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A Review of Predation by *Boa constrictor* (Squamata: Boidae): What, When, and Where

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***Abstract.*—Despite being one of the most iconic snake species in the world, it is surprising how little we know about the natural history of the Boa Constrictor (*Boa constrictor*), especially regarding the nominate subspecies *B. c. constrictor*. Based largely on fortuitous observations reported in the published literature, I accumulated 91 records of predation by *B. constrictor* from throughout its geographic distribution (but mostly from Brazil). Those records documented minimally 76 prey species, including squamate reptiles (eight genera and minimally 10 lizard species and one snake), birds (nine orders, 27 genera, minimally 30 species), and mammals (eight orders, 30 genera, and 34 species). All lizard prey were diurnal and teiids (*Ameiva*, *Tupinambis*) were most commonly predated. Six lizards were taken between 0900 and 1430; boas that consumed lizards had a mean length of 0.82 ± 0.38 (standard deviation) m. Eighteen predation events on birds occurred between 0600 and 1900. The Great Kiskadee (*Pitangus sulphuratus*) was the most commonly documented avian prey. Twelve birds were captured in trees (mean height 5.5 ± 3.3 m) and boas taking birds had a mean length of 1.83 ± 0.70 m. Mammals (eight records) were taken between 0800 and 1500 (no nocturnal predation events documented time). The White-eared Opossum (*Didelphis albiventris*) was the most commonly documented mammalian prey. Mean size of boas taking mammals was 2.1 ± 0.93 m. *Boa c. constrictor* ascended into trees to capture primates (mean height 6.1 ± 1.9 m). All evidence indicates *B. constrictor* to be an opportunistic predator that hunts (primarily by ambush) day and night, on the ground as well as in trees, and undergoes an ontogenetic shift in diet from ectotherms to endotherms.**

Key Words.—birds; diet; lizards; mammals; marsupials; opportunistic; primates; rodents

***Resumen.*—A pesar de ser una de las especies de serpientes más emblemáticas del mundo, sorprende lo poco que sabemos sobre la historia natural de *Boa constrictor*, especialmente en lo que respecta a la subespecie nominal *B. c. constrictor*. Basados en gran medida en observaciones fortuitas reportadas en la literatura publicada, se acumularon 91 registros de depredación por *B. constrictor* en toda su distribución geográfica (pero principalmente en Brasil). Esos registros documentaron como mínimo 76 especies de presas, incluyendo reptiles escamosos (ocho géneros y como mínimo 10 especies de lagartos y una serpiente), aves (nueve órdenes, 27 géneros, mínimamente 30 especies) y mamíferos (ocho órdenes, 30 géneros y 34 especies). Todas las presas lagartos eran diurnas y los teiidos (*Ameiva*, *Tupinambis*) fueron los más comúnmente depredados. Seis lagartos fueron capturados entre las 0900 h y las 1430 h; las boas que consumían lagartos tuvieron una longitud media de 0.82 ± 0.38 m (desviación estándar). Dieciocho eventos de depredación de aves ocurrieron entre las 0600 h y las 1900 h. El Bienteveo Común (*Pitangus sulphuratus*) fue la presa aviar más comúnmente documentada. Doce aves fueron capturadas en árboles (altura media 5.5 ± 3.3 m) y las boas que capturaron aves tuvieron una longitud media de 1.83 ± 0.70 m. Los mamíferos (ocho registros) fueron capturados entre las 0800 h y las 1500 h (no se documentaron eventos de depredación nocturna). *Didelphis albiventris* fue la presa mamífera más comúnmente documentada. El tamaño medio de las boas que capturaron mamíferos fue de 2.1 ± 0.93 m. *Boa c. constrictor* ascendió a los árboles para capturar primates (altura media 6.1 ± 1.9 m). Toda la evidencia indica que *Boa constrictor* es un depredador oportunista que caza (principalmente por emboscada) día y noche, tanto en el suelo como en los árboles, y sufre un cambio ontogenético en su dieta de ectotermos a endotermos.**

Palabras Clave.—aves; lagartos; mamiferos; marsupiales; oportunistas; primates; roedores

Introduction

Boa constrictor is one of the most iconic snake species in the world and its common name, Boa Constrictor, has often been used indiscriminately to describe any large snake. Only recently has it been partitioned into multiple species (e.g., Henderson and Powell 2009; Hynková et al. 2009; Reynolds et al. 2014; Suárez-Atilano et al. 2014; Card et al. 2016). Prior to taxonomic partitioning, the geographic range of *B. constrictor* on the mainland was seen as stretching from the Mexican states of Sonora and Tamaulipas south through Central America and into South America as far south as central Argentina and Paraguay (Henderson

et al. 1995; Reed and Rodda 2009). Based on that historical perspective, descriptions and discussions of *B. constrictor* activity, foraging, and diet included information that might now pertain to any one of the three mainland species (Common Boa Constrictor, *B. constrictor,* Central American Boa Constrictor, *B. imperator,* or Mexican West Coast Boa Constrictor, *B. sigma*), and the two West Indian species (Dominica Boa, *B. nebulosa*, and Saint Lucia Boa, *B. orophias*) might or might not be included. *Boa constrictor*, as now understood, is restricted to South America, Trinidad & Tobago, and other continental islands. Two subspecies are recognized, the widely distributed Common (or Red-tailed or Amazon) Boa Constrictor (*B. c. constrictor*), which occurs throughout the Guianas, Amazonia, and the Atlantic Forest of Brazil, and the Argentinian Boa Constrictor (*B. c. occidentalis*), which is restricted to portions of Argentina, Bolivia, and Paraguay.

Descriptions of when *B. constrictor* forages vary (e.g., nocturnal, Vitt and Vangilder 1983; crepuscular or nocturnal, Greene 1983; or virtually any time of day, Reed and Rodda 2009), as well as from where (e.g., largely ground-dwelling, Henderson et al. 1995; ground-dwelling and semi-arboreal, e.g., Pizzatto et al. 2009; Begotti and Filho 2012). The species is invariably described as an ambush (= sit-and-wait) predator and descriptions of its dietary habits suggest it is opportunistic (Teixeira et al. 2015), a generalist (Rocha-Santos and Barbier 2014) or will eat any prey it can subdue (Boos 2001). Based solely on gut contents, Sirioni et al. (2000) identified eight species in the diet of *B. c. occidentalis*, and Pizzatto et al. (2009) identified six species in the diet of *B. c. constrictor*; both analyses included multiples of some taxa. The only overlap in prey was the White-eared Opossum (*Didelphis albiventris*), although both analyses likely encountered the same species of domestic Chicken (*Gallus gallus*). Neither publication provided information on time of predation or from where predation occurred. Herein, using published information on gut analyses and field observations, I present a broader perspective of the trophic ecology of *B. constrictor*, including prey diversity, time of predation, and where in the habitat the predation event occurred.

Materials and Methods

I excluded from the analysis any descriptions of the diet that did not refer to specific taxa (e.g., I ignored statements that boas ate squirrels, rats, and opossums). Based on methods suggested by Van den Burg (2020), plus reaching out to colleagues who have spent time in the field in *Boa constrictor* habitat, I accumulated 91 prey records (Appendix Table) comprised of 15 for squamate reptiles (14 for lizards representing eight genera and a minimum of 10 species and one snake), 34 for birds (nine orders, 27 genera, minimally 30 species), and 42 for mammals (eight orders, 30 genera, 34 species). Of those 91 records, 32 provided a precise time for the predation event. Although it is evident in most accounts of bird predation that the event had occurred during daylight hours, I excluded records without specific times. Only one account described nocturnal predatory activity (without a precise time). If multiple individuals of a particular prey species were encountered during examination of gastrointestinal contents, I counted them as a single record for that specimen.

Many accounts did not mention time of day, whether the event occurred on the ground or in a tree, or, if in a tree, at what height above the ground. If the size of the boa was noted, it was sometimes given as a total length (TL), as a snout-vent length (SVL), or failed to make the distinction. Because *B. constrictor* has a proportionately short tail, I treated TL and SVL as equal measurements. If prey mass and predator mass were given, I determined a prey mass/predator mass ratio. Predation records were documented for every country in which *B. constrictor* occurs with the exception of Bolivia; most originated in Brazil (n = 57, 62.6%), followed by Argentina (n = 12, 13.2%). No predation events involving *B. imperator*, *B. sigma*, or the two West Indian species are included. I present means ± one standard deviation.

Results

All lizard prey was comprised of diurnal species, and most were ground-dwelling (e.g., ameiva, *Ameiva* sp., tegus, *Tupinambis* sp.), but some scansorial species (anoles, *Anolis* sp., iguanas, *Iguana* sp.) were included. The Neotropical Ameiva (*Ameiva ameiva*) was the most frequently taken lizard (four records) and by family, teiids were the most common prey (*Ameiva*, *Salvator*, *Tupinambis*). Six events of lizard predation occurred between 0923 and 1430 (Fig. 1). With one exception when reported, squamate prey (n = 4) were captured on the ground (but at least nine predation events likely occurred at ground level) and the boas involved ranged in size from 490 mm to 1.5 m (mean = 0.82 ± 0.38 m, n = 6); these were the smallest boas exploiting the three main prey categories. The one exception to ground-level predation was by a boa situated in a low bush that captured an *A. ameiva* active on the ground (Silva et al. 2016). The single record of snake prey (Patagonian Racer, *Philodryas patagoniensis*), was taken as carrion by a boa with SVL = 909 mm. The largest boa (1.5 m, presumably total length) for which size was provided had taken an adult Common Golden Tegu (*Tupinambis teguixin*), and the smallest (490 mm) a tropidurid, Reinhardt's Lava Lizard (*Tropidurus hygomi*). Mass ratios were determined for an *Ameiva* (0.76) and an *Iguana* (0.39; Table 1).

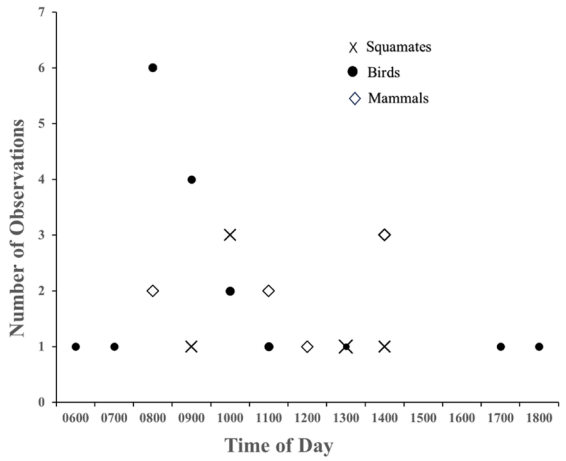

Figure 1. Time of predation on squamates, birds, and mammals during daylight hours by Boa Constrictors (*Boa constrictor*). Time is the whole hour (e.g., 0600 = 0600–0659, etc.).

Eighteen predation events on birds occurred between 0600 and 1859, but 12 (63.2%) of those occurred between 0800 and 0959 and 15 of the 18 (83.3%) occurred between 0800 and 1059 (Fig. 1). Of the 30 species of birds taken by *B. constrictor*, 12 were passerines and five were psittacines (Fig. 2). The Great Kiskadee (*Pitangus sulphuratus*) was the most frequently reported avian prey, with records from Trinidad, Guyana, and Brazil. Of the 18 records for birds, 12 were captured in trees (mean height = 5.5 ± 3.3 m, n = 6) and six on the ground (e.g., Black-legged Seriema, *Chunga burmeisteri*). The size range of the boas taking birds was 706 mm SVL to 3.0 m (mean = 1.83 ± 0.70 m, n = 8). The smallest boa took a passerine (Sayaca Tanager, *Thraupis sayaca*) and the largest was responsible for taking a *C. burmeisteri*, a largely ground-dwelling species. Prey mass/predator mass ratios were determined for a Wood Rail (*Aramides saracura*; 0.14) and *T. sayaca* (0.04).

Despite 42 predation records on 36 species of mammals, specific times were associated with only eight. Predation times for those records were scattered between 0800 and 1500. Although records of predation on 11 rodent species were located, time of predation was not included in any of the published accounts. Only one predation time (0830 for a Big-eared Opossum, *Didelphis aurita*) for seven events involving marsupials was documented. Conversely, five of eight predation events involving primates had associated times (mid-morning to 1430) and a fifth event occurred at night (at no specified time). Multiple records of predation were documented for four mammalian species: the White-eared Opossum, *Didelphis albiventris* (four records from Brazil and Argentina), and two records each for the introduced Domestic Cat, *Felis catus* (Brazil), the rodent Spix's Yellow-toothed Cavy (*Galea spixii*; Brazil), and the introduced lagomorph *Lepus europaeus* (Brown Hare; Argentina and Brazil). Sironi et al. (2000) found the rodents *Microcavia australis* (Southern Mountain Cavy) and *Lagostomus maximus* (Plains Viscacha) accounted for over 50% of the mammalian prey (n = 23 items) in their analysis of *B. c. occidentalis* diet. Four of nine mammalian records occurred in trees (all primates; mean height = 6.1 ± 1.9 m) and five on the ground. Boa size ranged from 780 mm SVL to 4.0 m total length (mean = 2.1 ± 0.93 m, n = 8). A 4-m-long boa took a White-tailed Titi Monkey (*Plecturocebus discolor*) and the smallest boa captured a bat (Flat-faced Fruit-eating Bat, *Artibeus planirostris*). Mass ratios ranged from 0.05 to 1.07; the lowest for the Southeastern Four-eyed Opossum (*Philander frenata*) and highest for the introduced leporid *L. europaeus*. The adult Púrus Red Howler (*Alouatta puruensis*) was eaten and resulted in a mass ratio of 0.93.

Figure 2. A Dusky-Headed Parakeet (*Aratinga weddelii*) in the coil of a Common Boa Constrictor (*Boa c. constrictor*) along the Río Napo, Orellana Province, Ecuador. (Photographed by Michael Eisen).

Discussion

Based on documented records of predation, *Boa constrictor* appears to be a dietary generalist that forages both during daylight hours and at night, on

Table 1. Prey mass/predator mass ratios for *Boa constrictor* predation events. Boa lengths show inconsistent influence on mass ratios. Ratios marked with an asterisk (*) are from Vieira-Alencar et al. (2022). The abbreviations SVL = snout-vent length and TL = total length.

Prey species	Boa length (mm)	Mass ratio	Source
Reptiles			
Squamata			
Neotropical Ameiva (*Ameiva ameiva*)	535 SVL	0.76	Silva et al. 2016
Green Iguana (*Iguana iguana*)	1,970 SVL	0.39	Oliveira et al. 2015
Birds			
Gruiformes			
Wood Rail (*Aramides saracura*)	1,650 TL	0.14	Lopes et al. 2012
Passeriformes			
Sayaca Tanager (*Tangara sayaca*)	706 SVL	0.04	Machado et al. 2018
Mammals			
Didelphimorphia			
White-eared Opossum (*Didelphis albiventris*)	1,770 SVL	0.29	Cabral et al. 2019
Four-eyed Opossum (*Philander frenata*)	2,500 TL	about 0.05	Carlos et al. 2005
Chiroptera			
Flat-faced Fruit-eating Bat (*Artibeus planirostris*)	780 SVL	0.11	Araujo et al. 2022
Primates			
Púrus Red Howler (*Alouatta puruensis*)	about 2,000 TL	0.93*	Quintino and Bicca-Marques 2013
Bearded Saki (*Chiropotes satanas*)	about 3,000 TL	0.12–0.20*	Ferrari et al. 2004
Lagomorpha			
Brown Hare (*Lepus europaeus*)	1,430 SVL	1.07	Vieira-Alencar et al. 2022

the ground and in trees, and arboreal predation is not limited to small boas. Because many lizards and most birds and primates are active by day, diurnal predation by *B. constrictor* has been well documented and is not surprising. Conversely, marsupials, bats, and rodents are largely active nocturnally when human activity is reduced and vision is limited, thereby reducing the chances to observe a predation event by these boas. Most predation records for marsupials and rodents were based on examinations of stomach contents. The available data also suggest that *B. constrictor*, like many other boids (e.g., Reynolds et al. 2023), but also similar to many other snakes in general (Shine and Wall 2007), undergoes an ontogenetic dietary shift from lizards to endotherms.

Several predation records are worthy of note. In an act of opportunistic kleptoparasitism, a Grenada Tree Anole (*Anolis richardii*) was snatched from the mouth of *A. ameiva* by a *B. constrictor* with an SVL of 910 mm on Tobago (McConchie and Wilkinson 2004). In Suriname, what was likely the same *B. constrictor* (1.75 m total length) made three successful predation attempts at a Guianan Cock-of-the Rock (*Rupicola rupicola*) lek (two events witnessed). Between predation events, the boa was apparently sequestered in a nearby tree. The presence of the boa elicited neither alarm calls nor mobbing, and male birds remained perched within 3–4 m of the snake and its prey (Trail 1987). A 2.5-m *B. c. occidentalis* captured an adult Crab-eating Fox (*Cerdocyon thous*); ultimately, the attempt to swallow the fox failed, having been able to engulf only the head and neck of the fox before abandoning it (Almiron et al. 2011). In Colombia, William Lamar (pers. comm.) observed a *B. constrictor* capturing a Humboldt's Squirrel Monkey (*Saimiri cassiquiarensis*). This occurred after dark and suggests two potential scenarios; either the boa was actively foraging and encountered the resting/sleeping monkey, or the monkey unknowingly chose a place to roost that was near an ambush-ready boa. Another instance of nocturnal predation on a Common Squirrel Monkey (*S. sciureus*) involved an adult Amazon Treeboa (*Corallus hortulana*) with a 1,620 mm SVL, which was encountered ingesting the monkey at 2200 (mass ratio 0.92; Ribeiro-Júnior et al. 2016).

Predation attempts on primates are especially interesting. During events with a Purús Red Howler (*Alouatta purusensis*), Black-tufted Marmosets (*Callithrix penicillata*; in which two marmosets were taken simultaneously by the boa), and a Moustached Tamarin (*Saguinus mystax*) that were members of their respective troops assaulted a predatory boa, hitting it with a fist or even biting it (Quintino and Bicca-Marques 2013). The *S. mystax* were successful in

freeing their troop-mate. Nine days after predation on an adult female *A. puruensis* by *B. constrictor*, the troop returned to the site of the event and showed no signs of increased vigilance (Quintino and Bicca-Marques 2013). Furthermore, large, monkey-eating boas (range from 2–4 m, mean length = 2.75 ± 0.96 m; n = 4) ascended to surprising heights in trees to ambush prey (range from 4–8 m, mean = 6.1 ± 1.9 m; n = 4). It seems not unlikely that previous experience might have been an incentive for these large boas to make the ascent. Relative to reports of predation events on primates by Harpy Eagles (*Harpia harpyja*), Jaguars (*Panthera onca*), and other felids, predation on primates by snakes in general and boids in particular appears to be rare. Based on 59 accounts of predation on Neotropical primates, Libório and Martins (2013) recorded only two records of predation by *B. constrictor* and one each by *B. imperator* and a Green Anaconda (*Eunectes murinus*). I list eight predation events by *B. constrictor* (including those cited by Libório and Martins); an additional event by the arboreal boid *Corallus hortulana* (Ribeiro-Júnior et al. 2016) brings the total to 11 documented predatory events on primates by boids. Libório and Martins (2013) noted that a few Neotropical snakes with heavy bodies were capable of subduing a primate; however, because *B. constrictor* forages on the forest floor or a little above it, it must wait for high-stratum monkeys to eventually descend to the floor. The information summarized here, however, indicates boids (and especially *B. constrictor*) are capable of predating primates (and other types of prey) where they are most active, be it on the ground or well above it. I estimated that of the minimally 76 prey species documented herein, at least 30–35% were captured above ground level. Furthermore, those 76 species represent only a small fraction of the prey diversity available to *B. constrictor*.

The information assembled herein, based on focused projects (e.g., Sironi et al. 2000; Pizzatto et al. 2009) and many fortuitous observations, further validates the opportunistic and generalist diet of *B. constrictor*, as well as its flexibility in diel foraging times and whether it does so on the ground or in a tree. This trophic adaptability undoubtedly contributes to its ability to persist in virtually any habitat at elevations below about 1,000 m east of the Andes and north of about 33° S latitude. Lillywhite and Henderson (1993; prior to its being taxonomically partitioned) noted that *Boa constrictor* displays a versatility that is probably unusual in comparison with trophic adaptations of snakes in general.

Fewer than half of the publications cited herein contained what I would consider basic information regarding a predation event observed in the field. Besides identifying the species (predator and prey) involved and where the event took place, recording the time at which the event occurred and whether on the ground or in a tree, bush, human-made structure, etc., and at approximately what height above the ground, should be routine. Those additional data would make natural history notes that are already valuable even more so.

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Appendix Table. Prey species taken by *Boa constrictor*. Most records pertain to *B. c. constrictor*; those for *B. c. occidentalis* are marked with an asterisk (*). Those taken by both subspecies are marked with two asterisks (**). A reference marked with an asterisk provided the time of predation.

Prey Class and Order	Prey Species or Family	Country (time)	References
REPTILIA			
Squamata (lizards)			
	Ameiva ameiva	Brazil (1018)	Pizzatto et al. 2009; Bernarde and Abe 2010; Silva et al. 2016*
	Ameiva sp.	Colombia (1000)	Acosta-Ortiz et al. 2021
	Anolis richardii	Tobago (1000)	McConchie and Wilkinson 2004
	Cnemidophorus ocellifer	Brazil	Mesquita et al. 2013
	Gymnophthalmidae	Brazil	Pizzatto et al. 2009
	Iguana iguana	Brazil (1347)	Oliveira et al. 2015; Sanches et al. 2018*
	Salvator merianae	Brazil	Cabral et al. 2019
	Tropidurus hispidus	Brazil (0923)	inaturalist.org/observations/133652266
	Tropidurus hygomi	Brazil	Vieira et al. 2013
	*Tupinambis rufescens**	Argentina	Reed and Rodda 2009
	Tupinambis teguixin	Brazil (1430)	Rocha and Bernarde 2012
Squamata (snakes)			
	Philodryas patagoniensis	Brazil	Barbosa et al. 2022b
AVES			
Apodiformes			
	Unidentified hummingbird	Brazil	Marques et al. 2016
Cariamiformes			
	*Chunga burmeisteri**	Argentina	Laspiur et al. 2010
Columbiformes			
	Columbina minuta	Brazil	Cabral et al. 2019
	Columbina talpacoti	Brazil (0820)	Santos-Filho et al. 2021
	Leptotila verreauxi	Brazil (0600)	Dubeux et al. 2020
	Patagioenas picazuro	Brazil (0857)	Silva and Faggioni 2015
Galliformes			
	Gallus gallus	Brazil	Pizzatto et al. 2009
	Gallus sp.*	Argentina	Sironi et al. 2000
Gruiformes			
	Aramides saracura	Brazil	Lopes et al. 2012
Passeriformes			
	*Coryphistera alaudina**	Paraguay (0800)	Smith and Atkinson 2017
	Cyanocorax cyanopogon	Brazil (1053)	Rodrigues dos Santos et al. 2018
	Furnarius sp.	Brazil (1723)	Giori et al. 2016
	Gnorimopsar chopi	Brazil (1010)	Cerqueira et al. 2022
	Passer domesticus	Brazil	Mesquita et al. 2013
	Pitangus sulphuratus	Trinidad & Tobago (0800)	Hayes and Gabriel 2019
		Brazil (0810)	Rocha-Santos et al. 2014
		Guyana (1815)	Cole et al. 2013
	Psarocolius decumanus	Colombia (0920)	Acosta-Ortiz et al. 2021
	Rupicola rupicola	Suriname (1317)	Trail 1987
	Thraupis sayaca	Brazil	Rodrigues et al. 2014; Machado et al. 2018
	Tiaris bicolor	Venezuela	Sainz-Borgo 2015
	Troglodytes musculus	Brazil	Gondim et al. 2012
	Turdus rufiventris	Brazil (0947)	Rocha-Santos et al. 2014
	Volatinia jacarina	Brazil	Bernarde and Abe 2010
	Zonotrichia capensis	Brazil	Pizzatto et al. 2009
Psittaciformes			
	*Amazona aestiva**	Argentina	Reed and Rodda 2009
	Ara severus	Brazil	Begotti and Filho 2012
	Aratinga weddelii	Ecuador (0957)	M.B. Eisen, pers. comm.
	Brotogeris chiriri	Brazil (1157)	Rocha-Santos and Barbier 2014
	Diopsittaca nobilis	Brazil (0808, 0906)	Travaglia-Cardosa et al. 2016
	Pionus menstruus	Ecuador (0719)	M.B. Eisen, pers. comm.

Appendix Table (continued). Prey species taken by *Boa constrictor*. Most records pertain to *B. c. constrictor*; those for *B. c. occidentalis* are marked with an asterisk (*). Those taken by both subspecies are marked with two asterisks (**). A reference marked with an asterisk provided the time of predation.

Prey Class and Order	Prey Species or Family	Country (time)	References
Tinamiformes			
	Crypturellus undulatus	Peru	W.W. Lamar, pers. comm.
	Tinamus sp.	Brazil	Vitt and Vangilder 1983
MAMMALIA			
Didelphimorphia			
	*Didelphis albiventris***	Argentina	Sironi et al. 2000
		Brazil	Sawaya et al. 2008; Pizzatto et al. 2009; Cabral et al. 2019
	D. aurita	Brazil (0830)	Aximoff et al. 2016
	D. marsupialis	Brazil	Pizzatto et al. 2009
	Philander frenata	Brazil	Carlos et al. 2005
Cingulata			
	Dasypus novemcinctus	Colombia	W.W. Lamar, pers. comm.
Chiroptera			
	Artibeus planirostris	Brazil	Araujo et al. 2022
	Noctilio albiventris	Brazil	Esbérard and Vrcibradic 2007
Primates			
	Alouatta puruensis	Brazil (1156)	Quintino and Bicca-Marques 2013
	Plecturocebus discolor	Ecuador (1130)	Cisneros-Heredia et al. 2005
	Callithrix jacchus	Brazil (1430)	Barbosa et al. 2022a
	Callithrix penicillata	Brazil (mid-morning)	Teixira et al. 2015
	Chiroptes satanas	Brazil	Ferrari et al. 2004
	Leontopithecus rosalia	Brazil	Kierulff et al. 2002
	Saguinus mystax	Peru (1425)	Tello et al. 2002
	Saimiri cassiquiarensis	Colombia (night)	W.W. Lamar, pers. comm.
Carnivora			
	Canis lupus familiaris	Trinidad	Mole 1924
	*Cerdocyon thous** (failed attempt)	Argentina (1200)	Almiron et al. 2011
	Eira barbara	Peru	W.W. Lamar, pers. comm. 2023
	Felis catus	Brazil (1400)	Martinelli et al. 2011*; Tokuda and Mota da Costa 2021
	Urva auropunctata	Trinidad	Urich 1933
	Leopardus pardalis	Trinidad	Mole and Urich 1894
Artiodactyla			
	Mazama americana	Trinidad	Mole and Urich 1894
Rodentia			
	Akodon cursor	Brazil	Pizzatto et al. 2009
	Coendou sp.	Brazil	Duarte 2003
	Cuniculus paca	French Guiana	N. Vidal, pers. comm. 2014
	Dasyprocta sp.	French Guiana	N. Vidal, pers. comm. 2014
	Galea spixii	Brazil	Vitt and Vangilder 1983; Cabral et al. 2019
	*Lagostomus maximus**	Argentina	Sironi et al. 2000
	*Microcavia australis**	Argentina	Sironi et al. 2000
	*Mus musculus**	Argentina	Sironi et al. 2000
	*Pediolagus salinicola**	Argentina	Sironi et al. 2000
	Sygmodontinae*	Argentina	Sironi et al. 2000
	Thrichomys laurentius	Brazil	Cabral et al. 2019
	Unidentified porcupine	Brazil	O'Shea 1998 (failed attempt); Cherubini et al. 2003
Lagomorpha			
	*Lepus europaeus***	Argentina	Sironi et al. 2000
		Brazil (0800)	Vieira-Alencar et al. 2022