Title: Looking backward for the future: long-term population recovery, habitat

associations, and future climatic vulnerability of the critically endangered

Sino-Mongolian beaver (*Castor fiber birulai*) in China

Running head: Sino-Mongolian beaver in China

Authors:

Wenwen Chu[1, 2, 3, 4, 5, #], Yuanbao Du[6, 7, #, *, †], Roberto Salguero-Gómez[7], Yingjie Qi[8],

Chi Ma[5], Wenxu Lan[9], Xiaoyun Li[5], Rukeya Abulimit[5], Fangling Zheng[5], Ziyu Liu[5],

Yuting Gao[5], Huanxin Liu[5], Chengbin He[10], Kai Li[1, *], Hongjun Chu[11, 12, *]

Affiliations:

[1]Beijing Forestry University, Beijing, 100083, China.

[2]National Adolescent Ecological Civilization Education Center, Beijing, 100083,

China.

[3]Chinese Academy of Environmental Planning, Beijing, 100043, China.

[4]School of Environment, Tsinghua University, Beijing, 100084, China.

[5]Altay Nature Conservation Association, Altay, 836100, China.

[6]State Key Laboratory of Animal Biodiversity Conservation and Integrated Pest

Management, Institute of Zoology, Chinese Academy of Sciences, Beijing, 100101,

China.

[7]Department of Biology, University of Oxford, Oxford, OX13EL, UK.

[8]General Grassland Station of Xinjiang Uygur Autonomous Region, Urumqi, 830049, China.

[9]The Forestry and Grassland Bureau of Altay Prefecture, Altay, 836500, China.

[10]Xinjiang Burgen Beaver National Nature Reserve Administration, Altay, 836206, China.

[11]Institute of Forest Ecology, Xinjiang Academy of Forestry, Urumqi, 830002, China.

[12]Xinjiang Bosten Lake Wetland Ecosystem National Positioning Observation and Research Station, Urumqi, 830002, China.

[#] These authors equally contributed to this manuscript.

[*] Corresponding authors: Yuanbao Du (duyuanbao@ioz.ac.cn); Kai Li (likai_sino@sina.com); Hongjun Chu (hongjunchu@vip.163.com).

[†]Lead corresponding author.

Abstract

Despite the successful population recovery of the Eurasian beaver (*Castor fiber*)

across much of Eurasia, its subspecies, the Sino-Mongolian beaver (*C. f. birulai*),

remains critically endangered, with an estimated population of approximately 1,500

individuals confined to a small number of isolated and fragmented refugia along the

China–Mongolia border. Effective conservation of this highly threatened subspecies

requires a holistic perspective that integrates constraints on population dynamics,

habitat associations, and future climatic vulnerability. Here, we combined systematic

annual field surveys conducted between 2003 and 2023 with historical survey records

from 1975 to 1989 in northern Xinjiang, China, to synthesize long-term

spatiotemporal population dynamics, evaluate habitat preferences based on nine local

environmental variables, and assess future climatic vulnerability using ensemble

species distribution models (SDMs) under projected climate change scenarios. We

detected a significant and phased population recovery, with beaver colony numbers

increasing from 27 (approximately 100 individuals) in 1975 to 227 (681–908

individuals) in 2023. This recovery closely corresponded with major conservation

milestones, including the establishment and upgrading of nature reserves,

strengthened legislative protection, and enhanced multi-stakeholder collaboration.

Habitat analyses further indicated that the Sino-Mongolian beaver preferentially

occupied areas characterized by minimal anthropogenic disturbance and stable

hydro-geomorphic conditions. Critically, SDM projections revealed that only 14% of

the current study area presently exhibits high climatic suitability, and these highly

suitable habitats are expected to disappear entirely by the 2050s. Together, our

findings provide a comprehensive overview of the historical population recovery and

conservation trajectory of the Sino-Mongolian beaver in China, and offer robust

scientific support for developing adaptive management strategies in the face of

ongoing climate change and increasing human pressures.

Keywords: Eurasian beaver, threatened species, biological conservation, population

recovery, habitat association, climatic vulnerability

Introduction

As one of only two extant species within the *Castor* genus, the Eurasian beaver

(*Castor fiber*) is widely recognized as a keystone species and an exceptional

ecosystem engineer in freshwater systems across Eurasia continent [1-3]. Through

dam construction, channel excavation, and wetland creation, Eurasian beavers play a

vital role in maintaining ecological stability and enhancing biodiversity [1-3].

However, centuries of intensive overhunting for fur, meat, and castoreum have

drastically reduced their numbers to approximately 1,200 individuals, confined to a

few isolated refugia [2-9]. Since the early 20th century, extensive conservation efforts

including the protect areas establishment and reintroduction programs have jointly

resulted in a remarkable population recovery, particularly in Europe [2, 4, 7, 8, 10, 11].

By 2020, the Eurasian beaver population had rebounded to more than 1.5 million

individuals [2, 7], which also led to a *Least Concern* status classified by the

International Union for Conservation of Nature (IUCN) [12]. Nonetheless,

human-deduced challenges such as habitat loss and fragmentation, competition and

disturbance by domestic animals continue to threaten certain subspecies, especially

the Sino-Mongolian beaver (*C. f. birulai*) [12].

As one of recognized subspecies of the Eurasian beaver [13], the Sino-Mongolian

beaver remains *Critically Endangered*, with a total of roughly 1,500 individuals

restricted to limited areas in China and Mongolia [1, 7, 9, 14]. Historically, the beaver

population in China ever declined to fewer than 100 individuals in the late 1970s,

which were confined to the mainstem and tributaries of the Ulungur River in northern

Xinjiang [1, 15]. In the early 1980s, China government established a province-level

nature reserve (Xinjiang Burgen Beaver Nature Reserve) to protect the

Sino-Mongolian beaver and over 5,000 ha of core beaver habitat in Qinghe County.

Subsequently, in 1989, the promulgation of the Wildlife Protection Law of China and

the release of the National Key Protected Wildlife Checklist designated the

Sino-Mongolian beaver as a national first-class protected species. These institutional

efforts had initially facilitated a substantial population recovery with colony counts

rising to 165 in the late 1980s [16]. Subsequently, the upgrade of the nature reserve to

a national level (Xinjiang Burgen Beaver National Nature Reserve) in 2013

underscored an intensified conservation commitment, which contributed to the

relative stability in beaver population with about 130-170 colonies before 2018. More

recently, a series of collaborative conservation programs were launched in 2019,

through integrating efforts of government, social donations, conservation societies,

and local communities under the Shining Stone Community Actions (SSCA).

Nevertheless, there have been more than 40 years since the original conservation

actions in early 1980s. How these institutional and collaborative conservation efforts

acted on the beaver population recovery has not been systematically reviewed by now

with detailed population data. Besides, as the population recovers within this

human-settled landscape in this arid area, how beaver adapt to local human

disturbance environment has not been systematically reviewed.

In addition to human disturbance, climate changes are also recognized to pose

escalating and significant threats to beaver population persistence through their effects

on thermoregulation, forage availability, and life-history processes [17, 18]. Generally,

climate changes affect beaver population by altering temperature- and rainfall-driven

plant phenology and forage quality and availability, which influence annual body

weight and reproductive success [18]. Increasing climatic variability, particularly

higher temperature variance and precipitation variability—further influences vital

rates, with greater variability generally reducing survival (especially of kits, juveniles,

and dominant adults) and shaping recruitment patterns. Overall, both shifts in climate

means and increases in variability play key roles in regulating beaver population

dynamics through their effects on thermoregulation, forage availability, and

life-history processes. As shifts in hydrothermal regimes have intensified the

occurrence of extreme climate events including droughts and floods, which contribute

to higher mortality for beavers through pronounced fluctuations in river hydrology

[17]. Climate change affects Eurasian beaver populations by altering temperature- and

rainfall-driven plant phenology and forage quality, ultimately reducing body weight

and reproductive success. Although previous studies have ever examined population

status [1, 16], habitat preference [19, 20], and behavioral ecology [21, 22], there

remains a pressing need for a comprehensive synthesis integrating long-term

population dynamics, habitat selection, and climatic vulnerability under ongoing

climate change.

To address this gap, by integrating confidential data extracted from previous

studies (1975-1989) and our systematic annual field surveys (2003-2023) across the

main distribution areas in China, this study aims to: (1) reconstruct the long-term

spatiotemporal population dynamics of the Sino-Mongolian beaver and assess the

effectiveness of previous conservation efforts; (2) evaluate its habitat association in

relation to nine local environmental variables; and (3) employ ensemble species

distribution modeling to assess climatic vulnerability under climate change scenarios.

These findings are promising in that they provide a comprehensive picture of the

history of Sino-Mongolian beaver population recovery and conservation efforts in

China, and offer scientific support for developing future management strategies.

Methods and Materials

Study area

The study area encompasses the main distribution area of the Sino-Mongolian beaver

in China, covering the mainstream and tributaries of the Ulungur River in northern

Xinjiang (87.16–91.07°E, 45.81–47.39°N; Fig. 1). This region, adjacent to the Eastern

Altai Mountains and the China-Mongolia border, features terrain spanning 465 m to

3,530 m in elevation. The climate is typical continental cold-temperate, characterized

by winters lasting approximately six months and a frost-free period of 67–115 days.

Recorded temperatures range from –49.7°C in winter to 34.3°C in summer. In this

arid region, annual precipitation is equivalent to only 10% of the annual evaporation,

with approximately 33% of the annual precipitation falling as snow. During winter,

snow cover typically reaches a depth of 80 cm, and the frozen soil layer extends to 70

cm [1].

Field survey

We conducted 14 comprehensive annual field surveys for the Sino-Mongolian beaver

over a 21-year period (2003–2023). Field survey was carried out between late October

and December within a 5-km buffer zone along the mainstream and three tributaries

of the Ulungur River, encompassing all associated water bodies (e.g., rivers, streams,

ponds, wetlands, and agricultural channels; Fig. 1), which covered approximately

14,967 km². Field survey teams, each comprising at least three investigators,

systematically identified beaver nests, dams, and food piles (Fig. S1); for this study,

an active beaver nest was considered indicative of an active beaver colony. We

recorded the geographic coordinates (latitude, longitude, and elevation) of each active

nest using a handheld GPS device (UniStrong UG908) and referenced the locations

using Ovital Map (https://www.ovital.com/).

Population dynamics across space and time

The population size of beavers is typically estimated by integrating colony number

and the size of food cache for each beaver colony [1, 23]. However, during winter

periods, snow and ice can partially cover food caches, leading to unavoidable under-

or overestimation of volume that varies significantly across investigators. To mitigate

this systematic variability, we characterized the population dynamic in this work using

colony count and colony density, rather than estimating individual numbers directly.

Previous studies reported that each beaver colony contains 3 to 4 individuals with an

average of 3.8 [1, 16], and these values were adopted as the lower, upper, and average

parameters when estimating the total beaver population.

Population dynamic model: colony count (2003-2023)

Given the more than 20-year gap between our data and those reported previously (Fig.

2), our population dynamic models were fitted exclusively using colony counts

obtained from our annual field surveys conducted from 2003 to 2023. To better

characterize demographic dynamics across space and time, we divided the entire

study area into two parts based on digital and aquatic conditions: the upstream area

including the mainstream of the Ulungur River and three tributaries in Qinghe county,

and the downstream area including the mainstream of the Ulungur River in Fuyun and

Fuhai counties [1] (Fig. 1a). Additionally, in the upstream area, we also characterized

the beaver colonies within the nature reserve alone to evaluate its conservation

efficiency.

To model the annual beaver colony count over the time of investigation since 2003,

we applied three approaches: the exponential growth model, the polynomial

regression model, and the logistic growth model. To enhance model convergence, the

colony count (response variable) and time (independent variable) were both

log-transformed.

We fitted the exponential growth model using non-linear least squares (NLS) for

the whole study area, upstream, downstream, and the nature reserve separately, based

on the equation:

$$\log(N_{t1}) = \log(P_0) + r \times t_{rescaled} \quad (1),$$

where N_{t1} is the colony number at year t, $t_{rescaled}$ is the rescaled year t, P_0 is the initial

colony number at first year (2003), and r is the intrinsic growth rate, which was

assumed to be 0.05.

Next, we fitted polynomial regression model using the equation:

$$\log(N_{t2}) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \times t_{rescaled} + \beta_2 \times t^2_{rescaled} \qquad (2),$$

where N_{t2} is the colony number at year t, $t_{rescaled}$ is the rescaled year t, β_0 is the

intercept, β_1 and β_2 are the coefficients of the linear and quadratic components,

respectively.

Finally, the logistic growth model was also fitted using the NLS method with the

"port" algorithm, based on the equation:

$$\log(N_{t3}) = \frac{K}{1 + (\frac{K-P_0}{P_0})e^{-r \times t_{rescaled}}} \qquad (3),$$

where N_{t3} is the colony number at year t, K represents the carrying capacity (set as

maximum colony *1.2), P_0 is the initial colony number at first year (2003), and r is

the intrinsic growth rate (0.05). The performance of all three demographic models was

ultimately assessed using the Akaike Information Criterion (AIC).

Spatiotemporal dynamic of colony density (2003-2023)

We applied the *Kernel Density* function to describe the spatial pattern of beaver

colony density across the study area. To further characterize temporal variation in

density, we divided our 14 annual field surveys into five stages, with each stage

containing three years of beaver nest distribution data. Specifically, the stages were

defined as: stage 1 (2003, 2006, and 2007), stage 2 (2009, 2010, and 2013), stage 3

(2014, 2015, and 2017), stage 4 (2018, 2020, and 2021), and stage 5 (2021, 2022, and

2023). Given the limited number of survey years, the data for 2021 was necessarily

shared between stage 4 and stage 5 to maintain consistency in calculating colony

density and temporal variation. Following these temporal divisions, we calculated the

beaver colony density for each stage and quantified their temporal variation across

adjacent stages. The colony densities and their temporal variations were then mapped

using optional parameters within ArcGIS Pro version 3.0.1 (https://www.esri.com/).

Habitat associations

We used nine habitat variables relating to anthropogenic disturbance, hydrological

conditions, and biotic/abiotic factors to determine the dominant drivers of

Sino-Mongolian beaver habitat association. Anthropogenic disturbance variables

included three measures: the distance of the beaver nest to the (1) nearest road, (2)

nearest human settlement, and (3) nearest artificial river dam. The hydrological

variable was (4) the water depth measured 2 meters from the riverbank near beaver

nest. The biotic and abiotic variables were (5) elevation of the nest, (6) forest canopy

within a 50-meter radius of the nest, (7) the nest height above the riverbank, (8) the

horizontal distance to the riverbank, and (9) the Normalized Difference Vegetation

Index (NDVI) at the nest location. Elevation, nest height, and canopy were recorded

during field surveys. For the distance metrics, we obtained spatial vector data for

roads, dams, and human settlements. We utilized global datasets for this purpose: the

Global Human Settlement Layer (GHSL, accessed on October 20th, 2024), the Global

Lakes and Wetlands Database (GLWD, accessed on October 20th, 2024), and the

GRIP global roads database [24] (accessed on October 20th, 2024). Artificial dam

locations were identified and recorded during field surveys. We then calculated the

nearest distance metrics using the *Proximity Analysis* function in ArcGIS and

extracted these distance-based variables according to the geographic coordinates of

each beaver nest. The NDVI data was extracted from the 1-kilometer resolution

MOD13Q1 remote layer, downloaded from the Geographic Remote Sensing

Ecological Network Platform (http://www.gisrs.cn/index.html, accessed in October

2024). Finally, to characterize habitat association, we performed a Principal

Component Analysis (PCA) on the nine variables and quantified their relative

importance within each PCA component.

Future risk of habitat loss

To quantify current and future habitat suitability, we performed species distribution

modeling (SDM) using three well-established methods known for their robust

performance and ability to handle non-linear relationships: Maxent, Generalized

Linear Models (GLM), and Random Forest [25]. We generated an ensemble

prediction of beaver distribution by equally weighting the results of these individual

models [26, 27].

To ensure SDM robustness, we compiled species occurrence data from two

sources: over 2,300 records of Sino-Mongolian beaver colony locations collected

from 14 annual field surveys from 2003 to 2023, and global records of the Eurasian

beaver collected from the GBIF database (https://www.gbif.org/, accessed on January

3, 2025) using the *occ_download* function in *rgbif* package [28] with "*Castor*" and

"*fiber*" as keywords in data retrieval (https://doi.org/10.15468/dl.g6h7u2). We only

retained the records with detailed geographical information (longitude and latitude)

and further conducted data cleaning using the *clean_coordinates* function in

CoordinateCleaner package [29]. For occurrence data outside our study area, we

conducted data thinning using *spThin* package [30] to retain only one randomly

selected point per 5-kilometer square.

We included climatic and anthropogenetic disturbance variables in the SDMs. To

minimize collinearity ($r \leq 0.7$) among climatic variables, we selected six Bioclimatic

variables recognized as important factors influencing beaver life history [17]: mean

temperature diurnal range (Bio2), temperature isothermality (Bio3), temperature

seasonality (Bio4), min temperature of coldest month (Bio6), annual precipitation

(Bio12), and precipitation of coldest quarter (Bio19). According to the results of

habitat association, we included three anthropogenic disturbance variables: the nearest

distance to the river, the nearest distance to human settlement, and the nearest distance

to the road. For future projections, these three local anthropogenic disturbance

variables were assumed to remain consistent with the current situation.

Model performance was validated using Area Under the Curve (AUC) [31] and

True Skill Statistic (TSS) [32]. To reduce overfitting, we used k-fold cross-validation

(k = 5) and utilized an independent testing dataset. Future habitat suitability

predictions were generated under three Shared Socio-economic Pathways (SSPs:

SSP126, SSP370, and SSP585) and four Global Climate Models (GCMs:

IPSL-CM6A-LR, MPI-ESM1-2-HR, MRI-ESM2-0, and UKESM1-0-LL) for the

2050s (2041-2060), 2070s (2061-2080), and 2100s (2081-2100). Bioclimatic

variables for both current (1970-2000) and future periods were downloaded at a

1-kilometer resolution from WorldClim version 2.1 [33] (https://www.worldclim.org/,

accessed on October 20, 2024) at 1-kilometer resolution. For future projections, our

main results were based on the SSP370 scenario, with SSP126 and SSP585 used for

sensitivity analyses.

Population dynamic modeling, PCAs, and SDMs were all conducted under the R

language environment [34] using the *usdm* [35], *sdm* [36], and basic packages. Study

area, colony locations, colony density, ensemble SDM predictions, and spatiotemporal

variations were visualized using ArcGIS Pro version 3.0.1 (https://www.esri.com/).

Results

Historical population dynamics

A total of 2,378 active beaver colonies were recorded during our 14 annual field

surveys conducted from 2003 to 2023 in north Xinjiang, China. The colony count for

the Sino-Mongolian beaver demonstrated a general, though fluctuating, increasing

pattern, rising from 137 colonies in 2003 to 227 colonies in 2023 (Fig. 2). Before

2018 (165 colonies), the number of colonies remained relatively stable, exhibiting

only a slight general increase. A notably faster rate of increase was observed in the

last five years following the initiation of collaborative conservation programs in 2019,

with the colony number reaching 188 colonies in 2020 and subsequently 227 colonies

in 2023. Based on the average estimate of 3.8 (Min/Max: 3/4) individuals per colony,

the estimated population size increased from approximately 520 (Min/Max: 411/548)

individuals in 2003 to 862 individuals (Min/Max: 681/908) in 2023.

Across the entire study area, all three demography dynamic models significantly

fitted the log-transformed colony numbers and scaled time ($p < 0.05$), with the

polynomial model exhibiting the best fit (AIC = -32.6; R^2 = 0.794), indicating a

general increasing trend (Fig. 3a). When analyzed spatially, colony trends differed

between upstream (Qinghe County) and downstream (Fuyun and Fuhai Counties)

areas (Fig. 3b-c): the upstream area showed a steady, near-linear increase over time,

whereas the trend in the downstream area was distinctly polynomial, characterized by

an apparent decrease before 2010 followed by a sharp increase after 2018. The

number of colonies within the nature reserve exhibited a fluctuating but generally

increasing pattern, which was consistent to that of the upstream area (Fig. 3d).

The density of beaver colonies generally varied across both space and time (Fig.

S2 and 4). Specifically, colonies in the upstream area, including the nature reserve,

consistently exhibited a relatively higher density that remained stable across all five

temporal stages (Fig. S2 and 4). In contrast, the downstream area had a relatively

lower colony density in the early stages (Fig. S2a-b and Fig. 4a-b) but showed a

notable increase in the late stages (Fig. S2c-e and Fig. 4c-d).

Habitat associations

The results of the PCA suggested that the first four components collectively accounted

for 60.2% of the total variance across all nine habitat variables, with PC1 capturing

23.7%, PC2 13.2%, PC3 11.9%, and PC4 11.4% (Fig. 5a-b and Table S1). PC1 was

primarily characterized as a gradient of topology and human disturbance, which

received the highest contributions from elevation and NDVI, followed by human

disturbance variables like distance to artificial dams and human settlements (Fig. 5a,

c). Specifically, PC1 exhibited strong positive relationship with distance to artificial

dams and human settlements and showed negative relationship with elevation and

NDVI (Fig. 5a). By comparison, PC2 displayed as a hydro-geomorphic gradient,

demonstrating a positive relationship with the distance to rivers and roads, but a

negative pattern with the water depth and nest height (Fig. 5a). The remaining

variance was captured by PC3 and PC4, with PC3 being most positively influenced by

canopy cover and PC4 being most negatively related to the distance to roads (Fig.

5b-c).

Risk of climatic suitability decline

The species distribution models (SDMs), which incorporated six climatic and three

anthropogenetic disturbance variables, demonstrated stable and robust performance

with high values for the AUC (Mean $\pm$ SD $= 0.997 \pm 0.004$) and the TSS (Mean $\pm$ SD

$= 0.978 \pm 0.019$) (Table S2). Based on correlation and AUC tests, five climatic

variables (Bio12, Bio3, Bio2, Bio4, and Bio19) were found to have a relatively high

contribution to the SDM predictions (Table S3).

The SDM results suggested that there was only 14% of the area now exhibited

high climatic suitability (0.8-1.0), while 45% was classified as unsuitable (0-0.2) (Fig.

6a). Under the SSP370 scenario, climatic habitat quality declined significantly (Fig.

6b), resulting in the disappearance of all highly suitable areas in the 2050s, 2070s, and

2100s. At the same time, the proportion of unsuitable areas (0-0.2) rose to 56%, 79%

and 82% in the 2050s, 2070s, and 2100s, respectively (Fig. 6b-d). The alternative

scenarios SSP126 and SSP585 showed similar trends to those under SSP370 scenario

(Fig. S4-S5).

Climatic habitat suitability decline was detected across all projected time periods

under the SSP370 scenario (Fig. 7). From the current to the 2100s, 92% of the study

area experienced a decline in suitability (Fig. 7a). Similarly, a large proportion of the

area saw a decline from the present to the 2050s (84%, Fig. 7b). The situation of

habitat suitability decline continued across subsequent periods: 95% of the area

declined from the 2050s to the 2070s (Fig. 7c), and 70% declined from the 2070s to

the 2100s (Fig. 7d). Similar patterns across SSP126 (Fig. S6) and SSP585 (Fig. S7)

scenarios suggest the robustness of our analyses.

Discussion

Population recovery: the success of phrased conservation model

Integrating our data in 14 systematic annual field surveys (2003-2023) with those in

prior reports (1975-1989), this work reconstructed a long-term spatiotemporal

population dynamic for the Sino-Mongolian beaver in China (Fig. 2). Our results

confirmed a successful long-term beaver population recovery, a noteworthy

conservation achievement largely attributing to the execution of a phased

conservation strategy. Specifically, there was a close temporal coupling between the

rate of beaver population recovery and the milestone conservation actions (Fig. 2).

First, in late 1970s, administrations of Qinghe county started to forbid hunting

activities on beaver. After that, the Xinjiang Burgen Beaver Nature Reserve was

established in 1980. These initial conservation efforts promptly reversed the beaver

population decline and promoted the population recovery from 27 colonies in 1975 to

93 colonies in 1983. Building on this initial success, the official release of the Key

Protected Wildlife of China and the implementation of the Wildlife Protection Law in

1989 have further promoted the population recovery, rising up to 165 colonies by

1989 [16]. This early recovery trajectory, which was contingent upon nature reserve

establishment and legislative protection, aligned well with the conservation success

observed for the Eurasian beaver recovery in Europe [3, 6].

However, from 2003 to 2018, the beaver population entered a stable phase,

characterized by temporal fluctuations (137-167 colonies) above a baseline

established through earlier institutional efforts (Fig. 2). During this period, the stable

yet fluctuating population recovery primarily resulted from enforced institutional

efforts, such as the upgrade of the nature reserve in 2013. This enhancement not only

stabilized the population size within the reserve but also fostered conservation efforts

throughout the entire upstream area (Fig. 2). Subsequently, beaver population

recovery accelerated markedly, rising from the pre-2018 plateau of 165 to 227

colonies by 2023. This accelerating trajectory highlights the critical role of

multi-stakeholder collaboration, marked by a significant milestone in 2019, and

encompassing contributions from governmental administration, conservation

organizations, social support, and community-based conservation initiatives (SSCA).

This paradigm shift, moving from exclusively restrictive protection toward inclusive

co-management focused on securing social acceptance and mitigating human-wildlife

conflicts [2, 37-40], successfully maximized conservation efficacy.

The efficacy of this phrased and collaborative conservation strategy in recent

stage has been validated by the distinct spatial dynamics observed across different

zones, specifically between the upstream and downstream segments and in areas

within and outside the nature reserve (Fig. 2 and 3). Accompanying enhanced

institutional conservation efforts, the upstream segment, which includes the nature

reserve area, sustained relatively stable and high-density beaver populations (Fig. 3b,

d and Fig. 4). By comparison, the downstream area, characterized by a higher

anthropogenic disturbance pressure, experienced dramatic fluctuations. This

downstream dynamic included a period of decline pre-2018 and a significant increase

in colony counts and density post-2018 (Fig. 3-4 and S2). The population recovery in

human-impacted landscapes in the downstream of Ulungur River parallels the

contemporary Eurasian experience [41]. This successful outcome validates the

application of the multi-stakeholder collaborative conservation model, which

emphasize non-lethal mitigation and public outreach to foster human-beaver

coexistence [42, 43], as pivotal for facilitating recovery in both population size and

spatial expansion beyond core protected areas.

The multi-dimensional complexity of habitat association

The relatively low accumulative variance explained by the first four components of

PCA indicates the complexity of habitat association for the Sino-Mongolian beaver.

The first component (PC1), accounting for only 23.7% of the total variance of nine

local environmental variables (Fig. 5a), captured a critical topology and

anthropogenetic disturbance gradient. Specifically, positive relationships with the

distance to artificial dams, roads, and human settlements, coupled with negative

relationships with elevation and NDVI, collectively suggest that beavers primarily

colonize sites characterized by minimal human disturbance at low elevations (Fig. 5).

This pronounced avoidance behavior represents a consistent ecological principle

across the wider Eurasian range, where studies confirm that persistent anthropogenic

pressures, such as infrastructure development, linear features, and habitat

fragmentation [44-46], constitute the primary determinants limiting the range

expansion of both Eurasian beaver and American beaver (*C. canadensis*). Furthermore,

the negative association with distance to artificial dams highlights specific avoidance

effect of beavers in regulated waterways [47]. Consequently, habitat association

criteria appear heavily weighted toward human-beaver conflict avoidance [43, 45]

rather than solely optimizing for resource availability. This indicates that conservation

efforts must strategically manage or reduce the impact of surrounding direct and

indirect human disturbance to ensure long-term viability and range expansion [48].

It is noteworthy that the high and negative effects of elevation and NDVI in PC1

partially reflect the complexity of habitat association and human-beaver conflicts in

space. Specifically, the dense colonies in protected areas coincide with lower

elevation (below 1000 m, Fig. S3). This suggests that elevation serves primarily as a

proxy for the true ecological drivers, protection status and low anthropogenic pressure,

rather than being a direct determinant of habitat suitability. Similarly, the observed

correlation with the NDVI reflects habitat association at a landscape scale: most

beaver nests lie in areas with relatively low NDVI, indicating that this pattern is likely

a function of avoidance of highly vegetated human-dominated landscapes such as

forest close to human settlements and roads, rather than a direct selection based on

optimal forage or cover (Fig. S3f).

In contrast to macro-level anthropogenic constraints, the second component of the

PCA (PC2, accounting for 13.2% of the total variance, Fig. 5a) reflect the essential

hydro-geomorphic requirements and micro-habitat suitability, indicating that the

species depends on specific physical and hydrological conditions [49]. For instance,

the observed inverse correlations with water depth and nest height imply a selective

preference for areas characterized by stable and optimal aquatic condition and

adequate bank stability for secure, less exposed nest construction [50-52]. This

preference for specific channel characteristics and flow stability underscores the

importance of hydro-geomorphic integrity for beaver colonization [50-52]. These

fine-scale resource associations [49] echo the established ecological requirements for

Castor species across the Palearctic. The complexity of these inter-related factors

confirms that effective habitat management requires a dual focus: minimizing

anthropogenetic disturbance at the landscape scale while actively preserving the

critical micro-habitat features that support beaver for successful colonization and

reproduction.

We also believe that several factors are critical to beaver habitat selection,

particularly biological stresses associated with livestock grazing, domestic dog

disturbance, and biological invasions. Although livestock grazing and domestic dogs

are prohibited within the nature reserve, a substantial proportion of beaver colonies

occur outside the reserve, where they are exposed to competition for habitat and food

resources as well as disturbance from livestock and domestic dogs [53]. In addition,

recent studies suggest that two invasive semi-aquatic mammals, the American mink

(*Neogale vison*) and the muskrat (*Ondatra zibethicus*), have established feral

populations throughout the Ulungur River basin through escape from captivity or

intentional release [54], which potentially increase habitat competition [55-57] and

contribute to declines in beaver offspring survival [58, 59]. These factors were not

explicitly incorporated into our analyses because they are closely associated with

other indicators of human disturbance, such as distance to human settlements.

Moreover, assessing their influence on beaver populations and habitat selection

requires detailed data, such as continuous camera-trap records. We hope to address

these aspects in future studies.

Future vulnerability and adaptive management

Under future climate scenarios, our robust results of SDMs forecast a rapid and severe

decline in habitat suitability for the Sino-Mongolian beaver across the study area. The

limited high-suitability areas (about 14% of study areas) are projected to entirely or

almost vanish by the 2050s, and consequently, the proportion of unsuitable habitat is

expected to escalate to over 80% by the 2100s. This catastrophic decline is primarily

driven by the high influence of climatic variables (Bio12, Bio3, Bio2, Bio4, and

Bio19), indicating a fundamental vulnerability to changes in temperature and

precipitation regimes [20]. As an arid-region obligate riparian species, the beaver's

reliance on stable water flow and depth makes it highly susceptible to climate-induced

hydro-geomorphic instability [20]. Increasing aridity and extreme temperature

variability directly diminish primary productivity, reduce food availability, and

amplify the existing fragmentation of riparian corridors [60]. Consequently, the

success achieved through current conservation efforts will be imminently threatened

by emerging and pervasive climatic constraints under on-going climate change.

The projected vulnerability necessitates an urgent pivot toward climate-adaptive

conservation, requiring the integration of SDM results into dynamic management

planning. The foremost management priority must be water security and

hydro-geomorphic stabilization. Effective management should focus on active water

regulation to buffer against climate-induced flow variability, thereby ensuring stable

water levels through targeted, non-lethal engineering measures [37, 45, 47, 48].

Secondly, efforts should concentrate on identifying and protecting climate refugia,

specifically, the less-impacted riparian stretches that currently exhibit greater climatic

resistance. These areas must be treated as critical source populations for future

recolonization. Finally, to counteract the predicted habitat loss, intensive riparian

restoration is required, focusing on enhancing the quality and connectivity of native

vegetation along river segments identified by the models as retaining marginal

suitability, thereby facilitating necessary dispersal and range shifts. This adaptive

approach, combining large-scale climate buffering with landscape-scale human

disturbance mitigating and fine-scale habitat enhancement, is essential to secure the

long-term persistence of the Sino-Mongolian beaver in the face of escalating

environmental change.

Conclusion

In conclusion, this study demonstrates that the successful recovery of the

Sino-Mongolian beaver is not monolithic but a phased outcome, first established by

institutional efforts and subsequently accelerated by multi-stakeholder collaboration.

Population dynamics demonstrate that the shift in conservation strategy, moving from

purely restrictive protection toward social acceptance and conflict mitigation, was the

critical driver enabling downstream range expansion. Ecological analyses reveal the

complexity of habitat association: beavers primarily prioritize the avoidance of

anthropogenic disturbance while simultaneously depending on specific

hydro-geomorphic micro-environments for securing lodge and water stability.

However, this hard-won conservation success faces an imminent and severe threat

from climate change. SDMs project that climate shifts will lead to almost or complete

disappearance of high-suitability habitats by the 2050s, posing a fundamental risk to

this subspecies' long-term persistence. Given these situations, future management

strategies require urgent recalibration to adopt climate-adaptive conservation

approaches. Key management recommendations include implementing engineering

solutions to guarantee hydrological stability, identifying and strictly protecting high

suitable areas as climate refugia to serve as critical source populations, and

undertaking intensive riparian restoration in areas retaining marginal suitability to

enhance habitat connectivity and enable beaver population expansion and

reproduction.

Acknowledgements:

We especially thank Gang Chen from the Xinjiang Burgen Beaver National Nature

Reserve Administration for his kind assistance with our field surveys. We also thank

the following institutions and individuals for their support in this study: (1) Altay

Prefecture Nature Conservation Association: Wenpu Huang, Dapeng Wang, Junliang

Guo; (2) Altay Prefecture Forestry and Grassland Administration (formerly Altay

Forestry Bureau): Rongguang Zheng, Yan Ge, Shan Lu, Weili Chang, Juncheng Tian,

Feng Jiang, Bin Li, Xinchun Jiang, Mengk, Shuo Bai, Changliang Shao; (3) Xinjiang

Burgen Beaver National Nature Reserve: Huaixi Feng, Yongshan Tao, Hai Rou, Jinlei

Hou, Maerhabek, Chuang Huang, Peng Chen, Yuping Mao, Xuemin Jiao, Baoyu

Wang, Daoken, Kekesogen, Ayimulat, Toha, Kerenbek, Qiakeer, Yerlan; (4) Qinghe

County Forestry and Grassland Administration (formerly Qinghe County Forestry

Bureau): Xinyong Xu, Renyuan Zhou, Wenqing Li, Zhumabek, Bahetibek Halier,

Jiarheng, Tuoliubek, Danggele, Yesboli Ashmu, Bahetibek Bahdati, Wenzila, Hairula,

Nuzhehmat, Halibek Rouhai, Bolati, Muerza, Wumuerbek, Aydar, Wunizila, Galin

Bahar, Balafan Zhuodayi, Bolati Matai, Daohe Ganati, Nurboli Tuohatarkan, Telek

Bulanbai, Helengbek Saimaihan, Nazharbek Huatbai, Hailati Hahada, Quhai, Saleck,

Jinhu Li, Jiangsen Biduola, Yandong Qi, Xilong Du, Yerbole Jumahan, Xiangmin Liu,

Wunizila Patihan, Hamitibek Galek, Jiekebai Tuoliwu, Haierola Aheti, Silamubek

Heisha, Aydar Malik, Nurzhati Azatibek, Mahsuti Yerkengbek, Tuoliuwuhan

Wunierbek, Alemjiang Awubabake, Pathan, Xingui, Nurahamaiti, Hanat, Baoxian

Qiegeer, Mengxi Wu, Huanxibek Mawlanbai, Bazanbek Ers, Ganalbek Gafankeshi,

Muzabek Hapura, Adari Jumadele, Humarbek Jiangsenhan, Asaharbek Humar,

Tarafbek Galdebai, Mulatihan Aslam, Buyizhek Wuimudan, Jigerbek Sayasati, Ayiken

Malhaba, Halibek Hapan; (5) Fuyun County Forestry and Grassland Administration

(formerly Fuyun Forestry Bureau): Haibo Pu, Zhaoqing Yang, Bahexiabek, Tuleheng,

Mulatihan, Dunbin Zhao, Talehati, Shanati, Huannixi, Huatibek, Manarbek, Yeurjiang,

Tursunguli, Nurlanbek, Wumurzake, Hatila, Beshanbek, Aynur, Telewu; (6) Fuhai

County Forestry and Grassland Administration (formerly Fuhai Forestry Bureau):

Baohong Han, Xiaoyun Li, Wei Guo, Sailikebek, Tuerxun, Burulesibek, Adeli,

Bahetibek, Kanghong Liu, Beken, Reahati, Hailati, Chunpeng Wei, Yandong Shan,

Weiyanbek, Yerboli, Lazienbek, Nurlan, Adeliti, Hederbai, Ayihen, Jun Xie, Shalihen;

(7) Buerjin County Forestry and Grassland Administration (formerly Buerjin Forestry

Bureau): Jianabuer; (8) Xinjiang Altai Mountains Two-River-Source Nature Reserve:

Tawu Mithati, Boken Manken; (9) Shandong University: Haoquan Lu, Jiayi Ji,

Changqing Yu, Wen Shao, Manran Liu, Bujun Huang; (10) Xinjiang University:

Dongzhi Liu, Congcong Du, Canxia Su, Pielizati, Yanqiu Chen, Xiangyu Duan,

Wenming Wang. We also thank Man Qi, Hungwei Lin, and Wenyi Liu from

Department of Biology, University of Oxford, for their constructive comments on

early versions of manuscript.

This work was funded by National Key R&D Program of China

(2024YFF1307500), National Natural Science Foundation of China (32270549),

Altay Prefecture Nature Conservation Association (2019–2024), International S&T

Cooperation Project of Xinjiang Uygur Autonomous Region (20136026), Central

Government Capacity-Building Subsidy Projects (2014, 2015, 2016), Central

Government Forest Ecological Benefit Compensation Fund, Central Government

Project for the Rescue and Management of the Critically Endangered Sino-Mongolian

Beaver (2021), the Third Comprehensive Scientific Expedition to Xinjiang

(2021xjkk1200), National Forestry and Grassland Administration S&T Innovation

Project (2022132017), and the Xinjiang Forestry Department S&T Project.

Author contributions:

The study was conceived and designed by Yuanbao Du, Kai Li, and Hongjun Chu;

Wenwen Chu, Yingjie Qi, Chi Ma, Wenxu Lan, Xiaoyun Li, Rukeya Abulimit,

Fangling Zheng, Ziyu Liu, Yuting Gao, Huanxin Liu, Chengbin He, Hongjun Chu

actively participated in data collection; Yuanbao Du and Wenwen Chu conducted

formal analysis and results visualization; Yuanbao Du and Wenwen Chu wrote the

original draft, and all authors provided contributions to manuscript revision.

Data Availability

The data that support the findings of this study are available from the corresponding

authors upon reasonable request.

Author statement

All authors declare that they have no conflicts of interest.

References

[1] Chu H, Jiang Z. Distribution and conservation of the sino-mongolian beaver

castor fiber birulai in china. Oryx, 2009, 43: 197-202

[2] Wróbel M. Population of eurasian beaver (castor fiber) in europe. Global Ecology

and Conservation, 2020, 23:

[3] Halley D, Rosell F, Saveljev A. Population and distribution of eurasian beaver

(castor fiber). Baltic Forestry, 2012, 18: 168-175

[4] Gaywood MJ. Reintroducing the eurasian beaver castor fiber to scotland.

Mammal Review, 2017, 48: 48-61

[5] Halley DJ, Rosell F. The beaver's reconquest of eurasia: Status, population

development and management of a conservation success. Mammal Review, 2002, 32:

153-178

[6] Halley DJ, Rosell F. Population and distribution of european beavers (castor

fiber). Lutra, 2003, 46: 91-101

[7] Halley DJ, Saveljev AP, Rosell F. Population and distribution of beavers castor

fiber and castor canadensis in eurasia. Mammal Review, 2020, 51: 1-24

[8] Hartman G. Long□term population development of a reintroduced beaver (castor

fiber) population in sweden. Conservation Biology, 2002, 8: 713-717

[9] Treves A, Comino E. A bibliometric literature review in beaver management:

When does the beaver become a resource? Mammal Review, 2023, 54: 213-228

[10]Nolet BA, Rosell F. Comeback of the beaver castor fiber: An overview of old and

new conservation problems. Biological Conservation, 1998, 83: 165-173

[11]Wróbel M, Krysztofiak-Kaniewska A. Long-term dynamics of and potential

management strategies for the beaver (castor fiber) population in poland. The

European Zoological Journal, 2020, 87: 116-121

[12]Batbold J, Batsaikhan N, Shar S*, et al.* Castor fiber (amended version of 2016

assessment). The IUCN Red List of Threatened Species, 2016,

[13]Durka W, Babik W, Ducroz JF*, et al.* Mitochondrial phylogeography of the

eurasian beaver castor fiber l. Mol Ecol, 2005, 14: 3843-3856

[14]Bylak A, Kochman-Kedziora N, Kukula E*, et al.* Beaver-related restoration: An

opportunity for sandy lowland streams in a human-dominated landscape. J Environ

Manage, 2024, 351: 119799

[15]Jiang Z, Jiang J, Wang Y*, et al.* Red list of china's vertebrates. Biodiversity

Science, 2016, 24: 500-551

[16]Shao W. Population ecology study on c. Fiber birulai in xinjiang. MS degree.

Shandong University, 1990. Pages

[17]Campbell RD, Nouvellet P, Newman C*, et al.* The influence of mean climate

trends and climate variance on beaver survival and recruitment dynamics. Glob Chang

Biol, 2012, 18: 2730-2742

[18]Campbell RD, Newman C, Macdonald DW*, et al.* Proximate weather patterns and

spring green-up phenology effect eurasian beaver (castor fiber) body mass and

reproductive success: The implications of climate change and topography. Glob

Chang Biol, 2013, 19: 1311-1324

[19]Du C, Chu W, Zhen R*, et al.* Castor fiber birulai lodge site selection and

characteristics in the ulungur watershed of xinjiang. China, 2017, 37: 5167-5178

[20]Su C, Chu W, Bahatibieke P, *et al.* Potential distribution changes of castor fiber

birulai under climate changes in the upper reaches of the ulungur river, xinjiang. Arid

Zone Research, 2024, 41: 509-520

[21]Liu D, Huang X, Chu H, *et al.* Activity rhythms of sino-mongolia beaver (caster

fiber birulai) measured with infrared camera traps in xinjiang, china. Arid Zone

Research, 2015, 32: 205-211

[22]Liu Y, Wong H, Chu H, *et al.* Camera trap survey of wildlife in buergen beaver

national nature re-serve, xinjiang. Biodiversity Science, 2014, 22: 800-803

[23]Easter-Pilcher A. Cache size as an index to beaver colony size in northwestern

montana. Wildlife Society Bulletin (1973-2006), 1990, 18: 110-113

[24]Meijer JR, Huijbregts MA, Schotten KC, *et al.* Global patterns of current and

future road infrastructure. Environmental Research Letters, 2018, 13: 064006

[25]Phillips SJ, Dudík M. Modeling of species distributions with maxent: New

extensions and a comprehensive evaluation. Ecography, 2008, 31: 161-175

[26]Guo C, Lek S, Ye S, *et al.* Uncertainty in ensemble modelling of large-scale

species distribution: Effects from species characteristics and model techniques.

Ecological Modelling, 2015, 306: 67-75

[27]Buisson L, Thuiller W, Casajus N, *et al.* Uncertainty in ensemble forecasting of

species distribution. Global Change Biology, 2010, 16: 1145-1157

[28]Chamberlain S, Oldoni D, Waller J. Rgbif: Interface to the global biodiversity

information facility api. 2022,

[29]Zizka A, Silvestro D, Andermann T, *et al.* Coordinatecleaner: Standardized

cleaning of occurrence records from biological collection databases. Methods in

Ecology and Evolution, 2019, 10: 744-751

[30]Aiello□Lammens ME, Boria RA, Radosavljevic A, *et al.* Spthin: An r package

for spatial thinning of species occurrence records for use in ecological niche models.

Ecography, 2015, 38: 541-545

[31]Hijmans RJ. Cross-validation of species distribution models: Removing spatial

sorting bias and calibration with a null model. Ecology, 2012, 93: 679-688

[32]Allouche O, Tsoar A, Kadmon R. Assessing the accuracy of species distribution

models: Prevalence, kappa and the true skill statistic (tss). Journal of Applied Ecology,

2006, 43: 1223-1232

[33]Fick SE, Hijmans RJ. Worldclim 2: New 1 km spatial resolution climate

surfaces for global land areas. International Journal of Climatology, 2017, 37:

4302-4315

[34]Team RC. R: A language and environment for statistical computing. MSOR

connections, 2014, 1:

[35]Naimi B, Hamm NAS, Groen TA, *et al.* Where is positional uncertainty a

problem for species distribution modelling? Ecography, 2013, 37: 191-203

[36]Naimi B, Araújo MB. Sdm: A reproducible and extensible r platform for species

distribution modelling. Ecography, 2016, 39: 368-375

[37]Graham HA, Puttock A, Chant J, *et al.* Monitoring, modelling and managing

beaver (castor fiber) populations in the river otter catchment, great britain. Ecological

Solutions and Evidence, 2022, 3: e12168

[38]Campbell-Palmer R, Gow D, Schwab G, *et al.* The eurasian beaver handbook:

Ecology and management of castor fiber. Pelagic Publishing Ltd, 2016.

[39]Parker H, Rosell F. Rapid rebound in colony number of an over hunted

population of eurasian beaver castor fiber. Wildlife Biology, 2014, 20: 267-269

[40]Hartman G. Irruptive population development of european beaver (castor fiber) in

southwest sweden. Lutra, 2003, 46: 103-108

[41]Halley DJ, Saveljev AP, Rosell F. Population and distribution of beavers castor

fiber and castor canadensis in eurasia. Mammal Review, 2021, 51: 1-24

[42]Wilson JB, Bremner Harrison S. A systematic literature review investigating the

association between biodiversity and beaver lodges. Mammal Review, 2025, 55:

e12363

[43]Auster RE, Barr SW, Brazier RE. Renewed coexistence: Learning from steering

group stakeholders on a beaver reintroduction project in england. Eur J Wildl Res,

2022, 68: 1

[44]Ciach M, Wrazidło D, Fedyń I. Ecosystem engineers enter the city: Habitat

characteristics influencing the distribution of eurasian beavers castor fiber in a

human-transformed landscape. Landscape and Urban Planning, 2023, 240: 104893

[45]Siemer WF, Jonker SA, Decker DJ, *et al.* Toward an understanding of beaver

management as human and beaver densities increase. Human-Wildlife Interactions,

2013, 7: 114-131

[46]Jensen PG, Curtis PD, Lehnert ME, *et al.* Habitat and structural factors

influencing beaver interference with highway culverts. Wildlife Society Bulletin,

2001, 654-664

[47]Ecke F, Levanoni O, Audet J, *et al.* Meta-analysis of environmental effects of

beaver in relation to artificial dams. Environmental Research Letters, 2017, 12:

113002

[48]Busher PE, Dzie□ciolowski R. Beaver protection, management, and utilization in

europe and north america. Springer, 1999.

[49]Francis RA, Taylor JD, Dibble E, *et al.* Restricted cross-scale habitat selection by

american beavers. Curr Zool, 2017, 63: 703-710

[50]Hafen KC, Wheaton JM, Roper BB, *et al.* Influence of topographic, geomorphic,

and hydrologic variables on beaver dam height and persistence in the intermountain

western united states. Earth Surface Processes and Landforms, 2020, 45: 2664-2674

[51]Swinnen KR, Rutten A, Nyssen J, *et al.* Environmental factors influencing beaver

dam locations. The Journal of Wildlife Management, 2019, 83: 356-364

[52]Barnes DM, Mallik AU. Habitat factors influencing beaver dam establishment in

a northern ontario watershed. The Journal of wildlife management, 1997, 1371-1377

[53]Small BA, Frey JK, Gard CC. Livestock grazing limits beaver restoration in

northern new mexico. Restoration Ecology, 2016, 24: 646-655

[54]Du YB, Xi YH, Yang ZX, *et al.* High risk of biological invasion from prayer

animal release in china. Frontiers in Ecology and the Environment, 2024, 22: e2647

[55]Segura V, Flores D, Deferrari G. Comparison of skull growth in two ecosystem

modifiers: Beavers castor canadensis (rodentia: Castoridae) and muskrats ondatra

zibethicus (rodentia: Cricetidae). Zoologischer Anzeiger, 2023, 304: 61-72

[56]Mott CL, Bloomquist CK, Nielsen CK. Within-lodge interactions between two

ecosystem engineers, beavers (castor canadensis) and muskrats (ondatra zibethicus).

Behaviour, 2013, 150: 1325-1344

[57]Du Y, Tu W, Yang L, *et al.* Review of the impacts of invasive alien vertebrates on

biodiversity. SCIENTIA SINICA Vitae, 2023, 53: 1035-1054

[58]Campbell-Palmer R, Gow D, Schwab G, *et al.* The eurasian beaver handbook:

Ecology and management of castor fiber. Pelagic Publishing, 2020.

[59]Rosell F, Bozser O, Collen P, *et al.* Ecological impact of beavers castor fiber and

castor canadensis and their ability to modify ecosystems. Mammal Review, 2005, 35:

248-276

[60]Stoffyn-Egli P, Willison JM. Including wildlife habitat in the definition of riparian

areas: The beaver (castor canadensis) as an umbrella species for riparian obligate

animals. Environmental Reviews, 2011, 19: 479-494

Figures and Tables

Fig. 1. Overview of study area and the Sino-Mongolian beaver. (a) Map showing

the location of the study area in northern Xinjiang, China. (b) Two Sino-Mongolian

beavers. (c) Spatial extent of the Xinjiang Burgen Beaver National Nature Reserve. (d)

and (e) show representative landscapes of the beaver habitat in summer and winter,

respectively.

Fig. 2. Historical population dynamics (colony counts) of the Sino-Mongolian

beaver in northern Xinjiang, China (1975–2023). Historical beaver colony data

(1975-1989) are shown by light gray bars (adapted from Shao, 1990). Annual beaver

colony counts collected in this study are represented by colored cumulative bars:

orange denotes upstream sites (excluding the nature reserve), grass green denotes sites

within the nature reserve, and steel blue denotes downstream sites. Key conservation

milestones are marked by dashed lines (from left to right): (1) establishment of the

nature reserve at the provincial level in 1980; (2) promulgation of Wildlife Protection

Law of China and the beaver's listing as a *First-Class* Key Protected Wildlife of

China in 1989; (3) upgrading the reserve to a national status in 2013; and (4)

conducting collaborative conservation projects by integrating government,

conservation society, and local communities in 2019.

Fig. 3. Population dynamic model fitting for beaver colony numbers (2003-2023).

Population dynamics were modeled using polynomial (orange), exponential (purple

blue), and logistic (green) functions for different spatial categories: (a) the whole

study area, (b) upstream areas, (c) downstream areas, and (d) the nature reserve. The

Akaike Information Criterion (AIC) values and R^2 are presented. Dashed vertical lines

indicate key conservation milestones: (1) upgrading the reserve to national status in

2013; and (2) conducting collaborative conservation projects by integrating

government, conservation society, and local communities in 2019.

Fig. 4. Spatio-temporal variation of beaver colony density across five sequential

stages. Each panel illustrates the two-stage temporal dynamics of nest kernel density

distribution. Red shading indicates areas where nest density increased during the

transition, while light blue shading represents areas where density decreased. Note

that the beaver nest distribution data for 2021 was used in the density calculations for

both Stage 4 and Stage 5.

Fig. 5. Principal component analysis (PCA) of nine habitat variables. PCA was

performed on nine habitat variables within the study area. (a) and (b) illustrate the

performance of the nine variables across the PCA components. (c) displays the

contribution of each variable to the formation of the respective PCA components.

Abbreviations: ele: Elevation; road_dist: Distance to nearest road; settlement_dist:

Distance to nearest human settlement; dam_dist: Distance to nearest artificial dam;

canopy: Forest canopy cover near the beaver nest; NDVI: Normalized Difference

Vegetation Index near the beaver nest; water_depth: Water depth near the beaver nest;

nest_height: Height of the beaver nest to the riverbank.

 Fig. 6. Spatial distribution of habitat suitability for the Sino-Mongolian beaver

under current and future climate scenario SSP370. Maps illustrate the predicted

habitat suitability for the Sino-Mongolian beaver: (a) under current climatic

conditions, and projected suitability under the future Shared Socioeconomic Pathway

(SSP) scenario SSP370 for (b) the 2050s, (c) the 2070s, and (d) the 2100s. The color

gradient reflects the level of habitat suitability, where red indicates high suitability

and yellow denotes low suitability.

Fig. 7. Temporal changes in habitat suitability for Sino-Mongolian beavers future

climate scenario SSP370. Panels illustrate the projected difference in habitat

suitability between specific time periods: (a) the 2100s relative to the current period;

(b) the 2050s relative to the current period; (c) the 2070s relative to the 2050s; and (d)

the 2100s relative to the 2070s. The color gradient indicates the magnitude of

suitability change: purple represents an increase in suitability, while light blue

represents a decrease.