1   **Spatial distribution and hotspots of mammals in Canada**

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Abstract

High-latitude countries often contain the polar range edge of species that are common

farther south. Such range-edge species will tend to have small national ranges, and the

range-edge populations they include are predicted to be relatively small, isolated or

unproductive, potentially focusing national conservation toward peripheral species whose

global conservation value is controversial. However, if nationally at-risk and range-edge

taxa occur where overall diversity is also high, there would be fewer trade-offs in

protecting them. Using 153 of the 158 terrestrial mammal species in Canada, we tested

how species' distributions relate to their national conservation status and total mammal

richness. Half of 'Canadian' mammals had <20% of their global range in Canada. Range

area in Canada was strongly associated with national threat status; at-risk mammals had

42% smaller Canadian ranges than secure mammals. However, after accounting for range

area, the extent to which taxa occurred as range-edge populations did not vary between

at-risk and secure taxa. By overlaying the 153 maps to calculate diversity in 1285

100x100 km grid cells, we show that at-risk hotspots (cells with >4 at-risk mammals) and

range-edge hotspots (cells with >12 mammals that have ≤20% of their range in Canada)

had 95% and 109% higher total mammal richness than non-hotspot cells. At-risk and

range-edge hotspots contained up to 44% of Canadian mammal diversity per grid-cell.

Our results suggest that protecting areas with the most at-risk or range-edge species

would simultaneously protect habitat for many species currently deemed secure.

Introduction

Large polar countries often contain the high-latitude range edge of many species that are more widely distributed beyond their borders (Cheffings et al. 2005; Gibson et al. 2009; Rassi et al. 2010; ArtDatabanken 2015). For a given species, the more peripherally it occurs in a country, the smaller its national range area will be. Thus range-edge taxa with small areas in a given jurisdiction are more likely to be deemed locally at-risk (Lesica & Allendorf 1995), especially if range-edge populations themselves are smaller, more isolated, or less productive than more central populations (Brown et al. 1996; Sagarin & Gaines 2002; Yakimowski & Eckert 2007; although this pattern is far from universal; Samis & Eckert 2009; Pironon et al. 2017; Hargreaves & Eckert 2019). Conservation in large polar countries may therefore be focused toward range-edge species even for taxa that are globally secure (Hunter & Hutchinson 1994).

The value and practicality of conserving range-edge populations are contentious. Ethically, some argue that countries have the greatest obligations to taxa with the largest percentage of their range in their borders, and that taxa are not truly at-risk if they are globally secure (Hunter & Hutchinson 1994). Practically, edge populations may be difficult to conserve if they are inherently unstable due to small numbers, low genetic diversity, or poor habitat (Hunter & Hutchinson 1994; although again these patterns do not hold for many taxa; Eckert et al. 2008). On the other hand, range-edge populations can be important for diversification if they occupy unique habitats (Van Rossum et al. 2003; Mimura & Aitken 2010), and natural range expansion following gradual local adaptation (Hargreaves & Eckert 2019). Polar edge populations are also geographically

poised to initiate range shifts in response to climate warming (Gibson et al. 2009). The

geographic 'head start' edge populations offer is especially important when species'

dispersal ability is low compared to the rate of climate change, as is the case for many

terrestrial mammals (Thomas et al. 2004; Schloss et al. 2012).

Evaluating the relative conservation merits of range-edge taxa would be less important if

protecting edge populations involved few conservation trade-offs. One important

conservation strategy is establishing protected areas (Myers et al. 2000; Le Saout et al.

2013). Protected areas will be most effective if multiple levels of biodiversity co-

occurred (Prendergast et al. 1993; Myers et al. 2000; Ricketts et al. 2005), e.g. if at-risk

or range-edge species occurred in areas with high overall species richness. Previous

studies have not found significant co-occurrence of rare or threatened taxa and overall

species richness, either at a global scale for vertebrates (Orme et al. 2005; Ceballos &

Ehrlich 2006; Jenkins et al. 2013), or within the UK for invertebrates, plants and birds

(Prendergast et al. 1993). However, co-occurrence may be more likely in large high-

latitude countries if range-edge taxa are often considered national at-risk, since edge taxa

and overall biodiversity will be concentrated toward the equatorward border of such

countries (Buckley et al. 2010).

We explore the co-occurrence of at-risk and range-edge taxa with overall richness using

terrestrial mammals in the world's second largest country: Canada. Canadian mammals

provide an excellent case study as distribution maps (IUCN 2018) and national threat

ranks (COSEWIC) are available for each taxon (usually species but sometimes

subspecies or populations), and Canada's conservation assessment body, the Committee

on the Status of Wildlife in Canada (COSEWIC), uses criteria from the IUCN that

emphasize local abundance and range area. Protection of edge populations in Canada is

also of global conservation significance, as Canada contains the highest latitude refuges

for species in the Americas. Many species designated as nationally 'at-risk' are range-

edge populations with larger distributions in the USA and south (Gibson et al. 2009;

Klemet-N'Guessan et al. 2019). However, it is unclear whether this is simply because

edge populations have smaller range areas in Canada.

Using IUCN range maps available for 153 of the 158 extant mammal species that occur

in Canada, and categorizing each taxon as nationally at-risk or secure based on its

COSEWIC status, we asked two questions. Question 1) How do range area in Canada and

the proportion of a taxon's global range in Canada (lower means more peripheral) relate

to national conservation status? We predicted that: a) at-risk taxa will have smaller

Canadian ranges given the link between range area and population size (Lawton 1993)

and importance of both for conservation; b) at-risk taxa will have smaller percentages of

their range in Canada given previous findings that many at-risk taxa are edge populations

(Gibson et al. 2009; Klemet-N'Guessan et al. 2019); and c) that smaller range

percentages would increase the probability of a tax being at risk even after controlling for

range area, if edge populations routinely suffer from factors that would increase their

conservation risk (Coristine & Kerr 2011). We then divided Canada into 100x100 km

grid-cells and asked Question 2) Do cells with the high richness of at-risk species or

range-edge species (hotspots) occur in regions of high overall mammal richness? If

range-edge populations are over-represented among at-risk species, as predicted in

Question 1, and since edge populations and species richness should both cluster toward

Canada's low-latitude border, we predict that at-risk and range-edge hotspots will have

higher total mammal richness than non-hotspot cells.

Methods

We record the Canadian conservation status for each mammal taxon from COSEWIC

assessments; we used COSEWIC's recommendation rather than official status under the

Species at Risk Act (SARA) as COSEWIC addresses only conservation risk whereas

SARA also considers the economic impact of a given listing. The taxa per threat category

was: 10 Special concern, 5 Threatened, 7 Endangered, 8 assessed as Not at Risk. The

remaining 123 taxa had not been assessed (Supporting Information). As COSEWIC

assesses species in order of perceived risk, we assume that those that have not been

assessed in the 41 years of COSEWIC assessments are relatively secure (Supporting

Information). Given the low sample sizes within at-risk categories, we binned taxa as

either 'at-risk' (Special Concern, Threatened, or Endangered) or 'secure' (assessed as Not

at Risk or not assessed).

We obtained distribution maps in the form of spatial polygons from the International

Union for Conservation of Nature (IUCN 2018). We first selected the 158 terrestrial

mammal species whose distribution polygon overlapped a polygon map of Canada

(Natural Earth 2018). IUCN maps are by species, but COSEWIC sometimes assesses

subspecies or populations. We retained subspecies and populations if the distribution map

provided in their COSEWIC assessment was similar to their IUCN distribution polygon

(2 subspecies and 1 population), but discarded 5 at-risk taxa (including polar bears)

whose IUCN polygons did not match the geographic scale of their COSEWIC

assessments. This yielded 153 taxa: 150 species, 2 subspecies, and 1 population (153

unique species in total; Fig. 1). Each map was cropped to land area only by overlapping it

with a world boundary map (Natural Earth 2018) using the "sf" package (version 0.7-3,

Pebesma 2018) in the statistical platform R (version 3.5.1, R Core Team 2018). As we

were specifically interested in range area, polygons were projected into Albers equal area

projection (Gibson et al. 2009).

Q1) How do range area in Canada and range percentage in Canada relate to national

conservation status?

We determined each taxon's range area and range fraction in Canada using the "sf"

package. We determined range area in Canada (km^2) by overlapping each species' map

with a boundary map of Canada (Natural Earth 2018), then measuring the area of the

overlap. Canadian range area varied from 2 km^2 (*Lontra canadensis*) to >9 million km^2

(*Nycticeius humeralis*), with a mean = 1 678 850 km^2 and median = 460 130 km^2. Due to

the spread of range areas, we ln-transformed Canadian range area for analyses (see

below). We quantified each taxon's global range area by measuring the area of overlap

between its range map and a global land map. Global range area varied from 2075 km^2

(*Marmota vancouverensis*) to >22 million km^2 (*Puma concolor*), with a mean = 4 449

710 km^2 and median = 3 263 110 km^2. We calculated the percentage of each taxon's

global range that occurs in Canada (i.e. the inverse of peripherality in Canada) as

Canadian range area/Global range area x 100; this varied from <0.001% (*Nycticeius*

humeralis) to 100% (*Dicrostonyx nunatakensis* & *Marmota vancouverensis*).

We tested the relationships between range area in Canada, range percentage in Canada,

and conservation status in Canada using three models. We tested whether range area

(ln(range area), gaussian response; model a) or percentage (proportion response; model b)

in Canada differed between taxa deemed at-risk or secure (conservation status = binomial

predictor), using generalized linear models (GLMs) with a gaussian and binomial error

structure, respectively (*glm* command, base R; ln(range area) or percentage ~

conservation status). Next, using a binomial GLM we tested whether the probability of a

taxa being at-risk (conservation status = binomial response) varied with range percentage

in Canada (proportion predictor) even after accounting for range size (continuous

predictor; model c): conservation status ~ ln(range area) + range percentage (Venables &

Ripley 2002). We assessed the significance of predictors using likelihood ratio Chisquare

tests (*Anova* type=III command, *car* package).

Q2) Do hotspots of at-risk or range-edge taxa coincide with high overall diversity?

To quantify the spatial distribution of mammal diversity, we overlaid an equal area grid

of 100x100 km cells on the Canadian equal area map. This produced a map of Canada

divided into 1285 cells (not all equal in area as the Canadian border bisected some cells

(Appendix S1). We overlaid the range map polygons of all terrestrial mammals on the

grid map, and counted the total mammal species, at-risk species, and range-edge species

in each cell. We defined 'range-edge species' as taxa with ≤20% of their global range in

Canada (as per Klemet-N'Guessan et al. 2019); using a threshold of 10% changed the

number of range-edge taxa from 76 to 53 but did not alter conclusions to Questions 1 and

2 (Supp Info). Following Prendergast et al. (1993) and Reid (1998), we identified cells

with the highest richness ('hotspots') of at-risk and of range-edge taxa up to a maximum

of 5% of the total grid cells. We use 'hotspot' *sensu* Prendergast et al. (1993) to refer to

areas with high biodiversity, rather than *sensu* Myers (1988) as areas of high diversity

and high extrinsic threat. This yielded 47 hotspot cells (5 to 6 at-risk taxa/cell) for at-risk

taxa (3.6% of total grid cells; Fig. 2a), and 47 hotspot cells of range-edge taxa (17 to 29

range-edge taxa/cell; Fig. 2b). Cells containing 4 at-risk or 16 range-edge taxa were not

counted as the number of hotspot cells would have exceeded 5% of total cells. This

method of identifying cells of high richness creates richness indices that are reasonably

independent of total species richness (Reid 1998).

Whereas regression models assume data points are independent, we detected significant

spatial autocorrelation; i.e. hotspot cells for at-risk taxa occurred closer to each other than

expected by chance (Moran's $I \pm$ SD $= 0.0628 \pm 0.00137$, $P < 0.001$), as did range-edge

hotspots (Moran's $I \pm$ SD $= 0.116 \pm 0.00137$, $P < 0.001$). We accounted for this spatial

autocorrelation by incorporating the spatial configuration of data via a fixed effect

covariate (*s*), using the Spatial Eigenvector Mapping method (Griffith & Peres-Neto

2006; Dormann et al. 2007; Thayn & Simanis 2013). We selected the neighborhood size

of the spatial configuration covariate using the value that maximized model fit based on

its Akaike Information Criterion (AIC) value (Supporting Information, Augustin et al.

1996; Dormann et al. 2007).

We tested whether total mammal richness was higher in at-risk hotspots than other cells

using a GLM with binomial error structure. Each cell contributed one data point. The

cells' at-risk hotspot status (at-risk hotspot or not) was a binomial response, and total

mammal richness and the spatial covariate s were fixed effects (at-risk hotspot ~ total

richness + s). Significance of the predictors was determined using likelihood ratio

Chisquare tests as for Q1. This approach is consistent with previous studies comparing at-

risk vs. total richness (Prendergast et al. 1993; Orme et al. 2005; Ceballos & Ehrlich

2006), but we recognize two complicating issues; First, that the response and predictors

are not fully independent as an increase in at-risk richness automatically causes an

increase in total richness, second that smaller cells (bisected by the Canadian border) may

contain fewer species due to sampling error alone. We ran two alternate GLMs to test

whether our results were sensitive to either issue, one with richness of secure mammals

as the predictor (at-risk hotspot ~ secure mammal richness + s; Table S5), and one

including cell area as a fixed effect (Appendix S1). Both models reached the same

conclusions as our original model, so we present analyses using total richness and not

including cell size to facilitate comparison with previous studies.

Similarly, we tested whether total mammal richness was higher in hotspots of range-edge

taxa richness than other cells (range-edge hotspot ~ total richness + s). Results using

richness of secure mammals instead of total richness were again similar (Table S5).

Spatial Eigenvector Mapping (i.e. including s as fixed effect) corrected the

autocorrelation in residuals for both the at-risk hotspot model (without s: Moran's I ±SD

= 0.046 ± 0.0014, $P < 0.001$; with s: Moran's I ±SD = -0.00060 ±0.0014, $P = 0.90$) and

the range-edge hotspot model (without s: Moran's I±SD = 0.063±0.0014, $P < 0.001$; with

s: Moran's I±SD = -0.0023 ±0.0013, $P = 0.020$), and improved model fit (at-risk hotpot

model: AIC decreased from 259.5 to 100.9; range-edge hotspot model: AIC decreased

from 192 to 65); we therefore present the corrected models.

Results

In Canada, mammal richness is highest toward the south and along the western mountains

(Fig. 1a, Fig 2. grey scale maps), although this pattern was not apparent for the 22 taxa

deemed at-risk (Fig. 1b). Half (50%) of all 'Canadian' mammals had less than 20% of

their global range in Canada.

Q1) How do range area in Canada and range percentage in Canada relate to national

conservation status?

Range area in Canada differed significantly between nationally at-risk and nationally

secure mammals, but peripherality did not (Fig. 1). Mammals at-risk of extinction in

Canada had smaller Canadian ranges than mammals considered secure, as predicted

(model a: $X^2_{df=1} = 6.28$, $P = 0.012$; Fig. 1c). Contrary to our predictions, at-risk mammals

did not have smaller fractions of their global ranges in Canada (model b: $X^2_{df=1} = 0.39$, P

= 0.53; Fig. 1d). Probability of being at-risk in Canada increased as Canadian range area

decreased (area: $X^2_{df=1} = 4.54$, $P = 0.033$), but was not affected by range percentage in

Canada after controlling for range area (percentage: $X^2_{df=1} = 0.06$, $P = 0.85$, model c).

Q2) Do hotspots of at-risk or range-edge taxa coincide with high overall diversity?

Of the 1285 100x100 km grid cells in Canada, cells with the highest richness of at-risk

and range-edge mammals ('hotspots') coincided with areas of high total richness (Fig. 2).

Hotspots of at-risk mammals had significantly higher total mammal richness than other

cells ($X^2_{df=1} = 140.3$, $P < 0.0001$; Fig. 2c). At-risk hotspot cells each contained 37 to 67

mammal species (24–44% of Canada's mammal richness; Fig. 2c), and together were

home to 80% of the 153 Canadian mammals in our data. Similarly, hotspots of range-

edge species, i.e. species only present in Canada in <20% of their range, also had

significantly higher mammal richness than other cells ($X^2_{df=1} = 266.8$, $P < 0.0001$; Fig.

2d). Range-edge hotspot cells each contained 41 to 67 mammal species (27–44% of

Canada's mammal richness), and together were home to 81% of the 153 Canadian

mammals in our data. The two types of hotspot partially coincided with each other:

almost a third of at-risk hotspot cells were also range-edge hotspots and vice versa (15 of

79 hotspot cells overlapped; Fig. 2).

Discussion

Our quantitative analyses of how mammals are spatially distributed in Canada revealed

three main findings. First, our results confirm earlier qualitative assessments

(Yakimowski & Eckert 2007; Gibson et al. 2009) that Canada is a land of edge

populations; half the mammals that live in Canada only do so at the northernmost tip

(20% or less) of their global range. Second, by quantifying range areas we show that

although species with smaller Canadian ranges are more likely to be nationally at risk

(Fig. 1a), species with smaller fractions of their range in Canada were not (Fig. 1d and

model c). Thus we found no evidence that range-edge populations are inherently more

vulnerable, due either to their demography (e.g. putatively small or isolated populations)

or coincidence with areas of high human population density in Canada's south. Third, we

found significant spatial overlap between high mammal diversity and hotspots of both at-

risk mammals and range-edge mammals (Fig. 2). We find this result particularly exciting,

as it suggests that protecting habitat for at-risk mammals could have significant co-

benefits to mammals considered secure, and that protecting range-edge populations need

not involve a trade-off with protecting Canada's overall mammal diversity.

Our finding of high spatial overlap between total mammal richness and at-risk mammal

richness (Fig. 2c) contrasts results from other areas and taxa. Globally, hotspots of at-risk

mammals do not strongly overlap areas of high total mammal richness (Ceballos &

Ehrlich 2006), and hotspots of at-risk birds show little overlap with hotspots of total bird

richness (Orme et al. 2005). Diversity is driven largely by energy availability and

biogeographic history (Gaston 2000), whereas threats to wildlife are driven by human

impact (Schipper et al. 2008; Szabo et al. 2012). Poor global congruence between at-risk

and total diversity suggests these drivers have different global distributions (Orme et al.

2005). In Canada however, mammal richness concentrates in the south and west (Fig. 1),

as does the intensity of human land conversion (Kerr & Cihlar 2004; Kerr & Deguise

2004). To the extent that diversity and human impacts co-occur in other high-latitude

countries, high overlap between at-risk and total diversity may be more common at

regional scales.

Of course, habitat protection generally happens on a much smaller scale than our

100x100 km grid cells, and species rarely occupy all land area within their occurrence

polygon at fine scales. Protecting habitat within a hotspot may not capture all the species

whose ranges overlap with the larger grid cell. Nevertheless, identifying hotspots at a

coarse scale is still useful for conservation planning, and should now be priorities for

finer scale assessments (Rodrigues et al. 2004). Further, we are in an era of species on the

move, as species shift their geographic distributions in response to anthropogenic change

(Chen et al. 2011; Freeman et al. 2018). Protecting habitat in high diversity areas

provides habitat options that nearby species may well use in the future, even if they don't

use them currently.

Cells that were hotspots for both at-risk and range-edge taxa are particularly interesting.

The highest densities of mammals deemed at-risk in Canada actually occur in the United

States (Fig. 1b). One effective conservation strategy for many at-risk taxa in Canada may

be to maintain habitat connections to US populations. This would both enable natural

immigration and population replenishment, and provide bridges if species begin to shift

northward in response to warming, both of which could bolster Canadian populations.

Indeed, as species are shifting poleward around the world, our current range-edge species

may become much less peripheral in the coming decades, and much of Canada's future

biodiversity may be on our doorstep. Protecting habitat in the 'double hotspots' is a win-

win-win, protecting high numbers of mammals overall, protecting the at-risk species

Canada has decided it has a national responsibility toward, and protecting Canada's

future biodiversity in the form of existing range-edge mammals and the wildlife refuges

from climate change coming our way.

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Fig. 1: Geographic distributions of secure (purple) and at risk (teal) terrestrial mammals

in Canada. (a & b) Each polygon shows one taxon's distribution, areas of darker colour

contain more taxa (colour scale bars indicate the species richness). Although only taxa

that occur in Canada are mapped, areas of high richness occur south of the Canadian

border. At-risk and secure mammals differ in Canadian range size (c; raw data shown, *

indicates statistical difference from model considering ln-transformed data), but not the

percentage of their global range that occurs in Canada (d). Centre lines and box

boundaries represent the median, 25th and 75th percentiles respectively, whiskers extend

to 1.5x the distance between the 25th and 75th percentiles, dots are outliers.

Fig. 2: High spatial overlap between hotspots and total mammal richness. Maps of

Canada are divided into 1284 100x100 km grid cells, shaded in greyscale to show total

species richness of terrestrial mammals. Coloured cells show locations of hotspot cells,

i.e. those with the highest richness of a) mammals deemed at-risk in Canada (teal), and b)

mammals that only occur in Canada in the northernmost 20% or less of their global

distribution (red). (c & d) Relative diversity of hotspot (coloured) vs. non-hotspot (grey)

cells. Middle plots show raw data, where each point represents one grid cell. Bottom:

Hotspots have higher total mammal richness than non-hotspot cells (* indicates a

significant difference within panel). Boxes summarize raw data, showing the median and

quartiles, formatting as per Fig. 1.