

1 **Title:** The response of plant functional structure and diversity to aridity in Caatinga  
2 dryland: implications for climate change

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#### 14 **Abstract**

15 Drylands cover almost 47% of terrestrial ecosystems with an expected  
16 expansion up to 56% until 2100 associated with the increase in aridity due to climate  
17 change. This may affect dryland ecosystems' structure and functioning, undermining  
18 ecosystem services and human well-being. Therefore, it is extremely important to detect  
19 early signs of ecosystem changes due to climate change, to avoid irreversible damage.  
20 Functional traits proved to be good indicators of ecosystems' responses to  
21 environmental changes. Here, we studied the response of the plant community to aridity  
22 in a dryland ecosystem. We assessed plant functional structure (CWM) and functional  
23 diversity (FDIs) along a 700 km climatic gradient, using a space-for-time substitution

24 approach to infer potential consequences of climate change on Caatinga dryland in  
25 Brazil - a unique, highly diverse and critically endangered ecosystem. We studied 13  
26 functional traits, reflecting strategies associated with establishment, defense,  
27 regeneration, and dispersal of the most abundant 48 plant species in 113 sampling sites.  
28 Spearman correlations were used to test the relation between aridity and single-trait  
29 functional metrics. We found a higher abundance of species with deciduous leaves,  
30 zoochorous dispersal, fleshy fruits, chemical defense exudation and spinescence, and  
31 crassulacean acid metabolism towards more arid sites, at the expense of species with  
32 evergreen and thick leaves, autochory dispersal, and shrub growth-form. The FDis of  
33 leaf type and thickness decreased with aridity, whereas FDis of fruit type,  
34 photosynthetic pathway, and defense strategies increased. These changes may  
35 negatively impact key processes in Caatinga such as primary productivity and nutrient  
36 cycling and affect plant spatial distribution patterns and biotic interactions. Our findings  
37 provide functional indicators to early detect climate change impacts on Caatinga  
38 structure and functioning, to timely adopt preventive measures (e.g. conservation of  
39 forest remnants) and restoration actions (e.g. introduction of species with specific  
40 functional traits) in this threatened and unique ecosystem.

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42 **Keywords:** Brazil; climatic gradient; dry tropical forest; ecosystem functioning;  
43 functional traits; semi-arid ecosystem; space-for-time substitution;

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## 48 **1.Introduction**

49 Drylands cover almost 47% of terrestrial ecosystems with an expected  
50 expansion up to 56% until 2100 (Huang *et al.*, 2016), due to a global increase in aridity  
51 associated with climate change (Pour, Wahab and Shahid, 2020). This increase in  
52 aridity will impact ecosystem structure and functioning, affecting ecosystem services  
53 and human well-being of at least 39% of the world's population currently living in  
54 drylands (Koutroulis, 2019). Therefore, it is essential to understand how ecosystems are  
55 being impacted by environmental factors in interaction with climate change to ensure  
56 that the ecosystem services needed for maintaining this population are conserved. This  
57 involves tracking changes in ecosystem structure and functioning by using the most  
58 appropriate ecological indicators (Branquinho *et al.*, 2019).

59 One way to monitor the structure and functioning of terrestrial ecosystems is by  
60 using plant biodiversity components as indicators of specific ecosystem functions  
61 (Cadotte, Carscadden and Mirotchnick, 2011; Branquinho *et al.*, 2019), for instance,  
62 through the use of a approach (De Bello *et al.*, 2010). Plant functional traits have greatly  
63 improved the understanding of the effects of environmental change on biodiversity and  
64 ecosystem functioning (Petchey and Gaston, 2006; Nunes *et al.*, 2017), since they are  
65 associated with plants' adaptive strategies to respond to climate, soil resources,  
66 disturbance (e.g. competition and land use changes) and defense/protection needs  
67 (Cornelissen *et al.*, 2003; Pérez-Harguindeguy *et al.*, 2016). Hence, certain traits may be  
68 used to predict the changes in environmental factors (Lavorel and Garnier, 2002; Suding  
69 *et al.*, 2008). For instance, plant traits such as *growth form* and *leaf traits* are associated  
70 with photosynthetic production and ecophysiological adaptation, e.g. to drought stress.  
71 *Spinescence* provides defense against herbivory while reducing heat or drought stress.  
72 The *photosynthetic pathway* (C3, C4 and CAM – Crassulacean acid metabolism)

73 describes nutrient and water use efficiency. *Seed dispersal mode* determines the distance  
74 species can cover (Cornelissen *et al.*, 2003; Pérez-Harguindeguy *et al.*, 2013, 2016).

75 Functional structure (i.e., the community weighted mean – CWM) (Garnier *et al.*,  
76 2007) and functional diversity (FDis) are two functional metrics considered good  
77 predictors of ecosystem functioning (Cardinale *et al.*, 2007; Valencia *et al.*, 2015).

78 The importance of functional structure derives from the “*mass ratio hypothesis*”  
79 proposed by Grime (1998), which implies that ecosystem functioning is largely  
80 determined by the trait values of the dominant species (Ricotta and Moretti, 2011).  
81 Regarding functional diversity the “*diversity hypothesis*” postulates that traits’ diversity  
82 within a community can affect ecosystem processes (Tilman *et al.*, 1997). A high  
83 functional diversity may allow for a more complete use of resources in space or time  
84 among species (co-occurrence of different functional strategies and niches) enhancing  
85 ecosystem functioning (Díaz and Cabido, 2001; Mouchet *et al.*, 2010).

86 Substituting space-for-time is an alternative widely used in biodiversity modelling to  
87 infer past or future trajectories of ecological systems from spatial gradients (Matos *et*  
88 *al.*, 2017; Nunes *et al.*, 2017). For example, a recent study developed along a spatial  
89 aridity gradient indicates that the functional structure and diversity of plant community  
90 in Mediterranean drylands may change with increasing aridity (Nunes *et al.*, 2017).

91 In drylands, recent studies have highlighted the importance of applying a trait-based  
92 approach to measure the response of plant communities to environmental and climatic  
93 impacts (Gross *et al.*, 2013; Valencia *et al.*, 2015; Nunes *et al.*, 2017). However,  
94 although some of these studies cover considerable geographic areas, to the best of our  
95 knowledge, there are few studies addressing this issue in Brazilian Caatinga (e.g.,  
96 address Sfair *et al.*, 2018; Pinho *et al.*, 2019; Ribeiro *et al.*, 2019; Silva *et al.*, 2019), the  
97 most plant diverse ecosystem among drylands (Pennington, Lavin and Oliveira-Filho,

98 2009; Portillo-Quintero and Sánchez-Azofeifa, 2010). Moreover, climate change,  
99 anthropogenic pressure and intensive and accelerated land-use have been modifying its  
100 natural landscape (da Silva and Barbosa, 2018; Sfair *et al.*, 2018). These pressures may  
101 cause an irreversible shift in ecosystem services which nowadays support 28.6 million  
102 people (da Silva, Leal and Tabarelli, 2018). For this reason, studies assessing responses  
103 of the plant community functional structure and diversity to climate change in the  
104 Caatinga should be a priority.

105 In this context, the main objective of this study was to assess changes in plant  
106 functional structure and diversity along a wide climatic gradient in the Caatinga  
107 ecosystem, using a space-for-time substitution approach to infer potential consequences  
108 of future climate change in these highly diverse and critically endangered areas. We  
109 addressed several functional traits related to plant strategies to deal with water  
110 limitations. We hypothesized that functional metrics for most of the analysed plant traits  
111 would change along the climatic gradient, given that changes in some of these traits in  
112 response to aridity were already reported for other ecosystems in other parts of the  
113 world (e.g. Valencia *et al.*, 2015; Nunes *et al.*, 2017). We suggest these changes indicate  
114 potential impacts of climate change on dryland ecosystems in the future, and that  
115 biodiversity components changing with climate along space might be used as ecological  
116 indicators to track climate change impacts over time.

117

## 118 **2. Materials and methods**

### 119 **2.1 Site description and data sampling**

120 This study was carried out in Caatinga, a semi-arid seasonally dry tropical forest  
121 in Brazil. It covered a spatial climatic gradient with 113 sampling sites including four  
122 Brazilian states (Ceará, Paraíba, Pernambuco, and Rio Grande do Norte) (Fig. 1).

123 Caatinga encompasses many vegetation types from open vegetation with rocky outcrops  
124 dominating in drier areas, to semi-deciduous forests dominating in richer and more  
125 humid soils (Fernandes and Queiroz, 2018). Along the study area mean annual  
126 precipitation was 680 mm (ranging from 440 to 1.098 mm), mean annual temperature  
127 24 °C (ranging from 21°C to 26 °C), altitude varied between 278 and 930 m, and the  
128 aridity index ranged from 0.27 to 0.69 (from more to less arid) (Hijmans *et al.*, 2005).

129         The plant community was sampled in 113 sampling units (10 x 10 km)  
130 distributed along the climatic gradient. The presence and abundance of plant species  
131 were registered, and 13 functional traits of the 48 most abundant plant species were  
132 measured. The following traits were considered: (1) growth form; (2) maximum plant  
133 height; (3) leaf phenology type; (4) leaf thickness; (5) specific leaf area (SLA); (6) root  
134 type; (7) dispersal strategy; (8) fruit type; (9) photosynthetic pathway; (10) spinescence  
135 presence; (11) presence of leaves arranged in a rosette; (12) chemical defense  
136 exudation; (13) rhytidome presence. These include continuous, categorical and binary  
137 traits reflecting plant strategies associated with the establishment, defense, regeneration,  
138 and dispersal (Lewinsohn and Vasconcellos-Neto, 2009; Pérez-Harguindeguy *et al.*,  
139 2013). Trait data were obtained by direct field measurements following standard  
140 protocols (Pérez-Harguindeguy *et al.*, 2013) (traits 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12 and  
141 13), or from the botanical collection of Herbarium Vale do São Francisco (HVASF),  
142 Petrolina, Pernambuco, Brazil (traits 6 and 8), or from other bibliographic sources (traits  
143 7 and 9 - e.g., Griz and Machado, 2001; Meiado *et al.*, 2012).

144         To assess changes in plant community functional structure along the climatic  
145 gradient, the community weighted mean (CWM) was determined. This functional  
146 metric represents the average trait value in a community weighted by the relative  
147 abundance of the species carrying each value (Garnier *et al.*, 2007). For continuous

148 traits, CWM values correspond to the mean value of that trait in the community, while  
149 for the categoric and binary traits, CWM values represent the proportion of each  
150 category in the community.

151 To assess changes in plant community functional diversity along the climatic  
152 gradient, functional dispersion (FDis) was computed for each trait (single-trait FDis).  
153 This index measures the degree of functional dissimilarity within the plant community  
154 (Laliberte and Legendre, 2010). FDis is calculated as the weighted mean distance of  
155 individual species from the weighted centroid of all species in a multidimensional trait  
156 space, where weights correspond to species relative abundances and can be calculated  
157 for single traits and for multiple traits (Laliberte and Legendre, 2010). We used Gower  
158 distance to determine FDis to handle continuous, ordinal, and categorical variables, as  
159 well as missing values. All calculations were performed with dbFD function of the FD  
160 package (Laliberté, Legendre and Shipley, 2015) in R (The R Core Team, 2018).

161

## 162 **2.2 Climatic variables**

163 We used 19 climatic variables retrieved from the global climate database  
164 (<http://www.worldclim.org.br>) (Hijmans *et al.*, 2005). We also used the aridity index  
165 adopted by the United Nations, retrieved from a global database (Trabucco *et al.*, 2008)  
166 (Table 1). It is calculated as the ratio between mean annual precipitation and annual  
167 potential evapotranspiration; thus, higher values of the aridity index correspond to less  
168 arid environments and vice-versa.

169

## 170 **2.3 Data analysis**

171 First, to detect main changes in plant community composition along the climatic  
172 gradient, a non-metric multidimensional scaling ordination (NMDS) was performed,  
173 based on species relative abundance, using *metaMDS* function from the *vegan* package  
174 (The R Core Team, 2018; Oksanen *et al.*, 2019). The Bray-Curtis distance was chosen,  
175 and ordination goodness of fit was assessed through the *stress* statistic. Secondly, to  
176 analyze which climatic variables were driving plant community composition, all  
177 variables were superimposed over NMDS ordination, and the significance of the  
178 correlations between climatic variables and the ordination axes were determined using  
179 Spearman correlations, to account for possible nonlinear relationships. We also explored  
180 the correlation among the climatic variables to avoid redundancy among them and used  
181 only variables with a correlation coefficient  $< 0.7$  among them (Table S1). The aridity  
182 index was selected as a predictor given that it correlated well with five climatic  
183 variables (further explained in the Results section).

184 Finally, to study the response of plant community functional structure and  
185 diversity along the gradient, we used Spearman correlations to check for the relationship  
186 between aridity (the aridity index) and single-trait functional metrics (CWM and FDis).  
187 Correlations were considered significant for  $p < 0.05$ . All statistical analyses were  
188 performed using in R version 3.4 (The R Core Team, 2018).

189

### 190 **3. Results**

#### 191 **3.1 Plant community composition gradients**

192 The results from the multivariate analysis displayed 3 axes but we show only  
193 results for the first two axes, as they accounted for most of the variance (50.6%) (Fig.  
194 2).

195 The aridity index (ranging from 0.27 to 0.69) was significantly correlated with  
196 NMDS axis 1, 2 and 3 (Table 2) while altitude (from 214 to 930 m) was significantly  
197 correlated with NMDS 1 axis (Table 2).

198 Additionally, the aridity index was also significantly correlated with 12 of the 19  
199 climatic variables while altitude was correlated with 13 of the 19 climatic variables  
200 (Table S1). The aridity index was chosen as the best descriptor of vegetation patterns  
201 given that it reflected major macroclimatic conditions. It showed a strong correlation  
202 with seven climatic variables that correlated with NMDS1 and with six climatic  
203 variables that better described main changes in plant community composition along the  
204 climatic gradient, namely: (1) annual precipitation (Spearman's  $r=0.97$ ,  $P<0.001$ ), (2)  
205 precipitation of wettest month (Spearman's  $r=0.84$ ,  $P<0.001$ ), (3) precipitation of  
206 wettest quarter (Spearman's  $r=0.91$ ,  $P<0.001$ ), (4) isothermality (Spearman's  $r= 0.39$ ,  
207  $P<0.001$ ), (5) temperature seasonality (Spearman's  $r= -0,51$ ,  $P<0.001$ ), and (6) mean  
208 temperature of wettest quarter (Spearman's  $r= -0,39$ ,  $P<0.001$ ) (Table S1).

209

### 210 **3.2 Plant community functional structure**

211 In the study area, the plant community was dominated by trees (72.5%) (Table  
212 3). The average maximum plant height was 4 m (ranging from 0.5 to 6 m), and most of  
213 the plants were deciduous (68%) (Table 3). Mean leaf thickness was 76 mm (ranging  
214 from 48 to 95 mm) and mean specific leaf area (SLA) was 16 mm<sup>2</sup>/mg (ranging from 13  
215 to 20 mm<sup>2</sup>/mg). Root type was dominated by pivoting root (67%). Autochory dispersal  
216 strategy was present in 40% of the plant community, followed by anemochory and  
217 zoochory, with 30% each (Table 3). Fleshy fruits were present in 38% of the plants,  
218 crassulacean acid metabolism (CAM) in 18%, and spinescence in 28%, while 8% of the

219 plants had leaves arranged in a rosette. Plants with chemical defense exudation and  
220 rhytidome presence represented 30% and 24% of the community, respectively (Table  
221 3).

222

### 223 **3.3 Functional structure (CWM) and functional diversity (FDis) changes along the** 224 **spatial aridity gradient**

225 The CWMs of eight functional traits and the FDis of six functional traits were  
226 significantly correlated association with aridity (Table 4). We found a negative  
227 correlation between aridity and evergreen leaf type ( $p < 0.001$ ), leaf thickness ( $p <$   
228  $0.001$ ), autochory dispersal ( $p < 0.001$ ), and shrub growth-form ( $p < 0.05$ ) (Table 4).  
229 Aridity was positively correlated with fleshy fruit presence ( $p < 0.001$ ), chemical  
230 defense exudation ( $p < 0.001$ ), spinescence presence ( $p < 0.01$ ), zoochory dispersal ( $p <$   
231  $0.01$ ), crassulacean acid metabolism photosynthesis ( $p < 0.01$ ), and deciduous leaf type  
232 ( $p < 0.05$ ) (Table 4).

233 Aridity was negatively correlated with functional diversity (FDis) for leaf  
234 phenology type and leaf thickness ( $p < 0.001$ ), and positively correlated for fruit type ( $p$   
235  $< 0.001$ ), photosynthetic pathway ( $p < 0.01$ ), spinescence presence ( $p < 0.01$ ) and type  
236 of chemical defense exudation ( $p < 0.001$ ) (Table 4).

237 Five functional traits showed no consistent relationship with the aridity index,  
238 namely maximum plant height, specific leaf area, root type, presence of leaves arranged  
239 in a rosette and rhytidome presence.

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#### 243 **4. Discussion**

244 Aridity was the main environmental filter shaping plant community  
245 composition, as well as its functional structure and diversity along the spatial gradient.  
246 This is in accordance with previous works showing that climatic variables (e.g. aridity,  
247 precipitation and temperature) are major drivers of the floristic patterns of woody plant  
248 species in Caatinga (Silva and Souza, 2018). Aridity, which takes into account both  
249 precipitation and temperature, can be seen as an integrated measure, as demonstrated by  
250 its strong correlation with most of the climatic variables studied. Local environmental  
251 variations e.g. in topography, soil characteristics or land management may also  
252 influence plant community characteristics, as showed in previous studies in water-  
253 limited ecosystems (Chozas *et al.*, 2015; Nunes *et al.*, 2019). However, these works  
254 addressed less comprehensive climate gradients (shorter range) than ours. Our work  
255 encompassed a larger climatic gradient including arid, semi-arid, and dry sub-humid  
256 areas, where local environmental factors are likely to play a weaker relative role in  
257 shaping plant community. In addition, along our study area, the variations in orography  
258 were limited to a few small plateaus, and plant sampling tried to capture, as much as  
259 possible, areas less influenced by human activities.

260

#### 261 *The traits that dominate with aridity*

262 Along the gradient, we found a decrease in functional diversity of leaf traits  
263 towards more arid sites, along with a decrease in the abundance of plants with evergreen  
264 and thicker leaves. Thus, plant functional structure in drier sites was characterized by a  
265 higher dominance of non-shrub deciduous species with lower leaf thickness. Summer  
266 deciduousness i.e. leaf loss during drier periods, is a known plant adaptation strategy to  
267 avoid water losses. According to our findings, this strategy tends to dominate towards

268 more arid conditions in Caatinga, replacing the maintenance of more-costly thicker  
269 evergreen leaves (Lohbeck *et al.*, 2015). Consequently, a larger amount of litter  
270 accumulates on the soil surface in drier areas during dry periods.

271         The higher leaf deposition on the soil surface could protect it from direct solar  
272 radiation and minimize rainwater erosive impact and increase nutrient deposition (i.e.  
273 carbon and nitrogen). Previous studies show leaf fall may be responsible for 70% up to  
274 80% of nutrient deposition in Caatinga (Santana and Souto, 2011; De Holanda *et al.*,  
275 2017), as rapid decomposition may occur after precipitation events (Fredson *et al.*,  
276 2009; Moura *et al.*, 2016). However, precipitation events are extremely infrequent in  
277 Caatinga, and leaf fall usually occurs during the drier period (Machado, Barros and  
278 Sampaio, 1997) that may reduce or even prevent leaf decomposition (Fredson *et al.*,  
279 2009; Moura *et al.*, 2016), resulting in accumulated litter for a long time below  
280 deciduous plants, a very common image in Caatinga as in other drylands.

281         Also, plant's leaves are fundamental to photosynthetic performance in semiarid  
282 regions (Zhang *et al.*, 2018). Yet, in what concerns leaf quantify and phenology, after  
283 leaf fall at the first signs of water shortage, deciduous plants remain leafless until the  
284 next precipitation period (Correia and Andrade, 1999). We also found an increase in the  
285 diversity of photosynthetic pathways towards drier conditions, probably due to an  
286 increase in the abundance of species with crassulacean acid metabolism (CAM), mainly  
287 cacti and bromeliads. This is a common strategy in arid environments, as CAM plants  
288 close their stomata during the day to avoid water losses and open them during the cooler  
289 more humid nighttime hours, allowing uptake of carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>) for carbon  
290 fixation (Medina, Olivares and Diaz, 1986). Although CAM plants are able to store  
291 water e.g. in vacuoles, they are more inefficient than C<sub>3</sub> plants at absorbing CO<sub>2</sub>, and  
292 so they grow slower (Medina, Olivares and Diaz, 1986).

293           Additionally, the decrease in shrub growth form in drier sites suggests a lower  
294 habitat structural complexity, which may reduce ecosystem's ability to house particular  
295 species (e.g. animal species) and may also contribute to decrease biomass production.

296           In short, the shift in plant community functional structure and diversity towards  
297 more arid conditions regarding the vegetative traits analyzed, is likely to affect key  
298 ecosystem processes in Caatinga, namely primary productivity, hydric balance, litter  
299 decomposition (Cornwell *et al.*, 2008) and carbon and nitrogen cycling (Milcu *et al.*,  
300 2014).

301

### 302 *Changes in dispersion strategies and fruit type with aridity*

303           Drier conditions led to an increase in the diversity of fruit types along with an  
304 increase in the abundance of fleshy fruited and zoochorous species, suggesting more  
305 interactions with seed-dispersing animals in drier sites (e.g. lizards, birds and bats)  
306 (Leal, Lopes and Machado, 2006; Quirino and Machado, 2014). This response may be  
307 partially associated with increased abundance of Cactaceae's species, half of which  
308 have zoochorous dispersion (8 of the 16 species) displaying as a specialized dispersal  
309 strategy (Silva *et al.*, 2019) e.g. by bats in Caatinga (Machado and Lopes, 2004).

310           Many Cactaceae's species (e.g. *Tacinga palmadora* (Britton & Rose) N.P.  
311 Taylor & Stuppy; recorded in our study area), flourish and bear fruit in the dry season  
312 (Locatelli and Machado, 1999) whereas for the majority Caatinga's plants this happens  
313 at the beginning of the rainy season (Machado, Barros and Sampaio, 1997; Lima and  
314 Rodal, 2010). This strategy ensures food resources to fauna which by its turn guarantee  
315 pollination and dispersion during drier periods (Griz and Machado, 2001; Leal, Lopes  
316 and Machado, 2006; Lima and Rodal, 2010). Yet, despite the positive aspects of  
317 increased zoochory for plant dispersal during drier periods, the decrease in autochory

318 dispersal in drier areas may affect species spatial distribution in Caatinga. Autochory is  
319 the most common dispersal mode for the majority of the species from Fabaceae and  
320 Euphorbiaceae families (Lima, 2008) which are dominant in Caatinga (Moro et al.,  
321 2014; Fernandes; Queiroz, 2018). These species disperse seeds nearby the mother  
322 plant, originating a clustered distribution pattern. These patches may work as “islands of  
323 fertility” providing favorable microclimatic niches facilitating seedling establishment,  
324 e.g. for cactus recruitment (Drezner, 2010; Munguía-Rosas and Sosa, 2008; Landero  
325 and Valiente-Banuet, 2010). Hence, a decrease in autochory dispersal mode may lead to  
326 more scattered plant distribution, thus affecting the typical structure of Caatinga.

327

#### 328 *Changes in plant defense strategies with aridity*

329 Plant defense strategies such as spinescence and chemical exudation (i.e., latex  
330 and resin) increased in drier arid areas. These strategies can protect plants against  
331 pathogens and herbivores as reported in many studies (Gómez and Zamora, 2002;  
332 Lewinsohn and Vasconcellos-Neto, 2009). The persistence or increase in these traits is  
333 essential for Caatinga plants (Olofsson, Moen, Oksanen, 2002). First, because they  
334 affect plant palatability and thus the level of herbivory, which may in turn change the  
335 quantity and quality of litterfall, affecting nutrient cycling (Ritchik, Tilman and Knops,  
336 1998; Olofsson *et al.*, 2004). Additionally, pathogen attacks (Liu and He, 2019) and  
337 goats' herbivory greatly impact natural regeneration, namely seedling establishment  
338 (Moles and Westoby, 2004). Yet, the presence of these traits may have fitness costs to  
339 plants (Strauss, Conner and Rush, 1996; Koricheva, 2002; Gassmann and Futuyma,  
340 2005), affecting growth (Belovsky *et al.*, 1991) and the reproductive potential of plant  
341 populations in Caatinga (Gómez and Zamora, 2002).

342

343 *Implications for climate change*

344           We found a strong impact of aridity on Caatinga plant functional structure and  
345 diversity along a comprehensive aridity gradient. The plant community showed  
346 increased deciduousness, more cacti and bromeliads and plants with defense traits, and  
347 lower shrub and abundance towards drier sites. This shift indicates likely changes in  
348 plant structural complexity, spatial distribution patterns and biotic interactions, able to  
349 negatively affect key ecosystem processes such as primary productivity, litter  
350 decomposition and carbon and nitrogen cycling, and consequently the wellbeing of  
351 about 28.6 million people depending on Caatinga. Climate models predict an increase in  
352 aridity up to 2100 in this region (IPCC, 2014, 2019), which is already facing extremely  
353 long drought periods e.g. between 2010 and 2016 (Marengo Orsini *et al.*, 2018). Thus,  
354 assuming a space-for-time substitution, our results suggest a strong impact of climate  
355 change on Caatinga.

356           Our results may also contribute to guide preventive strategies (e.g. conservation  
357 of forest remnants) and corrective measures (e.g. include species with specific  
358 functional traits in restoration projects) in the unique, remarkably diverse and highly  
359 threatened Caatinga ecosystem.

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