling (i.e. based on explicit assumptions
80 about how the ecological system of interest works to estimate the parameters; Cuddington et
81 al., 2013), these approaches represent better the roadkill context, which new carcasses are
82 continuously entering the road or being removed (Guinard et al., 2012; Péron et al., 2013;
83 Dalthorp et al., 2018; Simonis et al., 2018). Furthermore, as many different LP based estimators
84 are being used to obtain carcass abundance and each one is designed to specific situations, this
85 could often imply on assumption violations of the used estimator and result in biased estimates
86 (Péron, 2018).

87 The roadkill open-population models are based on the superpopulation formulation
88 (Schwarz & Arnason, 1996), used for living populations. Péron et al. (2013) proposed this
89 approach for fatalities in wind-power farms and the parameter of interest is the superpopulation
90 size, which corresponds to all individuals that passed through the population, that is, the total
91 number of carcasses that were available for detection in at least one sampling occasion. The
92 superpopulation model is modified to use a single carcass counting occasion and trial

93 experiments to estimate carcass detection and persistence probabilities (instead of capture-
94 recapture data from several sampling occasions).

95 Both the LP estimators and the current applications with the open population approach
96 commonly assume homogeneity on detection and persistence probabilities in space and time.
97 However, it is expected that they vary either along the road(s) or in different periods of the
98 year(s), as the road paving, traffic volume, weather, scavenger abundance and activity also vary
99 (Guinard et al., 2012; Korner-Nievergelt et al., 2015). Among species, this variation is also
100 expected, as carcasses can vary in size, tissue characteristics, and attractiveness to scavengers
101 (Beckmann & Shine, 2015; Colino-Rabanal et al., 2011). If the approach used to correct the
102 roadkill counts assumes that detection and persistence are homogeneous in space, time and
103 among species, it can mask roadkill temporal and spatial patterns. It is important to note that
104 some studies of bat and bird mortality estimation at wind-power farms already tried to
105 accommodate some degree of variation in these errors sources (Péron et al., 2013; Korner-
106 Nievergelt et al., 2015; Dalthorp et al., 2018; Simonis et al., 2018).

107 A general approach widely used to assess ecological variables of interest (e.g.,
108 abundance, distribution, survival) while accounting for imperfect detection and modelling
109 heterogeneities are the hierarchical models (e.g., occupancy models, capture-recapture) (Kery
110 & Royle, 2016). This approach allows us to handle carcass survey data in a hierarchical
111 manner, considering the ecological process (generally the one that the interest relies on, e.g.
112 roadkill rates) and the sampling process that masks the ecological process (Kery & Schaub,
113 2012). Hierarchical models explicitly model the data without the necessity of an external
114 experiment, they are flexible and can incorporate many different processes, mainly under a
115 Bayesian inference (Kery & Schaub, 2012). The road ecology and the assessment of roadkill
116 impact may benefit from this approach by estimating straightforward roadkill rates.

117 Here we present a process-based approach in a Bayesian framework to directly estimate
118 roadkill rates and explore how carcass detection and persistence can vary among species, space,
119 and time. To do this we used capture-recapture carcass data, collected in successive days. We
120 sampled a road splitted in three segments in different months, searching for roadkills of a
121 mammal (opossum) and a reptile (tegu) species, marking and recapturing the carcasses. We
122 expect that detection and persistence probabilities would be lower and more variable in space
123 and time for the tegu compared to the opossum, based on their body shape, size and softer
124 tissues. Although adults of both species are of similar size, tegus have a thinner body shape
125 and individuals of a larger range of ages and sizes cross roads. We also suspect that tegu's
126 softer skin and slender shape would make them more prone to removal by traffic and more
127 attractive or easier to carry by scavengers. We expect that the ranking of species, segments and
128 months with higher roadkill numbers will change if we account for carcass detection and
129 persistence variation.

130

131 **3. Materials and methods**

132

133 3.1 Open-population capture-recapture models for roadkill estimation

134

135 The modeling approach applied here is based on the superpopulation (POPAN)
136 formulation of the Jolly-Seber (JS) open-population model (Schwarz & Arnason, 1996). We
137 used a similar approach to Guinard et al. (2012) and Péron et al. (2013), but with an explicit
138 assessment of roadkill rates by marking and recapturing carcasses in successive days.

139 Open population models assume that individuals are entering and leaving the
140 population, that is, there are mortality, recruitment and/or dispersal (Pine et al., 2003). The JS
141 models were first developed due to the interest in estimating animal population abundance and

142 later in parameters such as survival and recruitment rates for open populations (Schwarz &
143 Arnason, 2017). To estimate these parameters, the model requires capture-recapture data (i.e.
144 individual encounter histories) that provide information about detection probability, the
145 disappearance of individuals from the studied population and also the arrival of new ones (Kery
146 & Schaub, 2012). Capture-recapture data is presented in a matrix containing the history of
147 encounters for each individual that was captured in at least one occasion (e.g., 0 1 0 1; this
148 individual was not seen in the first occasion, seen in the second, not seen in the third, and seen
149 again in the last one). For this, captured individuals need to be individually recognized in
150 successive occasions by tagging or using individual natural marks. Then, the capture histories
151 can be used to estimate three basic parameters: entry, survival, and detection probabilities. In
152 the superpopulation parametrization of JS model, individuals of the population are assumed to
153 come from the superpopulation, which corresponds to all individuals that were available for
154 detection in the sampled population at some time during the study period (between first and
155 last occasions).

156 The JS models have been used for many years in population ecology to address similar
157 issues that we explore in road ecology (Péron, 2018). Here, we made a conceptual analogy of
158 the original demographic parameters estimated for living populations to the roadkill/carcass
159 context, as in Guinard et al. (2012) and Péron et al. (2013). Superpopulation size is recognized
160 as carcass superpopulation size, which corresponds to all carcasses that were available for
161 detection on the road on any occasion during the sampling period. Capture probability becomes
162 carcass detection probability, the probability of a carcass available on the road during a survey
163 to be detected. Survival probability is interpreted as carcass persistence probability, the
164 probability that a carcass present on the road in occasion t persists until occasion $t + 1$. Entry
165 probability (or recruitment) as carcass entry probability, the probability of a carcass from the
166 superpopulation to enter in the population (in this case, the roadkill population) immediately

167 before occasion t . The model provides as many carcass entry probability estimates as sampling
168 occasions, the first one has no biological meaning (Kery & Schaub, 2012), since it does not
169 correspond to a known time interval.

170 In order to estimate the parameters of interest, this model has some important
171 assumptions, most of them similar to other models that use capture-recapture data (Schwarz &
172 Arnason, 2017; Seber, 1982): (1) carcass do not lose their identification while the study occurs;
173 (2) the identification is read correctly; (3) sampling is instantaneous, i.e. sample periods have
174 a short duration; (4) the study area is constant; (5) both marked and unmarked individuals have
175 the same catchability (i.e. detection probability) at each sampling occasion; (6) both marked
176 and unmarked individuals have the same survival probability (i.e. carcass persistence) between
177 each pair of sampling occasions.

178

179 3.2 Studied species

180

181 We evaluated the proposed open-population approach for capture-recapture carcass
182 data using the mammal species *Didelphis albiventris* (White-eared Opossum) and the lizard
183 *Salvator merianae* (Black-and-white Tegu). Both are common species showing high roadkill
184 records in Brazil (Grilo et al., 2018). As they have different life histories and ecological and
185 morphological traits, they can highlight possible variations in detection and carcass persistence.
186 The opossum can reach around 400 mm of main body length and has a mean body weight of
187 1.786 g for adults (Cáceres & Monteiro-Filho, 1999), while the tegu can reach 500 mm of
188 snout-vent length (length without the tail; Winck, Blanco, & Cechin, 2011) and has a mean
189 body weight of 2.800 g (Vieira, 2016). Although the species have similar body sizes, the thinner
190 body shape of the tegus, their tegument and tissues characteristics and the more variable size
191 of active individuals (including very small ones with 160 mm of snout-vent length) may

192 influence in lower persistence probabilities when compared to the opossums. The variable size
193 of individuals may also result in lower detection probabilities. The opossum has nocturnal and
194 crepuscular behavior, with concentrated activity in the first hours of the night (Oliveira-Santos
195 et al., 2008), while the tegu has its activity highly related to the temperature and the sunlight,
196 with preference to the hours slightly before noon (Winck et al., 2011). As the removal rates in
197 highways are grater during the day (Ratton et al., 2014), the tegus may be a fresher and more
198 attractive meal being roadkill during day and present lower persistence probabilities. Tegus
199 overwinter in their shelters and present a clear seasonal pattern of activity (Vieira, 2016).
200 Different ratios of activity for males, females and juveniles are observed in warmer months,
201 but in general, the peak of activity is between November and December and individuals are
202 seen active up to April in southern Brazil (Vieira, 2016; Winck et al., 2011) which also may
203 represent more variability in the tegu detection and persistence probabilities since opossums
204 do not present such a variation.

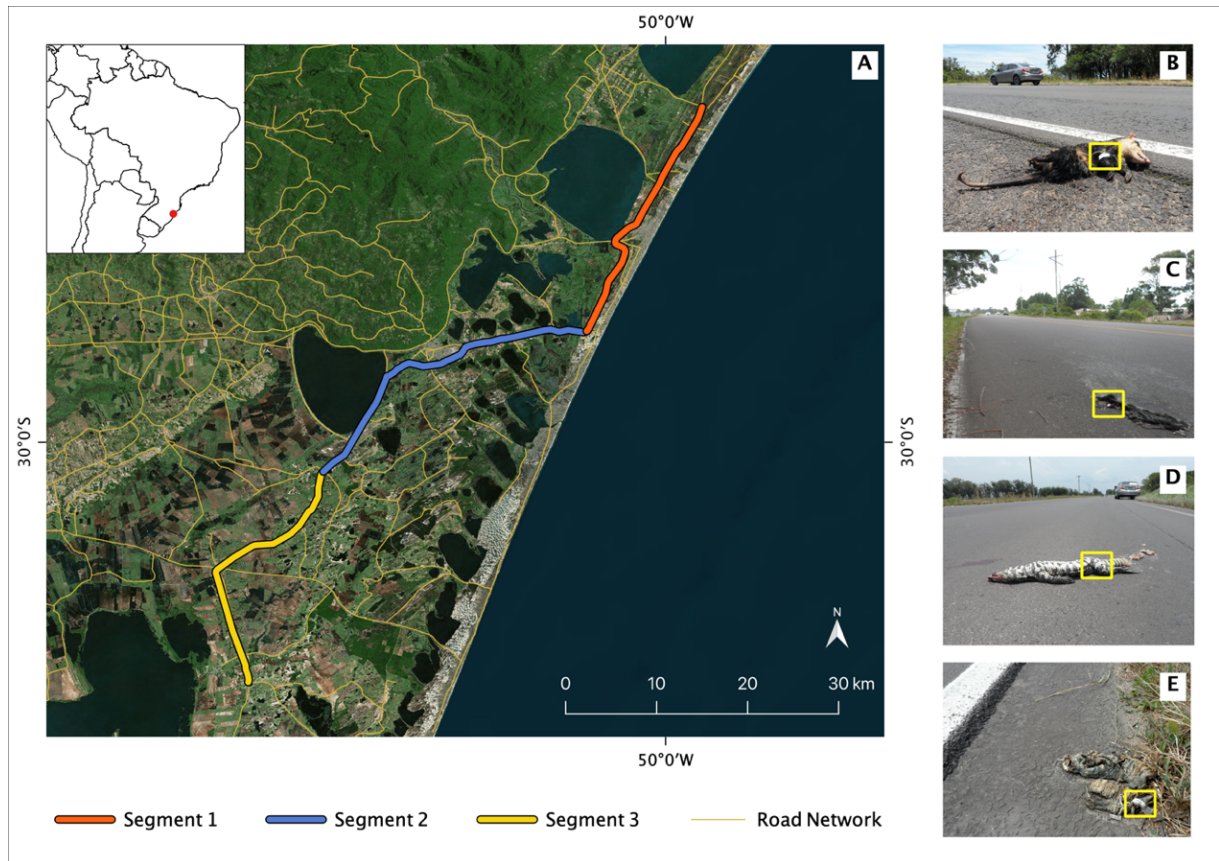
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206 3.3 Study area and data collection

207

208 We conducted our roadkill surveys in southern Brazilian coast in two continuous roads:
209 BR-101 and ERS-389. Both are two-lane roads with a speed limit at 80 km/h. Our chosen
210 stretch has 104 km of extension and presents some variation in the traffic volume and in the
211 surrounding landscape. Traffic volume can influence both in carcass detection and persistence,
212 as vehicles movement can accelerate carcasses fragmentation and removal and difficult
213 observers' visibility of the road or interfere in scavengers' activity. Landscape can also be
214 related to scavenger presence and activity, urban areas may have less abundance of them, for
215 example. Based on these general attributes the road was subdivided into three segments of
216 approximately 35 km each, segment 1 is entirely located in the ERS-389 and segment 3 in the

217 BR-101, segment 2 is in the transition between the two roads (Figure 1.A). Segments 1 is
218 surrounded by more urban areas and presents the highest traffic volume among segments,
219 followed by segment 2 and 3, respectively (the data from traffic volume was retrieved from
220 DAER/RS (2020).



221
222 Figure 1. Study area localization with the three sampled road segments (A). Captured and marked individuals of
223 *Didelphis albiventris*, a more recently roadkill in (B) and an older one (C). The same for *Salvator merianae* in (D
224 and E). After the pictures, the marks were hidden as much as possible (turned around and faced to the road side).

225 We surveyed the roads and shoulders looking for carcasses monthly, in a total of seven
226 sampling sessions each one with four occasions, from October 2018 to April 2019, period with
227 variation in rain and sun incidence and vehicle traffic volume. This period was also chosen
228 because it corresponds to a higher activity of the studied species. These roads are the main
229 connection between large urban centers and the coast, so it is expected that traffic volume
230 increases in the summer season (from December to February).

231 The road stretch was surveyed by two observers in a car at 40 to 45 km/h, each observer
232 surveyed one lane to make sure all the road was covered. The stretch was surveyed four
233 successive days with interspersed directions (north-south/south-north) to make it difficult to
234 remember carcass locations. Each day corresponds to a sampling occasion hereafter. Location
235 of found carcasses were recorded (handheld GPS coordinates), and carcasses were marked with
236 a tag and identification number (Figure 1. B-E). Therefore, through the occasions within the
237 same sampling session, the carcasses could be classified as a new capture (first record) or a
238 recapture, resulting in a capture history for each individual of both species.

239 We built species-specific capture history matrices, with individuals in the rows and
240 sampling occasions in the columns. The number of rows was variable, depending on the
241 number of individuals captured for each species, segment or session. The number of columns
242 was always four, according to the number of occasions we sampled. Each cell of these matrices
243 was filled with a 1 or 0 (individual captured or not on a given occasion). To analyze the
244 variation in the parameters between the two species as whole we built two capture history
245 matrices, one for each species, containing all the individuals captured in all segments and
246 sessions. For spatial variation, we built the species-specific capture history matrices for each
247 segment of the road. Each matrix contains all the individuals registered in all sessions for that
248 segment, resulting in three matrices for each species. For the temporal variation analysis, we
249 built the species-specific capture history matrices for each sampling session. Each matrix
250 includes all the individuals registered in all segments for that session, resulting in seven
251 matrices of capture histories for the opossum and six for the tegu (the tegu had no captures in
252 the last session: April).

253

254 3.4 Model fitting

255

256 We fitted the open-population model under a Bayesian framework, as suggested by
 257 Kery & Schaub (2012) for living populations, using the software JAGS (Plummer, 2003)
 258 through the package *jagsUI* (Kellner, 2019) in R (R Core Team, 2020). Detection, persistence
 259 and superpopulation were modeled as constant parameters and the entry probability was time
 260 dependent (i.e., one entry probability per occasion). We used data augmentation approach by
 261 adding all-zero capture histories of pseudo-individuals (as much individuals as necessary for
 262 estimates stabilization, most cases 101 individuals) and estimated the superpopulation size
 263 from an inclusion probability parameter (from a Bernoulli distribution) for the possible
 264 individuals of the capture history matrix (Royle et al., 2007; Russell et al., 2012). We assigned
 265 vague prior distributions for detection, persistence, inclusion (uniform distributions between 0
 266 and 1) and entry probabilities (Dirichlet distribution). From these basic parameters estimated
 267 by the model we derived the superpopulation size and the daily roadkill rate per kilometer. The
 268 superpopulation size is the sum of all included individuals (from the latent inclusion
 269 parameter). The daily roadkill rate (*RKrate*) is obtained from the carcass entry probabilities,
 270 first converting the entry probabilities to the number of individuals that entered before each
 271 occasion (B_i), then summing the number of individuals that entered after the first occasion, and
 272 dividing to the number of occasions (n) (excluding the first) and the road extension in
 273 kilometers (RL):

$$274 \quad RKrate = \sum_{i=2}^n B_i \frac{1}{(n-1)RL}$$

275
 276 For segments and species roadkill rates, as we modeled the captures from all sessions
 277 together, we also divided the roadkill rate by the number of sessions.

278 For each capture history matrix, we ran the model with 3 parallel Markov Chain Monte
 279 Carlo (MCMC) chains with 100 000 steps, throwing out the first 10 000 and keeping all





280 subsequent ones. We assessed model convergence by visually inspecting the chain plots and
 281 based on R-hat values (<1.1). From the 270 000 resultant samplings of the posterior
 282 distribution, we extracted the mean of the parameters (except for superpopulation that we
 283 extracted the median) and their credibility interval of 95%.

284

285 4. Results

286

287 We recorded 218 captures from 94 individual carcasses of the White-eared Opossum
 288 (*Didelphis albiventris*), and 61 captures from 41 individual carcasses of the Black-and-white
 289 Tegu (*Salvator merianae*). Number of individuals and captures divided by segments and
 290 sessions is in Table 1. For the whole data, 29 carcasses of opossum were captured just once,
 291 24 had two captures, 23 had three and 18 were captured in the four occasions. For the tegu, 26
 292 carcasses were captured just once, 11 had two captures, three had three and just one was
 293 captured in the four occasions.

Data arrangement		Number of individuals		Number of captures	
					
Species	-	94	41	218	61
Segment	1	28	5	70	7
	2	19	12	41	19
	3	47	24	107	35
Session	1	11	2	25	5
	2	12	10	27	16
	3	11	8	26	9
	4	11	11	19	15
	5	17	4	45	9
	6	11	6	21	7
	7	21	0	55	0

294 Table 1. Number of individuals and captures for each species separated by the total of each species, segments,
 295 and sessions.

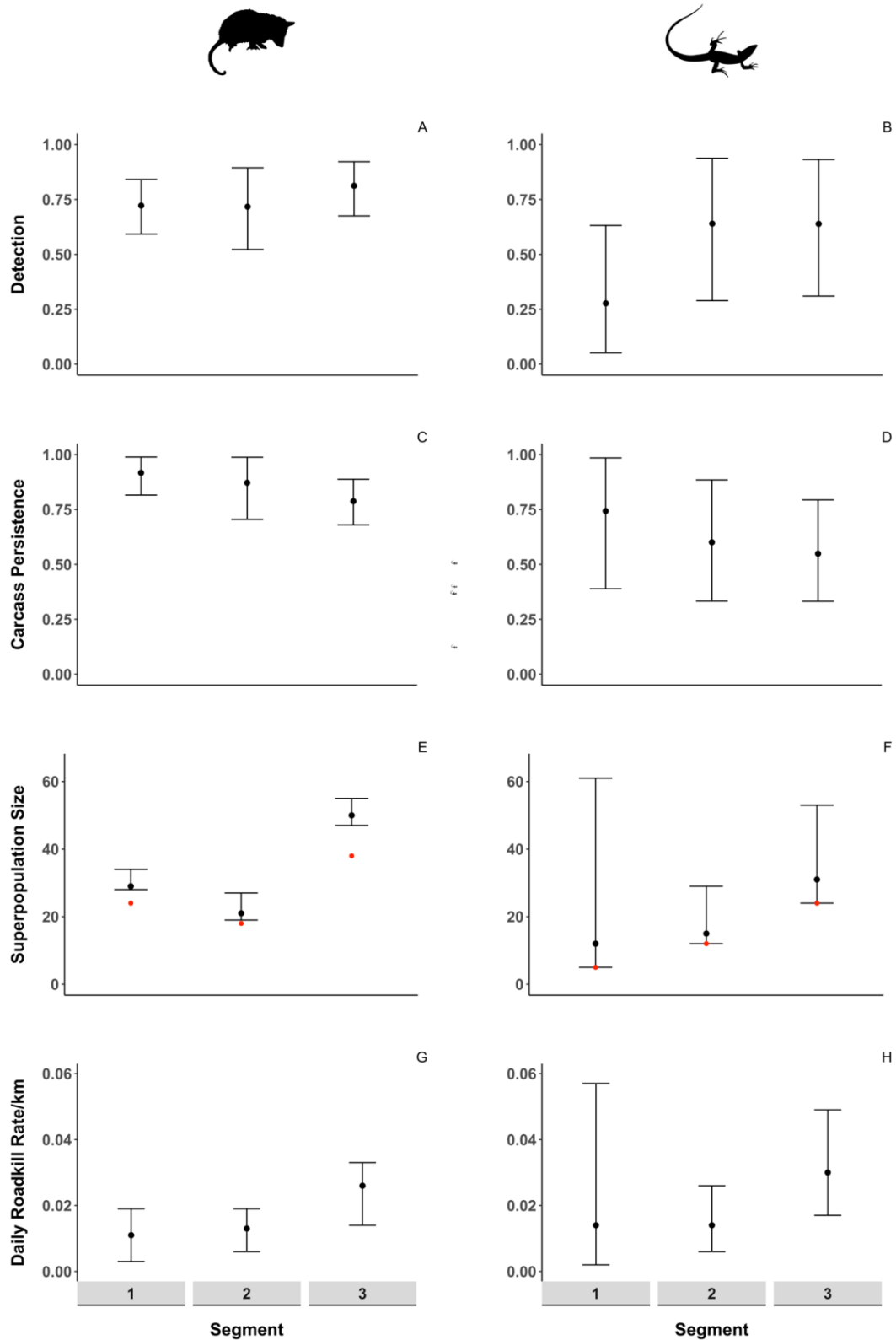
296 Overall parameter estimates presented large uncertainty in most cases, mainly for the
297 tegu (Fig. 2, 3 and 4). The exception was the superpopulation size estimates for the opossum
298 (Fig. 2E, 3E and 4C). Although the credible intervals overlap considerably, it seems that
299 carcass detection and persistence were higher and varied less for the opossum (mean values
300 between 0.56 - 0.90 for detection and 0.70 - 0.99 for persistence) than for the tegu (mean values
301 between 0.28 - 0.78 for detection and 0.54 - 0.98 for persistence) in all dimensions, the
302 difference in carcass persistence is clearer in the direct comparison between the two species
303 (Fig. 4B). The model was not able to estimate the parameters for the sessions of December and
304 March for the tegu (Fig. 3B, D, F and H).

305 Although the superpopulation size estimates for the opossum showed the same pattern
306 of segments or sessions with higher roadkill numbers than the observed number (from the raw
307 count), the differences between these segments or sections changed, making some of them
308 more similar or different in roadkill numbers. For example, in the December session the
309 number of opossum carcasses was smaller than in November, but the estimates show that these
310 two sessions had almost equal numbers of roadkills. Differences generally increased among
311 segments and decreased among sessions. The differences between the two species in the
312 observed number were also smaller in the estimates.

313 Contrasting with the perception from the observed numbers and the superpopulation
314 size, comparing opossums and tegus, the roadkill rate estimates showed that both species tend
315 to have similar roadkill numbers (Fig. 4C and D).

316

317

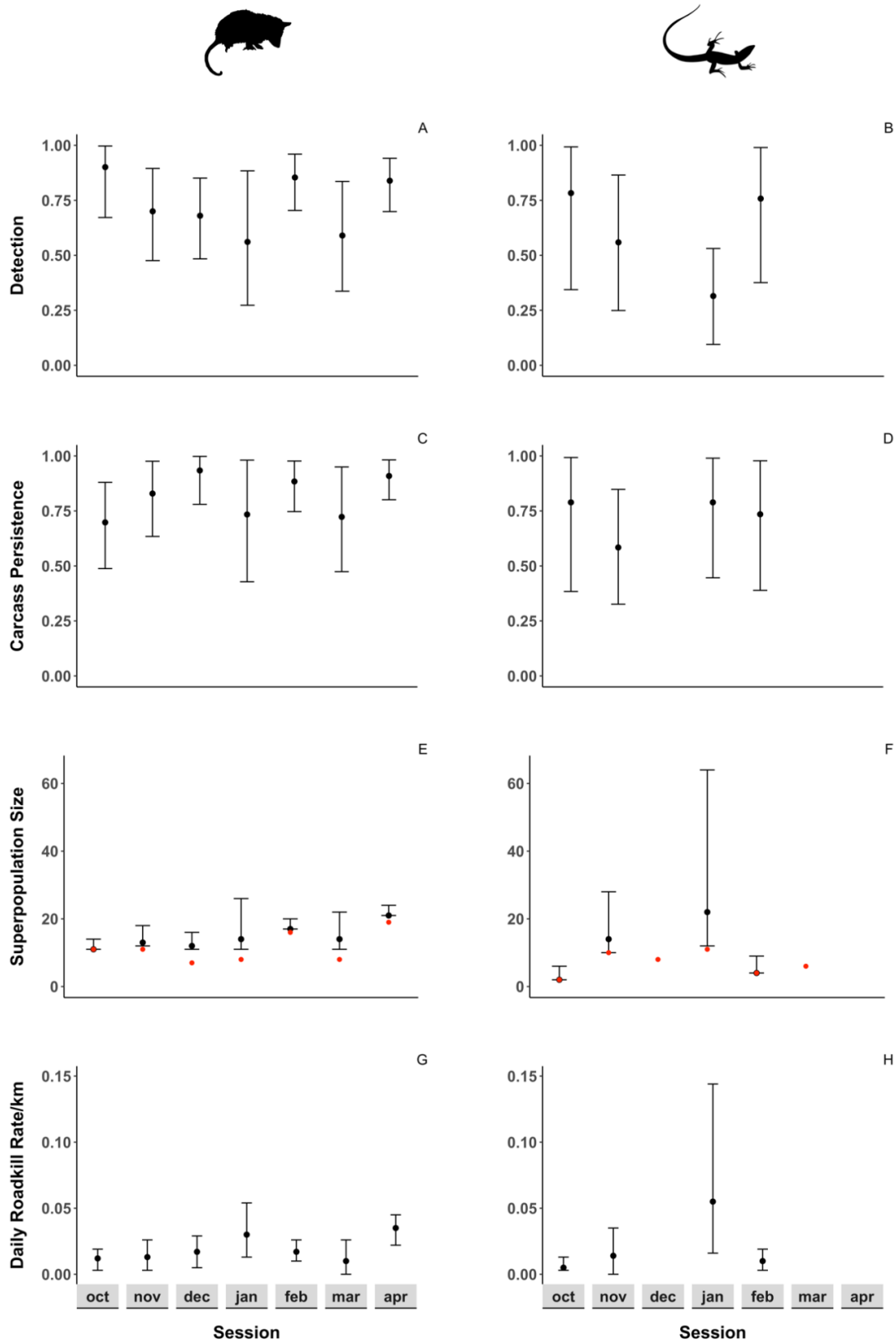


318

319 Figure 2. Spatial variation along three road segments in: Carcass detection probability (A-B); Carcass persistence
 320 probability (C-D); Superpopulation size of carcasses (E-F); Daily roadkill rate per kilometer (G-H), for a mammal

321 (*Didelphis albiventris*) and a lizard (*Salvator merianae*) in southernmost Brazil. The red points in E and F
322 represent the number of carcasses observed.

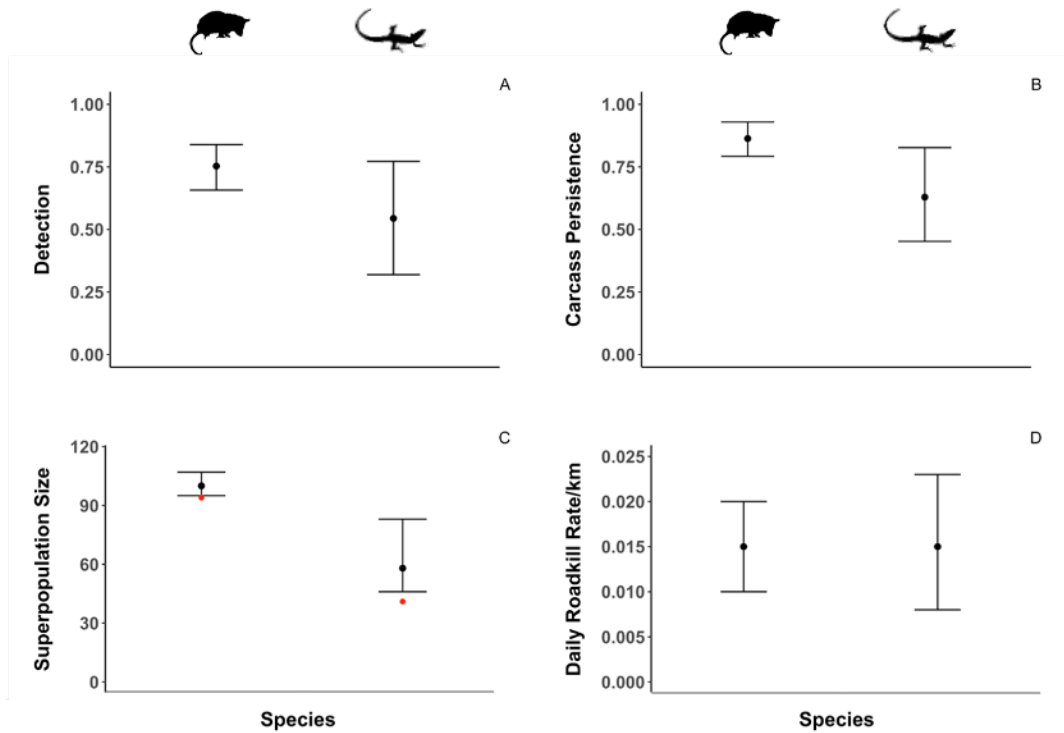
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324

325 Figure 3: Temporal variation in 7 months (sessions) in: Carcass detection probability (A-B); Carcass persistence
 326 probability (C-D); Carcass superpopulation size (E-F); Daily roadkill rate per kilometer (G-H), for a mammal
 327 (*Didelphis albiventris*; left) and a lizard (*Salvator merianae*; right) in southernmost Brazil. The red points in E

328 and F represent the number of carcasses observed. Sessions of December and March for the tegu do not have
329 estimates due to model failure.



330
331 Figure 4. Variation according to species in: Carcass detection (A); Carcass persistence (B); Carcass abundance
332 (C); Daily roadkill rate per kilometer (D), for a mammal (*Didelphis albiventris*) and a lizard (*Salvator merianae*)
333 in Southernmost Brazil. The red points in C represent the number of carcasses observed.

334

335 5. Discussion

336

337 We used here an open population approach to explicitly model roadkill estimates while
338 addressing the two main sources of bias in roadkill surveys: observer imperfect detection and
339 carcass removal. Using this approach with a Bayesian framework, we can directly estimate
340 roadkill rates (Fig. 2G-H, 3G-H and 4D), propagating the uncertainty through the hierarchical
341 levels of the model, due to the repeated sampling occasions and the capture-recapture data that
342 is required. This estimated roadkill rate, derived from the carcass entry probabilities, should be
343 the main parameter of interest in road ecology, since it discounts the carcasses that were already
344 present on the road in the first occasion (roadkill in other previous unknown time). Therefore,

345 the roadkill rate is the best parameter to make comparisons among different situations we may
346 have interest in, especially for mitigation prioritizing efforts. Other studies using open
347 population models to estimate roadkill demonstrated more interest in carcass abundance,
348 represented by the superpopulation size (Guinard et al., 2012; Péron et al., 2013) because they
349 were not able to mark and recapture carcasses in sequential occasions and therefore, they had
350 to estimate roadkill rates indirectly in a two-step approach. The correction to discount the old
351 carcasses already in the study area as implemented in (Péron et al., 2013) is not needed in our
352 approach.

353 The framework used here is very flexible and is conceptually adequate for being used
354 in the roadkill context, however, our results presented high uncertainty and did not highlight,
355 for our context, the variation in carcass detection and persistence we expected for space, time
356 and species. Although there was no strong evidence of this variation, our results do not discard
357 it either. In the cases that the precision was acceptable (Fig. 2E, 3E and 4C), the estimated
358 roadkill numbers changed the magnitude of the differences seen between segments, sessions,
359 and species. These results could indicate the possibility of changes in the ranking of higher
360 number of roadkills in all those dimensions if variation in detection or persistence is
361 considered. If carcass detection is higher in a certain road segment than in the others, this place
362 may be misidentified as a segment with high concentration of roadkills and be prioritized in
363 mitigation efforts. The same logic is applied to carcass persistence, segments where carcasses
364 persist longer may be misidentified as segments with higher roadkill rates. The problem of
365 misidentification of sites due to differences in detection and persistence in different road
366 segments was already reported by Santos et al. (2015), suggesting this problem should be more
367 deeply investigated.

368 The high uncertainty we observed in the estimates and the impossibility of parameters
369 estimation in some cases (December and March for the White-and-Black Tegu; Fig. 3B, 3D,

370 3F and 3H) are due to the high demand of data this type of model requires, which may narrow
371 its application for carcass counting data. To deal with the sparse data problem, one possible
372 solution may be the addition of data collected from trial experiments, disposing extra known
373 carcasses on the road, preferably simultaneous with the carcass surveys. Thus, experimental
374 carcasses would be used to inflate sample sizes and inform detection and persistence
375 parameters, resulting in more precision in carcass superpopulation size and carcass entry
376 probabilities. Another possibility is to include information from experimental data under the
377 Bayesian framework including carcass detection and carcass persistence from experiments as
378 prior distributions (Lemoine, 2019). The use of covariates, such as traffic volume, weather
379 conditions or carcass characteristics in the detection, persistence and entry probabilities can
380 also reduce uncertainty. As the model uses the capture histories of the individuals to estimate
381 the parameters, more than four occasions we made here resulting in longer capture histories,
382 could also be helpful for improving parameters precision.

383 The narrower credible intervals for the opossum are resultant from the larger amount
384 of data we had for this species. Besides the higher number of individuals, 69% of the opossums
385 were recaptured, while only 36% of the tegus were. This could be a result of low detection
386 probabilities for the tegus, but it also could mean that they are being removed from the road in
387 a faster rate than the occasions interval chosen in our study (24 h) is being able to capture. The
388 24 h sampling intervals seems a more adequate choice for the opossum carcasses characteristics
389 and may be another reason for the more precise estimates for this species. The matter of an
390 adequate choice of sampling intervals according to the studied species was also highlighted by
391 Péron et al. (2013) and Santos et al. (2015), emphasizing the importance of pilot studies to infer
392 the adequate study design. Ideally the carcasses should persist for more than one sampling
393 interval in a reasonable number. In the wind farm turbines context this number should be
394 between 20 and 60% of the carcasses (Péron et al., 2013). The right balance between the

395 sampling intervals and number of occasions may be fundamental to obtain more precise
396 credible intervals. For studies evaluating more than one species, this choice is even more
397 delicate, because the intervals and the number of occasions must represent well multiple
398 organisms with different traits. In this case, the choice of the sampling intervals should be based
399 on the species that may present lower carcass persistence, and the number of occasions on the
400 one that presents higher carcass persistence (to avoid the absence of removals during the study
401 duration).

402 Another possible practical limitation of the capture-recapture models in the roadkill
403 context is exactly the fact that we need to mark the carcasses and leave them on the road for
404 being recaptured in future sampling events. In some cases this requirement may not be
405 achievable (Péron, 2018; Péron et al., 2013). Some roads, for example, for legal and driver
406 safety reasons may require that carcasses are removed from the lane, mainly for larger species
407 that represent a higher risk, besides that, carcasses on roads attract scavenger species and can
408 cause more roadkills. In this case, it is possible to estimate the detection probabilities using a
409 sampling protocol with multiple-observers (Péron et al., 2013).

410 For comparisons between species, although credible intervals are still overlapping,
411 except for the superpopulation size, it seems that carcass persistence tends to be lower for the
412 tegu (Fig. 4C). As explored before, the two organisms compared here have very different
413 morphological and ecological traits that may determine this trend. Besides the higher size
414 variation of tegu individuals crossing roads, which may influence in both carcass detection and
415 persistence, the tegu skin seems to be more easily decomposed than the fur and skin of the
416 opossum. Studies with other reptile species also found lower carcass persistence for this group
417 (Antworth et al., 2005). The small size of the carcasses (in our study, mostly tegus) may have
418 important influence in carcass persistence, either because small carcasses are easier to be
419 carried by scavengers or to be removed by vehicles (Cabrera-Casas & Salinas, 2020). If

420 differences in detection and persistence among species are not considered, we can misidentify
421 the ranking of species with higher roadkill and misallocate mitigation efforts, which can have
422 implication on species conservation. The experiments to estimate carcass detection and
423 persistence in the roadkill studies have to use external carcasses collected in previous time to
424 obtain the estimates (e.g. Gonçalves et al., 2018 and Winton, Taylor, Bishop, & Larsen, 2018).
425 Although there is usually a concern about the set of carcasses used in the experiment, these
426 carcasses are not necessarily representing all the species being evaluated and that can also be
427 a source of bias (the detection and persistence probabilities to all species will be estimated from
428 a set of carcasses). Variants of the model we used, such as a multi-species model could be
429 applied to address this problem.

430 Carcasses can also vary in detection and persistence probabilities through time as they
431 suffer from decomposition and fragmentation effects. This variation in carcass detection and
432 persistence through different carcass states could also be a source of bias (for detection
433 variation) and imprecision (for persistence variation) in roadkill estimates. In our case, we
434 considered the state of the carcasses constant during the four occasions, but this heterogeneity
435 can be accommodated in multi-state models, as proposed by Péron et al. (2013).

436 Here, we did not find a clear variation, as we expected, in our parameters, but it seems
437 reasonable that carcass detection and persistence vary according to segments, time and mainly,
438 species. The only way to know and account for this variation, if it exists, is by estimating it.
439 Although the approach applied here is more “data hungry”, the lower precision is expected and
440 might be more reliable since in the hierarchical modelling framework the uncertainty is
441 accommodated and propagated through the hierarchical levels. Alternative sampling methods
442 that could provide more data with less field effort, such as automated samplings (Sousa Guedes
443 et al., 2019) could also be a future solution. The assumed homogeneity in carcass detection and
444 persistence probabilities, generally adopted in roadkill estimates, may have important

445 limitations in decision-making of where, when and for which species to prioritize mitigation
446 efforts. These limitations highlight the importance to account for this heterogeneity, or at least
447 investigate it more, to obtain more accurate roadkill estimates and therefore, be able to make
448 better decisions.

449

450 **Authors contributions**

451 TMR, IVB and AK conceived the ideas and designed methodology; TMR collected the data;
452 TMR and IVB analyzed the data; TMR, IVB and AK contributed for the writing of the
453 manuscript and gave final approval for publication.

454

455 **Acknowledgments**

456 We thank to the Brazilian National Council for Scientific and Technological Development
457 (CNPq) for the for the financial support to TMR and the Graduated Program in Ecology from
458 UFRGS for partially fund the field trips. We thank Larissa Bailey for seminal discussions about
459 the study approach. We also thank all the field assistants.

460

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Considerações finais

O objetivo dessa dissertação foi explorar a variação dos dois principais erros relacionados às amostragens de carcaças em rodovias (detecção e persistência das carcaças) e contribuir para uma mudança conceitual na abordagem geral das estimativas de fatalidades de fauna em rodovias e outras infraestruturas antrópicas. Não foi possível observar claramente essa variação entre os diferentes segmentos da rodovia, períodos do ano e espécies, devido à grande incerteza nas nossas estimativas. Apesar disso, é bastante razoável esperar que essa variação ocorra e os nossos resultados demonstram que ela deve ser mais investigada, já que pode ter implicações importantes no planejamento de medidas mitigadoras. A abordagem utilizada aqui, com a aplicação de modelagem hierárquica dentro de uma perspectiva Bayesiana, oferece bastante flexibilidade, permite estimar as incertezas de todas as estimativas e uma taxa de atropelamento confiável. Essa taxa se mostra um parâmetro importante, pois permite sabermos um número de atropelamentos mais próximo do real dentro de um período de tempo conhecido, facilitando comparações entre diferentes locais, períodos e espécies. Como perspectivas futuras estão o desenvolvimento de abordagens amostrais que permitam gerar maiores volumes de dados, para que as estimativas sejam mais precisas e acomodar essa variação nos erros para diferentes segmentos, períodos e espécies juntos, em um único modelo. Espero que essa dissertação contribua na busca de estimativas mais acuradas de atropelamentos de fauna em rodovias, facilitando a compreensão dos impactos dessas infraestruturas e de como podemos mitigá-los.

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