Population density and habitat loss of chestnut-headed partridge in southwest Cambodia

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Keywords:	Cardamom Mountain, <i>Arborophila cambodiana</i> , population density, habitat loss, distribution range



Population density and habitat loss of chestnut headed partridge in southwest Cambodia

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- 16 Abstract
- 17 In Southeast Asia, wildlife extinction risk has increased in recent decades, primarily due
- 18 to habitat loss and over-exploitation. Consequently, it is predicted that 32% of bird

1 species in the region will be extinct by the end of this century. However, this estimate 2 could be even higher, as a result of other poorly understood threats, such as the impact 3 of climate change and invasive species. One at risk species is the chestnut-headed 4 partridge Arborophila cambodiana, which is near-endemic to southwest Cambodia's 5 Cardamom Mountain range. We estimate the population densities of A. cambodiana in 6 their remaining habitats, their current distribution range and broad-scale habitat changes 7 from 1996 to 2016. We used line transects and camera traps to survey A. cambodiana in 8 four protected areas in the Cardamom Mountains. A. cambodiana was mostly detected 9 in evergreen forest at altitudes above 400 m and less in semi-evergreen forest. The 10 presence of A. cambodiana was positively associated with elevation and slope. Over the 11 past 20 years (1996-2016) the potential habitat of A. cambodiana was degraded by 12 approximately 12% and the total evergreen forest cover in the Cardamom Mountain 13 range has decreased by 20%. A. cambodiana has a very restricted range within which 14 the habitat has been fragmented. Compounded by human disturbance and development 15 activities that negatively affect the species, we suggest a revision of its status to 16 'Vulnerable' under IUCN Red List criteria A2abc; B1b (iii) c (i); C1 criteria.

17 Keywords:

18 Cardamom Mountain, Arborophila cambodiana, population density, habitat loss,

19 distribution range.

20 Introduction

1 Recent global human population growth has resulted in the largest impacts on 2 biodiversity ever recorded, mostly as a result of conversion of natural forest to 3 agricultural land (Corlett, 2014). Over the past four decades, global biodiversity has 4 decreased at an alarming rate, with the main declines occurring primarily in tropical 5 areas, where most threatened vertebrates are found (Butchart et al., 2010; Hoffmann et 6 al., 2010). In Southeast Asia, extinction risk has increased markedly due to 7 anthropogenic activities (Hoffmann et al., 2010; Duckworth et al., 2012), such as overexploitation and deforestation, the rate of which are among the highest in the 8 9 tropics (Heino et al., 2015) and are still increasing (Miettinen et al., 2011). A recent 10 prediction estimated that nearly 50% of the region's mammal populations and 32% of bird populations will be extinct by the end of this century. At least half of these could 11 12 represent global extinctions, and the number could be even higher due to other threats 13 such as climate change and invasive species (Brook et al., 2003). Within the region, 14 Cambodia had the highest deforestation rate for 2013 (Hansen et al., 2013; Corlett, 15 2014) as a result of its Economic Land Concession (ELCs) development and road 16 system expansion with consequent increases in hunting and logging (Clements et al., 17 2014).

Mainland Southeast Asia mostly lies within the Indo-Burma Biodiversity Hotspot (Myers *et al.*, 2000) and supports 72 galliform species (World Pheasant Association, 20 2017) mostly comprising three genera: *Lophura*, *Arborophila* and *Polyplectron*.

1 Galliformes show a globally high extinction risk with 25% of the 308 species in the 2 IUCN Red List, compared to 13% for all bird species (BirdLife International, 2016), 3 while for Southeast Asia this rises to 27% of galliform species threatened with 4 extinction. As for most biodiversity in the region, the major threats are habitat loss and 5 fragmentation and hunting. Unfortunately, the ecology and conservation status of most 6 galliform species within the region is poorly known (Grainger et al., 2018) and for 7 some genera, such as Arborophila, almost no quantitative data are available, with the 8 exclusion of few case studies (Vy et al., 2017).

9 The chestnut-headed partridge, Arborophila cambodiana, is restricted to the Cardamom 10 Mountains in southwest Cambodia with a small population also found in southeast 11 Thailand (Eames *et al.*, 2002). Initially described from what is now Bokor National Park 12 in 1928 (Delacour, 1929) and thought to be a common resident of the mid elevation 13 (400-1400m) semi-evergreen and evergreen hill forests (Goes & Furey, 2013), the 14 species is little known and limited information has been collected and reported over the 15 last 60 years, in part due to civil war in the area from 1967 to 1998 (Poole, 1999). This 16 paucity of information prompted A. cambodiana to be defined as Endangered in 2002 17 (BirdLife International, 2016). However as more information slowly trickled in, 18 primarily consisting of anecdotal observations by bird watchers, the species was 19 downgraded to Vulnerable in 2004 and to Least Concern in 2009, mainly based on the 20 estimated available habitat (BirdLife International, 2016) and survey reports (Samnang

1 et al., 2009). However, these assessments may not now reflect the true situation. Large 2 areas of the Cardamom Mountains have been zoned as economic land concessions, 3 which either have or are likely to be cleared for agro-industrial plantations. Areas of 4 both Bokor National Park and Kirirom National Park are threatened with poorly 5 controlled tourism development, whilst agricultural development (pepper farming) is 6 increasing in Phnom Samkos Wildlife Sanctuary and Botum Sakor National Park. This resulted in 2146 km² (10% of the total area) of the Cardamom Mountain range being 7 8 converted to agriculture through ELCs (Open Development Cambodia, 2014). In 9 addition, in 2007 hunting was believed to be the major threat, followed by land conversion (Samnang et al., 2009). 10

In order to assess the conservation status of *A. cambodiana* within its restricted and diminishing range, and to address the lack of detailed information on the species, We aim to: 1) estimate the current distribution and population density of *A. cambodiana* in the Cardamom Mountain range; 2) assess habitat change over the past 20 years; and 3) provide an updated recommendation for the specie's conservation status based on revised habitat availability and density information.

17 Methods

18 Study sites

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1 We surveyed A. cambodiana at four sites in Cambodia's Cardamom Mountains range: 2 Bokor National Park, Central Cardamom National Park, Phnom Samkos Wildlife 3 Sanctuary and Southern Cardamom National Park (Figure.1). The Cardamom Mountains cover approximately 23,000 km² and range in elevation from 0 to 1,800 m 4 (Stuart & Emmett, 2006). The Cardamom are covered with tropical evergreen and semi-5 6 evergreen forests (Eames et al., 2002) and are subject to a tropical monsoonal climate 7 with a wet season from May to October (2000 to 5000 mm total rainfall) and a dry 8 season from November to March (2,000 to 3,000 mm). Average temperatures range from 25-30° C, but can drop below 15° C at higher elevations (Daltry & Momberg, 9 10 2000).

11 Bokor National Park (BKNP $10^{0}47^{\circ}$ N $104^{0}01^{\circ}$ E) is situated in the Elephant 12 Mountains, a southern offshoot of the Cardamom Mountains, covering an area of 13 1,418 km² with an elevation range from 30 - 1,079 m. The park is dominated by a large 14 massif with an extensive plateau at around 1,000 m. It mostly supports large and intact 15 areas of evergreen forest, with wet evergreen forests found mostly in the south, and 16 deciduous and semi-evergreen forests in the north.

17 The *Central Cardamom National Park* (CCNP, 11°59' N 103°29' E) covers an area of 4,015 km² and is characterized by large rivers and expanses of lowland evergreen 19 forests on the rolling foothills with an elevation ranging from 300 to 1,300m. Unlike the

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other sites in the Cardamom Mountains range, this area is derived from Mesozoic

2 sandstones. Phnom Samkos Wildlife Sanctuary (PSWS, 10°29' N 102°57' E) covers 3,302 km² and 3 is named after Samkos Mountain, which is Cambodia's second highest peak (1,717 m). 4 5 The vegetation consists of lowland evergreen forest, medium altitude evergreen forest, semi-deciduous forest, dry deciduous forest, lowland and medium altitude forests on 6 7 limestone, pine forests and montane grasslands. PKWS ranges in elevation from 300 -8 1,700 m. Southern Cardamom National Park (SCNP, 11°48' N 103°06' E) covers 4,114 km² with 9 an elevation range from 10 - 980 m. The vegetation is similar to the CCNP and 10 11 constitutes one of the region's largest continuous areas of rainforest. It is ecologically

important as it provides the main corridor for Cambodia's largest remaining population 13 of Asian elephant (Elephas maximus), allowing them to move through the landscape,

14 including into Thailand.

15 **Density estimates**

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17 Bird densities were estimated using line transects in three different protected areas 18 (BKNP, CCNP and PKWS). A total of 30 transects were established, 10 in each 19 protected area, along existing human and animal trails when those were approximately 20 straight. If trails were unsuitable, not straight, or not available, straight lines were cut

1 through the forest, avoiding areas with land mines. In each protected area we 2 established five study locations, each comprising two line transects spaced 300 m apart 3 (Figure 1). Transect length varied from <1 km, where they were cut through the forest, 4 to >4 km when existing human and animal trails were found. Line transects were 5 surveyed from 28 January 2015 to 25 December 2015 and 09 January 2016 to 28 March 6 2016 which corresponded with the A. cambodiana breeding season (both nesting and 7 mating) last three months (April-June) when detections are higher (Goes & Furey, 8 2013).

9 Each transect was walked by two different observers simultaneously four times a day 10 (morning: 0600-0900 and 0900-1130 and afternoon 1400-1630 and 1630-1800) for 11 three consecutive days, except during periods of heavy rain. The point at which a calling 12 A. cambodiana was heard along a transect was recorded by GPS (Garmin 62SC), as 13 well as time, the estimated distance from observers and direction from observer, using a 14 compass bearing. These data were used to define the perpendicular distance of birds to 15 the transect line using ArcGIS. To avoid double counting we assumed that if multiple 16 birds were heard calling within three minutes of one another, within a bearing range of 17 10 degrees and within a radial distance of <100 m they were a single calling group. We 18 excluded eight line transects that had no detection from analysis, where six were at an 19 elevation of below 400 m (four located in BKNP and two at CCNP) and two line 20 transects in high elevation pine forests at CCNP.

1 We used distance sampling protocols to estimate A. cambodiana density (Buckland et 2 al., 2001; Buckland et al., 2008). Only calling male birds recorded from line transects 3 were used to calculate density. Sighting-only detections were excluded from the 4 analysis because only two groups of A. cambodiana were sighted during the survey period. Distance 7.1 (Thomas et al., 2010) was used to estimate A. cambodiana 5 6 detection probability and density. Key functions uniform, half-normal, and hazard with 7 cosine adjustments were used to run the analysis. The model fitness was selected using 8 a combination of visual assessment of the distribution curve, goodness-of fit test, and 9 the lowest Akaike's Information Criterion (AIC) (Akaike 1973). As the number of 10 detections of A. cambodiana from each study site was small, we tested the difference 11 among detection functions of each study site by comparing the value of AIC between 12 global and stratified models. For the global model, we estimated density by pooling all 13 detections from each study site and with the stratified model, we estimated density by 14 stratifying detection function with different study site and derived density at each site 15 using the same half-normal key function. Finally, the best model selection were based 16 on the AIC value and coefficient of variance (CV) from each model (Buckland et al., 17 2001).

18 Camera trap survey and Habitat association

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Camera trap survey and matrice association

To increase the number of *A. cambodiana* detections that could be used in the habitat selection analysis, data from two camera trap surveys were included (Figure 1). The

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1 first data set consisted of a pair of cameras that were installed at 74 locations (total 2 15,080 trap-nights) from December 2013 to March 2014 by the Wildlife Conservation 3 Research Unit of Oxford University to target the common leopard (Panthera pardus) at 4 CCNP between elevations of 565 and 1,169m. The second survey consisted of a single 5 camera at 66 locations (total 8,236 trap-nights) set from December 2015 to January 6 2016 by Wildlife Alliance - Cambodia to target Indochinese tiger (*Panthera tigris*) prey 7 at SCNP between elevations of 105 to 620m. In both cases camera traps were set in a 8 systematic 2 km grid placed 20 to 50 cm above the ground. Elevation, slope and 9 distance to the nearest water source were considered as the main environmental 10 variables likely to influence A. cambodiana. Elevation and slope were extracted from the ASTER GDEM at a scale of 30 x 30 m (Global Digital Elevation Model) 11 Earth 12 from the Sensing downloaded Remote Data Analysis Center 13 (http://www.jspacesystems.or.jp/ersdac/GDEM/E/4 -.html). Distance to the nearest 14 water source (DS) was derived from the map that was made by the Ministry of 15 Environment Cambodia. All data was re-projected to the WGS1984 datum before 16 analysis.

Habitat use of *A. cambodiana* was investigated using a combination of data from camera traps and line transects. Generalized linear mixed models with binomial distribution including the null model were developed to determine the association between the selected ecological variables and the presence of *A. cambodiana*. The

1 glmmTMB (Template Model Builder) package (Bolker, 2016) was used with R version 2 3.4 (R Development Core Team, 2017) for fitting generalized linear mixed models and 3 extensions when sampling methods (camera trap and line transect) were treated as 4 random effects. Explanatory variables were elevation, slope, and distance to water 5 sources. Habitat selection models were developed using 619 km surveys from 22 6 transects and 23,296 trap-nights of 140 camera trap locations. The detection of calling 7 (from line transect) and captures (from camera trap) of birds from each survey were 8 treated as the response variable (detection or non-detection). Forest type was excluded 9 from the analysis because birds were detected by calling from the line transects in the 10 evergreen forest within only two call from semi-evergreen forest and no detection from line transect located in pine forest. A set of five binomial regression models including 11 12 the null model were developed to determine the association between the selected 13 ecological variables and the presence of A. cambodiana.

Prior to running the models, the continuous variables including elevation, slope, and distance to water sources were checked and outliers were removed; these variables were then standardised by subtracting from the mean and dividing by its standard deviation (x variable – mean of x/sd of x) (Gelman, 2008). We did not include highly correlated variables (r > 0.5) in the same model. The survey effort (number of visits multiplied by transect length and number of camera trap-nights) was treated as a fixed coefficient and set to 1 by using an "offset" (Gelman & Hill, 2006). Model selection was based on

1	comparing Akaike information criterion (AICc) values adjusted for small samples.
2	Akaike model weights (AIC-w) were calculated as the weight of evidence in favour of a
3	model among the models being compared. We assessed model accuracy using the area
4	under the receiver operating characteristic curve (Hosmer & Lemeshow, 2000; Franklin,
5	2010) by using the "Presence/Absence" package (Freeman & Moisen, 2008). We chose
6	an optimal threshold cut-off value for classification using the minimised difference
7	between the proportion of presences correctly predicted (sensitivity) and the proportion
8	of absences correctly predicted (specificity) (Franklin, 2010).
9 10	Current suitable habitat A. cambodiana habitat loss was defined as the reduction of evergreen forest above
11	400 m from 1996 to 2016. Loss was calculated using LANDSAT 5 (1996), LANDSAT
12	7 (2006) and LANDSAT 8 images from http://glovis.usgs.gov/ using supervised
13	classification (ESRI, 2011) in ArcGIS 10.1 (ESRI, Redlands, USA). The images were
14	downloaded for the Cardamom Mountain range for February 1996, 2006 and 2016
15	when there was likely to be the lowest level of cloud scatter ($<10\%$).
16	The images were defined into different colour bands (different vegetation types) based
17	on the Cambodian forest cover layer (Open Development Cambodia, 2016), then the
18	total area of evergreen forest above 400 m each year was calculated using summary

- 19 statistics in ArcGIS 10.1. The evergreen forest above 400 m was calculated for two ten
- 20 year periods (1996 to 2006 and 2006 to 2016) and compared to the whole area of

1 evergreen forest. Separate loss statistics were generated for the Cardamom Mountains as

2 a whole, as well as BKNP, CCNP and PSWS.

3 **Results**

4 **Density estimation**

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A total of 148 calling males were recorded along the 619 km of surveyed line transects 6 7 across the three study areas. The half-normal key function was the most supported 8 model with detection probability p=0.48 and calling birds were effectively detected up 9 to 97 m from the transect line (Figure 2) and the overall density estimate was 1.23 calling males/km². Study area stratification was the most supported model with 10 11 AIC=189 compared to the global one (AIC=1491). Estimated density was high in BKNP (2.65 calling males/km²), but lower in PSWS (~60% less) and in CCNP (~90% 12 less). As there was minimal overlap between 95% confidence intervals between 13 14 estimates for CCNP and BKNP it would appear that the density of the latter was higher. 15 There was likely little difference between PSWS and either of the other two sites (Table 16 1).

- 17 Habitat association
- 18 19

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Model selections were based on \triangle AIC and AIC weights. Results suggested that the

presence of A. cambodiana was positively associated with elevation and slope, whereas

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1	distance to water had no effect (Table 2). This best fitted model provided reasonable
2	discrimination between A. cambodiana presence and absence (AUC = 0.79).
3	The AUC threshold suggested the cut-off value was 0.4 based on the minimized
4	difference between sensitivity and specificity with the highest correct classification at
5	78%.
6	
7	Based on our regression model (Generalized linear mixed models), the suitable habitat
8	for A. cambodiana is currently estimated to be 2,308 km ² , about 45% of the estimated
9	total area of evergreen forest above 400 m within the Cardamom Mountain range in
10	Cambodia where 96% (2,221 km ²) of this area is located inside of the protected area
11	(Figure 3).
12	
13 14	Habitat loss
14	Based on LANDSAT 8 from 2016, evergreen forest from the lowlands to the highest
16	mountain peak in Cambodia covered 15,007 km ² (65%) of the Cardamom Mountain

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area with 2,308 km² (15%) located above 400 m at sea level, with the slope range from

11° to 43° (predicted suitable habitat). This range was reduced by 173km² (7%) between

1996 and 2006 with a further reduction of 118 km² (5%) between 2006 and 2016.

Comparing the three study areas, in 20 years, the rate of habitat loss was to be the

- 1 highest in CCNP (80%), followed by PSWS (16%) with the lowest rate in BKNP (4%)
- 2 (Figure 3 and Table 3).

3 **Discussion**

4 Bird density

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Our overall density estimates of A. cambodiana were low compared to studies of similar 6 7 partridge species. For example, density of A. davidi in southern Vietnam was estimated at 3.63/km² (Vy et al., 2017), A. chloropus (now T. chloropus (Chen et al., 2015) in 8 9 Khao Yai National Park, north-eastern Thailand was estimated to occur at a density of $\sim 18/\text{km}^2$ (Ong-in, Unpublished data) and density of A. arde on Hainan Island, China 10 11 was estimated at 6.54/km² (Gao, 1999). However, it was higher than the density of A. rufipectus estimated in Sichuan, China at 0.48/km² where the natural habitat was highly 12 fragmented and replaced by non-native conifer plantations (Dai et al., 1998). 13

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The higher density at BKNP is likely to be due to relatively little habitat change at this site over the last 20 years as only 4% was lost, compared to 80% in CCNP and 16% in PSWS. In addition, the remaining suitable habitat (evergreen forest above 400 m) at BKNP is isolated and inaccessible to humans, as it occurs on a plateau in part, surrounded by high, steep cliffs and as a result has low inside-protected area fragmentation, which is known to be more favourable for many bird species (Ewers & Didham, 2006; Chan, 2010). This is unlike the other study areas which are much more

1 accessible and as a result more fragmented. Moreover, from 2007, much of the southern 2 part of BKNP has been granted to a private company to develop ecotourism (Open 3 Development Cambodia, 2014) and as a result the area is much better protected, such 4 that the collection of NTFPs has been banned. Some aspects of ecotourism are known to 5 benefit galliformes conservation, for example bird watching in Cat Tien National Park, 6 Vietnam (Sukumal et al., 2015); bird watching; green peafowl, a species that well 7 known to birdwatchers and as a result villagers have given importance to the species, 8 which is now subject to low hunting pressure inside Cat Tien National Park. The 9 increase in tourist activity in Cat Tien National Park, with a consequent increase in 10 financial revenue for the area, might have encouraged the adjacent rural communities to 11 avoid disturbing the forest (i.e. hunting and grazing cattle in the park) as well as 12 increased the park's management effectiveness. During the survey, calling males of T. 13 chloropus were also recorded along line transects when surveying A. cambodiana showing an estimated density of approximately 15 calling males /km² in BKNP (Chhin 14 15 unpublished data) which is close to what has been recorded for the same species in the well protected Khao Yai National Park, Thailand, with about 18 calling males/km² 16 17 (Ong-in, Unpublished data). T. chloropus was also found at low density in of the two study areas (3 calling males $/km^2$ in CCNP and 6 calling males $/km^2$ in PSWS). 18

19 The lower density recorded in the CCNP is likely to be the result of fragmentation of the 20 suitable habitat, with evergreen forest interspersed with grassland and more open canopy cover (Stuart & Emmitt, 2006) which has been shown to be unsuitable habitat
for several *Arborophila* species (Dai et al., 1998; Gao, 1999; Ong-in *et al.*, 2016; Vy et
al., 2017). For instance, two line transects located in the southwest part of CCNP, at an
elevation above 900 m, had a patchy habitat of large pine trees with grass cover at
ground level in which no detections were recorded. A study of Sichuan hill-partridge (*A. rufipect*) in China found that coniferous forest was also not selected (Dai et al., 1998).

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8 Habitat use

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For this study, A. cambodiana was mainly recorded in evergreen forest at elevations 10 11 above 400 m and on steep slopes, which indicated that the terrain structure are 12 important for this species. This micro-habitat preference pattern was also found within 13 Arborophila studies such as: common hill-partridge A. torqueola (Liao et al., 2007a) 14 and Sichuan hill-partridge A. rufipectus (Dai et al., 1998; Liao et al., 2007b) in China 15 and orange-necked partridge A. davidi (Vy et al., 2017) in southern Vietnam. Moreover, 16 based on the habitat use model we predicted that density of A. cambodiana should be 17 highest in the CCNP, followed by PSWS and lowest in BKNP (Figure 2, D). However, 18 our survey data showed the opposite (Table1). This contradictory finding is most likely 19 the result of human disturbance (Hiller et al., 2004; Rimbach et al., 2013). Based on our 20 observations, logging from small (targeted valuable timber) to large-scale (land 21 clearance for agricultural purpose) was observed almost everywhere within CCNP, with

1 extensive evidence of numerous paths criss-crossing the area to export timber from the 2 CCNP through Phnom Aural Wildlife Sanctuary. In addition there were numerous 3 ELCs and there was less government patrolling in the area. Logging is known to 4 increase opportunistic hunting that targets small terrestrial animals including 5 galliformes (Samnang et al., 2009; Poulsen et al., 2011; Rimbach et al., 2013). 6 Arborophila species avoiding human disturbance areas were also observed within 7 several studies (Nijman, 2003; Liao et al., 2007a; Liao et al., 2007b; Vy et al., 2017). In 8 addition, the low density estimation of A. cambodiana may also result from the presence 9 of other species such as T. chloropus which also occurs in area. The effect of potential 10 competitor presence in the same area was also predicted for A. davidi in Vietnam (Vy et al., 2017). A. davidi in South Vietnam was found in low densities in the presence of T. 11 12 chloropus. A. cambodiana did not extend through much of the Southern Cardamom 13 National Park south to the Gulf of Thailand, where the topography is mostly flat with 14 the altitude below 1000 m, and thus less suitable for the species. Human disturbance 15 such as logging, hunting and land clearance may also be the cause of low density 16 estimation of both A. cambodiana and T. chloropus (Samnang et al., 2009; Sodhi et al., 17 2010).

18 Habitat Loss

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Our results suggested that over the past 20 years (1996-2016) the evergreen forest of the
Cardamom Mountains ranging from low levels to the highest peak have decreased by

1 20% (3.551 km²) including a 12% reduction in suitable habitat for A. cambodiana. This is equal on average to a rate of about 100 km² in every 10 years. The biggest loss 2 3 occurred between 1996 and 2006 when the Pol Pot-led military occupied the area. Most 4 logging, hunting and wildlife trade found common in the country. The peak of 5 commercial logging was between 1996 and 1999 and it continued at a lower rate until 6 2004 (Chut & Anthony, 2005). From 2006 to 2016 the remaining areas were impacted 7 by selective logging, land encroachment and economic development (through ELCs), 8 which started to extend from lowland areas into the highlands.

9 Today the threat from this unregulated and unplanned development remains. For 10 example, in BKNP there are five different ELCs including a large one located on the plateau, for developing a casino, hotel and encouraging ecotourism (Open Development 11 12 Cambodia, 2014). Within PSWS there are two giant pepper farm ELCs being developed 13 directly inside the Sanctuary, covering 10% of its total area. The concern is that as the 14 revenue from the area increases, the ELCs will be enlarged (Sodhi et al., 2010), as 15 evidenced by losing around 20% of evergreen forest in the Cardamom over the last 20 16 years. If it continues at this rate the negative impacts on A. cambodiana are likely to 17 increase.

Our findings also indicated that approximately 40% of the total remaining suitable habitat for *A. cambodiana* is located in CCNP. However, we recorded very low densities of the species in CCNP compared to BKNP. As we have already discussed, this is likely to be due to higher fragmentation and human disturbance in the area. So a
large area of the species remaining habitat is currently negatively affected. Long term
conservation of the species in the CCNP is hampered by a lack of human capacity and
protected area management planning (Conservation International, 2016).

5 6

Reassessment of Red List criteria and categories of A. cambodiana

7 A. cambodiana is especially vulnerable to habitat loss and disturbance, as it occurs 8 mostly in well-developed forest with deep litter and complex ground structure (Nijman, 9 2003; BirdLife International, 2016). Logging and hunting are still a cause for concern, 10 despite the protected status of the protected status of most of its remaining habitat 11 (Samnang et al., 2009). Addressing these issues is mainly a legal matter, although 12 research into ways in which forestry practices may be less harmful to this and other 13 pheasant species may provide vital information. The information from this study can be 14 used as the basis of an awareness programme on the plight of these galliformes and 15 other wildlife in the Cardamom Mountains. With regard to IUCN Redlists status and 16 criteria, we have shown that A. cambodiana is range and habitat restricted (Brickle et 17 al., 2008), its habitat has been dramatically fragmented and that human disturbance and 18 development activities negatively affect the species. We also believe that these threats 19 and pressures will only increase across the species' range. Based on this study, the estimated density was small (0.63-2.39 calling males/km²) compared to other range 20 21 restricted Arborophila species such as the Vulnerable orange-necked partridge (0.89 -

1 4.32) (Vy et al., 2017) and Hainan hill-partridge (6-8) (Gao, 1999). The remaining suitable habitat is estimated at 2,308 km² and extrapolating this density estimate to the 2 3 extent of remaining forest gives a possible population of 1,400 - 5,500 pair respectively. 4 There is limited biological and ecological information on aspects such as survival rate 5 and micro-habitat use. We believe there is a strong case to revise the global status of A. 6 cambodiana under the IUCN Red List from 'Least Concern' to 'Vulnerable' (A2abc; 7 B1b (iii) c (i); C1) under the following criteria: A. Reduction in population size based 8 on 2. An observed (a) direct observation (20,000-50,000 individuals (BirdLife 9 International, 2016)) compared to this study (1,400-5,500 pair); (b) an index of 10 abundance appropriate to the taxon measured as density was small (0.63-2.39 calling 11 males/km²); (c) a decline in area of occupancy, over the past 20 years (1996-2016) the 12 potential habitat of A. cambodiana was degraded by approximately 12% and the total 13 evergreen forest in the Cardamom Mountain range has decreased by 20%). B. Geographic range 1. Extent of occurrence estimated to be less than 20,000 km², and 14 15 estimates indicating at **b**. continuing decline (*iii*) quality of habitat lost by 20% over 20 years; c. Extreme fluctuations in (i) extent of occurrence (18,200 km² within 'Least 16 Concern' status then this study 2,308 km²). C. Population size estimated to number 17 18 fewer than 10,000 mature individuals (this study 1,400-5,500 pair) and 1. an estimated 19 continuing decline of at least 10% within 10 years or three generations.

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1 Acknowledgement

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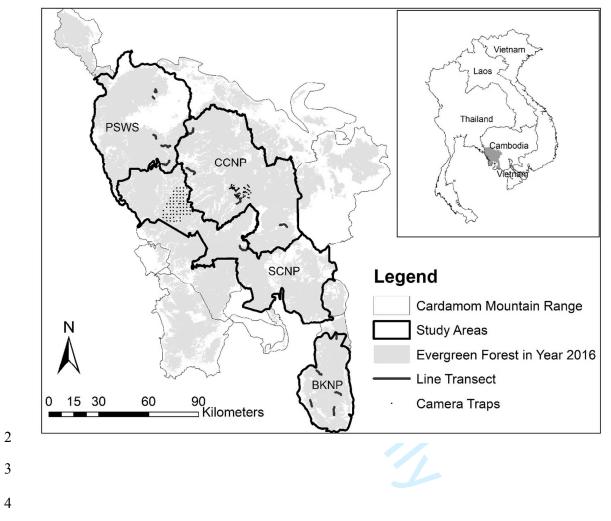
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- 2 Figure 1: A. cambodiana study sites at Bokor National Park (BKNP), Central
- 3 Cardamom National Park (CCNP), Phnom Samkos Wildlife Sanctuary (PSWS) and
- 4 Southern Cardamom National Park (SCNP) with the location of camera traps and line
- 5 transects.
- 6
- 7 **Figure 2**: The detection function curve of A) the global model (all sites); B) Bokor
- 8 National Park, C) Central Cardamom National Park and D) Phnom Samkos Wildlife

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9 Sanctuary.

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- 11 **Figure 3**: Change in suitable habitat for *A. cambodiana* in the Cardamom Mountains
- 12 over 20 years (1996-2016).

1 Figure 1



5

Figure 2

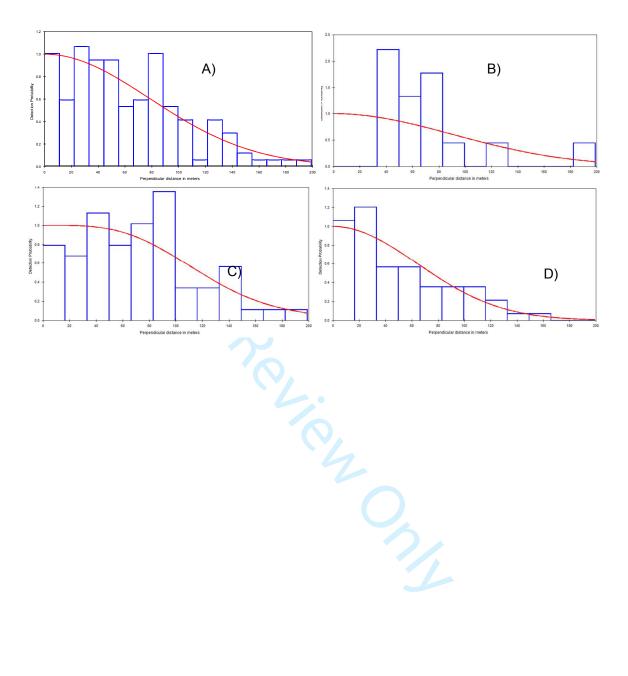






Table 1: Distance sampling (CDS) of detected calls using line transect from three study areas with estimated abundance from a single object to the remaining evergreen forest with elevation above 400 m.

Study area	Effort* (Km)	No detection	Encounter rate (n/L)	p detection	Density (Calling birds km ²)	Coefficient of variation (%)	95% Confidence interval		
BKNP	100.55	65	0.64	0.61	2.65	47.75	0.92 - 7.62		
CCNP	252.37	15	0.59	0.55	0.26	65.28	0.06 - 1.15		
PSWS	265.76	68	0.25	0.40	1.60	44.67	0.61 - 4.16		
GD^{**}	618.69	148	0.23	0.48	1.23	32.21	0.63 - 2.39		
* Total	length of l	ine transect	(line length i	in km multip	lied by observa	tion times)			
* Total length of line transect (line length in km multiplied by observation times) ** Global density estimation									

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Table 2: Detail of parameters in final accepted habitat use model with beta coefficient and 95% CI

Model	Variable	к	AIC	ΔAIC	AIC-w	Coefficient	95% CI	
Model	variable	ĸ					Lower	Upper
1	Elevation	4	872	0	0.7	4.17	2.69	5.64
I	Slope	4	012	0	0.7	0.78	0.003	1.56
2	Elevation	3	874	1.69	0.3	4.23	2.73	5.74
3	Distance to Water	3	910	38.13	0	0.79	0.20	1.38
4	Slope	3	911	38.97	0	0.88	0.18	1.59
5	Null	2	915	42.84	0	-113.37	-241	14.98

Table 3: Predicted remaining suitable habitat for A. cambodiana in square kilometers (Evergreen forest at elevation above 400 m from sea level with steep slope) changed from 1996 to 2006 and 2006-2016

Study areas	1996	2006	2016
BKNP	379	378	370
CCNP	1079	940	903
PSWS	697	682	661
Cardamom*	2599	2426	2308

*Total predicted suitable habitat of A. cambodina