

# 1 The Impact of Drought on Soil Moisture Trends across 2 Brazilian Biomes

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13 **Abstract:** Over the past decade, Brazil has experienced severe droughts across its territory, with important  
14 implications for soil moisture dynamics. Soil moisture variability has a direct impact on agriculture, water  
15 security, and ecosystem services. Nevertheless, there is currently little information on how soil moisture across  
16 different biomes respond to drought. In this study, we used satellite soil moisture data from the European Space  
17 Agency, from 2009 to 2015, to analyze differences in soil moisture responses to drought for each biome of Brazil:  
18 The Amazon, Atlantic Forest, Caatinga, Cerrado, Pampas and Pantanal. We found an overall soil moisture decline  
19 of -0.5%/year ( $p < 0.01$ ) at the national level. At the biome-level, Caatinga presented the most severe soil moisture  
20 decline (-4.4% per year); whereas Atlantic Forest and Cerrado biomes showed no significant trend. The Amazon  
21 biome showed no trend but a sharp reduction of soil moisture from 2013 to 2015. In contrast, Pampas and Pantanal  
22 presented a positive trend (1.6 and 4.3 %/year, respectively). This information provides insights for drought risk  
23 reduction and soil conservation activities to minimize the impact of drought in the most vulnerable biomes.  
24 Furthermore, improving our understanding of soil moisture trends during periods of drought is crucial to enhance  
25 the national drought early warning system and develop customized strategies for adaptation to climate change in  
26 each biome.

27

## 28 1. Introduction

29 Drought is a natural and human-induced hazard common to all climate zones in the world (Sheffield and Wood,  
30 2008), generally referred to as a sustained occurrence of below average water availability due to precipitation  
31 deficit and soil moisture decline (Magalhães, 2016). Precipitation deficit is the most studied driver of drought  
32 (Mishra and Singh 2010; Smith 2013, Villarreal et al., 2016) and has been furthering several drought indicators  
33 and models. However, precipitation-based indicators are limited in the assessment of social and environmental  
34 responses to the lack of rain and therefore not suitable for evaluating the impacts of drought when used alone. On  
35 the other hand, drought indicators based on soil moisture are not only key to understanding the physical  
36 mechanisms of drought, but also useful for assessing how soil moisture decline can alter vegetation water  
37 availability and, consequently, agricultural production and ecosystem services (Smith 2013; NWS 2008).

38 When soil moisture declines below critical water stress thresholds it reduces biomass production, soil respiration  
39 and the overall soil carbon balance (Bot and Benites 2005; Vargas et al., 2018). Low carbon in soils (due to lower  
40 biological activity) reduces its structural integrity and increases the risk of soil erosion, contributing to river silting,  
41 ineffective runoff control, and loss of soil nutrients (Al-Kaisi and Rattan 2017). Soil moisture is also crucial for  
42 addressing the negative impacts of climate change in water and land resources (Bossio 2017). Indeed, temporal  
43 variability of soil moisture in a given biome is an important variable for the characterization of the local climate  
44 (Legates et al. 2011) and a key indicator of changes in the biome's water cycle (Sheffield and Wood 2008; Rossato  
45 et al. 2017).

46 In this study, we use satellite data from the European Space Agency (ESA) to analyze the impact of drought on  
47 soil moisture across all Brazilian biomes: The Amazon, Atlantic Forest, Caatinga, Cerrado, Pampas and Pantanal.  
48 Considering that each biome has distinct climate, soil and vegetation characteristics, we hypothesize that they  
49 would respond differently to drought conditions (e.g., positive, negative or non-significant) and show up relevant  
50 information for drought management at national and regional levels.

51 In Brazil, most of the work on drought management has been focused in the semiarid region, well-known for its  
52 recurrent problems with droughts and water scarcity (Fig. 1) and where predominates the Caatinga biome.  
53 However, droughts have been reported all over Brazil, affecting all other biomes as well. In the period selected  
54 for this study (i.e., 2009 to 2015), there was a high number of municipalities declaring emergency and even public  
55 calamity due to drought across the country (Cunha et al. 2019), but the impacts on soil moisture at national scale  
56 and how each biome responds to drought are still unknown.



57

58 **Figure 1: The Caatinga biome (Pontes, 2012).**

59 Due to climate change, extreme events such as drought are expected to become more intense and recurrent in  
60 some regions of Brazil. Therefore, integrating satellite soil moisture data into early warning systems could  
61 contribute to more efficient drought risk management and promote data-driven climate change adaptation.

62 Nevertheless, studies on soil moisture variation have been conducted at a stand-scale due to challenges for  
63 measurements across spatial and temporal scales (Legates et al. 2011; Novick et al 2016). As a consequence, the  
64 lack of soil moisture information could lead to inaccurate assessment of drought conditions, underestimation of

65 drought impacts, and incomplete resilience and adaptation plans. As droughts become more frequent and intense,  
66 it is important to enable monitoring of soil moisture trends and communicate the results at different levels (e.g.,  
67 municipal, state, national, regional) and across different perspectives (e.g., environmental, social, and economic).  
68 At present, the most reliable source of soil moisture information at large-scales (i.e., global-to-continental scales)  
69 is satellite remote sensing (i.e., <https://smap.jpl.nasa.gov/>, <http://www.esa-soilmoisture-cci.org/>), which provides  
70 soil moisture estimates for the first 0-5 cm of soil depth (Liu et al. 2011). Even though the first layer of soil is  
71 expected to be very dynamic because of its interaction with the atmosphere and deeper layers still represent an  
72 important water storage, especially in the Amazon and Cerrado biomes, soil moisture at the first 5cm is still a  
73 good predictor of land and atmosphere interactions. Analyzing a shallow soil layer can provide key information  
74 for the detection of soil aridity conditions that are directly related with the loss of soil biodiversity and, therefore,  
75 with soil productivity. Thus, soil moisture at the surface is directly affected by drought conditions and could be  
76 also used as an indicator (i.e., proxy) of the water contained at deeper layers. Since we cannot measure *in situ* soil  
77 moisture at high spatial resolution due to logistical constraints (i.e., because is expensive or time consuming), we  
78 propose the use of multiple satellite remote sensing sensors (e.g., from ESA or NASA) as an alternative to obtain  
79 drought-relevant information on soil moisture at the national scale. The study period (2009 – 2015) was marked  
80 by successive droughts across Brazil, registered and confirmed by different monitoring instruments such as the  
81 Integrated Drought Index (IDI), which combines the Standardized Precipitation Index (SPI) and the Vegetation  
82 Health Index (VHI) (Cunha et al., 2019) and Municipal Emergency Declarations all over the country.  
83 The purpose of this study is showing the advantages and disadvantages of integrating satellite soil moisture  
84 observations into drought monitoring across Brazil on a biome basis. We show the differential impact of drought  
85 on the soil moisture of different biomes at a national scale (using Brazil as a case study).  
86 One main limitation is that satellite measurements of soil moisture provide indirect estimates of soil moisture only  
87 in the topsoil (eg., 0-5cm), and unfortunately do not provide a direct metric of soil water storage. While soil  
88 moisture at the surface is a key indicator of soil and atmosphere interactions, topsoil moisture does not account  
89 entirely for the water used by plants to grow. The capacity of plants to grow can be measured also with satellite  
90 information in the form of primary productivity estimates (Li et al., 2019). Therefore, we also explore the  
91 correspondence between satellite soil moisture and primary productivity trends for each biome in Brazil. Both soil  
92 moisture and vegetation productivity are ecosystem variables directly affected by drought conditions.  
93 Understanding how soil moisture and vegetation productivity on each biome is affected by drought conditions  
94 from different perspectives (in our case superficial soil moisture) is crucial to assess their resilience. It is also  
95 important to provide evidence-based orientations to drought mitigation and soil conservation plans.

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## 98 **2. Methodology**

### 99 **2.1. Study area**

100 Brazil is the largest country in Latin America with a total area of 8,456,510 km<sup>2</sup>, located between 05°10' N to  
101 33°44' S (IBGE, 2017). The continental dimension of the country implies a complex spatial heterogeneity of  
102 environmental conditions resulting in six main biomes: Amazon, Atlantic Forest, Caatinga, Cerrado, Pampas and  
103 Pantanal (Fig. 3a).

104 *The Amazon* biome is mainly characterized by rainforest areas (Overbeck et al. 2015). It represents 49.5% of  
105 Brazil's total area, or 4,196,943 km<sup>2</sup> (IBGE, 2019). It has an equatorial climate, with temperatures between 22°C  
106 and 28°C and torrential rains distributed throughout the year. The geomorphology of the Amazon biome is quite  
107 diverse, presenting plateaus, plains, and depressions. Soils are generally clayey, iron-rich and with high soil  
108 organic carbon content. The Amazon biome is well known for its biodiversity and its large number of rivers and  
109 water bodies, which account for the world's greatest surface green water reserves (IBGE 2004).

110 *The Atlantic Forest* biome covers 13% of the total area of Brazil (1,110,182 km<sup>2</sup>). It comprises an environmental  
111 heterogeneity that incorporates high elevations, valleys, and plains. The Atlantic rainforest occupies the whole  
112 continental Atlantic coast of Brazil. This biome has a subtropical climate in the south and a tropical climate in  
113 central and northeast portions. The Atlantic rainforest is characterized by heavy rainfall influenced by the  
114 proximity of the ocean and winds that blow inward over the continent (IBGE, 2004). Although it is just a small  
115 fraction of the size of the Amazon rainforest, the Atlantic Forest still harbors a range of biological diversity  
116 comparable to that of the Amazon biome (The Nature Conservancy, 2015), with high soil carbon reserves  
117 (Guevara et al., 2018). The Atlantic Forest is recognized as the most degraded biome of Brazil with only 12% of  
118 the original biome preserved (SECOM, 2012).

119 *Caatinga* is the driest biome of Brazil and comprises an area of 844,453 km<sup>2</sup> stretching over nine federal states  
120 and covering nearly 10% of the total area of Brazil (IBGE, 2019). Semiarid climate is predominant across this  
121 biome (BSh type) with an average annual rainfall below 800 mm (Alvares et al., 2013), but high temperatures  
122 influence high potential evapotranspiration rates that exceed 2,500mm/year (Campos, 2006). Overall, the Caatinga  
123 is characterized by reduced water availability and a very limited storage capacity of rivers, which are mainly  
124 intermittent, with just a few exceptions that are perennial through streamflow regulating reservoirs during the dry  
125 season (CENAD 2014). Caatinga soils are generally shallow (0-50 cm), with a bedrock that is commonly exposed  
126 to the surface, limiting water infiltration processes and the recharge of local aquifers (Cirilo, 2008).

127 *The Cerrado* is the second largest biome of Brazil, characterized by large savannas (Overbeck, et al 2015) covering  
128 2,036,448 km<sup>2</sup>, and representing 23.3% of the country (IBGE, 2019). It extends from the central south of Brazil  
129 until the north coastal strip, interposing between the Amazon, Pantanal, Atlantic Forest, and the Caatinga biomes  
130 (IBGE, 2004). The dominant climate in the Cerrado is warm tropical sub-humid, with only two distinct seasons,  
131 dry winters and wet summers with torrential rains (Overbeck et al. 2015). The annual precipitation in this region  
132 varies between 600-2200 mm, where the bordering areas with the Caatinga are the driest and the bordering areas  
133 with the Amazon rainforest the wettest. Soils are diverse and include a variety of dystrophic (low inherent fertility  
134 and/or strongly weathered profile), acidic, and aluminum-rich conditions. Currently, the Cerrado hosts the largest  
135 rural expansion in Brazil, resulting in environmental degradation, biodiversity loss, and soil erosion and limited  
136 water availability. It is classified as the most endangered savannah on the planet and one of the 34 global hotspots  
137 (Ioris, Irigaray and Girard 2014).

138 *The Pampas* biome is located at the extreme south of Brazil and covers 2.1% of Brazil's total area (176,496 km<sup>2</sup>).  
139 It is mainly characterized by grasslands and shrublands (Overbeck et al. 2015). The region has a wet subtropical  
140 climate, characterized by a rainy climate throughout the whole year, with hot summers and cold winters, where  
141 temperatures fall below freezing (IBGE 2004). The Pampas comprises an environmental set of different lithology  
142 types and productive soils (e.g., carbon-rich), mainly under flat and smooth undulating terrain surfaces.

143 Pantanal is the biome with the smallest territorial extension of Brazil, covering 1.8% (150.355 km<sup>2</sup>) of the  
144 country's total area (IBGE, 2004). It is located at the left margin of the Paraguay River and shared by Brazil,  
145 Bolivia and Paraguay.

146 *The Pantanal* is by a vast extent of poorly drained lowlands that experiences annual flooding from summer to fall  
147 months (January–May) (Assine and Soares, 2004). The climate of the Pantanal is hot and humid during the  
148 summer and cold and dry in winter (Ioris, Irigaray and Girard 2014). Precipitation varies from 1000-1400 mm per  
149 year, and rains are predominant from November to April. Average annual temperature is 32°C, but the dry season  
150 (May to October) has an average temperature of 21°C and it is not uncommon to have >100 days without rain  
151 (Ioris, Irigaray and Girard 2014). In the last two decades, temperature in the Pantanal has consistently risen and  
152 more humid than normal events as well as dryer than normal events have both increased (Marengo et al 2010).

153

### 154 **2.3. Environmental variability of Brazilian Biomes**

155 We used 1x1 km environmental gridded data to characterize the environment variability of the biomes. Data was  
156 provided by worldgrids.org, an initiative of ISRIC – World Soil Information Institute. This dataset compiled  
157 information from: 1) digital terrain analysis to represent topographic gradients, 2) gridded climatology products  
158 (e.g., precipitation and temperature), 3) remote sensing imagery, to represent land cover and vegetation spatial  
159 variability, and 4) legacy soil or rock type maps. We used 110 layers derived from this dataset. A list of all  
160 available information contained in the worldgrids.org project is available at Reuter & Hengl (2012). We used  
161 multivariate statistics in the form of principal component analysis (PCA) to linearly decompose the worldgrids.org  
162 dataset and identify relationships among the major environmental characteristics of Brazilian biomes. PCA is an  
163 analysis where a group of potentially correlated variables are decomposed in orthogonal space and therefore  
164 uncorrelated principal components. PCA analysis is useful to reduce data dimensionality to avoid the potential  
165 effects of statistical redundancy (multicollinearity) in further interpretations. Here, we use the PCA as an  
166 exploratory technique to visualize/characterize/interpret the environmental variability of Brazil's biome and  
167 assume that environmental differences in the biomes could support the hypothesis of different soil moisture  
168 response to drought.

169

### 170 **2.4. Municipal emergency declarations due to drought across Brazil**

171 Municipal Emergency Declarations (MEDs) are administrative tools to inform the federal government that the  
172 magnitude of the disaster has surpassed local public capacities to respond and manage the installed crisis. The  
173 recognition of MEDs by the federal government is based on field visits (when possible) and technical analysis of  
174 social, economic and climatological data that can support the petition. In the case of drought, data analysis is  
175 generally based on, but not limited to, private agricultural losses, level of local reservoirs, and precipitation data  
176 combined. Once the federal government recognizes that there is indeed a disaster, it establishes a legal situation  
177 where federal funds can be used to assist the affected population and recover essential services disrupted by the  
178 disaster (National Secretary of Civil Defense and Protection of Brazil 2017).

179 To determine drought distribution across the six Brazilian biomes, we retrieved official MEDs due to drought in  
180 Brazil from 2009 to 2015. This information is public and can be accessed on the website of the Ministry of  
181 National Integration of Brazil. First, we downloaded the historical series of MEDs in Brazil from 2009 to 2015.  
182 Then, we isolated the municipalities who declared emergency or public calamity due to drought from all other

183 disasters. The last step was to cross this data with the boundaries of the six Brazilian biomes and discover the  
184 intensity and distribution of drought in each biome during the study period.

185

## 186 **2.5. Soil Moisture and Primary Productivity Trends across Brazil**

187 To analyze soil moisture trends during a period of successive droughts (2009-2015) across Brazilian biomes, we  
188 acquired remotely sensed soil moisture information from the European Space Agency (Liu et al. 2011). This soil  
189 moisture product has a daily temporal coverage from 1978 to 2016 and a spatial resolution of 0.25 degrees (~27x27  
190 km grids). To represent vegetation primary productivity we use estimates from the OCO-2-based SIF product  
191 (GOSIF) and linear relationships between SIF (Solar-induced chlorophyll fluorescence) and GPP (gross primary  
192 production) used by Li and Xiao (2019) to map GPP globally at a 0.05° spatial resolution and 8-day time step. We  
193 calculated monthly averages from soil moisture and primary vegetation datasets for further statistical analysis  
194 using only information between 2009 and 2015. All available information was harmonized into a geographical  
195 information system using the same projection system and spatial integrity.

196

## 197 **2.6. Data Analysis**

198 We based our statistical analysis in a regression matrix containing 10,000 representative random spatial locations  
199 (e.g., latitude and longitude) across the biomes of Brazil (Fig. 3b) which were selected using standard re-sampling  
200 techniques (i.e., bootstrapping). Over 30% of the area for every biome is represented in the random selection. We  
201 randomize our statistical sampling with the ultimate goal of maximizing the accuracy of the results. We used a  
202 representative sample for improving the visualization of points cloud and a better understanding of differences on  
203 the five biomes in the statistical multivariate space. Finally, we extracted to these random points the environmental  
204 data and the values of the available satellite soil moisture and primary productivity time series.

205 To detect trends on satellite soil moisture and primary productivity time series during the study period, we used  
206 median based linear models calculated for each point with available satellite data. These non-parametric analyzes  
207 are known as Theil – Sen regressions (Sen 1968; Theil 1992) with repeated medians (Siegel 1982). This method  
208 uses a robust estimator for each point in time, where the slopes between it and the other points are calculated  
209 (resulting n-1 slopes), and then the median and the significance of the trend are reported.

210 The satellite soil moisture source has intrinsic quality limitations across areas where vegetation has more water  
211 than soil (McColl et al. 2017), including areas across the lower Amazon watershed, the Pantanal or the Pampas  
212 biomes. For these areas we used the sparse points with available satellite soil moisture information and generated  
213 predictions of soil moisture trends based on geostatistical analyses, such variogram fitting and Ordinary-Kriging  
214 modeling. Ordinary-Kriging assumes that the target variable (soil moisture trends) is controlled by a random field  
215 (main reason why we base our analysis in a random sampling strategy) and that shows a quantifiable level of  
216 spatial structure and autocorrelation (Hiemstra et al. 2009). We performed an automatic variogram analysis to  
217 assess the spatial structure and autocorrelation of satellite soil moisture records. For the variogram analysis we  
218 computed the relationships between the distance of randomly distributed soil moisture observations and the  
219 accumulated variance of their respective values. We used the aforementioned relationships to predict the satellite  
220 soil moisture trend in areas where no data is available and also provided a spatial explicit measure of error  
221 following a geostatistical framework (Hiemstra et al. 2009, Llamas et al., 2020). In contrast, the primary

222 productivity dataset used here has complete coverage across Brazil. We show both the interpolated maps of soil  
223 moisture trends and the trend map of the primary productivity of vegetation.

224

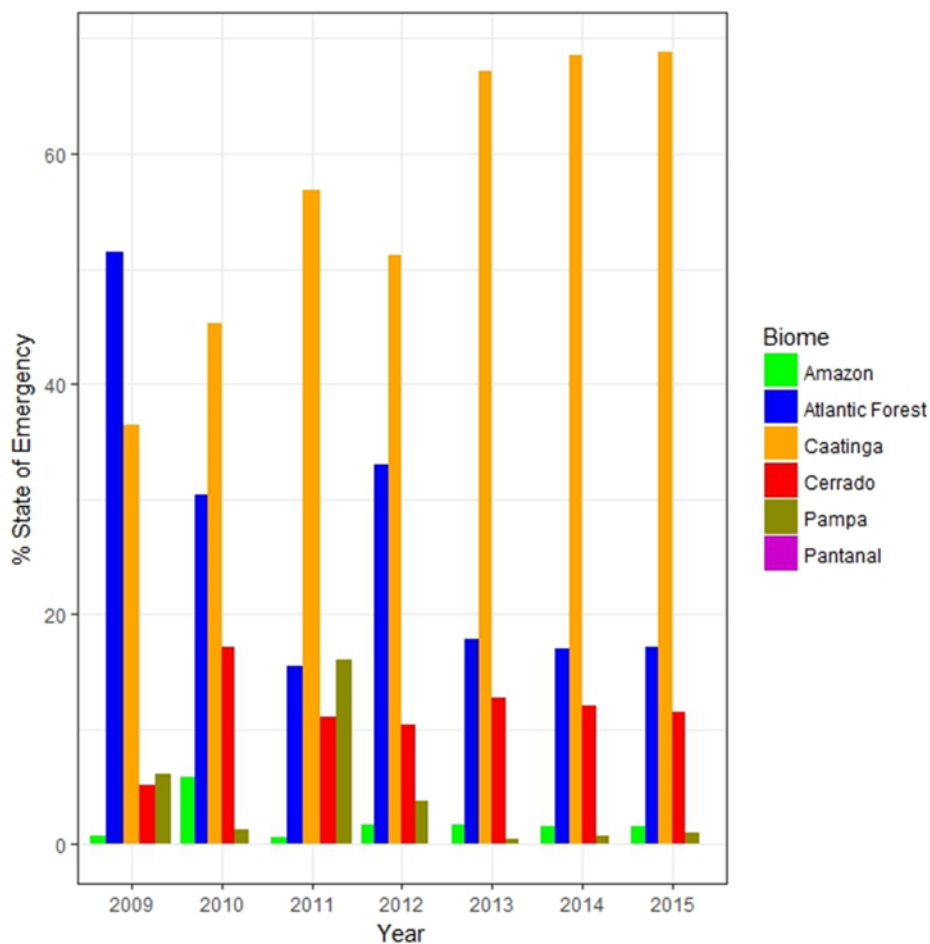
### 225 3. Results and Discussion

#### 226 3.1. Drought in Brazil from 2009 to 2015

227 This analysis of Municipal Emergency Declarations (MEDs) confirmed that the period from 2009 to 2015 was,  
228 indeed, marked by successive droughts countrywide (Fig. 2). During this period, Brazil had a total of 12,508  
229 declarations of emergency or public calamity due to drought all over its territory (Ministry of National Integration  
230 of Brazil 2018), which affected directly 33 million people and caused economic losses around US\$ 6,5 billion  
231 (EM-DAT 2018).

232 Proportionally, Caatinga is the biome with more MEDs per municipality, followed by the Atlantic Forest, Cerrado,  
233 Pampas and the Amazon respectively (Fig. 2). The only biome with no MEDs due to drought during this period  
234 is the Pantanal, which is a natural wetland that covers only 1.8% of the national territory (Overbeck et al. 2015).

235



236

237 **Figure 2: Percentage of municipalities declaring emergency or public calamity due to drought in Brazil**  
238 **from 2009 to 2015**

239

240 When considering climatological data from the Integrated Drought Index (IDI), which combines the Standardized  
241 Precipitation Index (SPI) and the Vegetation Health Index (VHI), Cunha et al. (2019) discovered that since 1962,

242 when drought events started to be recorded in Brazil, only between 2012 and 2014 droughts occurred concurrently  
243 in the six biomes of the country. The IDI also showed that the hydrological year of 2011/2012 (October 2011 to  
244 September 2012) was the driest of the historical series, except in the South region, where the Pampas biome is  
245 located. During the period of study (2009-2015), the most severe drought events occurred in the northeast region  
246 (where the Caatinga predominates), in the central west region (where the Cerrado predominates), and in the  
247 southeast region (where there is a mix of Cerrado and Atlantic Forest). Even though the climatological data from  
248 the IDI show some inconsistencies with the MEDs per biome, in general terms, it reinforces that the study period  
249 was marked by simultaneous droughts across all biomes of Brazil.

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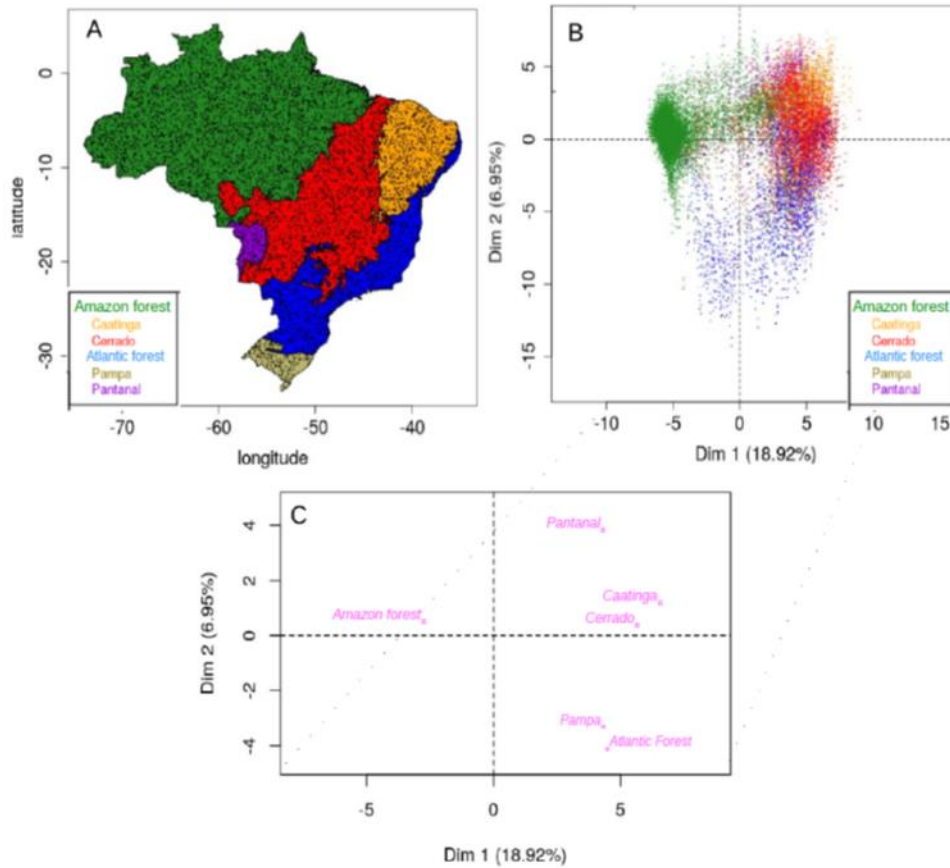
### 251 **3.2. Environmental gridded information of Brazilian Biomes**

252 The environmental characterization of Brazilian biomes showed a clear differentiation of three major groups (Fig.  
253 3a and b). These results support the expectation that drought would have a differential impact on soil moisture  
254 dynamics in each of the six biomes (see section 3.3). This expectation is supported because each biome shows  
255 differences on the spatial configuration of environmental soil moisture drivers, as revealed by the PCA analysis  
256 (Fig. 3b) as described below.

257 From the 110 environmental layers of information we used to represent the major environmental conditions across  
258 Brazil (see list of available layers in <http://worldgrids.org/doku.php>), at least 50 principal components were  
259 needed to capture >80% of total variance. The first and second component explained >25% of variability (Fig.  
260 3b) and the variables that represented most of the variance in the first and second components were the digital  
261 elevation model ( $r=0.5$ ) and the topographic wetness index ( $r=0.31$ ) respectively. These two variables are directly  
262 related to the spatial variability of soil moisture dynamics as seen in other regional studies (Guevara and Vargas  
263 2019). Across these principal components (i.e., PC1 and PC2), we found a clear separation of three major groups  
264 of data in the statistical space (Fig. 3c). The Amazon biome forms the larger group of values, followed by another  
265 group composed mainly by the Atlantic forest and the Pampas. The Caatinga and Cerrado biomes form a third  
266 larger group and the remaining Pantanal show a close but independent variability (Fig. 3c). These groups are  
267 located on different quadrants of the plane between the first two PCs (Fig. 3c). Thus, these differences could  
268 influence soil moisture response in these major groups at the biome level.

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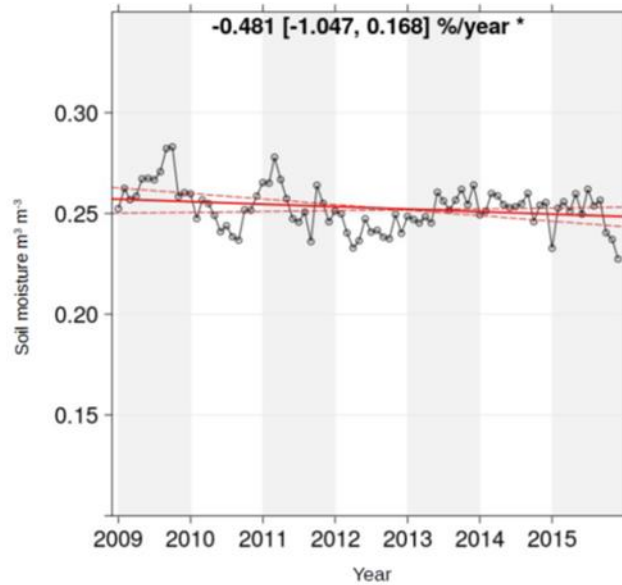
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271 **Figure 3: (a) The six biomes of Brazil. (b) Plane of the first and second PCAs showing the orthogonal and**  
 272 **environmental variability of Brazil's biomes and (c) Clustering results showing the main values of each**  
 273 **biome dataset and their proximity across the planet between PCAs one and two.**

274

### 275 3.3. Drought assessment: Soil Moisture Trends Across Brazilian Biomes

276 Our analysis of satellite soil moisture at national level showed a soil moisture decline of -0.5% per year ( $p < 0.1$ )  
 277 in Brazil from 2009 to 2015 (Fig. 4).



278

279

**Figure 4: Brazil soil moisture trend from 2009 to 2015**

280

281 When considering variations of soil moisture per biome, our data suggests that the largest soil moisture decline in

282 Brazil was found in the Caatinga biome with a persistent negative trend (-4.4% in soil moisture per year ( $p < 0.001$ ))

283 from 2009 to 2015 (Fig. 5a). In contrast, Amazon, Cerrado and Atlantic Forest biomes showed no significant trend

284 on soil moisture. Pampas and Pantanal biomes showed a significant increase in soil moisture of 1.6% and 4.3%

285 respectively per year ( $p < 0.001$ ) during the same period (Fig. 5e and f). Thus, the combination of environmental

286 variables and satellite soil moisture records was able to identify drought dominated areas such as Caatinga and

287 Cerrado from water-surplus dominated areas, such as Pantanal and Pampas. These results are also useful to prevent

288 agricultural risk from water failure (decline or surplus) and monitor important ecosystem services of large and

289 more inaccessible areas such as the Amazon forest and the Cerrado (Fig. 3).

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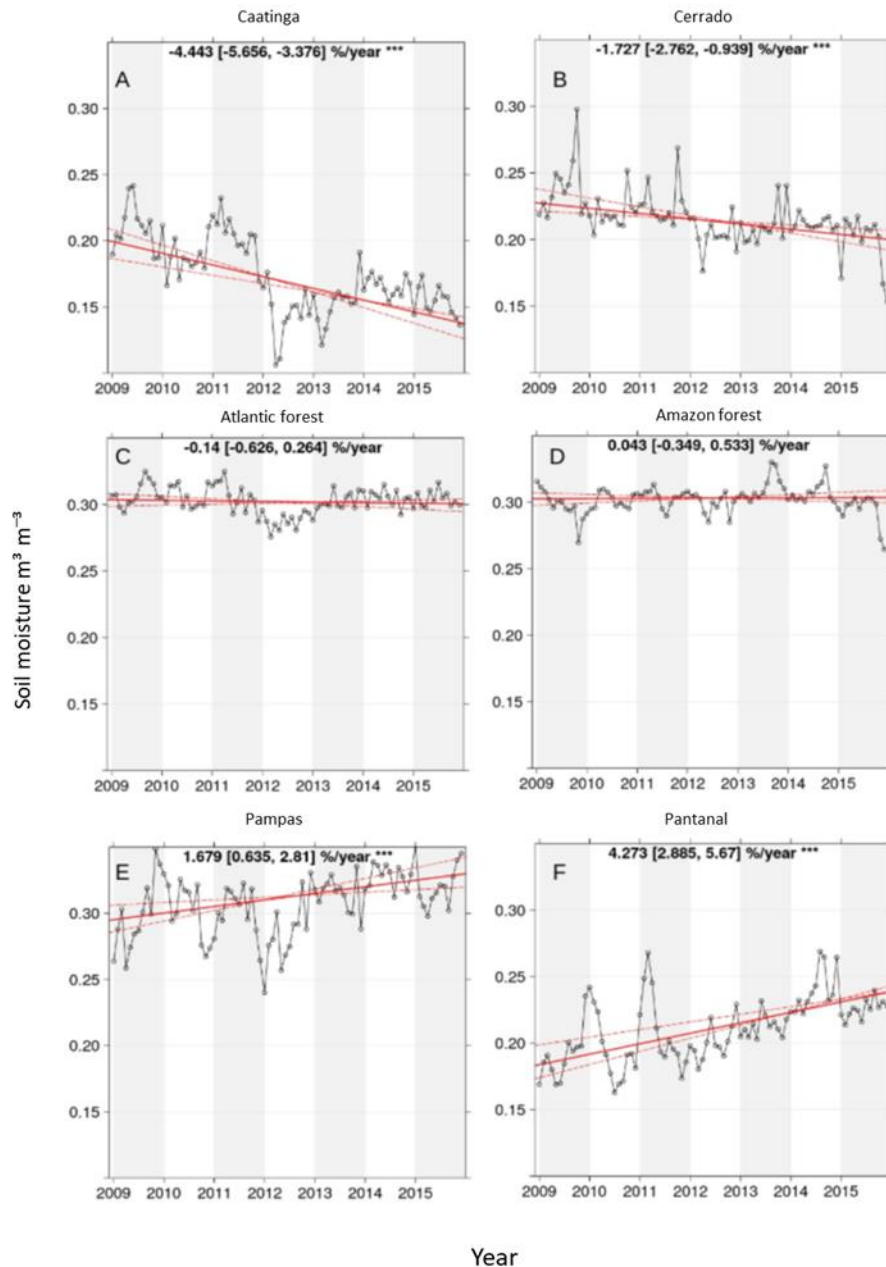
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298 **Figure 5: Soil moisture trends across Brazil. (a) Caatinga (n=921), (b) Cerrado (n=2410), (c) Atlantic Forest**  
 299 **(n=1394), (d) Amazon (n=4819), (e) Pampas (n=231), and (f) Pantanal (n=179). The values in every graph**  
 300 **show the slope percentages of changes. Red solid line showed the mean trend and red dashed lines show the**  
 301 **standard deviation trend. \*\*\* (p<0.01)**

302

303 A closer analysis of satellite soil moisture trend in the Caatinga biome shows that this biome did not fully recover  
 304 from an accentuated soil moisture decrease in 2012 (Fig. 5a). After 2012, there was a slight recovery of soil  
 305 moisture in 2013, yet a negative trend remains in the following years, most likely because the below average  
 306 annual precipitation from 2013 to 2015 (Cunha et al., 2019) coupled with human activities commonly found within  
 307 the boundaries of this biome such as deforestation, unsustainable irrigation and water abstraction (Medeiros 2012;

308 Travassos and De Souza, 2014). As highlighted by Cunha et al. (2015) intense drought events can reduce the  
309 vegetation resiliency, rendering plants to be more vulnerable to a recurring disturbance. Furthermore, the  
310 vegetation can be durably affected by a drought, if the drought is preceded by another dry year that could  
311 substantially reduce gross primary productivity and other ecosystem processes (Vargas, 2012).

312 Consistent with previous studies (Zeri et al. 2018) precipitation data indicates that the years 2011, 2012, 2014 and  
313 2015 have been drier as compared to the previous decades. Marengo et al. (2017) also confirmed that, from 2012  
314 to 2015, drought affected hundreds of cities and rural areas with devastating impacts on the agricultural production  
315 and water supply. On the human activities side, data from the National Institute of Spatial Research (INPE, 2018)  
316 reveals that 45% of the Caatinga biome is degraded and 7.2% of its soil is already exposed. In addition, the  
317 Caatinga has been exposed to continuous land cover changes and less than 1% of the region is a strictly protected  
318 area (Leal et al., 2005; Morim et al., 2013). Thus, our results: (a) provide insights to identify geographical areas  
319 that could be preserved due to its capacity for providing blue and green water; and (b) could be part of a monitoring  
320 system for optimizing the limited water inputs and supply in this semiarid ecosystem (i.e., for agricultural  
321 planning).

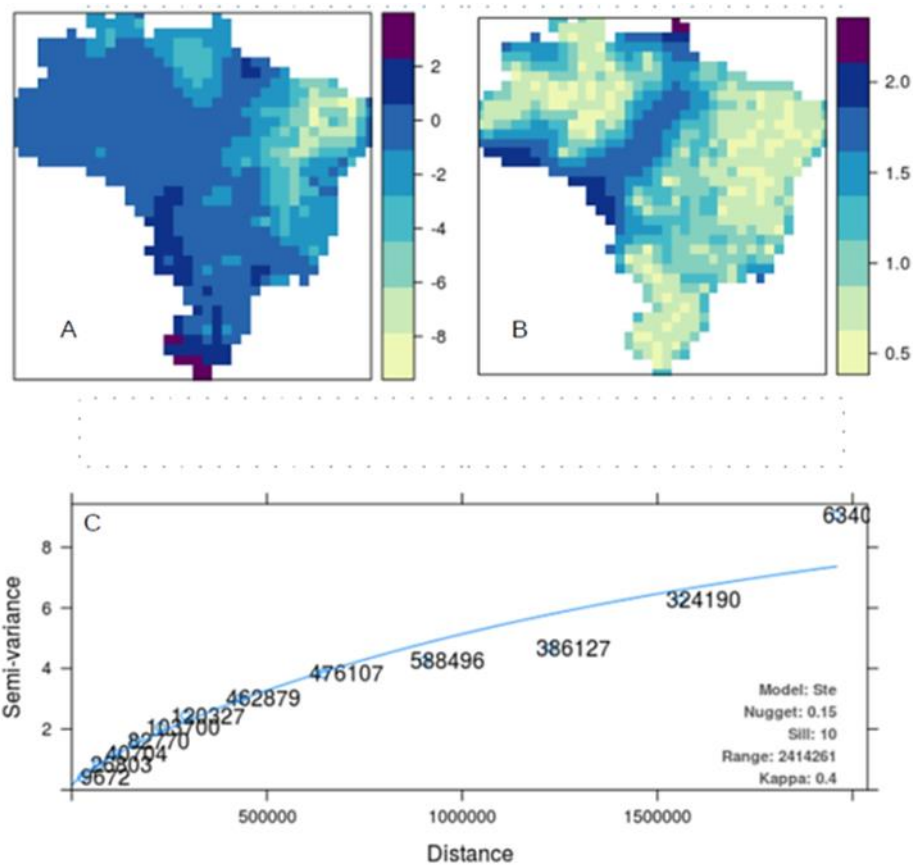
322 Persistent and prolonged soil moisture decline could also negatively affect Caatinga's biodiversity, one of the  
323 world's plant biodiversity centers (Leal et al. 2005). The vegetation and soils of the Caatinga are exposed to 8-10  
324 dry months per year (Santos et al. 2014), and more than 90% of the Caatinga biome is non-forest vegetation. Just  
325 ~20% of the biome has native vegetation, which is better adapted to support drought events and store higher  
326 amounts of water (Santos et al. 2014; Overbeck et al. 2015). Tomasella et al. (2018) using NDVI values for high  
327 density vegetation and bare soil showed that recurrent droughts are accelerating the degradation and desertification  
328 processes in the Caatinga.

329 The combination of these regional factors together with the effect of teleconnections such as the ENSO (El Niño  
330 Southern Oscillation) and other land atmosphere interactions (Kouadio et al. 2012) make the Caatinga biome in  
331 Brazil the most vulnerable biome to the recurrent droughts and consequently, prolonged soil moisture deficit  
332 condition. (Marengo et al. 2017).

333 Therefore, we highlight the need to include urgent actions such as reforestation and efficient use of underground  
334 water into drought mitigation plans for this biome to reduce future soil moisture decline. It is noteworthy that  
335 this biome is already presenting agricultural deficits and desertification areas due to natural and anthropogenic  
336 phenomena (Nascimento and Alves 2008; Sheffield and Wood 2008; Medeiros, 2012; Travassos and De Souza  
337 2014). As an example, while studying the desertification process in part of the Caatinga biome, D' Souza,  
338 Fernandes and Barbosa (2008) found high levels of social, economic, and technological vulnerabilities which  
339 could be directly associated with removal of the natural vegetation covering and forest fires for subsistence  
340 agriculture. These human induced changes on soil moisture in the Caatinga are also related with the occurrence  
341 of soil erosion and local desertification processes that influence low agricultural productivity due to diminish soil  
342 moisture and quality of the soil (Nascimento and Alves 2008).

343 The Atlantic Forest biome didn't show significant positive or negative trends in soil moisture variation during the  
344 studied period. It registered, however, the greatest ups and downs in soil moisture from 2009 to 2015, with high  
345 peaks (2009, 2011 and 2013) followed by abrupt declines in a relatively short time period. After the most intense  
346 period of soil moisture decline in the Atlantic Forest (2009-2012), this biome quickly bounced back to previous  
347 levels of soil moisture, showing capacity to recover from intense soil moisture losses in less than 12 months.

348 The Amazon biome showed no significant trend of satellite soil moisture data during the analyzed period (Fig.  
 349 4d), probably due to data limitations (i.e., data gaps) associated with lack of satellite-derived information (see  
 350 Methods section). Field-based evidence collected by Anderson et al. (2018) showed a wide range of impacts of  
 351 drought on the Amazon forest structure and functioning (e.g.: widespread tree mortality and increased  
 352 susceptibility to wildfires) in 2016 after the 2015 drought, which affected approximately 46% of the Brazilian  
 353 Amazon biome. However, considering the size and differences in topography in the Amazon biome, the eastern  
 354 and western areas of the Amazon rainforest may respond differently to drought due to differences in climate  
 355 conditions and therefore, different sensibility to soil moisture decline. The western portion of the Amazon biome  
 356 shows higher soil moisture values (and potentially positive soil moisture trends) than the eastern region (Fig. 6a  
 357 and b). This result is consistent with previous findings describing differences in drought response from east and  
 358 west portions of this biome (Duffy et al. 2015), suggesting that soil moisture conservation plans and drought  
 359 mitigation strategies in the Amazon biome should consider the heterogeneity of the region and the different soil  
 360 moisture feedback from the east and west portions of this biome.  
 361



362  
 363 **Figure 6: Geostatistical analysis (Ordinary-Kriging with automatic variogram fitting) of satellite soil**  
 364 **moisture across Brazil from 2009 to 2015. (a) The trend prediction of soil moisture 2009-2015. (b) The**  
 365 **kriging variance (error map), (c) Variogram fitting parameters and spatial autocorrelation model (blue**  
 366 **line) supporting the soil moisture prediction. The numbers around the blue line are the pairs of points**  
 367 **available for the interpolation at a specific distance (x-axis)**

368

369 The Pampas biome showed a positive trend of ~1.6% per year ( $p < 0.001$ ) during the analyzed period (Fig. 5e), but  
370 with three distinct periods. The year 2009 registered a recovery period of positive soil moisture trend followed by  
371 a steady soil moisture decline until its lowest point in the beginning of 2012. Then, this biome started a consistent  
372 recovery process surpassing previous values of soil moisture trend registered before 2013, showing great capacity  
373 to recover soil moisture after periods of drought. Cunha et al. (2019) showed that in 2012 most of the south region  
374 of Brazil presented drought conditions over an extensive area, with the highest intensity recorded in August 2012.  
375 This intense drought affected the water supply in the rural properties and the agricultural and livestock production.  
376 Even though the Pampas has more than 60% of its biome degraded, especially for cattle raising (Santos and Silva  
377 2012), our data shows that it is gradually increasing soil moisture even during a period of successive droughts  
378 across Brazil. Literature on soil moisture of the Pampas biome characterize this biome as highly vulnerable to  
379 water and wind erosion (Roesch et al. 2009), making it susceptible to soil moisture decline (Duffy et al. 2015).  
380 On the other hand, extended flat landscapes, like the Pampas, show low lateral water transport as a result of low  
381 surface runoff and slow groundwater fluxes, making this biome more suitable to accumulate surface water for  
382 long periods of time (Kuppel et al. 2015).

383 The Pantanal biome also showed a positive soil moisture trend of 4.3% per year ( $p < 0.001$ ) from 2009 to 2015, the  
384 highest positive trend among all biomes. From 2009 to 2011, there were two extreme events characterized by  
385 sudden soil moisture increase immediately followed by abrupt soil moisture declines. After these two extreme  
386 events, a more stable and consistent positive soil moisture trend was registered from 2011 to 2014. Even though  
387 there was a subtle decline in the soil moisture by the end of 2014, this biome kept an overall positive trend during  
388 2015.

389 The Pantanal and the Pampas biomes are both sub-humid aeolian plains, which make them more susceptible to  
390 experience flood events covering a significant fraction of the landscape for months or even years (Kuppel et al.  
391 2015). Even though our data seems congruent with inundations registered in Pantanal in the beginning of 2011,  
392 when soil moisture trend reached its highest point for the Pantanal biome during the studied period, it did not  
393 capture a reduction of 81% of the total flooded area for the Pantanal biome in 2012, when there was a reduction  
394 of 18% in annual precipitation (Moraes, Pereira and Cardozo 2013). In contrast, our data showed a consistent  
395 positive trend throughout 2012, even though all months of the wet season in 2012 had a decrease in precipitation  
396 ranging from -28.6% in the beginning towards -12.1% in the end of the wet season (Moraes et al. 2013). These  
397 results suggest that, although the analyzed period is characterized by a sequence of dry spells across Brazil  
398 (Marengo et al. 2017), some areas such as the Pantanal region, were able to accumulate soil moisture during that  
399 time.

400 Detecting an increase in soil moisture does not mean that these biomes should receive less attention to drought  
401 and soil conservation plans. From 2009 to 2015, the Pampas had always a representative municipality declaring  
402 emergency due to drought and has constantly reported economic losses in the agricultural sector. The Pantanal,  
403 during the same period, was not directly impacted by drought at the municipal level, but the highly positive soil  
404 moisture trend deserves further understanding on how it impacts the local ecosystem, as well as agricultural  
405 practices and cattle raising with the ultimate goal to improve food security across Brazil.

406 Our results support our main hypothesis as we have found evidence that each of the six Brazilian biomes registered  
407 different soil moisture feedbacks to drought during the analyzed period (2009-2015). In practical terms, it means  
408 that drought response and mitigation plans, as well as soil conservation strategies should consider both differences

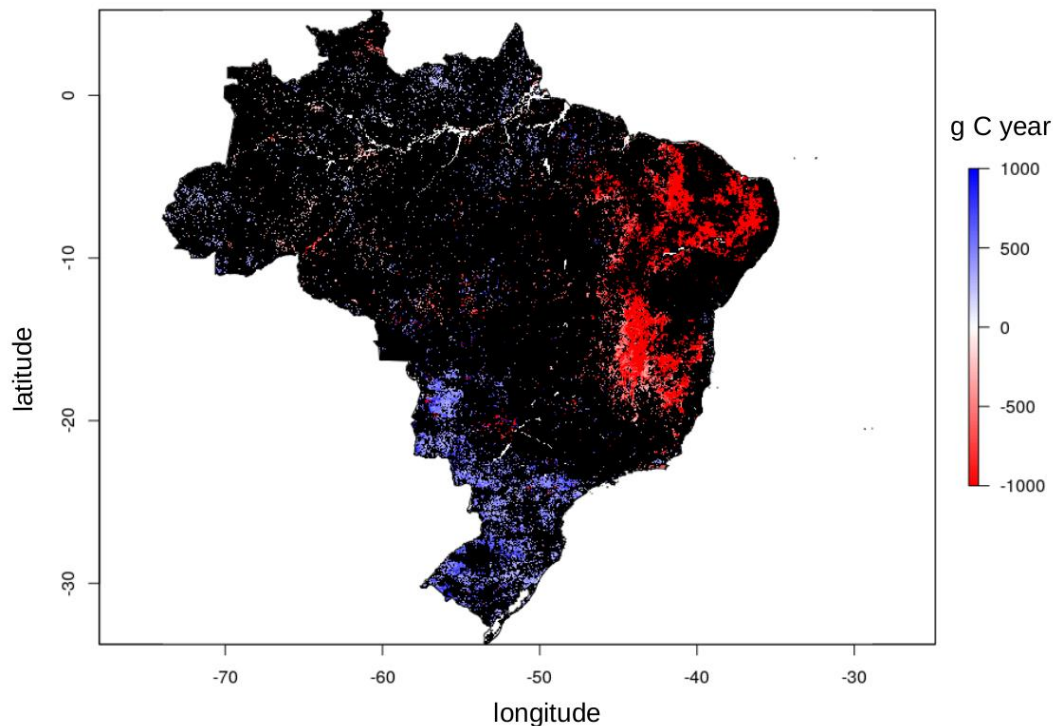
409 among and within each biome of Brazil and concentrate efforts and resources to preserve or recover the regions  
410 with greater susceptibility to lose soil moisture during periods of drought. Confirming the value of satellite soil  
411 moisture signals monitoring drought related patterns, we observe the similar trends of soil moisture and the  
412 primary productivity of vegetation across Brazil.

413

### 414 **3.4. Primary productivity trends across Brazil**

415 We confirm the consistency of our results comparing trends of satellite soil moisture with trends calculated using  
416 the primary productivity (or GPP) datasets. Our results show that all biomes experienced positive and negative  
417 trends of vegetation productivity between the analyzed period of time (Fig. 7). We observe that the major surface  
418 of negative trends of primary productivity of vegetation is across the Caatinga biome and its intersection with  
419 both the Cerrado and Atlantic Forest biomes. Pampas and Pantanal are the biomes with higher surface of positive  
420 primary productivity trends (Fig. 7).

421

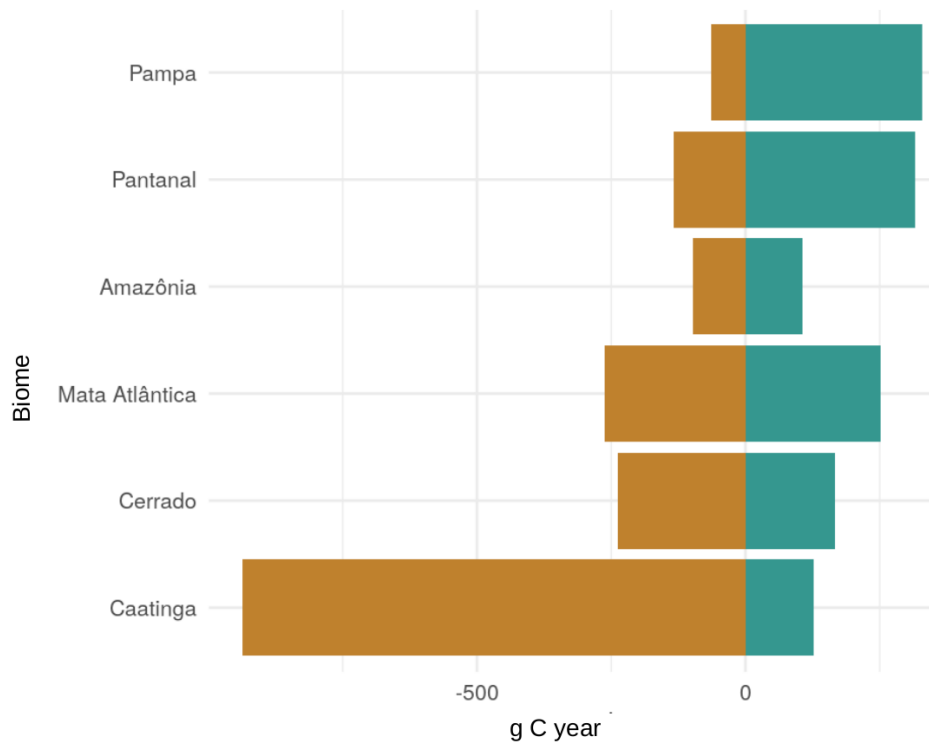


422

423 **Fig. 7. Trends of primary productivity of vegetation based on the GOSIF dataset between 2009-2015. Areas**  
424 **in black showed non-significant.**

425

426 These results are consistent with the soil moisture trends described on each biome (Fig. 5). Caatinga is the biome  
427 with highest soil moisture decline and highest primary productivity decline. Cerrado and the Atlantic forest are  
428 biomes also experiencing decline in soil moisture and primary productivity. In contrast, the Pampa and Pantanal  
429 experienced an increase in soil moisture levels and increase in primary productivity rates (Fig. 8). Changes in  
430 primary productivity across the Amazon forest were less evident or not significant. Our results support the use of  
431 satellite soil moisture and primary productivity trends as accurate indicators of drought conditions across Brazilian  
432 biomes.



433

434

435 **Fig. 8 Primary productivity trends across Brazilian biomes based in the GOSIF-GPP product across the**  
 436 **analyzed period of time (2009-2015).**

437

438 **4. Conclusion**

439 The results of this research reveal an important environmental vulnerability to drought across Brazil. From 2009  
 440 to 2015, there was a national decline of soil moisture with a rate of 0.5% year<sup>-1</sup>. Among all six biomes, Caatinga  
 441 presented the most severe soil moisture decline (-4.4% year<sup>-1</sup>), suggesting a need for immediate local soil and  
 442 water conservation activities. The Atlantic Forest and Cerrado biomes showed no significant soil moisture trends  
 443 but should be closely monitored for its importance to national food and water security and environmental balance.  
 444 The Amazon biome also showed no soil moisture trend but a sharp reduction of soil moisture from 2013 to 2015.  
 445 It is noteworthy that soil moisture from eastern and western portions of the Amazon biome may respond differently  
 446 to drought. The western portion of the Amazon biome shows potentially more positive soil moisture trends than  
 447 the eastern region. In contrast, the Pampas and the Pantanal biomes presented a positive soil moisture trend (1.6  
 448 and 4.3 % year<sup>-1</sup>, respectively), which should also be constantly monitored considering the susceptibility of these  
 449 biomes to floods.

450 These results are consistent with primary productivity trends (Fig. 8), supporting the effectiveness of satellite soil  
 451 moisture data to monitor drought impacts at a biome level. This study provides insights about the potential benefits  
 452 of integrating satellite soil moisture data into drought monitoring and early warning systems and soil conservation  
 453 plans at national and local levels.

454

455

456



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461

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