

1 **Unraveling key aspects of the vulnerable *Chelonoidis chilensis* tortoise in the**
2 **wild**

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ABSTRACT

Chelonoidis chilensis is the southernmost species of tortoise in the globe and is in a vulnerable state because of the reduction of its habitat and due to its value in the illegal pet market. Despite its relevance, there is a lack of knowledge regarding the behaviour of *C. chilensis* in the wild and many basic questions about its biology remain unanswered, particularly about their movement. Based on observations and previous studies, we predicted that tortoises move in a bounded region of space, returning to recurring refuges and moving in a limited area of use. To verify this prediction, we monitored the movement of individuals of this species using different and complementary techniques: spool-and-line, radiotelemetry and GPS-based (developed by our team). We implemented these techniques during two campaigns, in which we monitored 12 individuals with radiotelemetry, 10 using the GPS-based system and 7 with the spool-and-line technique in their natural habitat near San Antonio Oeste, Río Negro, Argentina. We analyzed the mean square displacement of the obtained trajectories, indicating a subdiffusive type of movement, which is consistent with the idea that they move in a bounded region of space. We also hypothesized that the movement and that bounded region of space in which they move depends on the season of the year; specifically, that the individuals travel greater distances during the mating season (spring) than during the egg deposition season (summer). After the analysis of the trajectories obtained, we found greater displacements in the spring than in the summer. Additionally, we found that this individuals are capable of traveling up to 400 meters a day; we also measured the tortuosity of their trajectories and the velocity of movement, with 0.4 ± 0.1 m/min being the most probable value. The findings that we report in this work answer basic questions about the movement and behavior of this species in their natural habitat, which will have a significant impact on the establishment of guidelines that contribute to their conservation.

Keywords: GPS positioning; Habitat use; Inertial sensors; Radiotelemetry technique; Spool-and-line technique

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INTRODUCTION

The study of movement and behaviour of small animals is important for understanding their ecological roles, their response to environmental changes, and their conservation status. Reptiles, as ectothermic organisms, are highly sensitive to changes in temperature, precipitation, and habitat structure, which can affect their survival, reproduction and dispersal (Boretto et al., 2014; Ibarquengoytía et al., 2020; Kubisch et al., 2016, 2023). In the case of endangered species, tracking their movement and behaviour is critical for answering basic questions about their biology, and for developing effective conservation strategies and mitigating the threats to their populations. In this context, the task poses significant challenges, such as the size of the animals, the complexity of their habitats, and the availability of the technology for tracking and monitoring them. To address these challenges, recent advances in technology and methodology have been applied to tracking small reptiles and other animals. For instance, radio telemetry, GPS tracking, and accelerometry have been used to collect data about the habitat use, home range, activity patterns, and thermal preferences of reptiles in different ecosystems (Lagarde et al., 2008; Guzmán et al., 2008; Famelli et al.; 2016; Liuzzo et al., 2023). These methods have also enabled researchers to test hypotheses about the ecological factors that affect reptile behaviour (Arfuso et al., 2022), such as the effects of habitat fragmentation, climate change, and human disturbance. Additionally, the integration of remote sensing, modeling, and network analysis has provided a comprehensive understanding of the spatial and temporal dynamics of reptile populations and their interactions with other species and ecosystem processes.

Animal movement patterns generally depend on the environment, intrinsic factors of individuals and interactions with others (Morales et al., 2005, 2010; Nathan, 2008; Smouse et al., 2010). The complexity of these movements is manifested in their trajectories. In the case of foragers, these depend strongly on the vegetation, which preeminently determines the movement. The dynamics of the plant community is, in turn, dependent on foraging, pollination and seed dispersal (Morales and Carlo, 2006), in a mutualistic interaction of primary importance in many ecosystems. In particular, tortoises have an important role as ecosystem engineers, manipulating the distribution and abundance of other organisms through the direct effects of herbivory, disturbance, and seed dispersal with consequent indirect impacts on animal communities (Hamann, 1993; Gibbs et al., 2010; Blake et al., 2012; Hunter et al., 2021; Macdonald et al., 1988; Guzmán et al., 2008). In such a context, which are the strategies that an animal adopts for optimal foraging? Which

68 ones are possible under different hypotheses of animal perception and memory? (Krochmal et al. 2023;
69 Bartumeus et al., 2002; Barton et al., 2009; Fronhofer et al., 2013). There is still much discussion regarding
70 search paths and whether the so called Lévy walks or Lévy flights are predominant in nature or not
71 (Viswanathan et al., 1996; Reynolds, 2012; Boyer et al., 2009). While some focus on the cognitive abilities
72 of foragers (Krochmal et al. 2023), other approaches consider the study of emerging patterns in the use of
73 space as a result of the interactions between the behaviour of animals and the spatial structure of the
74 environment and the resource availability (Blake et al., 2021; Abramson et al., 2014; Kazimierski et al.,
75 2015, 2016). For many species, a lack of knowledge of their behaviour in the wild still precludes addressing
76 these matters. The characterization of the trajectories is the first important study to undertake.

77 In many countries, access to commercial monitoring devices is often too expensive or difficult to
78 obtain. Our interdisciplinary team has been designing and developing such devices for our own work in
79 the field of animal behaviour for several years (Kazimierski et al. 2021). Furthermore, we aimed at
80 producing a versatile system, suitable to be adapted to particular needs of species and habitats through
81 simple software or hardware modifications (Kazimierski et al. 2023). In the present work, we demonstrate
82 the capabilities of our system applied to the movement of one of our species of interest, the Chaco tortoise,
83 *Chelonoidis chilensis* (Gray, 1870).

84 The tortoise *C. chilensis* is the tortoise with the southernmost continental distribution in the world
85 (Cei, 1986). Inhabits several ecoregions of South America: the dry Chaco, Monte plains and plateaus, the
86 southern portion of the Espinal, and a few localities in the border zone between the dry Chaco and the
87 humid Chaco (Sánchez et al., 2014; Burkart et al., 1999). It is distributed from the southwest of Bolivia
88 and the west of Paraguay to the north of the province of Chubut, in Argentina (Richard, 1999). This species
89 is included in Appendix II of the *Convention on International Trade in Endangered Species of Wild Fauna*
90 *and Flora* (CITES) and it has been categorized as “vulnerable” at the national (Prado et al., 2012) and
91 international levels by the International Union for Conservation of Nature (IUCN 2014¹). The main factors
92 that led to this situation are the reduction, modification and destruction of their habitat, due to the
93 expansion of the agricultural frontier, and the wildlife trade, being the most trafficked native reptile in the
94 illegal pet market of Argentina (Prado et al., 2012). Also, the threat to this species is exacerbated by the

¹ Accessible at <https://www.iucnredlist.org/species/9007/12949680>.

95 recent introduction of exotic predatory species such as wild boar (*Sus scrofa* L., 1758; Kubisch et al.,
96 2014). There is still much to learn about the biology of the *C. chilensis* populations present in Argentina
97 (Prado et al., 2012; Cabrera, 2022; Gatica et al., 2021).

98 The diet of *C. chilensis* is herbivorous, they feed mainly on leaves and stems, as well as flowers and
99 fruits of various species of the Gramineae, Malvaceae, Cactaceae, Solanaceae and Rhamnaceae families,
100 among others (Richard, 1994). They are potential seed dispersers since it was observed that the germination
101 capacity of some plant species increases when they go through their digestive tract (Varela and Bucher,
102 2002). However, it is not known how much or even how *C. chilensis* moves and, therefore, in what way
103 their movement could contribute to the distribution of the vegetation in the landscape. In this study, we
104 hypothesized that the individuals of *C. chilensis* have an area of use associated with their movement and
105 this area varies with the time of year. In this sense, their area of use and the distances they travel affect the
106 spatial distribution of the vegetation.

107 Lastly, regarding the difference between the sexes, this species shows a marked sexual dimorphism
108 when they are adults. Males are noticeably smaller than females, contrary to what happens in the rest of the
109 species of the genus, in which case males can even triplicate the size of the female (Kubisch and
110 Ibarzüengoytía, 2021). The activity period in *C. chilensis* southernmost distribution is the shortest of the
111 species, because they experience a brumation for around five months. The activity period starts at the
112 beginning of spring (September in the southern hemisphere) and, from November to December (still
113 spring), it is when mating is mostly observed. Between January and March (summer in the southern
114 hemisphere) females spend a significant amount of time searching for suitable soil for nesting and to lay
115 eggs (personal observation). We consider that, since both males and females move in search of a mate in
116 the mating season (spring) there will be greater displacements and distances traveled, as well as a greater
117 area associated with movement than in the season when it is only the females that move to look for nests
118 (summer).

119

120

MATERIALS AND METHODS

121 This work includes field work, monitoring of *C. chilensis* individuals in their natural habitat, and data
122 analysis. We separate this section into subsections to detail how the fieldwork and monitoring was carried

123 out.

124 **Study site**

125 The study was carried out in a ranch located about 20 km north of San Antonio Oeste city, Río
126 Negro, Argentina. The site consists of a small area of the ranch, approximately 25 hectares where there is
127 a stable population of *C. chilensis* with a large number of specimens. The area belongs to the Monte Austral
128 phytogeographic unit, characterized by a shrub steppe with a predominance of *Larrea spp.* with several
129 strata, the lower one being grasses and herbs, all with very little coverage, and particularly with very few
130 cacti (Oyarzabal et al., 2018).

131 The specific study area is characterized by a vegetation cover, mostly with xerophytic
132 characteristics, with a predominance of grass clumps (Poaceae) and shrubs (the most frequent are *Larrea*
133 *divaricata* Cav., *L. cuneifolia* Cav., *Lycium* L., *Chuquiraga* Juss., *Prosopis* L., *Ephedra* L., *Gutierrezia* Lag.,
134 *Verbena* L., and *Baccharis* L. (León et al., 1998; Morello et al., 2012). We can also find *Monttea aphylla*
135 (Miers) Benth. and Hook.f., and isolated individuals or even small groups of *Geoffroea decorticans* (Hook.
136 and Arn.) Burkart. Some other typical species of this area have also become very abundant, such as *Capparis*
137 *atamisquea* Kuntze, *Chuquiraga erinacea* D.Don and *Condalia microphylla* Cav. (Bóo et al., 1997; León et
138 al., 1998; Morello et al., 2012). In turn, the grass stratum has a higher species richness than the other
139 Zygophyllaceae of the Monte steppes. The soil is rather sandy with a low percentage of clay and abundant
140 pebbles. Limiting a sector of the study area, there is the *Gran Bajo del Gualicho*, a Patagonian plain of up
141 to 70 meters below sea level, characterized by a high saline concentration. This is why there are more saline
142 sectors, where we can find halophyte species such as *Suaeda divaricata* Moq. and several species of the
143 genus *Atriplex spp* L. Scarce precipitations give an average of approximately 255 mm in the year, with minor
144 peaks in spring and fall. Besides, an annual average temperature of 14.5 °C with significant daily thermal
145 amplitudes and a persistence of the west and southwest winds, deepen the marked aridity of the region
146 (Godagnone and Bran, 2008). The minimum average temperature is 1 °C, and the maximum is 30 °C, but
147 nevertheless there are extreme recorded temperatures of –11.5 and 44.6 °C (data for 1961–2021 provided by
148 the National Meteorological Service).

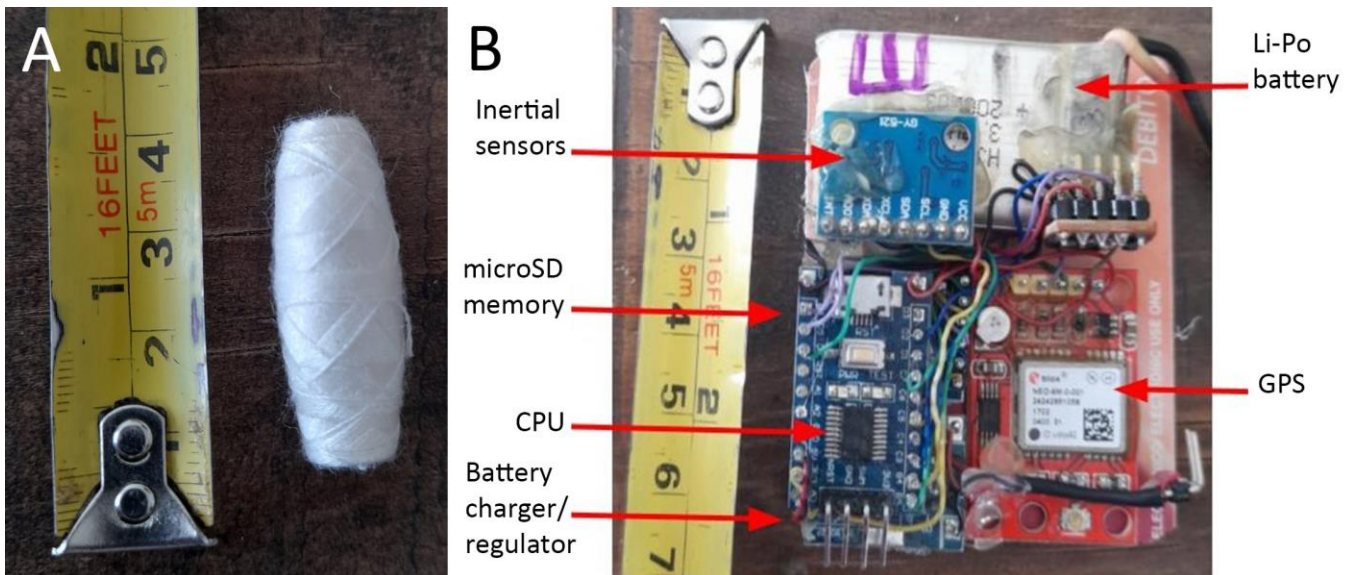
149 **Monitoring systems**

150 We have combined three monitoring techniques to study the trajectories of the tortoises to answer
151 our questions about their movement and area of use. One of the techniques was the spool-and-line technique

152 which allows a precise and accurate description of trajectories. The second one was a radio-telemetry
153 technique to locate the tortoises by receiving, through an antenna-receiver system, the signal from a
154 transmitter placed on them. Finally, the third technique consisted of an in-house developed GPS-based
155 system, which contains inertial sensors and a temperature sensor in addition to a GPS. It is an evolution of
156 the system we developed in Kazimierski (2021), and a first of the system describe in more detail in
157 Kazimierski (2023). In the following subsections we provide details of each methodology.

158 **Spool-and-line technique**

159 The spool-and- line technique is widely used to obtain very precise trajectories of the animals. It is
160 used for mammals (Miles, 1976; Cunha and Vieira, 2002; Delciellos et al., 2019), for chelonians (Breder,
161 1927), for lizards and snakes (Law et al., 2016; Tozetti et al., 2009) and, also, for tortoises (Famelli et al.,
162 2016). This technique consists in attaching a spool of thread on the back of the individuals and tie one end
163 of the thread to a fixed point on the substrate so that, as the animals move, the thread unwinds and locks
164 onto the different substrates through which they pass. The dimensions of the used spools are 3.5 cm × 1.2
165 cm, containing 100 m of thread and weighing about 2.5 g (Danfield Cotton Cocoon Bobbins; Fig. 1A). These
166 spools are assembled in such a way that the thread unwinds easily from the center and does not require the
167 spool to spin. By tracking the thread, we can reconstruct the trajectory of each individual. This technique
168 provides detailed information of movement at small scales, which is extremely important for this particular
169 study, and could have a relevant application in conservation-related studies (Steinwald et al., 2006). In
170 particular, we have used this technique to study the tortuosity of trajectories. In addition, it is an efficient
171 way to register the lack of night movement; if we place the spool on an individual at night and it continues
172 without unwinding the next day, we can infer that there was no movement during the night.



173 **Figure 1.** A) Spool used to monitor the movement of *C. chilensis*. The dimensions are 3.5 cm × 1.2 cm, containing
 174 100m of thread and weighing about 2.5 g (Danfield Cotton Cocoon Bobbins). A tape measure is shown to reference
 175 dimensions. B) Navigation unit to monitor individuals. It consists of GPS (UBlox NEO6), accelerometers, gyroscopes,
 176 and a temperature sensor (InveSense MPU6050) connected to a control and processing unit (ST Electronics
 177 STM8S103F3P6), and powered by a battery charged through a regulator (134N3P), all weighing less than 45 g. The
 178 GPS position data, as well as data from inertial and temperature sensors are saved in a 16 GB microSD memory. A
 179 tape measure is shown as a reference dimension.

180 A set of complementary techniques are necessary to perform a full movement analysis, since the
 181 spool-and-line technique does not provide temporal information. Furthermore, the study is restricted to the
 182 length of the thread, and requires the researcher to retrace the path with GPS, recording different visited
 183 sites. By combining the precision of this technique with those explained below, it is possible to have a
 184 detailed characterization of the trajectories.

185 Radiotelemetry

186 The radiotelemetry technique allows individuals to be located using a transmitter-receiver-antenna
 187 system (Mennill et al., 2012; Gottwald et al., 2019; Kazimierski et al. 2023). It is a technique that allows us
 188 to answer how far *C. chilensis* individuals are able to travel, to identify if they move inside a bounded region
 189 of space and to establish differences between seasons of the year. We employed Holohil transmitters (Grand
 190 HOLOHIL Systems Ltd. RI-2B) attached to tortoises' carapace using tape. These transmitters emit a pulse
 191 on a fixed frequency around 150 MHz every 2 seconds. These pulses are detected by a reception system that
 192 consist of a Yagi-Uda antenna connected to an ATS R410 receiver (Advanced Telemetry Systems, Inc.).
 193 This technique allows us to locate the transmitter with a great precision and, using a portable GPS (Garmin

194 eTrex x20), determine the location.

195 Despite being spatially precise, this technique does not have the temporal resolution necessary to
196 reconstruct reliable trajectories. Also, this procedure might disturb the animal behaviour, since the
197 researcher should approach the animal several times with the equipment (depending on the animal velocity),
198 in order to assess its position, therefore failing at monitoring the animal trajectory in natural conditions. In
199 the following section we describe our third technique, that offers high temporal resolution of the trajectories
200 without disturbing animal behaviour, complementing both previously described methodologies.

201 **GPS-based system**

202 We have designed and developed low-cost navigation units to monitor individuals in their natural
203 habitat, which consist of a GPS receiver, inertial sensors (accelerometers and gyroscopes) and a temperature
204 sensor (Fig. 1B). From the GPS data it is possible to survey the trajectories of the individuals and
205 complement them with the data obtained using radiotelemetry to answer the questions of this work. Being a
206 device developed by our research group, it meets the necessary size and weight specifications and has
207 configurable features like GPS acquisition rate. The monitoring device was powered by a rechargeable
208 battery that gave an autonomy of approximately 15 hours considering a GPS acquisition rate of 5–10
209 minutes. Data from the GPS receiver and the inertial sensors was stored in a micro-SD memory on board.
210 At the end of each monitoring day, we removed and downloaded the micro-SD memory and recharged the
211 batteries. In this work we present data obtained with our first prototype, manufactured with off-the-shelf
212 electronic modules. The employed components are listed in the caption of Fig. 1. Its hardware was designed
213 for a low cost and easy construction. Modules are connected using wire-wrap technique. Its firmware was
214 designed to extend its autonomy and is freely available in the open repository (Kazimierski et al., 2021).

215 Despite its better performance compared to the radiotelemetry technique, we had eight of these units
216 to use during these campaigns, so it was necessary to complement them with radiotelemetry technique in
217 order to monitor more individuals. In addition, the error of the positions monitored with radiotelemetry is
218 less than that of GPS-based methodology, thus it is worth using both to compare and optimize the results.

219 **Field work**

220 We analyzed the results of two campaigns monitoring the movement of *C. chilensis* in the natural
221 habitat. Specifically, we monitored them from November 29th to December 3rd, 2020 (spring season) and
222 from January 10th –15th, 2021 (summer season). During the 2020 campaign we used the spool-and-line

223 technique to monitor seven individuals, radiotelemetry to monitor twelve individuals and the GPS system
224 to monitor six individuals. During 2021, we monitored four individuals using the GPS based system.
225 Monitoring began around 07:00 h and ended around 21:00 h local time (UT-3). The tortoises monitored
226 were those found visually in the field. Upon finding them, the device was placed using adhesive tape
227 (©Duck Tape, Real Tree Hardwood Camouflage; Fig. 2) and the animal was released at the same place
228 where it was found.



229 **Figure 2.** Male individual of *Chelonoidis chilensis* monitored with the device on top of his shell attached with
230 camouflage tape.

231 The weight of the equipment did not exceed 10% of the body mass of the animals and did not
232 disturb their daily activity. A camouflage tape was used to mimic the environment and no sharp corners were
233 left to prevent the tortoise from getting trapped between branches. We have worked with the pertinent
234 permits (Resolution 034-2020) granted by the Secretariat of Environment and Sustainable Development and
235 Climate Change of Río Negro. The animals were handled as little as possible, following the approved
236 protocol by the Institutional Committee for the Care and Use of Laboratory Animals or Experimentation
237 (CICUAL; N° 2020-015) of INIBIOMA, which includes techniques to reduce stress, hyperthermia, fluid
238 loss and the transmission of diseases, in order to guarantee their safety.

239

Analysis of data

240 The data analysis of the obtained trajectories was performed using the programming language Python. To
241 allows easily visualize how far a tortoise moves during one day, we graficated the estimated positions of the
242 tortoises, relative to a common origin, separated data between seasons (spring and summer). We also studied
243 the Mean Square Displacement (MSD), a measure to quantify the average displacement of the animals over
244 time in their trajectories. The MSD provides insight into the type of motion exhibited by them. If the MSD
245 increases linearly with time it indicates normal diffusion and, if the MSD increases sub-linearly with time,
246 it may suggest confined motion. For the assessment of the maximum area covered by the tortoises monitored
247 using radiotelemetry and GPS-based techniques, we computed the convex hull of each tortoise trajectory.
248 These hulls are, in our case, the smallest convex polygons enclosing all the points of a given trajectory and
249 were determined using the Python function ConvexHull of the library *scipy.spatial*.
250 For the analysis of the trajectories it was necessary to know the error of each technique. The radiotelemetry
251 and GPS-based techniques have a considerable error when it comes to characterizing the tortuosity of the
252 paths, as will be explained in the following. The error of the radiotelemetry technique was estimated by
253 calculating the mean value and the standard deviation of a distribution of 10 data points acquired with the
254 same equipment, during one minute at the study site. We found that the mean value of the distribution was
255 0.45 m with a standard deviation of 0.54 m and a maximum value of 1.4 m. The error of the GPS-based
256 technique was estimated from 400 minutes of monitoring the position (one data every 10 minutes) of an
257 individual during the night (the same animal was monitored using the spool-and-line technique to ensure
258 that, during the night, there was effectively no movement). We found that the mean value of the distribution
259 of recorded positions during night with the GPS was 3.15 m with a standard deviation of 3.17 m and a
260 maximum value of 11.25 m.

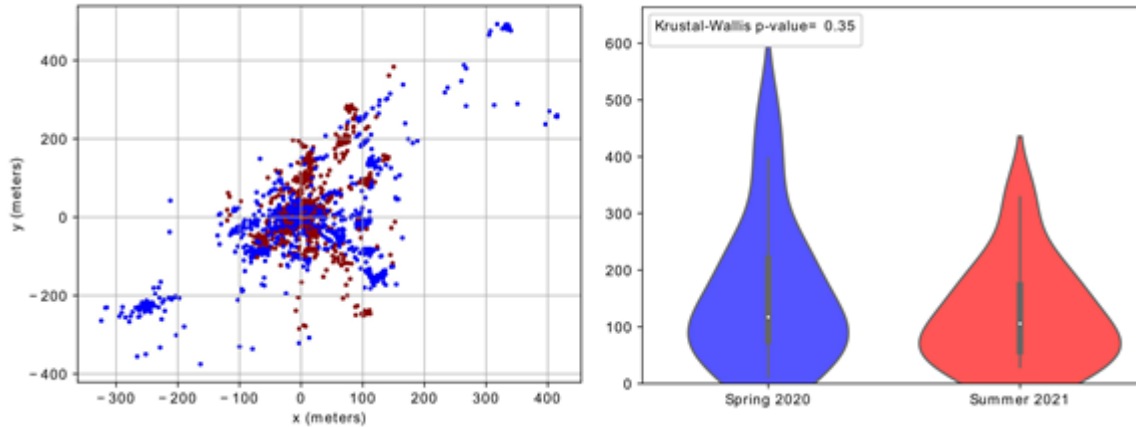
261

RESULTS

262

Maximum daily displacements

263 We will first show the obtained trajectories of each tortoise using radiotelemetry and GPS-based
264 techniques (see Figs. 3). In Fig. 3 we separated data between seasons: spring 2020 (blue) and summer 2021
265 (red). The scale of the axes is meters and the starting point of each trajectory was shifted to a common origin
266 of coordinates, the (0,0) point in Figs. 3 (left), that corresponds to the position of the tortoise at the beginning
267 of each day. This graphical representation allows to easily visualize how far a tortoise moves during one
268 day.



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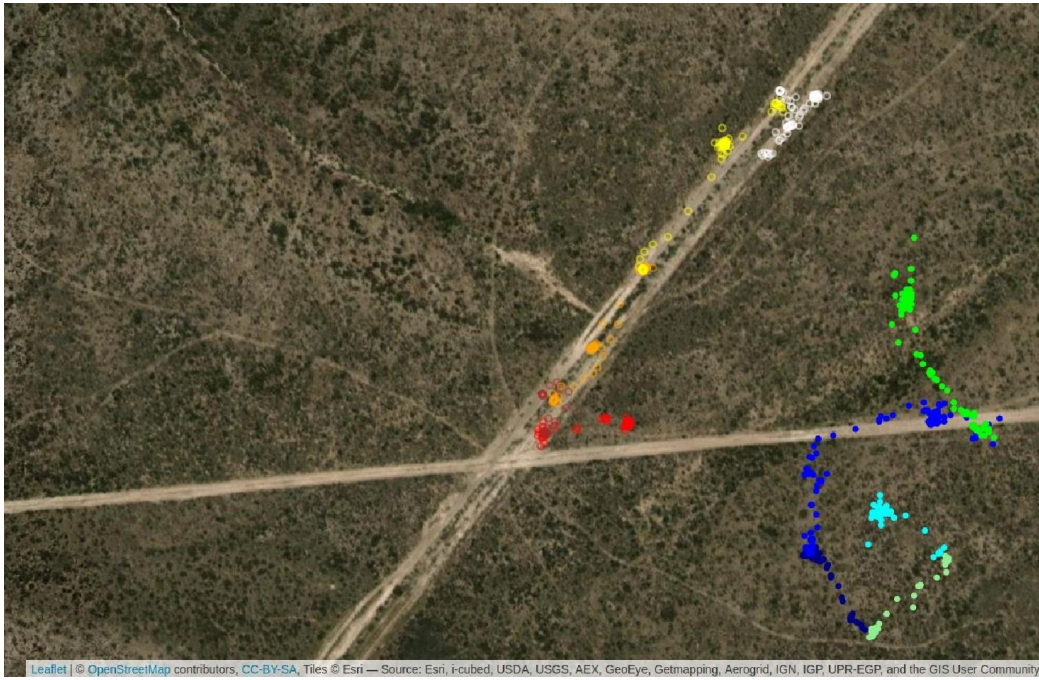
271 **Figure 3.** *Left: Estimated positions of the tortoises, relative to a common origin, using radiotelemetry and GPS-based*
 272 *systems during spring 2020 (blue) and summer 2021 (red). For each tortoise, the position at the beginning of the day*
 273 *was shifted to the point (0,0). Right: Distribution of the maximum distance from the starting point for each tortoise and*
 274 *for each day during spring 2020 (blue) and summer 2021 (red).*

275

276 As an example, we show in Fig. 4 two trajectories obtained with the GPS-based system
 277 corresponding to two different individuals and seasons, a female individual monitored during spring (color
 278 progresses from red to white as time advances, see the trajectory on the left of the map) and a male individual
 279 tracked during the summer (from light blue to green, on the right of the map).

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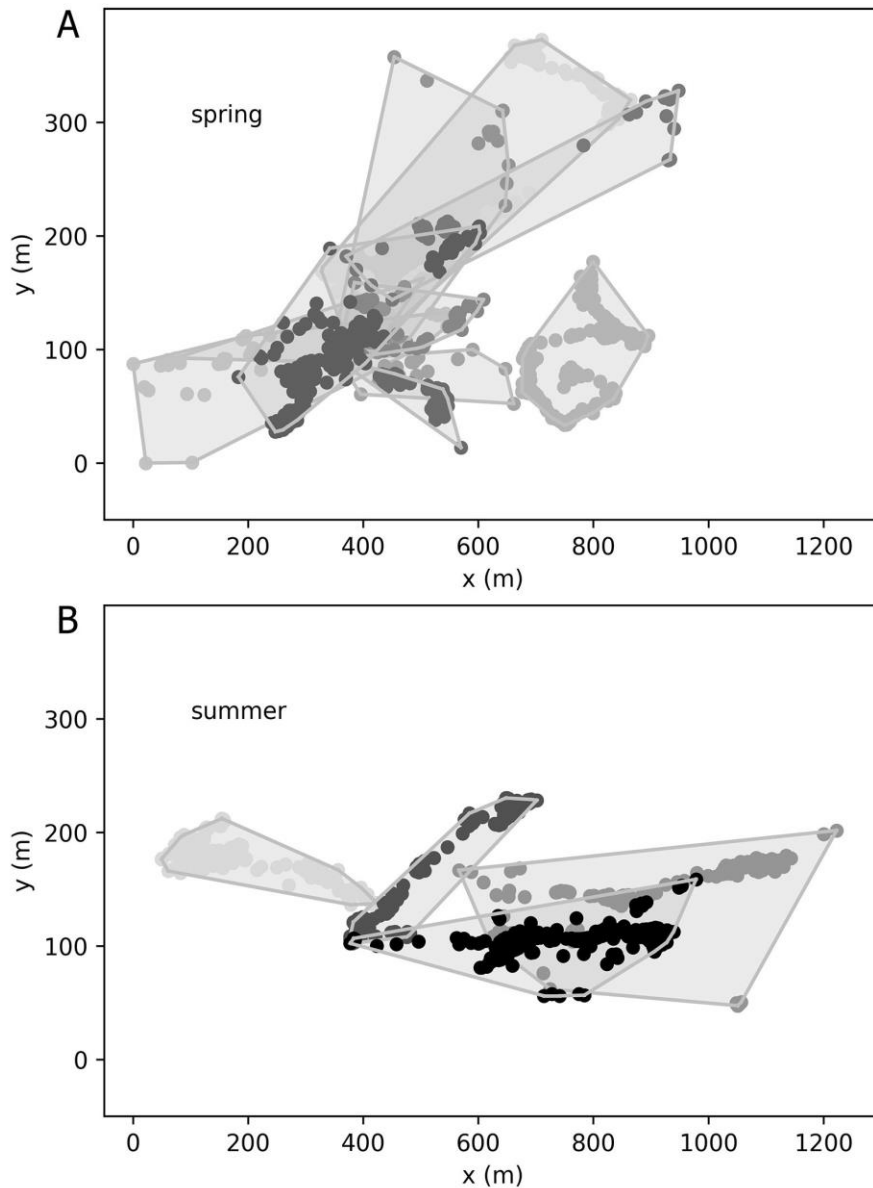


282 **Figure 4.** Two measured trajectories using the GPS-based system for a male individual during spring 2021 (left
 283 trajectory, open circles) and for a female individual during spring 2020 (right trajectory, filled circles). Each color
 284 represents a monitoring day.

285 As a first characterization of tortoises trajectories, we computed the maximal distance from the
 286 starting point for each day and for each tortoise, distinguishing between seasons (Fig. 3, right). The mean
 287 maximal distance covered was around 110 m. However, the variability of the maximal distance between
 288 trajectories was considerably large, varying in a range of more than 400 meters, as can be seen in those
 289 figures. We did not find significant differences in the maximum daily distance traveled by tortoises between
 290 the seasons.

291 **Maximum visited area**

292 The averaged maximum area visited by each tortoise at the scale of one day was measured as $864 \pm$
 293 283 m^2 (spring season) and $1034 \pm 298 \text{ m}^2$ (summer season; Fig. 5).

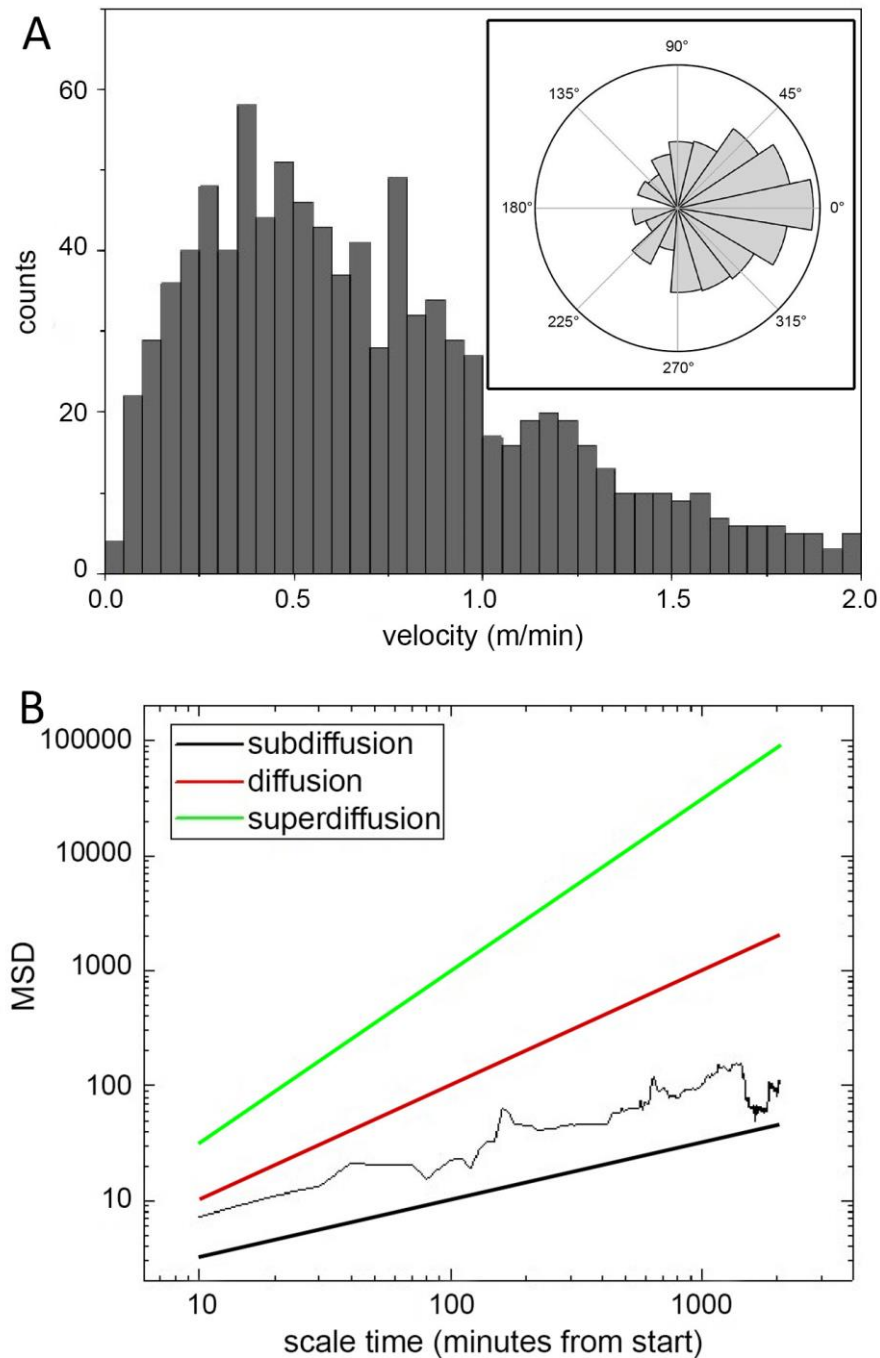


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 295 **Figure 5.** Convex hulls for the trajectories assessed by GPS-based and radiotelemetry during spring season 2020
 296 (upper panel) and summer season 2021 (lower panel). The shadowed areas constitute a maximum area covered by
 297 each tortoise in the corresponding season.

298
 299 We found a mostly unimodal distribution of velocity, with a mode of 0.4 ± 0.1 m/min and a median
 300 of 0.6 ± 0.1 m/min. Our results show that the movement of these tortoises is subdiffusive, indicating that the
 301 balance between perusing their bounded visited region of space and dispersing in the exploration of new
 302 space leans towards the former. In other words, the time spent by the tortoise to go from one point to another
 303 in space, is shorter than the time spent by a random walker, at least at a daily time scale. Very long steps (of
 304 the order of the visited area) are rare, supporting the result that tortoises move inside a bounded region of

305 space. The spatial region in which movement takes place might change every day, but daily movement is
306 performed slower than diffusion.

307 The trajectories assessed with spool-and line have a much finer spatial resolution to characterize the
308 distribution of turning angles. The distribution of turning angles, assessed from the trajectories measured
309 with the spool-and-line technique during 2020 and 2021 (Fig. 6A, inset), shows that most angles have little
310 deviation from the direct line, which can indicate a clear direction of movement ahead.



311 **Figure 6.** Characterizations of the trajectories. A) Distribution of the tortoises velocity. The mode of the distribution
312 is 0.4 ± 0.1 m/min and a median of 0.8 ± 0.1 m/min. This distribution is the result of the analysis of data from the GPS-
313 based system placed on 6 individuals (2020) and 4 individuals (2021). Inset: Distribution of 340 turning angles

314 *measured with spool-and-line technique during 2020 and 2021. The radius of the circle corresponds to around 25% of*
315 *the turning angles. B) Mean square displacement (MSD) of monitored tortoises (black thin line), estimated using 2020*
316 *and 2021 recorded data with the GPS-based system. Black solid line is shown to guide the eyes and corresponds to a*
317 *subdiffusive regime, while red and green lines are shown for comparison and correspond to a diffusive and a*
318 *superdiffusive movement respectively.*

319

CONCLUSIONS AND DISCUSSION

320 In this work we focus on answering basic questions about the use of space of the species *C. chilensis*: do
321 individuals of this species effectively use a bounded region of space? Does this use really depend on the
322 time of year? These hypotheses, based on observation and were addressed by studying the trajectories of
323 individuals of this species in their natural habitat. For that, we use three complementary techniques that
324 allow to monitor the movement of tortoises: spool-and-line, radiotelemetry and GPS-based system. The
325 spool-and-line technique provided precise trajectories, enough to measure the tortuosity of the walks and it
326 also allows us to ensure that individuals spend the night in one place. While tortuosity could in principle be
327 measured with positions obtained by GPS, the results would be underestimated if the sampling rate is not
328 large enough. Undoubtedly, the data obtained with the spool-and-line technique have better spatial resolution
329 and, therefore, are ideal for measuring tortuosity. It would be of interest to correlate the occurrence of twists
330 with the substrate, at the scale of individual plants. We are currently surveying the vegetation of the field, to
331 address this issue in the near future.

332 The radiotelemetry and GPS-based techniques allowed us to monitor more than 10 individuals
333 during the spring 2020 and summer 2021 seasons. Using this methodology, we studied the temporal
334 evolution and the properties of their trajectories to test the hypotheses of this work. The spatial and temporal
335 resolution of the GPS data allowed, in addition to determining the speed of movement, to characterize the
336 mean square displacement (MSD). This is a measure of the evolution of the walk as a function of time. The
337 mean of the squared displacements of the present study exhibits a subdiffusive nature of the walks,
338 supporting the hypothesis of the existence of a well-defined bounded region of movement. That sublinear
339 growth (see Fig 9, black thin curve) implies that the tortoises take more time than a random walker to go
340 from one place to another. This can be due to multiple reasons, from the existence of waiting points along
341 the trajectory, to the heterogeneity of the substrate where they walk (Bouchaud and Georges, 1990). As far
342 as random walks are concerned, the subdiffusive behaviour is usually associated with waiting time
343 distributions between steps that have fat tails (Kumar et al., 2010; Metzler and Klafter, 2000, 2004; Klages
344 et al., 2008). However, subdiffusive regimes can be also associated with correlated random walks, for
345 example with memory effects (Bouchaud and Georges, 1990). Behavioural observations should be
346 undertaken in the future to better understand the origin of this relevant result. Regarding the use of the
347 habitat, we found that *C. chilensis* remains within a bounded region of space of $864 \pm 283 \text{ m}^2$ (spring season),
348 which expands to $1034 \pm 298 \text{ m}^2$ in the summer.

349 In this work we also seek to answer whether individuals actually move longer distances in the mating
350 season (spring) than in the egg-laying season (summer). Although the medians were not different, in Fig. 3
351 we observe that greater distances are reached in the spring than in the summer. The results we observed are
352 consistent with the fact that spring is the mating season and both males and females travel to find a mate.
353 However, in the summer it is the females that move the most, especially to find places to lay their eggs. The
354 distance that tortoises travel per day can vary according to sex, size and time of year (Aguirre et al., 1984;
355 Eubanks et al., 2003; Guyer et al., 2012). For example, females of *Gopherus flavomarginatus* Legler, 1959,
356 show a negative correlation between carapace length and the average distance that they move per day. On
357 the contrary, the juveniles showed a positive correlation, but males didn't show any relationship between
358 these two magnitudes (Aguirre et al., 1984). In our case, the mean traveled distance did not show differences
359 between males and females despite the marked difference in size (results not shown).
360 Also, the daily area covered by males during the summer season was similar than the area covered during
361 the summer season (results not shown). However, based on field observations we hypothesize that males
362 show greater daily displacement in spring (mating season) than females in the sense that males are seen to
363 travel long distances to find females to copulate and the opposite occurs in summer (egg laying season). This
364 has been observed in *Gopherus polyphemus* (Daudin, 1802) tortoises, in which case females move more
365 frequently in the summer months and males exhibit a peak in movement during the mating activity (Eubanks
366 et al., 2003) traveling longer distances than females (Guyer et al., 2012). However, to test these hypotheses
367 it will be of importance to have a larger number of monitored individuals to explore significant differences
368 in daily displacements and used area according to sex, size and season. Interestingly we also found that
369 tortoises very often followed the internal trails of the field (see Fig. 4 left trajectory). This behaviour of using
370 open areas for movement also occurs on Galapagos tortoises, which make use of cattle paths, although it
371 was unclear whether these trails were made by tortoises and used by the domestic animals or vice versa
372 (Blake et al., 2021).

373 Deepening in the analysis of the distances covered, we found that the mean maximal traveled
374 distance is around 110 m in one day, with recorded values of up to 400 meters. These values are compatible
375 with those reported in the (ecologically similar) Mojave desert tortoise *Gopherus agassizii* Cooper, 1863
376 (Franks et al., 2011). In a radiotelemetry study of the daily movement of this desert tortoise, there were found
377 locations of females ranging from 81 to 354 m, with a mean value of 198 m (Ivanpah Valley, 2000), from
378 79 to 188 m, with a mean of 132 m (same site, 2001), and from 32 to 130 m, with a mean of 73 m (Fort

379 Irwin). These distances are also similar in the species of the most phylogenetically related group, the
380 Galapagos giant tortoises, whose daily movements followed more or less circular routes often beginning and
381 ending at a site where they slept, with a daily travel distance between 21 and 413 m (Blake et al., 2021).
382 However, some species from the large Galapagos Islands experience long-distance seasonal migrations
383 (Blake et al., 2013).

384 Regarding the speed of movement, we found that *C. chilensis* moves with a most probable velocity
385 of 0.4 ± 0.1 m/min and a median of 0.8 ± 0.1 m/min. The obtained distribution of velocity values can be
386 improved acquiring a higher temporal (e. g. increasing the GPS sampling rate) and spatial (e.g. quantitatively
387 incorporating the information from inertial sensors) resolution of the data. A hint of additional modes of the
388 velocity (which could correspond to different behaviours) can be perceived in the distribution (around 0.8
389 and 1.2 m/min), but at this stage the available data do not allow to differentiate between different movement
390 modes. For example, the larger velocity mode could be characteristic of a searching mode behaviour, while
391 the smaller one could be an indication of a rambling mode. To go deeper into this hypothesis it would be
392 valuable to complement these results with behavioural observations in the field. In fact, preliminary
393 observations in this regard indicate that, during spring, males seem to spend part of the day walking around,
394 but a considerable portion of the day looking for mates to copulate.

395 Given the importance to learn about the patterns of movement and habitat use to advance in the development
396 of conservation, restoration and management strategies for this species of tortoise, we believe that our results
397 provide a valuable baseline. For example, one cannot estimate to what extent habitat fragmentation affects
398 this species if we do not assess broad aspects of their basic biology. In the *Monte Austral* ecosystem, near
399 San Antonio Oeste, the main economic activity is extensive cattle ranching. This activity began to spread in
400 the last 30 years. Therefore, it is relatively new, considering the long life-cycle of tortoises. It is known that
401 cattle produce profound and hardly reversible changes in the vegetation and in the soil of large areas of
402 Patagonia (Paruelo et al., 1993; Borrelli and Oliva, 2001), this compaction of the soil by livestock would
403 cause the destruction of tortoises' shelters and prevent the young from emerging from trampled nests (Waller
404 and Micucci, 1997). In particular, our study site corresponds to an unmanaged field that conserves the
405 ecosystem in a pristine way. Currently, facilities are being prepared to introduce cattle into the area. We do
406 not know how the change in ground and vegetation would affect the movement of this vulnerable tortoise,
407 but our first field campaigns will serve as a baseline to contrast the changes in future years. In the same
408 direction, it is important to evaluate their ecological role as seed dispersers of key shrub species in the biome

409 of the *Monte Austral*. Since the dynamics of the plant population is dependent on the pollination and seed
410 dispersal, it is coupled to the movement dynamics of disperser animals (Morales and Carlo, 2006). In recent
411 years, the number of studies on the role of reptiles in pollination and seed dispersal has increased
412 significantly (Galindo-Urbe and Hoyos-Hoyos, 2007). For example, lizards and tortoises were recently
413 shown to be the most important seed dispersal animals in some areas of the Galapagos Islands (Galindo-
414 Uribe and Hoyos-Hoyos, 2007; Nogales et al., 2017), displaying a larger efficiency than birds in the dispersal
415 of some plant species in a community of the Canary Islands (González Castro et al., 2015).

416 A related matter is the consumption of fruits by tortoises, which could affect the reproduction of
417 several species of plants and the structure of the vegetation of a community (Stevenson and Guzmán, 2008;
418 Jerozolinski et al., 2009; Richardson and Stiling, 2019). These studies not only demonstrate the ecological
419 importance of tortoises, but also the potential economic role that these animals would have in favoring the
420 reproduction and dispersal of economically important plants (Valencia-Aguilar et al., 2013). In particular,
421 tortoises play important roles in ecosystems, either as prey, foragers, and seed dispersers (Hamann, 1993;
422 Blake et al., 2012). There is still a challenging work ahead in the collection and survey of data, as well as in
423 the analysis and improvement of methodologies to learn more about this vulnerable species. All of these
424 findings could have an important application in the development of measures for the conservation of the
425 species.

426 Overall, our study highlights the value of using complementary techniques, including our own
427 designed monitoring device, to answer concrete questions about the biology of *C. chilensis*. Moreover, that
428 low-cost and versatile device, created with an open-source philosophy, can be adapted for the use in other
429 related study systems, further enhancing their potential for ecological research.

430 **Data availability**

431 Data and codes are available at: <https://gitlab.com/karinalaneri/codestortoisesmovementpaper>

432 **Conflict of interest**

433 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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