1	Climate change should drive mammal defaunation in tropical dry forests
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18	ABSTRACT
19	Human-induced climate change has intensified negative impacts on socioeconomic factors,
20	the environment, and biodiversity, including changes in rainfall patterns and an increase in
21	global average temperatures. Drylands are particularly at risk, with projections suggesting
22	they will become hotter, drier, and less suitable for a significant portion of their species,
23	potentially leading to mammal defaunation. We use ecological niche modelling and
24	community ecology biodiversity metrics to examine potential geographical range shifts of
25	non-volant mammal species in the largest Neotropical dryland, the Caatinga, and evaluate

26	impacts of climate change on mammal assemblages. According to projections, 85% of the
27	mammal species will lose suitable habitats, with one quarter of species projected to
28	completely lose suitable habitats by 2060. This will result in a decrease in species richness for
29	more than 90% of assemblages and an increase in compositional similarity to nearby
30	assemblages (i.e., reduction in spatial beta diversity) for 70% of the assemblages. Small-sized
31	mammals will be the most impacted and lose most of their suitable habitats, especially in
32	highlands. The scenario is even worse in the eastern half of Caatinga where habitat
33	destruction already prevails, compounding the threats faced by species there. While species-
34	specific responses can vary with respect to dispersal, behaviour, and energy requirements, our
35	findings indicate that climate change can drive mammal assemblages to biotic
36	homogenisation and species loss, with drastic changes in assemblage trophic structure. For
37	successful long-term socioenvironmental policy and conservation planning, it is critical that
38	findings from biodiversity forecasts are considered.
39	
40	Keywords: Beta-diversity Biotic homogenisation Body size Drylands Ecological Niche

Keywords: Beta-diversity, Biotic homogenisation, Body size, Drylands, Ecological Niche
Models; Mammals

42 INTRODUCTION

43 Defaunation typically refers to the depletion of fauna caused by overexploitation, habitat destruction, and invasive species (Dirzo et al., 2014; Redford, 1992). At large spatial scales, 44 45 defaunation may generate complex spatial patterns rather than a simple reduction in species richness, which depend on species-specific responses to defaunation drivers and landscape 46 47 configuration (Bogoni et al., 2020) Climate change adds another layer of complexity to the 48 spatial consequences of defaunation, since, besides posing an additional threat to wildlife, it is 49 expected to reshape species distribution patterns. In response to a changing the climate, 50 species can be displaced to regions with more favourable conditions, experiencing either 51 geographic range contraction or expansion (Lenoir & Svenning, 2015). Species with higher 52 tolerance to environmental change (e.g., disturbance-adapted, habitat generalists, wide-53 ranging, and synanthropic species) are less likely to be affected and may even expand their 54 occurrence to novel habitats. In contrast, more sensitive species (e.g., habitat specialists, 55 narrow-ranging species) may lose suitable areas and eventually becoming locally extinct 56 (Filgueiras et al., 2021). These differences in species responses have the potential to change richness and composition of local assemblages, ultimately affecting biodiversity patterns. 57

58 The widespread loss of specialist species reduces local species richness (alpha diversity) and may increase the similarity in species composition across space, decreasing 59 60 beta diversity, a phenomenon termed biotic homogenisation (Mckinney & Lockwood, 1999). 61 Most often, biotic homogenization also result from increases in local richness due to the 62 colonization of species assemblages by generalists (Filgueiras et al., 2021; Socolar et al., 63 2016). However, species redistribution may also increase the spatial heterogeneity in 64 assemblage composition, either due to the gain of disturbance-adapted species or to the loss of 65 widespread species (Socolar et al., 2016). Although studies on the effects of climate change 66 over biodiversity patterns often emphasize the biotic homogenization due to species loss

(Clavel et al., 2011; Hidasi-Neto et al., 2019; Moura et al., 2023), the prevalence each of
those process is likely context dependent, and spatial patterns will vary according to species
composition, the level of spatial heterogeneity in environmental conditions and the severity of
climate changes.

71 The potential effects of biotic homogenization have been studied mostly in tropical 72 rainforests (Sales et al., 2020), leaving other types of systems highly subject to climate change 73 understudied. Because future climate projections also include changes in the volume, 74 frequency, and geography of rainfalls (IPCC, 2021), climate change is particularly worrying 75 for regions already facing scarcity of water. For instance, drylands are expected to become 76 hotter, drier, and less suitable for a significant portion of their species (Aguirre-Gutiérrez et 77 al., 2020). If these projections are confirmed, it is likely that drylands will gradually become 78 impoverished, homogenised, and driven towards desertification (Moura et al., 2023; Torres et 79 al., 2017). One of Earth's most vulnerable drylands, the Caatinga, is also the largest tropical 80 dry forest in South America (Banda-R et al., 2016; Hoekstra et al., 2004; Silva et al., 2017). In 81 addition to being affected by chronic disturbances (Antongiovanni et al., 2020), this semiarid 82 region underwent a high degree of defaunation associated with habitat loss and poaching in 83 the past five centuries (Alves et al., 2012; Barboza et al., 2016; Bogoni et al., 2020), showing 84 a high proportion of locally threatened species, including endemic ones (Leal et al., 2005) 85 Besides being an ideal study system to the consequences of climate change on biodiversity 86 distribution patterns, investigating the response of tropical dry forest mammals to climate 87 change can help elucidate impacts of environmental change on dryland biodiversity.

In the Caatinga drylands, about half of the mammal species are non-volant (Carmignotto & Astúa, 2018). Although many of these species are shared with neighbouring biomes (Carmignotto et al., 2012), the composition of Caatinga mammals reflects a complex biogeographic history that has involved periodical expansions and retractions of tropical dry

92 forests across different mountain ranges along the Pleistocene (Silva et al., 2017). On the one 93 hand, Caatinga species have historically experienced high climatic variation (Costa et al., 94 2018), which may have selected organisms able to keep pace with climate change (Riddell et 95 al., 2021; Schloss et al., 2012). If so, future climate change would have limited influence on 96 species richness and composition of mammal assemblages. However, if Caatinga species are 97 already near their physiological limits (Araújo et al., 2013) or have relied on highland humid 98 enclaves as refuges over evolutionary time (Werneck et al., 2011), further increases in arid 99 conditions could trigger a range shift in these species with consequences for assemblage 100 structure.

101 Herein, we used ecological niche modelling and community ecology biodiversity 102 metrics to examine potential geographical range shifts of non-volant mammal species in the 103 Caatinga and evaluate impacts of climate change on mammal assemblages. We combined data 104 on species distribution and body mass to investigate projected changes in geographical 105 patterns of mammal richness and spatial dissimilarity across different future climate 106 scenarios. Specifically, we sought to determine whether the balance between potential range 107 contraction or expansion may increase or decrease species richness (alpha diversity) and how 108 those changes in distribution may impact homogenisation or heterogenisation of faunal 109 composition (beta diversity) across space. Because ecological losses are often non-random, 110 with large-sized and longer-lived non-volant mammals disappearing first (Carmona et al., 111 2021; Cooke et al., 2019), we also examined how changes in average body mass per 112 assemblage (if any) was linked to species loss and biotic homogenisation. Because the 113 elevational gradient around highlands appears to sustain more favourable conditions for non-114 volant mammals (Becker et al., 2007), we expected relatively lower changes in species 115 richness and composition of mammal assemblages at higher elevations, with overall decline 116 in richness and biotic homogenization associated with a reduction in average body mass.

117

118 **METHODS**

119 Species Data

120 We compiled occurrence data of Caatinga non-volant mammals searching for different term 121 combinations: "mamíferos", "caatinga", "nordeste", "dataset", "northeast", "dryland", and 122 "mammals" in Google Scholar, identifying 185 mammal species known to occur in the 123 Caatinga. We then used 19 published studies to extracted occurrence records collected 124 between 1957 and 2021 (Asfora et al., 2011; Brennand et al., 2013; Culot et al., 2019; Feijó & 125 Langguth, 2013; Freitas, 1957; Gardner, 2008; Geise et al., 2010; Gurgel-Filho et al., 2015; 126 Lima et al., 2017; Malcher et al., 2017; Mares et al., 1981; Mendonça et al., 2018; Nagy 🗆 Reis 127 et al., 2020; Nascimento & Feijó, 2017; Oliveira et al., 2003; Patton et al., 2015; Pires & 128 Wied, 1965; Santos et al., 2019; Souza et al., 2019). We also incorporated data from the 129 mastozoological collection of Universidade Federal da Paraíba (the largest mammal collection 130 of Northeastern Brazil) and other collections included in the Global Biodiversity Information 131 Facility (GBIF, 2023). We included species occurrence records if information was available 132 on coordinates, collection year, and species taxonomy in agreement with specialized literature 133 (Carmignotto & Astúa, 2018; Feijó et al., 2016; Feijó & Langguth, 2013; Gardner, 2008; 134 Gurgel-Filho et al., 2015; Nascimento & Feijó, 2017; Oliveira & Langguth, 2004; Patton et 135 al., 2015; Quintela et al., 2020). After excluding the bat species, our database summed 39,459 136 occurrence records for 93 species of non-volant mammals.

We used the *CoordinateCleaner* R package (Zizka et al., 2019) to remove duplicates and geoprocessing errors (records distant less than 1 km from municipality, state, or country centroids, or located over water), leading to 18,758 records. To reduce the potential effect of sampling bias and spatial autocorrelation in the occurrence dataset, we randomly filtered one occurrence record for each species within a radius of ~10 km (Kramer-Schadt et al., 2013). At this point, all species in the database had at least 5 occurrence records. Our final dataset
included 11,900 unique occurrence records of 93 species distributed across the Neotropical
realm (Fig. S1). Information on mammal body mass was extracted from the *EltonTraits*(Wilman et al., 2014), *Phylacine* (Faurby et al., 2018) and *Combine* databases (Soria et al.,
2021) and complemented through specialised literature (see Data Availability for complete
sources on body mass data).

148

149 Current and future projections

150 We used 19 bioclimatic variables from the *WorldClim* v2.1 (Fick & Hijmans, 2017) in the 151 spatial resolution of 5 arc-min (~100 km² pixel) to represent the current climate. The global 152 bioclimatic layers were cropped to the extent of Neotropical realm (i.e., our model's background). To avoid problems with multicollinearity and reduce the dimensionality of 153 154 predictor layers, we conducted a principal component analysis on the bioclimatic layers and 155 retained the predictor axes that cumulatively explained 95% of data variation (De Marco & 156 Nóbrega, 2018) \Box . We projected the linear relationships between raw predictors and principal components onto new layers representing future climate scenarios using the PCA loading 157 158 coefficients derived from climatic data.

159 The future climate projections can vary according to different Shared Socioeconomic 160 Pathways (SSPs) that consider distinct paths to greenhouse gas emissions and the human 161 demographic growth (IPCC, 2021). We employed climate projections for the optimistic (SSP 162 245) and pessimistic (SSP 585) scenarios for the period of 2041-2060 (hereafter 2060) and for 163 the period 2081-2100 (hereafter 2100), both derived from the 6th IPCC Assessment Report 164 (IPCC, 2021). The SSPs were created in agreement with different Generalised Circulation 165 Models (GCMs) that simulate climatic alterations considering various atmospheric processes 166 (IPCC, 2021). To minimise uncertainties about the choice of a particular GCM (Diniz-Filho et

al., 2009; Thuiller et al., 2019), we selected the five distinct GCMs, na

- 168 CNRM-CM6-1, IPSL-CM6A-LR, MIROC6, and MRI-ESM2-0.
- 169

170 Ecological niche models

171 Recent investigations have showed that 17 occurrence records would be necessary to build traditional ecological niche models (ENMs) for species in the Caatinga (Sampaio & 172 173 Cavalcante, 2023; van Proosdij et al., 2016). Because almost 20% of mammal species herein 174 considered did not reach this occurrence threshold, we separated our dataset into species with 175 either <20 presences (considered as 'rare') or \geq 20 presences (considered as 'common'). We 176 then applied the traditional ENM approach to model habitat suitability of common species 177 and used the Ensemble of Small Models (ESM) approach (Breiner et al., 2015) to model the 178 rare species. Before modelling, we established the calibration (accessible) area of each species 179 as a buffer around its occurrence records, with a width size equal to the maximum nearest 180 neighbour distance among pairs of occurrences (Barve et al., 2012). Within each species 181 calibration area, we computed pseudo-absences using the ratio of 0.5 presence-absence for 182 common species and 0.1 for rare species to avoid very unbalanced models while maximising 183 sampling units (Barbet-Massin et al., 2012; Liu et al., 2019). To increment discriminatory and 184 explanatory capacities of models, we allocated pseudoabsences following the environmentally 185 constrained method, based on the lowest suitable region predicted by a climate envelope 186 (Engler et al., 2004; Lobo & Tognelli, 2011).

187 Considering that the algorithm choice can affect the habitat suitability estimation 188 (Diniz-Filho et al., 2009; Rangel & Loyola, 2012), we computed an ensemble of projections 189 using four algorithms. For the species modelled using the traditional ENM approach, we used 190 the following algorithms: Generalised Linear Models (using linear and quadratic terms), 191 Generalised Additive Models (using smooth terms with three dimensions), Maximum Entropy

192 (using 10,000 background points and default features based on *MaxNet* package; Phillips et 193 al., 2017), and Random Forests (with the *mtry* parameter automatically tuned by growing 194 1000 trees through *tuneRF* function in *randomForest* package; Breiman, 2001; Liaw & 195 Wiener, 2002). For the species modelled using the ESM approach, we used the Generalised 196 Linear Models, Generalised Additive Models (using smooth terms with two dimensions), and 197 Gradient Boosting Models (using learning rate of 0.1 and 100 trees), and Neural Networks 198 (with 2 hidden layers, and decay parameters of 0; Breiner et al., 2018). For each method and 199 rare species, we obtained the ESM by averaging the habitat suitability of bivariate models 200 weighted by their respective model Somers' D $[D = 2 \times (AUC - 0.5)]$ (Breiner et al., 2015). 201 The ESMs computed for the four abovementioned methods were then used to build an 202 ensemble of projections for each rare species.

When projecting ENMs to new regions or time periods, it is possible to project habitat 203 204 suitability for conditions outside the range represented by the training data (Elith et al., 2010). 205 To account for the impact of model extrapolation on each species projection, we computed 206 the Mobility-Oriented Parity (MOP) metric (Owens et al., 2013) within the calibration area of 207 each species. We calculated the MOP metric by measuring the Euclidean distance between 208 environmental conditions of the projected pixel and the nearest 10% training data observations (Montti et al., 2021). The MOP metric was further normalized to 1 and 209 210 subtracted from 1 to reflect environmental similarity (Owens et al., 2013). We filtered habitat 211 suitability estimates for projected pixels showing very high (MOP values ≥ 0.9), high (MOP \geq 212 0.8), and moderate (MOP \ge 0.7) environmental similarity with the training data. To minimise 213 issues with unlimited dispersal, we restricted all projections to the respective calibration area 214 defined for each species.

We calibrated the models using 5-folds cross-validation, with 80% of randomly selected observations (presences and pseudo-absences) used for training, and the remaining

217 20% used for testing at each iteration (Roberts et al., 2017). Model performance was 218 evaluated through computation of Sorensen similarity index (ranging from 0 to 1) between 219 observations and binary predictions (Leroy et al., 2018). The habitat suitability threshold 220 selected to make predictions binary was chosen to maximise the Sorensen index. We also 221 computed complementary metrics of model performance, True Skill Statistic (TSS, ranging 222 from -1 to 1) and Area Under Curve (AUC, ranging from 0 to 1) (Liu et al., 2011), to 223 facilitate comparisons across literature. For the current climate, and for each combination of 224 GCM, SSP, and year, we computed the ensemble model as the average weighted habitat 225 suitability across algorithms, with the Sorensen index used as weight (Andrade et al., 2020). 226 The ensemble model was then made binary using average weighted binarization threshold, 227 with weights given by the Sorensen's index of the respective algorithm (Andrade et al., 2020; Thuiller et al., 2019). We used the standard deviation of habitat suitability across the GCMs as 228 229 a measure of future model uncertainty.

230 Lastly, we applied spatial constraints *a posteriori* to minimise overprediction issues 231 associated with species binary maps derived from ENMs. We used the occurrence-based 232 threshold method (OBR) to exclude unreachable patches of current suitable habitats for each 233 species (Mendes et al., 2020). This approach assumes that suitable patches are reachable if 234 they either overlap with species presence records (occupied patch) or are within an edge-edge 235 distance threshold of an occupied suitable patch (Mendes et al., 2020). We defined the 236 distance threshold as the maximum nearest neighbour distance among pairs of occurrences of 237 each species. All computations were performed in R 4.2.0 (R Core Team, 2022) using the 238 ENMTML package (Andrade et al., 2020) to build the traditional ENMs and the *flexsdm* 239 package (Velazco et al., 2022) to compute the ESMs.

240

241 Assemblage-level biodiversity metrics

242 We divided the Caatinga using an equal-area projection grid cell of 10×10 km. We overlaid 243 our grid cells (i.e., species assemblages) with binary maps to build presence-absence matrices 244 for the current time and each future scenario (2060 SSP245, 2100 SSP245, 2060 SSP585, and 245 2100 SSP585). To represent the aggregate model uncertainty in future scenarios, we used the 246 average standard deviation of habitat suitability for species in each grid cell (species 247 assemblage). More specifically, we initially averaged the variances (i.e., the squared 248 deviations) for species habitat suitability in each cell, and then square rooted the outcome to 249 get the average standard deviation (AvgSD) for each future year–SSP scenario combination 250 (2060 SSP245, 2060 SSP585, 2100 SSP245, and 2100 SSP585).

251 Species richness corresponded to the number of species (S) present in each grid cell. 252 The spatial beta-diversity was represented by the multisite Simpson dissimilarity index – β_{SIM} 253 (Baselga, 2010), which is recommended for macroecological investigations given its 254 independence of richness differences (Kreft & Jetz, 2010). We computed β_{SIM} between each 255 focal cell and its immediate neighbouring cells. However, the number neighbouring cells is a 256 proxy to area and can therefore affect the β_{SIM} via species-area relationship (Baselga, 2013). 257 To circumvent this issue, we randomly selected four neighbouring cells around each focal cell 258 to compute β_{SIM} . We repeated this procedure 100 times and extracted the average β_{SIM} across 259 iterations to obtain the per cell β_{SIM} . Computations were performed in R using the *betapart* 260 package (Baselga & Orme, 2012).

For each grid cell, we also computed the geometric mean of \log_{10} body mass across its member species (Avg_{mass}) as a proxy for the structure of mammal assemblages (Bogoni et al., 2020). We calculated the richness difference between future and current period ($\Delta S = S_{future} - S_{current}$) and change in spatial beta-diversity ($\Delta\beta_{SIM} = \beta_{SIM.future} - \beta_{SIM.current}$) to identify species assemblages subject to biotic homogenization ($\Delta\beta_{SIM} < 0$) or heterogenization ($\Delta\beta_{SIM} > 0$). Similarly, we computed the ratio of average body mass of future to current projections

267 (MassRatio = $Avg_{mass.future}$ / $Avg_{mass.current}$) to quantify relative changes in mammal 268 assemblages. MassRatio < 1 indicated future assemblage with lower average body mass than 269 today, while MassRatio > 1 indicated the opposite.

270 To assess the influence of potential topographical refuges in shaping assemblage-level 271 biodiversity metrics in Caatinga, we also categorised grid cells between lowlands (i.e., areas 272 <500 m elevation) and highlands (i.e., areas >500 m elevation). The threshold of 500 meters 273 allowed the detection of the five major Caatinga mountain ranges (e.g., Chapada Diamantina, 274 Planalto da Borborema, Chapada do Araripe, Serra da Ibiapaba, and the highest parts of the 275 Serra da Capivara and Serra das Confusões, see Fig. S2). We used Kruskal-Wallis tests to 276 assess whether the medians of (i) Current species richness, (ii) ΔS , (iii) Avg_{mass,current}, and (iv) 277 MassRatio differed between assemblages subject to biotic homogenisation ($\Delta\beta_{SIM} < 0$) or 278 heterogenisation ($\Delta\beta_{\text{SIM}} > 0$) or located in lowlands versus highlands. Linear relationships 279 between projected changes in species richness (ΔS), changes in spatial beta-diversity ($\Delta \beta_{SIM}$), 280 relative changes in average body mass (MassRatio), and aggregated model uncertainty 281 (AvgSD) were verified through a modified t-test (Dutilleul, 1993) to spatially correct the 282 degrees of freedom of correlation coefficients. Computations were performed in R using the 283 package SpatialPack (Osorio et al., 2014).

284

285 **RESULTS**

Across all non-volant mammal species in the Caatinga, the ensemble models showed moderate to high predictive performance using either the traditional Ecological Niche Modelling approach (median Sørensen similarity index = 0.68, range = 0.52-0.98; median TSS = 0.52, range = 0.12-0.97; median AUC 0.78, range=0.52-0.99) or the Ensemble of Small Models approach (median Sørensen similarity index = 0.60, range = 0.24-0.89; median TSS = 0.6, range = 0.19-0.98; median AUC 0.85, range=0.43-0.99; Fig. S3). Although

quantitative differences emerged between the SSP scenarios (SSP245 and SSP585) and year
(2060 and 2100), results were qualitatively similar. Therefore, we focused here on projections
for 2060 and SSP245, and based on highly similar environmental conditions (MOP values ≥
0.9), but see the Supporting Information for results on complementary projections.
About 87% of non-volant mammal species were projected to lose suitable areas by
2060, with substantial reductions of suitable areas (i.e., >50% of geographic range loss)
occurring mainly inside the Caatinga (Fig. S4). For at least 12 modelled species (12.8%),

suitable habitats within the Caatinga were projected to be completely absent by 2060 under

300 the SSP245 scenario (Fig. 1), with this number reaching 28 species (30%) under the

301 pessimistic scenario (SSP585) by 2100 (Figs S5-S6). Our ensemble models projected that

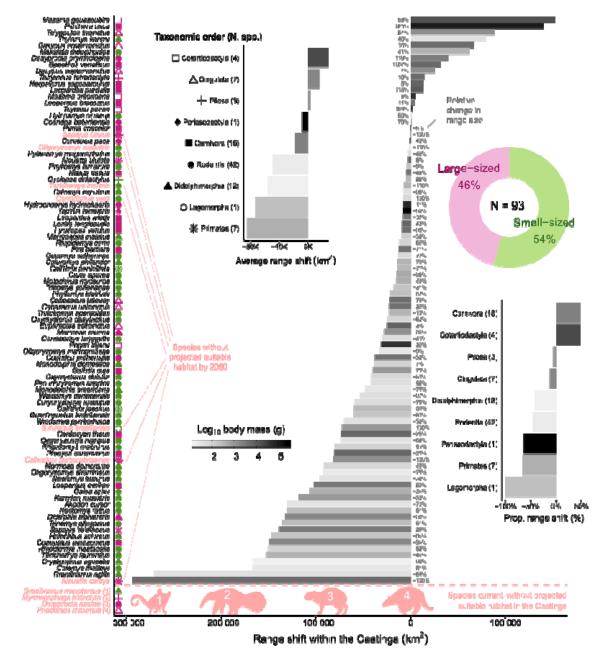
302 four species would currently show suitable habitats only outside the Caatinga, suggesting

303 potential source-sink dynamics for these species (Fig. 1). However, it is worth noting that four

304 out of the five species without projected suitable habitats (Dasyprocta azarae, Gracilinanus

305 microtarsus, Mirmecophaga tridactyla, and Priodontes maximus,) lacked occurrence records

in the Caatinga, despite being listed in regional checklists (Carmignotto & Astúa, 2018).

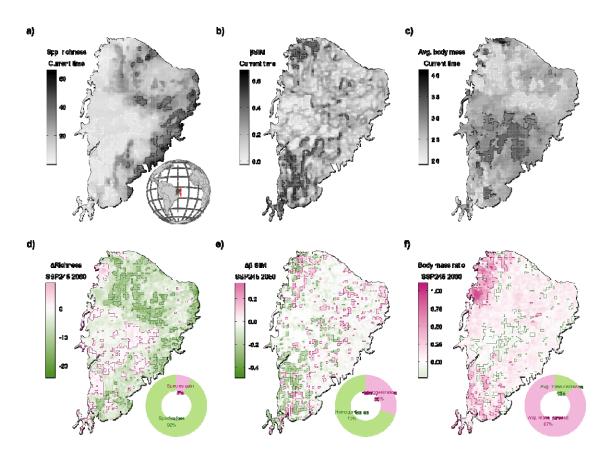


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Figure 1. Projected range shift for non-volant mammals in the Caatinga. The four species below the red dashed line showed no current suitable habitats within the Caatinga, although they are projected to occur elsewhere in the Neotropical realm. Species labelled in red elsewhere indicate taxa without projected suitable habitats for 2060 according to the scenario SSP245. Symbol colour on the left panel indicate if species body mass is $\leq 1 \text{ kg}$ (green, small-sized) or not (pink, large-sized). Symbol shape follow the taxonomic order indicated in the top-left inset plot. See Figs S4-S6 for results on complementary projections.

315 Species loss was projected for 91.6% of species assemblages, with an average richness 316 difference of -4.7 species (range $\Delta S = -23-8$) across all assemblages, whereas 69.9% of 317 assemblages showed projected biotic homogenisation (Fig. 2). Median current species richness is higher in regions projected to become more heterogeneous ($\chi^2 = 1167.7$, d. f. = 7, p 318 319 < 0.001, Fig. 3a). Similarly, future assemblages projected to be more heterogeneous in the 320 future showed the most pronounced species loss (Fig. S11, Table S1), particularly those in 321 northern Caatinga (Fig. 2), with model uncertainty increasing with richness difference (Fig. 322 S20). Notably, model projections showed low uncertainty across regions subject either to 323 biotic homogenisation or heterogenization (Fig. S21). Assemblages located in lowlands or 324 highlands showed similar changes in species richness and spatial-beta diversity (Figs S12 and 325 S17-18).

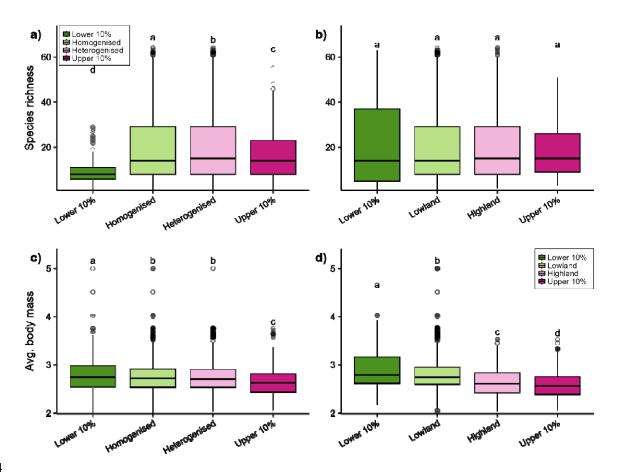
326 Average body mass in current assemblages was generally higher in lowlands than in 327 highlands ($\chi^2 = 435.6$, d. f. = 7, p < 0.001, Fig. 3c). Surprisingly, 87.7% of assemblages were 328 projected to experience an increase in average body mass of their member species, 329 particularly in the southern and northwestern portions of Caatinga (Fig. 2). The relative 330 change in average body mass was not associated with changes in either species richness (Figs 331 4c and S14d) or biotic change (Figs 4e and S15d), but tended to slightly increase with 332 elevation (Fig. S12i-l). Across most the SSP scenarios, time periods, and levels of 333 extrapolation constraints, our findings indicated no relationship between changes in average 334 body mass and aggregated model uncertainty (Fig. S22).



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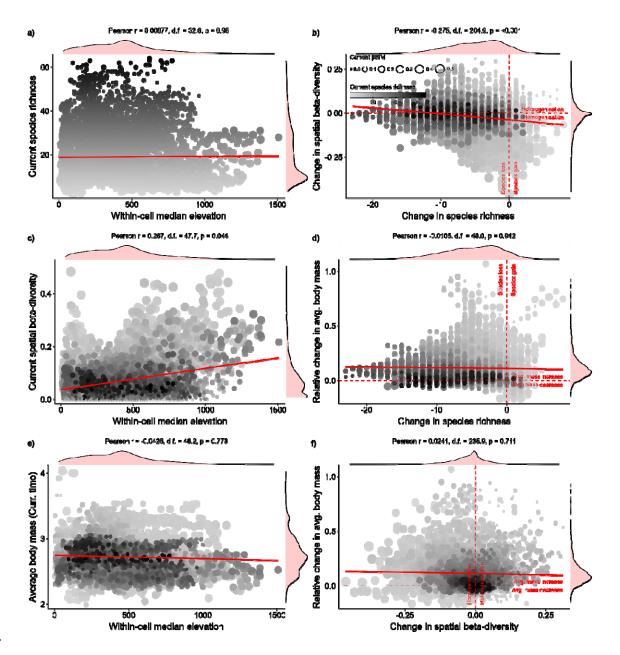
Figure 2. Geographical patterns of species richness, spatial beta-diversity, and average body mass for mammals in the Caatinga. (a) Current species richness, (b) Spatial beta-diversity (β_{SIM}), (c) Average log₁₀ body mass (g), (d) Projected richness difference (ΔS), (e) Projected change in spatial beta-diversity ($\Delta \beta_{SIM}$), (f) Projected relative change in average body mass. All geographical patterns were derived from species projections holding at least 90% of environmental similarity with training data. The contour lines denote the assemblages (cells) in the upper and lower 10% of the mapped pattern. Plots are shown for the scenario SSP245 at the year 2060. See Figs S7-S10 for results on complementary projections and mapped uncertainty.

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344

345 Figure 3. Species richness and average body mass across mammal assemblages at different elevations and 346 levels of biotic change. (a-b) Species richness and (c-d) average body mass. Each box denotes the median 347 (horizontal line), the 25th and 75th percentiles, the 95% confidence intervals (vertical line), and outliers (black 348 dots). Boxplots in darker greenish or pinkish colours denote were computed using the upper and lower 10% 349 assemblages (cells) in terms of biotic change (a, c) and elevation (b, d). Small capital letters denote the results of 350 the Kruskal-Wallis tests for the difference in medians across assemblages subject to different levels of biotic 351 homogenisation or located in lowlands or highlands (boxplots holding the same letter show statistically similar 352 median values under p = 0.05, using Bonferroni correction). Plots are shown for the scenario SSP245 at the year 353 2060. See Figs S11-S12 and Tables S1-S2 for complementary projections.



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Figure 4. Change in species richness, spatial beta-diversity, average body mass of mammal assemblages in Caatinga. Plots (a, c, e) illustrate the relationship between assemblage-level biodiversity metrics at the current time and elevation, whereas plots (b, d, f) indicate how changes in biodiversity metrics are inter-related. All geographical patterns were derived from species projections holding at least 90% of environmental similarity with training data. Pearson correlations at the top of each panel were based on spatially corrected degrees of freedom. Plots are shown for the scenario SSP245 at the year 2060. See Figs S13-S22 for results on complementary projections.

362 **DISCUSSION**

363 Drylands in northern South America are expected to face temperature rise of up to 2.7°C by 364 2060, with changes in the number of consecutive dry days increasing by as much as 21 days 365 (IPCC, 2021). Our study reveals the potential for such changes to drastically erode the 366 diversity of non-volant mammals in the Caatinga. Our projections indicate that most species 367 will lose suitable environmental conditions within the Caatinga, while a few will expand their 368 distribution, which will result in lower species richness and increased compositional similarity 369 to nearby assemblages. Our results show that the biotic homogenisation and species loss are 370 projected in opposite directions, with species gain occurring mostly in regions that are 371 currently species-poor. Although the current beta-diversity is higher in highlands than 372 lowlands, projected changes in biotic composition are only weakly or not at all associated 373 with elevation. Most assemblages are expected to lose small-sized mammals, while large-374 sized species are projected to colonise neighbouring assemblages. Overall, we reveal how 375 climate change strengthen the defaunation of non-volant mammals and produce complex 376 spatial patterns in the largest tropical dry forest of South America.

377 Despite mammal adaptations to survive in drylands (e.g., insectivorous diet, night 378 activity, and subterranean shelters), climate change can restrict their physiology and fitness by 379 increasing dehydration, overheating, starvation, and reducing reproduction (Fuller et al., 380 2021). The projected loss of suitable habitat for almost 90% of all non-volant mammals of 381 Caatinga suggests that these species will have to cope with extreme climate conditions for 382 their dispersion across the biome. Among the main climatic "losers"- species with greatest 383 suitable habitat loss – are primates and the Brazilian cottontail rabbit, but several species from 384 the orders Didelphimorphia and Rodentia also emerge, such as the agile gracile opossum 385 (Gracilinanus agilis), the long-tailed climbing mouse (Rhipidomys mastacalis), and the white-386 spined Atlantic spiny-rat (Trinomys albispinus). These animals are typically small-sized and

387 occupy lower trophic levels, usually producing a greater number of offspring when compared 388 with large-sized mammals (Carmignotto & Astúa, 2018; Feijó & Langguth, 2013; Santini et 389 al., 2013). The few "winner" species include the brown brocket (Mazama gouazoubira), the 390 black-rumped agouti (Dasyprocta prymnolopha), which have a wide-ranging distribution and 391 a large body size (Carmignotto & Astúa, 2018; Hetem et al., 2014; Santini et al., 2013), and 392 different species of armadillos, which generally have wide tolerance to warm-dry climates 393 (Soibelzon, 2019). These examples illustrate how animals with low vagility can be 394 disproportionally impacted by climate change, which is supported by our findings on the 395 decrease in the relative contribution of small-sized species across mammal assemblages.

396 The drastic species loss projected for the assemblages of non-volant mammals can be 397 attributed to changes in dispersal, behaviour, and resource availability due to increasing 398 aridity (Marengo et al., 2017; Torres et al., 2017). Firstly, increased aridity can shorten the 399 optimal period for foraging and breeding (Hetem et al., 2014), and ultimately impact the 400 ecological fitness and maintenance of mammal populations (Fuller et al., 2021). Secondly, 401 geographical barriers may further restrict dispersal and hinder access to suitable habitats 402 (Fuller et al., 2021). Thirdly, hotter and dryer conditions can reduce aboveground biomass 403 (Rito et al., 2017; Souza et al., 2019) and alter floristic composition (Rito et al., 2017; Vieira 404 et al., 2022), thereby impacting competition for food resources not only to herbivores, but also 405 to omnivores and carnivores (Marinho et al., 2020; Oliveira & Diniz-Filho, 2010) \Box . Since 406 mammals can exhibit size-dependent variation in vagility, behaviour, and energy needs 407 (Ramesh et al., 2015; Santini et al., 2013; Shipley et al., 1994), prolonged periods of heat and 408 droughts can trigger heterogeneous species responses and enhance negative biotic 409 interactions, ultimately leading to the depletion of faunal assemblages.

410 The predominance of highly-vagile large-sized species across lowland assemblages 411 and the faster turnover of small-sized species in highlands help to explain the increase in

412 mammal beta-diversity along elevational gradients in the Caatinga (Lopez et al., 2016; Melo 413 et al., 2009). While small-sized mammals certainly occur across Caatinga lowlands, the future 414 homogenisation is expected to be primarily driven by the loss of suitable habitats for typically 415 small-sized mammals – adults weighting ≤ 1 kg, sensu Chiarello (2000) – which constitute 416 54% of species in the region (Fig. 1). The current predominance of small-sized mammals 417 across highlands can be related to species persistence through elevational range shift across 418 time (Chen et al., 2011), which is especially important in the Caatinga due to its climate 419 instability when compared with other regions in South America (Costa et al., $2018)\Box$. 420 Therefore, the impoverished and compositionally similar mammal assemblages in the 421 lowlands may have resulted from the historic accumulation of local extinctions in the 422 Caatinga, particularly of small-sized species with low vagility (Schloss et al., 2012).

423 Ecological niches of large-sized species may have been underestimated due to past 424 hunting and overexploitation (Sales et al., 2022), which could further increase in the relative 425 contribution of large-sized species in shaping mammal assemblage. However, our data entries 426 may have missed species entirely if past defaunation resulted in the extinction of large-sized 427 species in the Caatinga. Ungulates like the tapir, peccaries, and different deer species that had 428 wider ranges before European colonization are considered locally extinct across most regions 429 within the biome limits (Barboza et al., 2016). The largest extant mammal in most sites, and 430 the ones projected to increase in range are armadillos, which can be very resilient and often 431 thrive in human-modified landscapes (Bovo et al., 2018; Magalhães et al., 2023), with most 432 small mammals including rodents and marsupials projected to undergo range contractions 433 while the potential range of some of the larger-bodied extant species are projected to increase, 434 the average body mass increases as well. In that sense the pattern we found of increasing 435 mean average body mass is the consequence of the expansion of opportunistic species as well 436 as a legacy of past defaunation. It is worth noting that while the geographical pattern of

437 average body mass indicates a general increase in the relative contribution of large-sized
438 species, intraspecific responses may cause mammal body size to decrease in response to a
439 warming climate (Gardner et al., 2011; Villar & Naya, 2018).

440 While methodical choices and theoretical limitations like climate uncertainty, dispersal 441 limitations, niche conservatism and model transferability (Barve et al., 2012; Diniz-Filho et 442 al., 2009; Guisan & Thuiller, 2005; Owens et al., 2013; Thuiller et al., 2019) may have 443 affected our projections, we minimized these issues by offering an ensemble of projections 444 across various modelling algorithms (Araújo & New, 2007). We also implemented an 445 ensemble of future projections across different generalized circulation models and future 446 scenarios of climate change (Diniz-Filho et al., 2009; Thuiller et al., 2019). We also applied 447 species-specific spatial restrictions to remove unreachable patches of projected suitable 448 habitats and minimise overprediction issues related to unlimited dispersal by constraining 449 projections to species-specific calibration areas (Mendes et al., 2020). In addition, 450 assumptions of niche conservatism are likely applicable to mammals in the Caatinga, as the 451 upper limits of mammal thermal tolerance are highly conserved in tropical species (Araújo et 452 al., 2013; Khaliq et al., 2015). To minimise model transferability issues, we constrained 453 habitat suitability estimates to environmental conditions similar to those in the training data 454 (Owens et al., 2013). Although the models used in this study varied quantitatively, the 455 projected changes consistently pointed in the same direction, conveying a unified message.

Our findings indicate a higher species loss for mammal assemblages in the eastern half of Caatinga, which is also affected by chronic disturbances (Antongiovanni et al., 2020). The highly fragmented and diminished vegetation cover of eastern Caatinga (Castanho et al., 2020) impose additional challenges for non-volant mammals to track suitable habitats (Alves et al., 2020), further contributing to depauperate the trophic structure of species assemblages (Mendoza & Araújo, 2019). Although mammal assemblages subject to high species loss

462 exhibit more future uncertainty, a more optimistic outlook is unlikely as these regions also 463 overlap with heavily settled human-modified landscapes in the Caatinga (Antongiovanni et 464 al., 2018, 2020) and regions projected to vegetation complexity and diversity (Moura et al., 465 2023). Therefore, the severe defaunation of Caatinga mammal assemblages is a probable 466 outcome, with small-sized species loss driven by climate change – at least partially – and the 467 depauperating of large-sized mammal further exacerbated by overexploitation and habitat 468 destruction (Alves et al., 2023; Bogoni et al., 2020). In the long-term, this drastic 469 simplification of mammal assemblages can disrupt biotic interactions and impact ecosystem 470 services in tropical dry forests, by reducing the potential for vegetation regeneration and 471 carbon storage (Bello et al., 2015; Fricke et al., 2022; Gardner et al., 2019). The success of 472 long-term socioenvironmental policy and biodiversity conservation planning necessitates that 473 findings derived from biodiversity forecasts are considered.

474

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902 ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

903 We are grateful to Pedro C. Estrela, Anderson Feijó, Thais Kubik, Daniel P. Silva and Cibele 904 R. Bonvicino for comments on previous versions of this manuscript. To the Mammal 905 Collection from Universidade Federal da Paraíba for providing occurrences data. To 906 Fundação de Amparo à Pesquisa do Estado de São Paulo for grants to MRM (FAPESP 907 #2021/11840-6 and #2022/12231-6) and MMP (FAPESP #2019/25478-7). To Conselho 908 Nacional de Desenvolvimento Científico e Tecnológico for grants (CNPq #312178/2019-0 909 and #307260/2022-4) and to Universidade Federal da Paraíba (PVA-13357-2020) for grants 910 to BAS. To Re:wild and Dimensions Sciences Bridges for grants to GAO. To Fundação de 911 Amparo à Pesquisa do Estado de Minas Gerais for grants to APP. To Coordenação de

- 912 Aperfeiçoamento de Pessoal de Nível Superior for a scholarship to GAO and fellowship to
- 913 APP.
- 914

915 COMPETING INTERESTS

916 The authors have no relevant financial or non-financial interests to disclose.

917

918 AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

919 MRM, GAO, and BAS conceived the study; GAO and APP compiled the data; MRM

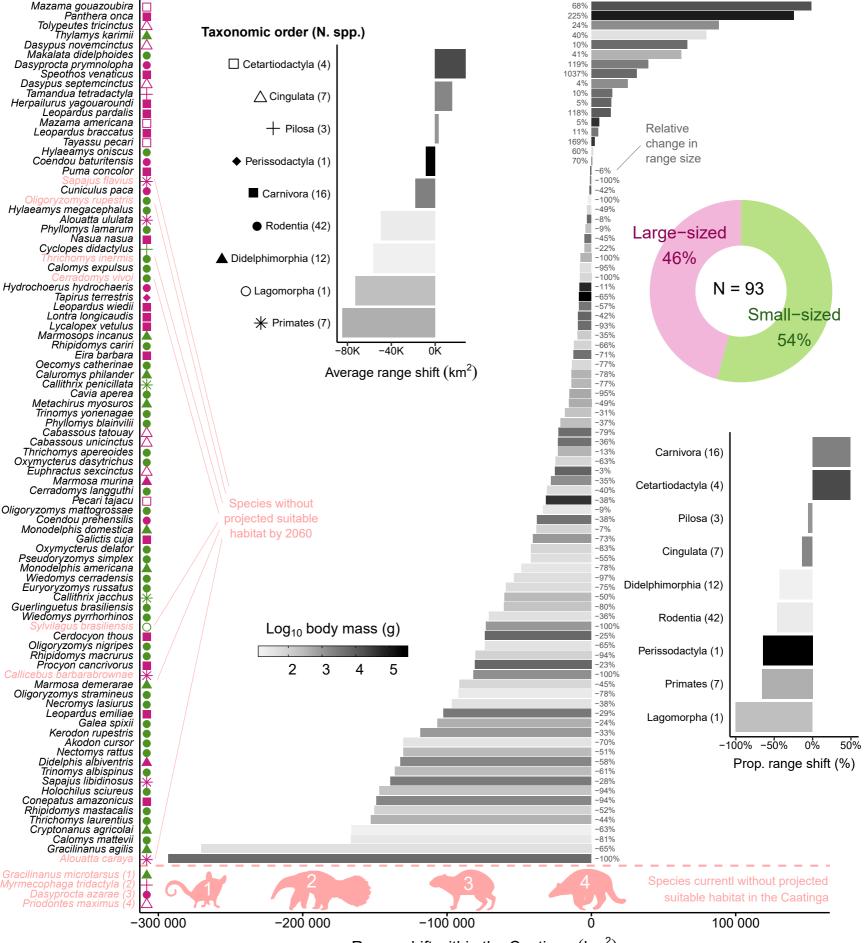
analysed the data. MRM developed the figures and led the writing. All authors contributed

921 critically to the drafts and gave final approval for publication.

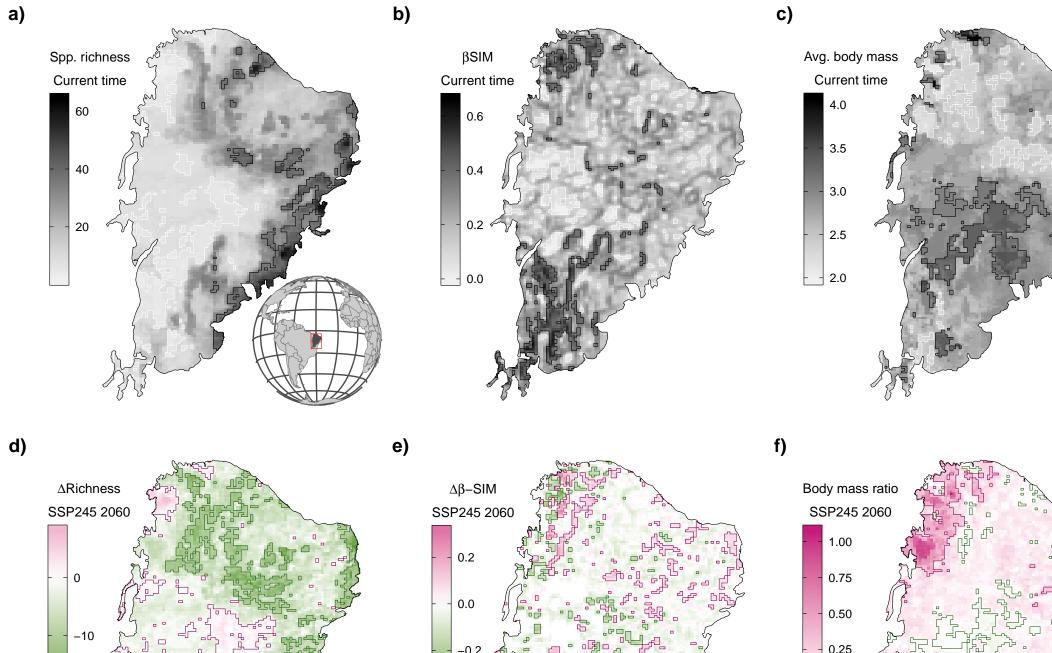
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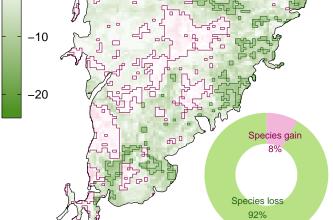
923 SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL

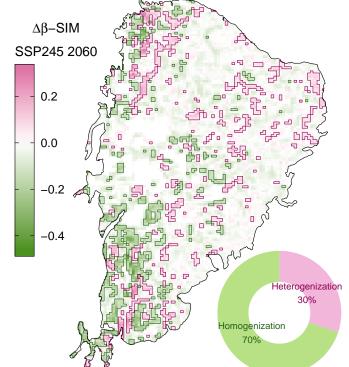
- 924 Supplementary Material is available for this manuscript, including Supplementary Tables
- 925 (S1–S2) and Supplementary Figures (S1–S22).

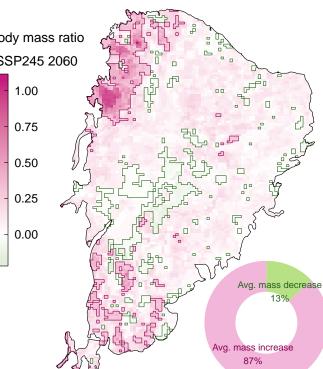


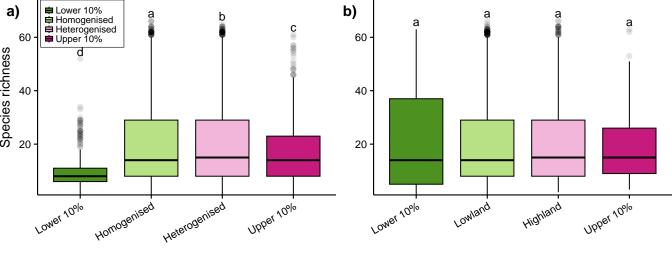
Range shift within the Caatinga (km²)

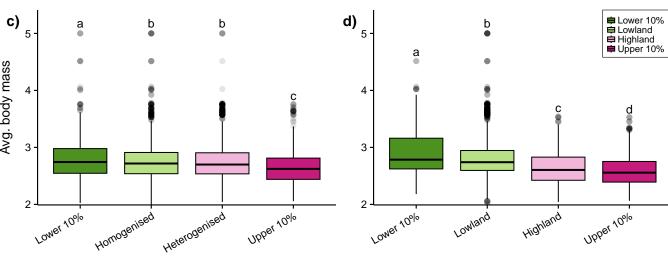












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