

1 **The effect of climate change on the distribution of Canidae**

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3 Prediction of current and future distribution of canids.

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16

17 **ABSTRACT**

18 Land use by humans and climate change have been seriously affecting the distribution of
19 species resulting in a quarter of all known mammals currently threatened with extinction.
20 Here, we modeled the present and future potential distributions of all 36 extant Canidae
21 species to evaluate their response to future climate scenarios. In addition, we tested if canids
22 were likely to experience evolutionary rescue, which could allow some species to adapt to
23 climate change. Our results suggest that global warming will cause most species to lose or
24 maintain their ranges, while a few will have the potential to benefit from future conditions and
25 considerably expand their geographic distributions. Some canids have the potential to
26 experience evolutionary rescue, but *Atelocynus microtis* and *Chrysocyon brachyurus* are two
27 concerning cases that do not show this capacity to adapt given the current pace of climate
28 change. We also reveal that most Canidae hotspot regions are outside protected areas, which
29 may be useful for the identification of key areas for conservation.

30

31 **KEYWORDS:** adaptation, ecological niche models, environmental change, geographical
32 ranges, Haldanes.

33

34 **1 INTRODUCTION**

35 The pace of climate change induced by humans is much faster than predicted previously
36 (Pimm et al., 2014). Ceballos et al. (2015) showed that the rate of vertebrate species loss over
37 the last century is up to 100 times higher than the background extinction rate. This
38 anthropogenic pressure causes habitat loss and increased competition from invasive
39 organisms (Butchart et al., 2010), which leads to species extinction (Ceballos et al., 2015;
40 May & Lawton, 1995), and thus has serious impacts on global biodiversity. Over the last
41 decades, several studies have shown how human impacts affect the structure of ecosystems
42 and how these changes can backfire and affect humans negatively with floods, fires, air
43 pollution, heat waves, and vector-borne diseases (Bellard et al., 2012; Cardinale et al., 2012;
44 Goberna et al., 2014; Kortsch et al., 2015; Nadeau et al., 2017; Parmesan & Yohe, 2003; Pecl
45 et al., 2017; Woodward et al., 2010). Some species are more susceptible to extinction than
46 others due to their traits, including: reproductive rate, habitat specialization, body size, and
47 geographic range (Davidson et al., 2009; Fritz & Purvis, 2010). Therefore, understanding how
48 species are going to respond in future scenarios of climate change is necessary to predict the
49 impact of the loss of certain species on ecosystems, and it will be useful for conservation of
50 biodiversity.

51 Until recently, evolution was thought to play no substantial role in a population's
52 resilience when facing a rapid environmental change (Ferrière et al., 2004). The common idea
53 was that a population in decline, exposed to a deteriorating environment, would become
54 extinct. However, Gonzalez et al. (2012) and Bell (2013) coined and matured the idea of
55 evolutionary rescue (ER). In an ER scenario, adaptive processes could be triggered in some
56 resistant individuals of the population under environmental stress, allowing them to rapidly
57 proliferate and counter the rate of decline of the population, thereby changing our perspective
58 on communities with populations that are threatened with extinction (van Eldijk et al., 2020).

59 The most used tools to evaluate how species are dealing with climate change are
60 ecological niche models (ENMs) (Araújo & New, 2007; Ehrlén & Morris, 2015; Elith et al.,
61 2010; Guisan & Thuiller, 2005). ENMs use mathematical modelling of a species' relationship
62 with environmental variables, and predict habitat suitability for that species based on known
63 occurrence data (Araújo et al., 2011; Guisan & Thuiller, 2005). ENMs based on climate data
64 have proven extremely useful in assessing the effectiveness of the distribution of protected
65 areas (Catullo et al., 2008), assessing species vulnerability to local land-use changes (Santos

66 et al., 2013), predicting distributions of rare species (Marino et al., 2011; Rheingantz et al.,
67 2014), and predicting possible responses to climate change by species and ecosystems (Moor
68 et al., 2015; Sobral-Souza et al., 2018).

69 However, the use of ENMs with climatic variables alone has been debated in several
70 studies (Diniz-Filho et al., 2019; Elith et al., 2010; Synes & Osborne, 2011), mainly because
71 ENMs do not incorporate intrinsic characteristics of the populations, relying on the idea that
72 all the mechanisms that affect species` distributions are captured by the environmental data
73 (Diniz-Filho et al., 2019). However, niche models that use traits (morphological and
74 physiological) or genetic data are complex and do not work well when the niches of several
75 species are modeled simultaneously (Norberg et al., 2012).

76 The attempt to predict responses of species to climate change is further limited by
77 uncertainties surrounding climatic predictions - with slight differences existing between
78 different general circulation models (GCM) - and by uncertainties about the possibilities of
79 measuring evolutionary rescue.

80 Recently, Diniz-Filho et al. (2019) applied a macroecological framework to estimate
81 responses to evolutionary change and the likelihood of evolutionary rescue; they proposed the
82 H value (Haldanes) to estimate the evolutionary change required by species to maintain their
83 populations in future environmental scenarios, giving a biological and evolutionary meaning
84 to temperature variations that species will experience. According to the framework proposed
85 by Diniz-Filho et al. (2019), the greater the variation in temperature between present and
86 future, the greater the H value, and consequently, the more difficult it is for the species to
87 experience an ER scenario. Likewise, the fewer generations the species can have until the
88 future, the higher the H . In short, the smaller the temperature difference and the larger the
89 number of generations, the more likely it is for evolutionary rescue to happen, and for a
90 species to persist in the face of climate change.

91 WWF (2018) showed an average 60% decrease in vertebrate populations, and a
92 quarter of all known mammals are currently threatened with extinction (IUCN, 2020). Within
93 this group, the canids (family Canidae) is an excellent group to test the impacts of climate
94 changes on future distributions, as they are distributed in all continents, except Antarctica
95 (Sillero-Zubiri et al., 2004; Wang & Tedford, 2008), and because as medium-large mammals
96 they are more prone to extinction than smaller species (Rija et al., 2020). Like other species,
97 canids are affected by the consequences of urbanization and climate change: coyotes (*Canis*
98 *latrans*) and red foxes (*Vulpes Vulpes*) have been observed in urban areas in North-America
99 (Lombardi et al., 2017; Mueller et al., 2018; Poessel et al., 2013, 2017), while the red fox has

100 invaded a habitat in northern Europe that was previously occupied only by the arctic fox
101 (*Vulpes lagopus*) (WWF, 2018). Understanding how canids are affected by changes in the
102 landscape, and being able to predict their future distributions is essential to outline
103 conservation strategies for different species.

104 Here we use climate-based ENMs to: 1) model the distribution of all canids under
105 present climate conditions, 2) predict possible changes in Canidae distribution under climate
106 change in the next 54 years (2075), and identify species at risk of losing some or all of their
107 current range, but also assess if some species could enlarge it; and 3) identify which species
108 are most likely to adapt to changing climatic conditions and therefore avoid the negative
109 effects of temperature change.

110

111 **2 MATERIALS AND METHODS**

112 **2.1 Occurrence and environmental data**

113 Species occurrence data for all canids were taken from VertNet (Constable et al., 2010) and
114 the Global Biodiversity Information Facility (GBIF, 2020) online databases. The number of
115 occurrence points is shown in Tables S1, and cover all the known distribution of the 36
116 species used here (which correspond to 100% of the living Canidae species). We spatially
117 filtered the data using SDMToolbox 2.0 (Brown et al., 2017), in ArcGis 10.3.1
118 (Environmental Systems Resource Institute, 2019), to remove duplicate occurrence points. As
119 there are different classifications for the Canidae family in relation to the number of species
120 (Bardeleben et al., 2005; Perini et al., 2010; Zrzavy & Ricánková, 2004), here we use the
121 most recent canid phylogeny proposed by Porto et al. (2019) to define which species of
122 Canidae ($n = 36$ - Table S1) would be considered here to model their potential distributions.

123 For environmental variables, we downloaded a digital elevation model (DEM) (IUCN,
124 2019) and the standard 19 Worldclim bioclimatic variables for the present and future (2075)
125 (Hijmans et al., 2005). In addition, we used the distance to freshwater as a variable, which we
126 measured using the Natural Earth River and lake maps, and the Euclidean distance tool in
127 ArcGis. To clarify the environmental data we masked the variables and imported them into R
128 4.0-2 (R Development Core Team, 2020) and tested for multicollinearity using variance
129 inflation factor (VIF) tests with the package regclass 1.6 (Petrie, 2020) and pairwise plots.
130 Highly correlated variables (VIF score > 10 or Pearson correlation > 0.7 respectively) were
131 eliminated one at a time, starting with the variable(s) deemed to possess the least ecological
132 relevance based on the VIF tests.

133

134 **2.2 Ecological niche modelling**

135 ENMs for the present were performed using the R package SDM 1.0-89 (Naimi & Araújo,
136 2016). To model species' niches for the present, we generated 10.000 random background
137 points within a mask equivalent to the species' known IUCN ranges, buffered to 220 km (or
138 approximately two decimal degrees), producing a presence-absence matrix of species within
139 defined grids cells (pixels). We built ensembles (objects with a weighted averaging over all
140 predictions from several fitted models) of four different models: Maxent, Support Vector
141 Machine (SVM), Random Forest (RF), and Boosted Regression Tree (BRT). For all models,
142 we used 90% as training data and 10% were retained as test points. Models were only
143 accepted if they had acceptable True Skill Statistic (TSS - calculated as the sum of specificity
144 + sensitivity - 1) and Area Under the Curve (AUC) values (0.7 being the minimum accepted
145 AUC, 0.6 the minimum TSS (Allouche et al., 2006)). We used both TSS and AUC to evaluate
146 the models because they assign different weights depending on the sample size of the data
147 used (Guisan et al., 2017), and hence we believe our results to be more robust if both criteria
148 are met.

149 In order to verify whether the ENMs and IUCN polygons agree, we compared the
150 current distribution maps of all species of canids available at IUCN against the maps created
151 here through ENMs. IUCN maps were generated by minimum convex polygons, which
152 represent the realized niche of the species, while the ENMs here bring a more detailed notion
153 of their fundamental niche.

154 We modelled the future distribution of species based on the most pessimistic climate
155 scenario for the year 2075 (RCP 8.5 - Representative Concentration Pathway) from IPCC
156 (2007). We chose this scenario because it seems to have become the most realistic one over
157 the last years, and can even be under-estimating future concentrations of atmospheric carbon
158 (Christensen et al. (2018). RCP 8.5 assumes high global CO₂ concentration, a high rate of
159 human population growth, and an increased use of energy and land. We used an ensemble of
160 three General Circulation Models (GCMs): Access1.0 (exhibits a high skill score with regard
161 to historical climate), HadGEM2 (has a good representation of extreme El Niño events), and
162 MIROC5 (also has a good representation of extreme El Niño events, and represents all RCPs
163 scenarios well). Maps of suitability (present/future) are shown on a continuous scale to better
164 visualize the potential distribution of species.

165

166 **2.3 Evolutionary rescue calculations**

167 H values were calculated for each of the 36 canids to predict whether they can adapt to
168 climate change and prevent the loss of their habitat. We assumed that temperature is a
169 representation of the species' niche (tolerance) most closely reflecting climate change. For
170 each species, changes in maximum temperature of the warmest month (Bio05) across the
171 entire range were estimated, and the temperature change in each cell was calculated as the
172 average of the future temperature (in the warmest month) minus the average of the present
173 temperature (in the warmest month). Following Diniz-Filho et al. (2019), H values were
174 calculated using:

$$H = \frac{\frac{Y_0 - Y_t}{Y_{sd}}}{g}$$

175 where Y_0 is the mean temperature at the present, Y_t is the mean temperature at time t in the
176 future, Y_{sd} is the standard deviation of the present temperature tolerance (assuming a constant
177 variance between generations), and g is the number of generations between present and future.
178 The generation lengths for all canid species was compiled from the Animal Diversity Web
179 (ADW - Myers et al., 2018) and PanTHERIA (Jones et al., 2009) (Table S1). The higher the
180 value of H , the greater the rate of evolutionary change needed for a species to experience ER,
181 and consequently, the more difficult it is to maintain its population facing a climatic change
182 scenario.

183 For the evolutionary rescue analyses, we used the threshold maps (binary) for each
184 species, produced with the suitability maps because they show presence/absence values based
185 on the specificity and sensitivity of the model (Liu et al., 2015).

186

187 **3 RESULTS**

188 **3.1 Ecological niche modelling**

189 All ENMs produced acceptable accuracy values for TSS and AUC. After testing highly
190 correlated variables, only five were not excluded and were used to model canid niches, they
191 are: distance to freshwater (DIST), the maximum temperature in the warmest month (Bio05),
192 precipitation in the driest month (Bio14), elevation (DEM).

193 To check the reliability of the ENMs we compared their predictions on the present
194 distributions with the actual current distributions according to IUCN polygons (realized niche)
195 (Appendix - Figure S1 – S36). With the exception of a single species, *Canis lupus*, the

196 distribution polygons fall within the areas that the ENMs demonstrate to be suitable for the
197 species to occupy (fundamental niche). Species richness maps for the present generated by
198 ENMs (Figure 1) and by polygons (Figure S37) show very similar patterns of species overlap,
199 generally maintaining the same hotspot locations in the Middle East + Northeast Africa region
200 and western part of the USA. However, there is an exception: the richness map based on
201 polygons shows the presence of *Canis lupus* in the Middle East region towards India, but this
202 is not predicted by the ENMs (see Discussion). Because of the high similarity our ENM
203 predictions seem highly reliable, and we therefore compare our future ENM predictions with
204 ENM predictions for the present, as they are better comparable (both describe the
205 fundamental niche).

206 Our models indicated that 27 species were predicted to experience range contractions
207 under climate change, while 9 were predicted to expand in range overall (Table S2). In all
208 three Canidae clades (wolves, foxes, and South-American canids), we find that most species
209 will contract their ranges, and a few will expand their ranges (Figure S38A-S38C). We
210 discuss them now in more detail.

211 The South-American canids (Figure S38C), *Atelocynus microtis*, *Lycalopex fulvipes*,
212 and *Lycalopex sechurae* are predicted to see future climate suitability fall below their
213 modelled threshold across their entire ranges (Table S2), losing a large part of their
214 geographical distributions (Appendix - Figures S39, S40, and S41). In contrast, *Cerdocyon*
215 *thous* is the only South-American canid that was predicted to have a considerable expansion
216 in its geographical area under future conditions; moreover, the ENM predicts that *C. thous*
217 will occupy areas within the Amazon Forest not inhabited before (Table S2, and also see
218 Appendix - Figure S38C and Figure S42).

219 In the clade of wolves, *Canis latrans* and *Canis rufus* are probably going to lose a
220 large part of their ranges in North America, while *Canis anthus* and *Canis lupus* are expected
221 to increase their distributions, mainly in desert areas such as the Middle East, for both species,
222 and the deserts in the USA for *C. lupus* (Table S2, and also see Appendix - Figure S38A,
223 Figure S43, and Figure S44).

224 Some of the fox species are predicted to suffer severe losses in their ranges (Table S2
225 and Figure S38B). Among them, *Urocyon littoralis* stands out: even though it is considered an
226 endangered species at the moment, the ENMs predicted that *U. littoralis* will lose 28.6% of its
227 (small) current distribution (Table S2). *Vulpes chama*, *Vulpes bengalensis*, and *Vulpes velox*
228 also were predicted to have a considerable decrease in their geographical ranges. By contrast,
229 *Vulpes corsac*, *Vulpes vulpes*, *Otocyon megalotis*, and *Urocyon cinereoargenteus* will

230 probably experience range expansions under future climatic conditions. In fact, the ENM
231 predicted that *V. vulpes* will increase 5.7% of its distribution, inhabiting new areas such as the
232 Middle East, Northern Canada, and Greenland (Appendix - Figure S45).

233 The richness map of the present (Figure 1) shows that the overlap of different species
234 is very low around the planet. The map also points to two hotspot areas for canid diversity,
235 one in the western part of the USA (Figure 1A), and another in the Middle East + Northeast
236 Africa region (Figure 1B). The richness map for the future (Figure 2) shows that patterns of
237 richness are predicted to change under future climatic conditions, where the main changes
238 will be in the hotspot areas. The USA hotspot is predicted to reduce its area considerably due
239 to the low species overlap in the future. By contrast, The Middle East + Northeast Africa
240 hotspot is predicted to increase in size.

241 The ENMs indicated species that do not overlap currently will start to overlap in their
242 distributions, and even those that overlap in only small parts of their distributions will suffer
243 considerable increases in their overlap areas. In South America, *C. thous* is predicted to
244 invade areas where only *A. microtis* and *Speothos venaticus* live, inside the Amazon rainforest
245 (Appendix - Figures S39, S42, and S46). With the great expansion of *V. vulpes*' geographical
246 distribution, this species is expected to overlap its area with *V. bengalensis*, *Vulpes rueppellii*,
247 and *Vulpes zerda* (Appendix - Figures S45, S47, S48, and S49). In addition, *C. lupus* will
248 probably overlap in areas occupied before only by *V. bengalensis*, *V. rueppellii*, *V. zerda*, and
249 *Canis aureus* (Appendix - Figures S44, S47, S48, S49, and S50).

250

251 **3.2 Evolutionary rescue**

252 Most of canids presented evolutionary rates around 0.01 Haldanes (Table S2). The highest *H*
253 value was found for *A. microtis* ($H = 0.047$ Haldanes), and the lowest value was from
254 *Lycalopex griseus* ($H = 0.004$ Haldanes) (Table S2).

255 We found a significant weak negative correlation between change in range size and
256 evolutionary potential: species that are predicted to undergo more habitat loss according to the
257 ENMs have a lower potential for ER, according to the *H* values (Figure 3).

258

259 **4 DISCUSSION**

260 We applied models of evolutionary rescue, using temperature and generation cycle as intrinsic
261 characteristics of canids, together with ENMs to understand the magnitude of the effects of
262 climate change on Canidae distribution. Predictions for the future by ENMs, derived from the

263 IPCC worst climate change scenario, suggested that climate change will affect canids in
264 distinct ways, where some species will expand or maintain their distributions, while most will
265 suffer a large reduction in their suitable areas. Furthermore, the calculated Haldanes suggest
266 that for some species it will be more difficult to keep up with the pace of temperature changes
267 than others. We detected a weak negative correlation between habitat loss and potential for
268 evolutionary rescue, indicating that the species with higher potential to evolutionary rescue
269 are the ones that gain area or lose only a small part of their future distributions, while the ones
270 which are going to lose a large part of their future distribution will need a higher evolutionary
271 change to maintain their populations. *Atelocynus microtis*, for example, is predicted to lose
272 about half of its potential distribution and has the highest H value among canids ($H = 0.047$
273 Haldanes). This negative correlation is to be expected because larger differences between
274 present and future temperatures will increase H and will also make it more likely that range
275 sizes will change.

276 Our results suggest that global warming will be devastating to the Canidae family as a
277 whole. However, even in this pessimistic scenario, some species have the potential to benefit
278 from future conditions and considerably expand their geographic distributions. In general,
279 several taxa, including mammals, birds, amphibians, and reptiles, are expected to experience
280 drastic range reductions (Araújo & New, 2007; Diniz-filho et al., 2009; Hidasi-neto et al.,
281 2019; Lawler et al., 2009; Maiorano et al., 2011; Peterson et al., 2002). In a scenario such as
282 this, several communities will probably lose phylogenetic and functional diversity (Davis et
283 al., 1998; Hidasi-neto et al., 2019), and considering the number of interactions that will be lost
284 within these areas, the ecological impacts due to indirect effects may be stronger than the
285 direct effects of climate change on species' distributions (Davis et al., 1998; Peterson et al.,
286 2002). Carnivores, through population regulation, can promote the coexistence of several
287 species by reducing interspecific competition (Paine, 1966). Because canids, being carnivores,
288 hunt distinct animals, they end up regulating the population dynamics of their prey, which is
289 an important factor for maintaining biodiversity (Sanders et al., 2013; Sanders & van Veen,
290 2012).

291 In South-America, there is a very concerning situation, where *A. microtis* will
292 probably contract its range substantially and undergo fragmentation of its distribution within
293 the Amazon Forest, while *C. thous* will expand. *A. microtis* is ecologically restricted to very
294 specific resources and conditions (Sillero-Zubiri et al., 2004; Wilson & Mittermeier, 2009).
295 By contrast, *C. thous* is a generalist species with a large distribution across South-America
296 (Sillero-Zubiri et al., 2004). Currently, the status of *A. microtis* is “Near Threatened” (IUCN,

297 2019), but considering the climate change effects shown here, and the fact that the Amazon
298 Forest has been suffering with wildfires and an intense deforestation process over the last
299 decades (Exbrayat et al., 2017; INPE, 2019), *A. microtis* is probably experiencing a
300 substantial habitat loss followed by a very likely increase in the number of direct encounters
301 with another competitor. Thus, we suggest that its “Near Threatened” status must change, at
302 least, to “Vulnerable”.

303 A similar situation applies to *V. vulpes* and *V. lagopus*. The first one has a wide
304 distribution over the northern hemisphere, while the second is restricted to areas covered by
305 snow around The North Pole, but both species overlap in the Tundra of North America and
306 Eurasia (Hersteinsson & Macdonald, 1992; Sillero-Zubiri et al., 2004). Over the past few
307 years there has been an increase in the number of encounters between the two species due to
308 the warming temperatures that are gradually melting the Arctic ice cap, reducing the available
309 area for *V. lagopus*, but making it possible for *V. vulpes* to expand its distribution to the north
310 into arctic tundra in Eurasia and North America (Gallant et al., 2012). This reality is even
311 more aggravating in the future scenario shown here, considering the large area loss by *V.*
312 *lagopus* to *V. vulpes* (Figure S51). However, Gallant et al. (2012) suggested that food scarcity
313 in these areas seems to explain the dynamics of the geographical overlap of both two species
314 better than climate warming. Nevertheless, the effects of area loss must still be taken into
315 account to outline conservation strategies for *V. lagopus*.

316 The loss of species has severe impacts on the functioning of ecosystems (Cardinale et
317 al., 2012; Kennedy et al., 2002; Lyons & Schwartz, 2001; Pimm et al., 2014). In general,
318 reductions in the number of species (functional groups) decrease the efficiency of
319 communities to capture resources, and convert these into biomass (Balvanera et al., 2006;
320 Cardinale et al., 2012; Quijas et al., 2010). Our niche models detected two major richness
321 hotspots for Canidae: one in the Middle East + North East Africa and one in North America.
322 The former is predicted to undergo a small expansion, mainly due to the range expansion of
323 *C. lupus*, *C. anthus*, and *V. vulpes* over these areas, and the capacity of *C. lupus* and *V. vulpes*
324 to live around urban areas (Sillero-Zubiri et al., 2004; Wang & Tedford, 2008; Wilson &
325 Mittermeier, 2009). This capacity can also explain the wide distribution of both species
326 around the world. The other hotspot area, in North America, is expected to experience a
327 considerable area reduction. This can be explained by the small portion of this hotspot that is
328 within protected areas in the USA, according to Brum et al. (2017).

329 Here, the ENMs for all canids (appendix) agreed well with the current distribution of
330 canids, suggesting that the methodology we applied is reliable to assess the impacts of climate

331 change on Canidae, taking into account their main niche dimensions. *Canis lupus* is the only
332 species for which the ENMs for the present did not encompass the entire distribution
333 presented by its polygon, because it is not predicted to occur in the Middle East. This might
334 be explained by the presence of a single population found in that region, which results in the
335 distribution of the species to be extended to areas that are not suitable. The IUCN distribution
336 maps are widely used in several studies for different purposes (Kyne et al., 2020; Porto et al.,
337 2021; Shier, 2015; Zhang et al., 2019), and are defined as the area within the outermost limits
338 of known occurrence for a species, but this area is not an estimate of the extent of occupied
339 habitat, it only measures the general extension of the localities in which the species is found
340 (Gaston & Fuller, 2009). Thus, polygons are highly susceptible to sampling biases.
341 Nevertheless, it is important to point out that ENMs for the future suggest that *Canis lupus*
342 will expand its distribution to the Middle East, which could be an indication that this region is
343 already becoming suitable for the species.

344 Our methods assumed that the prey of the Canidae will respond to environmental
345 changes at the same rate as their (apex or medium-level) predators. Indeed, climate change
346 has already been observed to have wide-ranging trophic effects (Gilman et al., 2010), and
347 physiological and behavioral effects in other species (Parmesan, 2006). Modelling the effect
348 of climate change on species' communities and trophic interactions has proven extremely
349 difficult, but these interactions can have serious impacts on species distributions (Sanders et
350 al., 2013; Sanders & van Veen, 2012). These trophic interactions may be further disrupted by
351 invasive species, the spread of which could be accelerated by climate change (Hellmann et al.,
352 2008).

353 Looking at the H values, two cases are very concerning. *Atelocynus microtis* and
354 *Chrysocyon brachyurus* present higher H values compared to other canids (0.047 and 0.027,
355 respectively), and based on Diniz-Filho et al. (2019), these species have a lower potential for
356 evolutionary rescue. Although H values and ENMs try to elucidate the future of species, they
357 have distinct points of view about the effects of climate change on canids, and therefore
358 should not be compared. However, these two approaches can shed light on Canidae responses
359 to the future of the planet. H values suggest that some species have less potential than others
360 to adapt fast enough to temperature changes, but ENMs indicate that some of them may
361 increase their range, because more suitable habitats will become available for them due to
362 climate change. Thus, in these cases ecological processes seem to prevail over evolutionary
363 ones.

364 Unfortunately, very little is known about ER in nature to compare with our findings,
365 mostly because the idea that evolution may influence the persistence of a population facing a
366 rapid environmental change is very recent. Nevertheless, Diniz-Filho et al. (2019) already
367 suggested that the use of the ER approach for wider geographical areas might not be that
368 simple. They suggested that in order to obtain a standard temperature deviation, the real
369 temperature tolerances must be known. However, no lab values were available for any wild
370 canid, meaning that only values obtained from range estimations and ENMs could be used.
371 Nonetheless, both may underestimate a species' true temperature tolerance. For example,
372 while we have extracted values of mean Bio05 (maximum temperature in the warmest
373 month), sometimes these values are well below the highest value seen within a species range.

374 The biogeographic patterns observed in this study may provide useful information for
375 assessing how canids are distributed in the present over the planet, being an alternative to the
376 distribution polygons provided by IUCN (2020). Climate change is projected to play an
377 essential role in the geographical distribution of canids, so our predictions can be used to
378 identify key areas for conservation strategies. This should receive special attention because as
379 we showed, most of the Canidae hotspot regions are not located within protected areas.

380

381 **DECLARATION SECTION**

382 **Ethics approval and consent to participate**

383 Not applicable.

384

385 **Consent for publication**

386 Not applicable.

387

388 **Availability of data and material**

389 All data generated or analyzed during this study are included in this article and in the supplementary files.

390

391 **Competing interests**

392 We have no competing interests.

393

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397

398 Authors' contributions

399 L.M.V.P. and D.B. conceived and designed the study and analyses. L.M.V.P. and D.B. performed the analyses.
400 L.M.V.P. and D. B. wrote the first draft of the manuscript. R.S.E. and R.M. commented on the methods and
401 contributed to substantial revisions on the draft.

402

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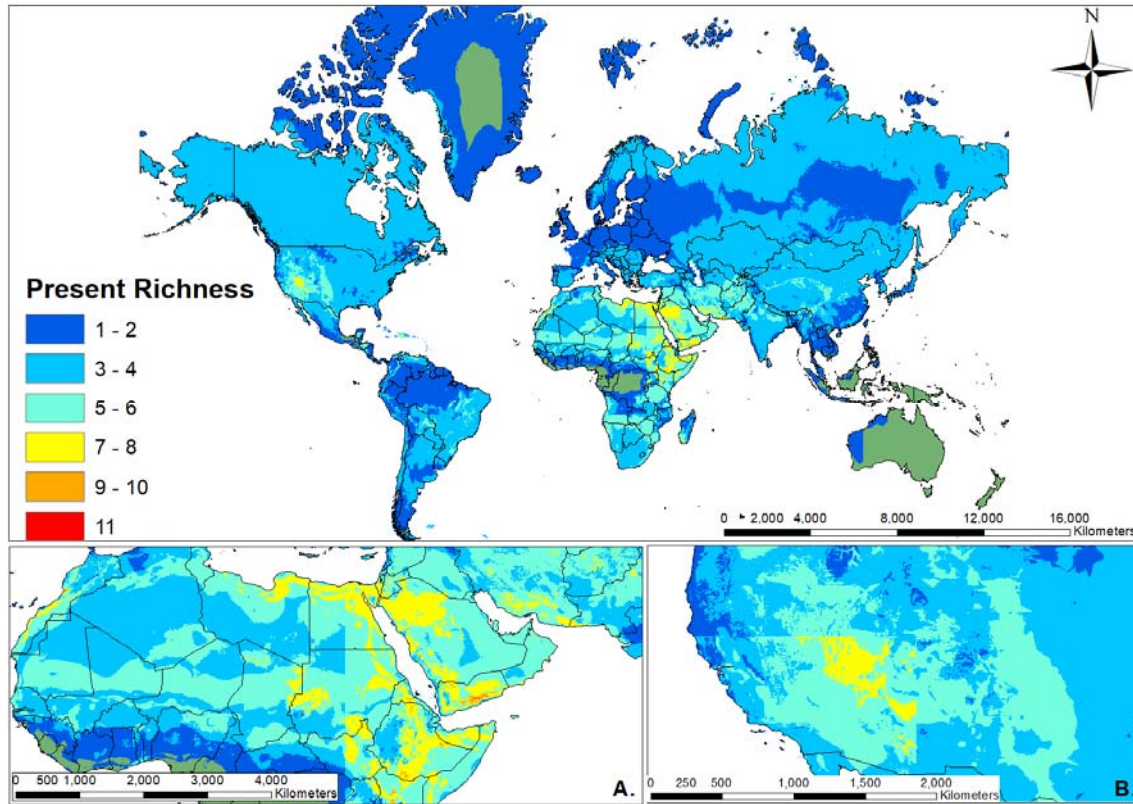
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632

633 **FIGURE LIST**

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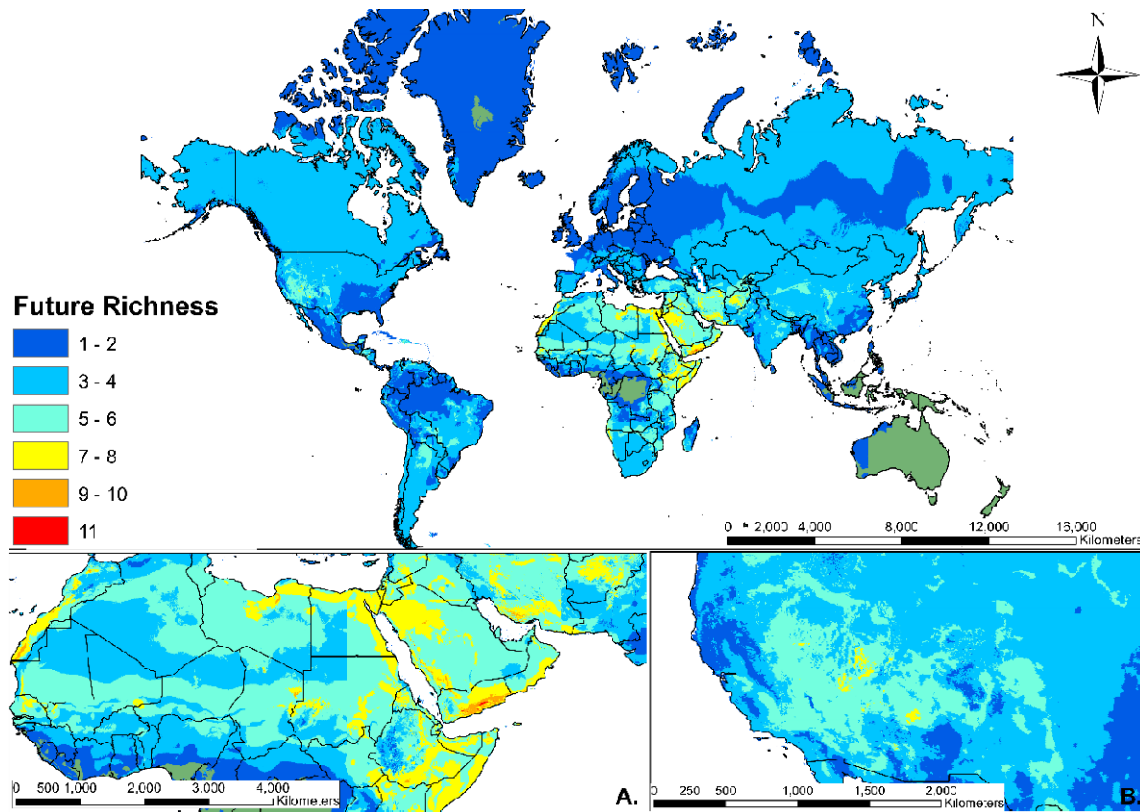
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637 **FIGURE 1** Species richness map of Canidae for the present produced by ENM. The richest
638 areas (hotspots) were identified in the Middle East + Northeast Africa region (A) and western
639 part of the USA (B). The legend on the left shows the number of overlapping species.

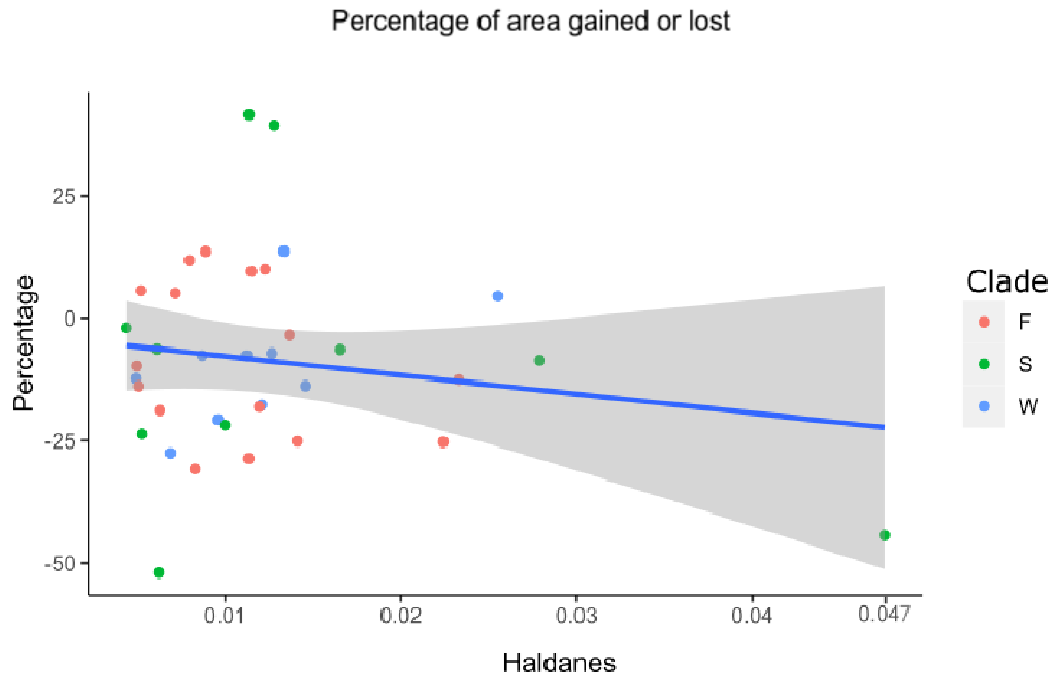
640



641

642 **FIGURE 2** Species richness map of Canidae under future climate conditions produced by
643 ENM. The richest areas (hotspots) were identified in the Middle East + Northeast Africa
644 region (A) and western part of the USA (B). The legend on the left shows the number of
645 overlapping species.

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648 **FIGURE 3** Plot representing the relationship between the percentage of area gained or lost by
649 canids in relation to H values. The higher the H value, the lower the likelihood of evolutionary
650 rescue. Red, green, and blue dots are species from the clades of foxes, South-American
651 canids, and wolves, respectively. $R^2 = -0.187$ ($P < 0.05$).

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664 **SUPPLEMENTARY TEXT: TABLE LIST**

665 **TABLE S1** List of the 36 species of Canidae included in our study. Age of sexual maturity of
 666 females (years), the number of generations until 2075, the number of occurrence points for each
 667 species, and the source of the original description are indicated here.

Species	Sexual maturity of females	Number of generations	Number of occurrence points	Descriptor
<i>Canis adustus</i>	0.75	100	1.028	Sundevall, 1847
<i>Canis aureus</i>	1	75	2.769	Linnaeus, 1758
<i>Canis anthus</i>	1	75	1.536	Cuvier, 1820
<i>Canis lupus</i>	2.5	25	8.490	Linnaeus, 1758
<i>Canis latrans</i>	0.84	89.3	2.402	Say, 1823
<i>Canis mesomelas</i>	0.84	89.3	645	Schreber, 1775
<i>Canis rufus</i>	1	75	30	Audubon & Bachman, 1851
<i>Canis simensis</i>	2	37.5	12	Rüppell, 1840
<i>Cuon alpinus</i>	1	75	507	Pallas, 1811
<i>Lycan pictus</i>	1.23	60.4	281	Temminck, 1820
<i>Nyctereutes procyonoides</i>	0.82	91.5	846	Gray, 1834
<i>Vulpes bengalensis</i>	1.5	50	327	Shaw, 1800
<i>Vulpes cana</i>	0.82	91.5	396	Blanford, 1877
<i>Vulpes chama</i>	0.75	100	229	A. Smith, 1833
<i>Vulpes corsac</i>	1.38	54.3	1.193	Linnaeus, 1768
<i>Vulpes ferrilata</i>	1.15	65.2	264	Hodgson, 1842
<i>Vulpes macrotis</i>	0.82	91.5	229	Merriam, 1888
<i>Vulpes pallida</i>	1	75	406	Cretzschmar, 1826
<i>Vulpes rueppellii</i>	1	75	1.299	Schinz, 1825
<i>Vulpes velox</i>	1	75	88	Say, 1823
<i>Vulpes vulpes</i>	0.83	90.4	9.457	Linnaeus, 1758
<i>Vulpes zerda</i>	0.49	153.1	850	Zimmermann, 1780
<i>Vulpes lagopus</i>	0.83	90.4	3.468	Linnaeus, 1758
<i>Urocyon cinereoargenteus</i>	0.95	78.7	1.089	Schreber, 1775
<i>Urocyon littoralis</i>	1	75	30	Baird, 1857
<i>Otocyon megalotis</i>	0.61	122.6	515	Desmarest, 1822
<i>Atelocynus microtis</i>	1	75	238	Sclater, 1883
<i>Cerdocyon thous</i>	0.76	98.7	864	Linnaeus, 1766
<i>Chrysocyon brachyurus</i>	2	37.5	457	Illiger, 1815
<i>Lycalopex culpaeus</i>	1	75	345	Molina, 1782
<i>Lycalopex fulvipes</i>	1	75	8	Martin, 1837
<i>Lycalopex griseus</i>	1	75	255	Gray, 1837
<i>Lycalopex gymnocercus</i>	1	75	312	G. Fischer, 1814
<i>Lycalopex sechurae</i>	1	75	24	Thomas, 1900
<i>Lycalopex vetulus</i>	1	75	183	Lund, 1842
<i>Speothos venaticus</i>	0.83	90.4	1.076	Lund, 1842

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669 **TABLE S2** Area difference in species distributions for present and future, showing expansion
 670 or retraction of canids' geographical distributions. *H* values are also indicated.

Species	Present area (Km ²)	Future area (Km ²)	<i>H</i>
<i>Atelocynus microtis</i>	4.379.627	2.438.970	0,047520
<i>Canis anthus</i>	15.472.384	17.583.018	0,013342
<i>Canis aureus</i>	3.448.559	3.187.594	0,008698
<i>Canis latrans</i>	12.065.866	8.749.988	0,006891
<i>Canis lupus</i>	55.058.863	57.577.546	0,02551
<i>Canis mesomelas</i>	7.840.423	6.214.900	0,009592
<i>Canis rufus</i>	1.858.413	1.529.932	0,012079
<i>Canis simensis</i>	6.707.343	6.227.124	0,012671
<i>Canis adustus</i>	12.577.073	11.623.101	0,011225
<i>Cerdocyon thous</i>	7.224.726	10.225.538	0,011357
<i>Chrysocyon brachyurus</i>	5.202.737	4.755.462	0,027895
<i>Cuon alpinus</i>	7.757.856	6.803.830	0,004926
<i>Lycalopex culpaeus</i>	3.121.231	2.923.795	0,006086
<i>Lycalopex fulvipes</i>	126.236	98.762	0,009984
<i>Lycalopex vetulus</i>	2.539.881	2.040.550	0,012808
<i>Lycalopex griseus</i>	2.961.540	2.903.216	0,004344
<i>Lycalopex gymnocercus</i>	3.354.884	2.561.320	0,005269
<i>Lycalopex sechurae</i>	2.514.432	1.209.669	0,006207
<i>Lycaon pictus</i>	8.445.869	7.276.908	0,014579
<i>Nyctereutes procyonoides</i>	7.413.459	6.018.161	0,006262
<i>Otocyon megalotis</i>	8.251.366	8.676.914	0,007170
<i>Speothos venaticus</i>	11.953.879	11.185.765	0,016549
<i>Urocyon cinereoargenteus</i>	8.757.468	9.595.434	0,011490
<i>Urocyon littoralis</i>	200.615	143.194	0,011346
<i>Vulpes bengalensis</i>	3.053.463	2.287.423	0,014108
<i>Vulpes cana</i>	6.315.447	5.439.834	0,005072
<i>Vulpes chama</i>	3.594.029	2.487.370	0,008272
<i>Vulpes corsac</i>	13.114.501	14.423.740	0,012275
<i>Vulpes ferrilata</i>	3.502.426	3.977.712	0,008895
<i>Vulpes lagopus</i>	13.405.437	12.101.093	0,004969
<i>Vulpes macrotis</i>	2.651.764	2.171.680	0,011933
<i>Vulpes pallida</i>	5.164.447	4.518.576	0,023281
<i>Vulpes velox</i>	1.360.294	1.016.829	0,022411
<i>Vulpes vulpes</i>	64.415.599	68.080.936	0,005214
<i>Vulpes zerda</i>	11.242.325	12.574.885	0,007949
<i>Vulpes rueppellii</i>	14.074.266	13.588.853	0,013633

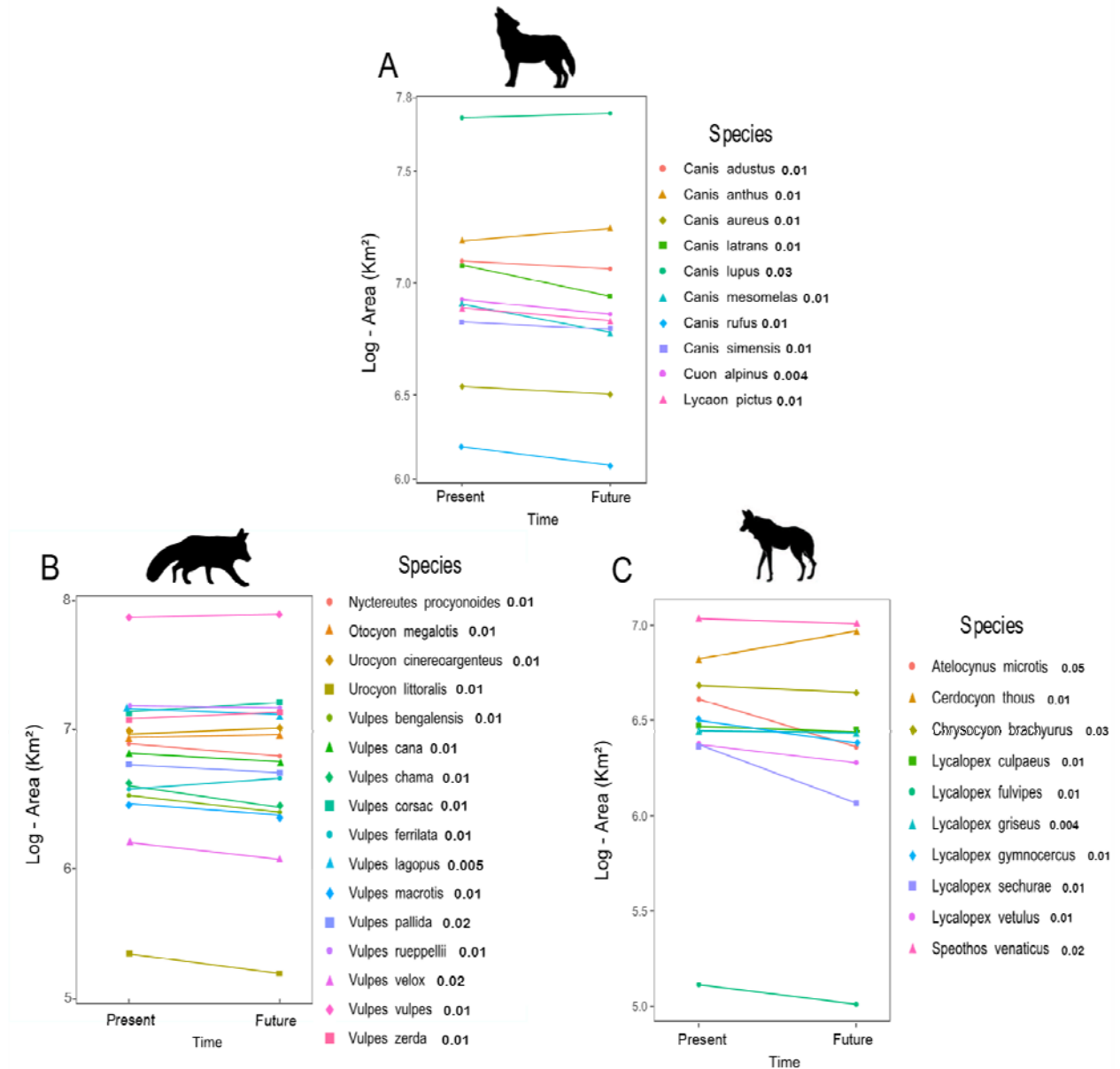
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674 **SUPPLEMENTARY TEXT: FIGURE LIST**

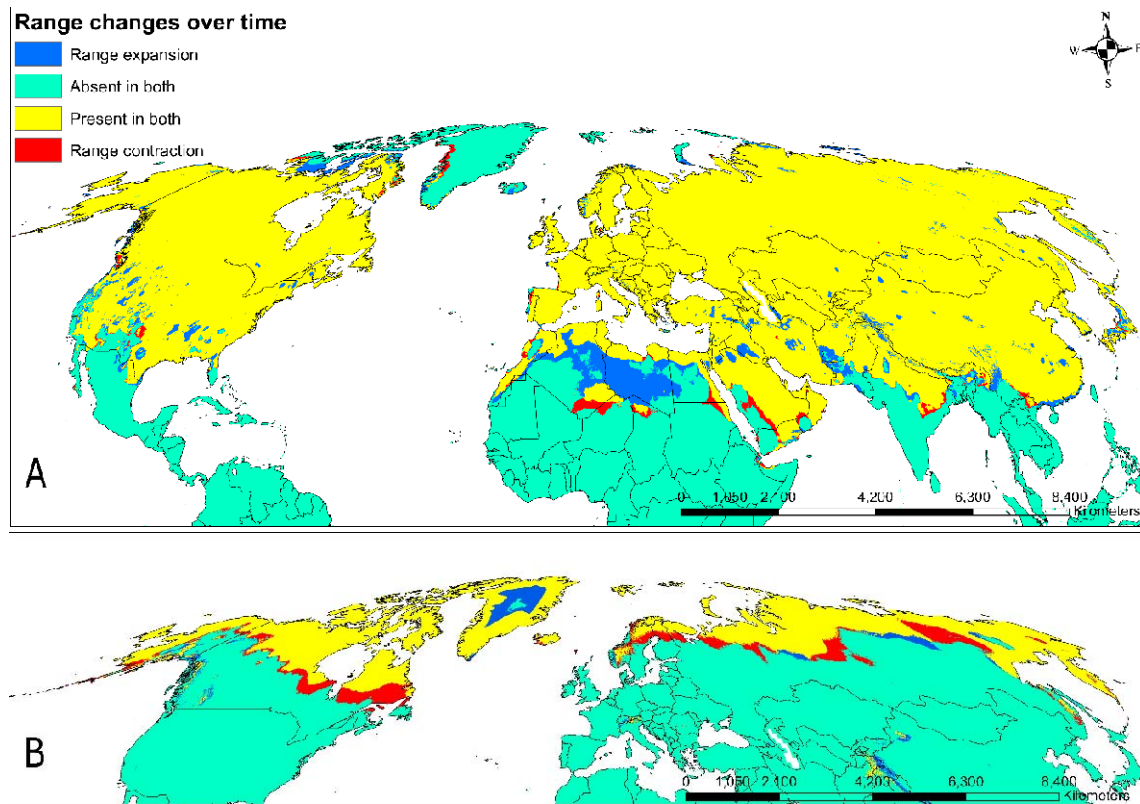
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677 **FIGURE S38** Plot representation, on logarithmic scale, of range expansion or contraction
 678 over time for the clades of wolves (A), foxes (B), and South American canids (C). *H* values
 679 for each species are indicated next to each species name.

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682 **FIGURE S51** Comparison of present and future suitable areas of *Vulpes vulpes* (A) and
683 *Vulpes lagopus* (B). The image shows regions where loss is expected to occur (red) and
684 regions where the species will increase their distributions (blue).

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