

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

3 <sup>1</sup>Flavio Lopes Ribeiro, <sup>2</sup>Mario Guevara, <sup>2</sup>Alma Vázquez-Lule, <sup>3</sup>Ana Paula Cunha, <sup>3</sup>Marcelo Zeri,  
4 <sup>2</sup>Rodrigo Vargas

5

6 <sup>1</sup>University of Delaware, School of Public Policy and Administration, Disaster Research Center, Newark, DE,  
7 USA

8 <sup>2</sup>University of Delaware, Department of Plant and Soil Sciences, Newark, DE, USA

9 <sup>3</sup>National Center for Monitoring and Early Warning of Natural Disasters (CEMADEN), São José dos Campos,  
10 SP, Brazil

11

12 *Correspondence to:* Flavio Lopes Ribeiro

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). These trends are consistent with vegetation  
23 productivity trends across each biome. This information provides insights for drought risk reduction and soil  
24 conservation activities to minimize the impact of drought in the most vulnerable biomes. Furthermore, improving  
25 our understanding of soil moisture trends during periods of drought is crucial to enhance the national drought  
26 early warning system and develop customized strategies for adaptation to climate change in each biome.

27

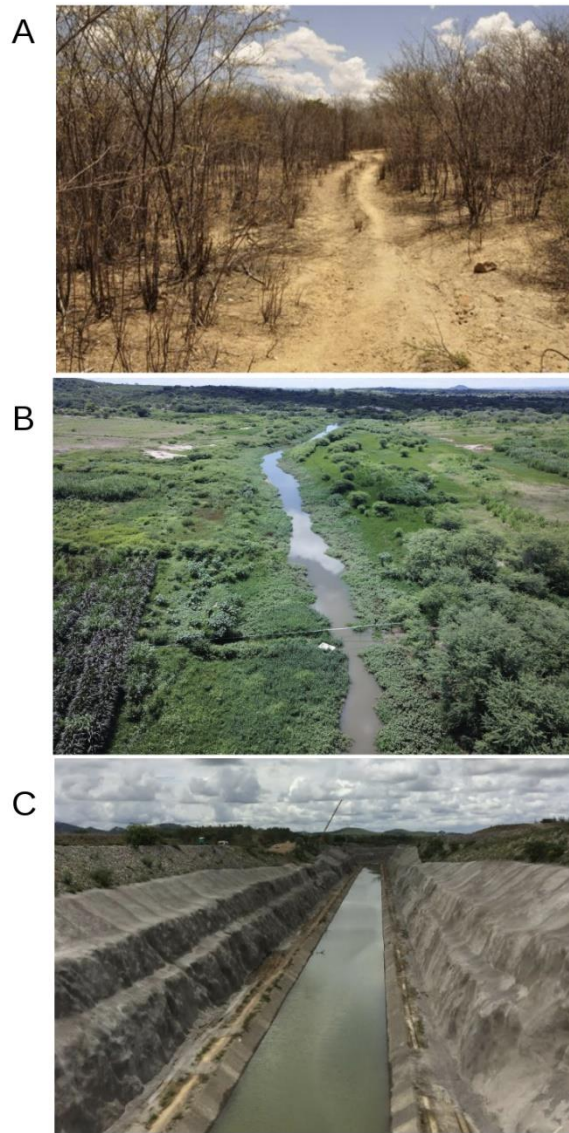
## 28 1. Introduction

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. A perspective of the Caatinga forest during the dry season at the ground level (A), A perspective of land use**  
59 **in the Caatinga biome during the wet season at the landscape level (B). An example of human intervention to river**  
60 **course that has an impact on water availability across the region (C).**

61

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

65 Nevertheless, studies on soil moisture variation have been conducted at a stand-scale due to challenges for  
66 measurements across spatial and temporal scales (Legates et al. 2011; Novick et al 2016). As a consequence, the  
67 lack of soil moisture information could lead to inaccurate assessment of drought conditions, underestimation of  
68 drought impacts, and incomplete resilience and adaptation plans. As droughts become more frequent and intense,  
69 it is important to enable monitoring of soil moisture trends and communicate the results at different levels (e.g.,  
70 municipal, state, national, regional) and across different perspectives (e.g., environmental, social, and economic).

71 At present, the most reliable source of soil moisture information at large-scales (i.e., global-to-continental scales)  
72 is satellite remote sensing (i.e., <https://smap.jpl.nasa.gov/>, <http://www.esa-soilmoisture-cci.org/>), which provides

73 soil moisture estimates for the first 0-5 cm of soil depth (Liu et al. 2011). Even though the first layer of soil is  
74 expected to be very dynamic because of its interaction with the atmosphere and deeper layers still represent an  
75 important water storage, especially in the Amazon and Cerrado biomes, soil moisture at the first 5cm is still a  
76 good predictor of land and atmosphere interactions. Analyzing a shallow soil layer can provide key information  
77 for the detection of soil aridity conditions that are directly related with the loss of soil biodiversity and, therefore,  
78 with soil productivity. Thus, soil moisture at the surface is directly affected by drought conditions and could be  
79 also used as an indicator (i.e., proxy) of the water contained at deeper layers. Since we cannot measure *in situ* soil  
80 moisture at high spatial resolution due to logistical constraints (i.e., because is expensive or time consuming), we  
81 propose the use of multiple satellite remote sensing sensors (e.g., from ESA or NASA) as an alternative to obtain  
82 drought-relevant information on soil moisture at the national scale. The study period (2009 – 2015) was marked  
83 by successive droughts across Brazil, registered and confirmed by different monitoring instruments such as the  
84 Integrated Drought Index (IDI), which combines the Standardized Precipitation Index (SPI) and the Vegetation  
85 Health Index (VHI) (Cunha et al., 2019) and Municipal Emergency Declarations all over the country.  
86 The purpose of this study is showing the advantages and disadvantages of integrating satellite soil moisture  
87 observations into drought monitoring across Brazil on a biome basis. We show the differential impact of drought  
88 on the soil moisture of different biomes at a national scale (using Brazil as a case study).  
89 Main limitations are that satellite measurements of soil moisture provide indirect estimates of soil moisture across  
90 large areas of around >25km grids and that these estimates are representative only in the topsoil (eg., 0-5cm), and  
91 unfortunately do not provide a direct metric of soil water storage. While soil moisture at the surface is a key  
92 indicator of soil and atmosphere interactions, topsoil moisture does not account entirely for the water used by  
93 plants to grow. The capacity of plants to grow can be measured also with satellite information in the form of  
94 primary productivity estimates (Li et al., 2019). Therefore, we also explore the correspondence between satellite  
95 soil moisture and primary productivity trends for each biome in Brazil. Both soil moisture and vegetation  
96 productivity are ecosystem variables directly affected by drought conditions. Understanding how soil moisture  
97 and vegetation productivity on each biome is affected by drought conditions from different perspectives (in our  
98 case superficial soil moisture) is crucial to assess their resilience. It is also important to provide evidence-based  
99 orientations to drought mitigation and soil conservation plans.

100

101

## 102 **2. Methodology**

### 103 **2.1. Study area**

104 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  
105 33°44' S (IBGE, 2017). The continental dimension of the country implies a complex spatial heterogeneity of  
106 environmental conditions resulting in six main biomes: Amazon, Atlantic Forest, Caatinga, Cerrado, Pampas and  
107 Pantanal (Fig. 3a).

108 *The Amazon* biome is mainly characterized by rainforest areas (Overbeck et al. 2015). It represents 49.5% of  
109 Brazil's total area, or 4,196,943 km<sup>2</sup> (IBGE, 2019). It has an equatorial climate, with temperatures between 22°C  
110 and 28°C and torrential rains distributed throughout the year. The geomorphology of the Amazon biome is quite  
111 diverse, presenting plateaus, plains, and depressions. Soils are generally clayey, iron-rich and with high soil

112 organic carbon content. The Amazon biome is well known for its biodiversity and its large number of rivers and  
113 water bodies, which account for the world's greatest surface green water reserves (IBGE 2004).

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

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

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

142 *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>).  
143 It is mainly characterized by grasslands and shrublands (Overbeck et al. 2015). The region has a wet subtropical  
144 climate, characterized by a rainy climate throughout the whole year, with hot summers and cold winters, where  
145 temperatures fall below freezing (IBGE 2004). The Pampas comprises an environmental set of different lithology  
146 types and productive soils (e.g., carbon-rich), mainly under flat and smooth undulating terrain surfaces.

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

150 *The Pantanal* is by a vast extent of poorly drained lowlands that experiences annual flooding from summer to fall  
151 months (January–May) (Assine and Soares, 2004). The climate of the Pantanal is hot and humid during the

152 summer and cold and dry in winter (Ioris, Irigaray and Girard 2014). Precipitation varies from 1000-1400 mm per  
153 year, and rains are predominant from November to April. Average annual temperature is 32°C, but the dry season  
154 (May to October) has an average temperature of 21°C and it is not uncommon to have >100 days without rain  
155 (Ioris, Irigaray and Girard 2014). In the last two decades, temperature in the Pantanal has consistently risen and  
156 more humid than normal events as well as dryer than normal events have both increased (Marengo et al 2010).

157

### 158 **2.3. Environmental variability of Brazilian Biomes**

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

173

### 174 **2.4. Municipal emergency declarations due to drought across Brazil**

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

183 To determine drought distribution across the six Brazilian biomes, we retrieved official MEDs due to drought in  
184 Brazil from 2009 to 2015. This information is public and can be accessed on the website of the Ministry of  
185 National Integration of Brazil. First, we downloaded the historical series of MEDs in Brazil from 2009 to 2015.  
186 Then, we isolated the municipalities who declared emergency or public calamity due to drought from all other  
187 disasters. The last step was to cross this data with the boundaries of the six Brazilian biomes and discover the  
188 intensity and distribution of drought in each biome during the study period.

189

190

191

192 **2.5. Soil Moisture and Primary Productivity Trends across Brazil**

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

202

203 **2.6. Data Analysis**

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

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

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

230

231

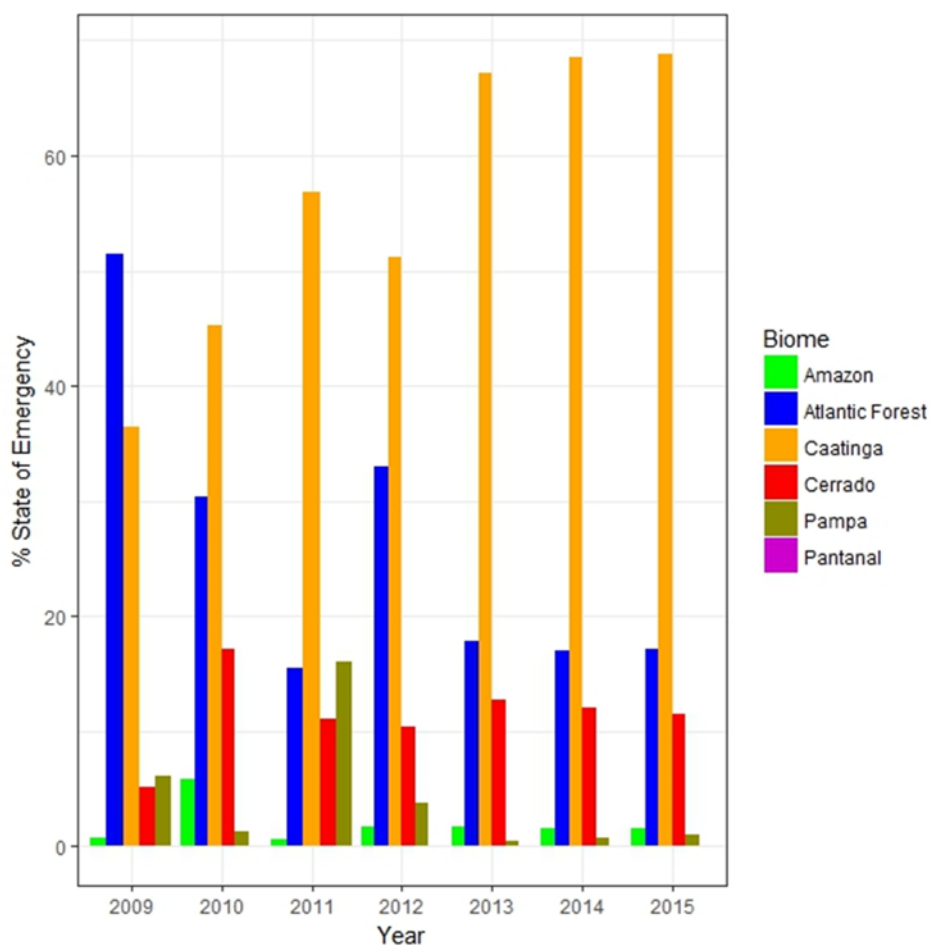
232 **3. Results and Discussion**

233 **3.1. Drought in Brazil from 2009 to 2015**

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

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

242



243

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

246

247 When considering climatological data from the Integrated Drought Index (IDI), which combines the Standardized  
248 Precipitation Index (SPI) and the Vegetation Health Index (VHI), Cunha et al. (2019) discovered that since 1962,  
249 when drought events started to be recorded in Brazil, only between 2012 and 2014 droughts occurred concurrently  
250 in the six biomes of the country. The IDI also showed that the hydrological year of 2011/2012 (October 2011 to  
251 September 2012) was the driest of the historical series, except in the South region, where the Pampas biome is



252 located. During the period of study (2009-2015), the most severe drought events occurred in the northeast region  
253 (where the Caatinga predominates), in the central west region (where the Cerrado predominates), and in the  
254 southeast region (where there is a mix of Cerrado and Atlantic Forest). Even though the climatological data from  
255 the IDI show some inconsistencies with the MEDs per biome, in general terms, it reinforces that the study period  
256 was marked by simultaneous droughts across all biomes of Brazil.

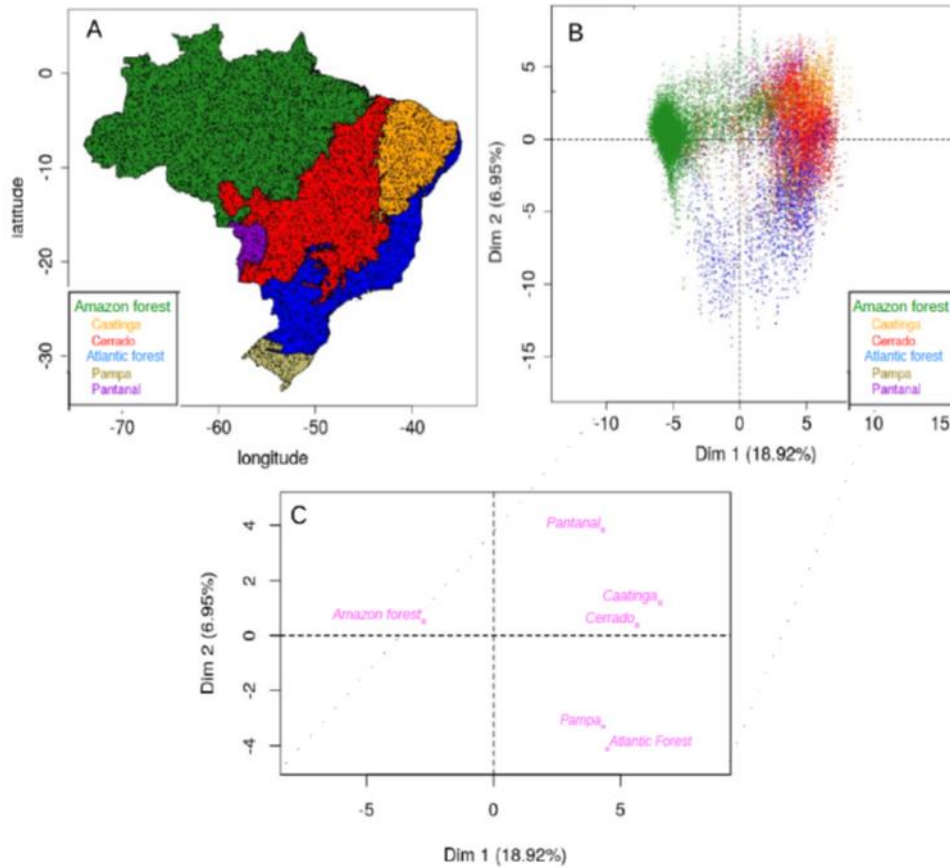
257

### 258 **3.2. Environmental gridded information of Brazilian Biomes**

259 The environmental characterization of Brazilian biomes showed a clear differentiation of three major groups (Fig.  
260 3a and b). These results support the expectation that drought would have a differential impact on soil moisture  
261 dynamics in each of the six biomes (see section 3.3). This expectation is supported because each biome shows  
262 differences on the spatial configuration of environmental soil moisture drivers, as revealed by the PCA analysis  
263 (Fig. 3b) as described below.

264 From the 110 environmental layers of information we used to represent the major environmental conditions across  
265 Brazil (see list of available layers in <http://worldgrids.org/doku.php>), at least 50 principal components were  
266 needed to capture >80% of total variance. The first and second component explained >25% of variability (Fig.  
267 3b) and the variables that represented most of the variance in the first and second components were the digital  
268 elevation model ( $r=0.5$ ) and the topographic wetness index ( $r=0.31$ ) respectively. These two variables are directly  
269 related to the spatial variability of soil moisture dynamics as seen in other regional studies (Guevara and Vargas  
270 2019). Across these principal components (i.e., PC1 and PC2), we found a clear separation of three major groups  
271 of data in the statistical space (Fig. 3c). The Amazon biome forms the larger group of values, followed by another  
272 group composed mainly by the Atlantic forest and the Pampas. The Caatinga and Cerrado biomes form a third  
273 larger group and the remaining Pantanal show a close but independent variability (Fig. 3c). These groups are  
274 located on different quadrants of the plane between the first two PCs (Fig. 3c). Thus, these differences could  
275 influence soil moisture response in these major groups at the biome level.

276



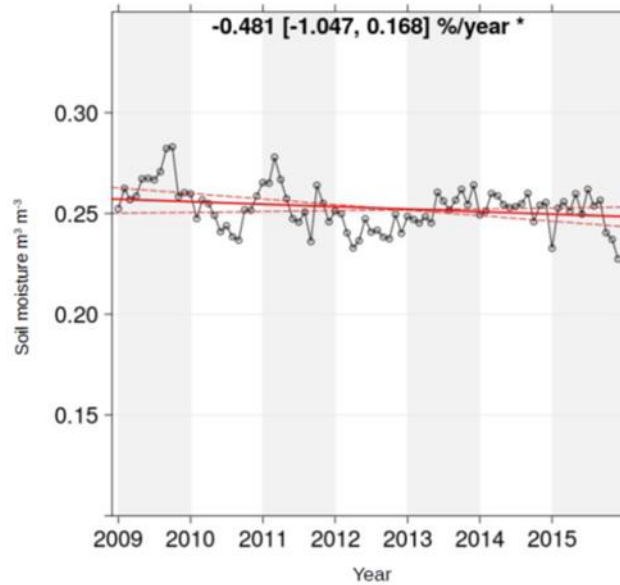
277

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

281

### 282 3.3. Drought assessment: Soil Moisture Trends Across Brazilian Biomes

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



285

286

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

287

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

297

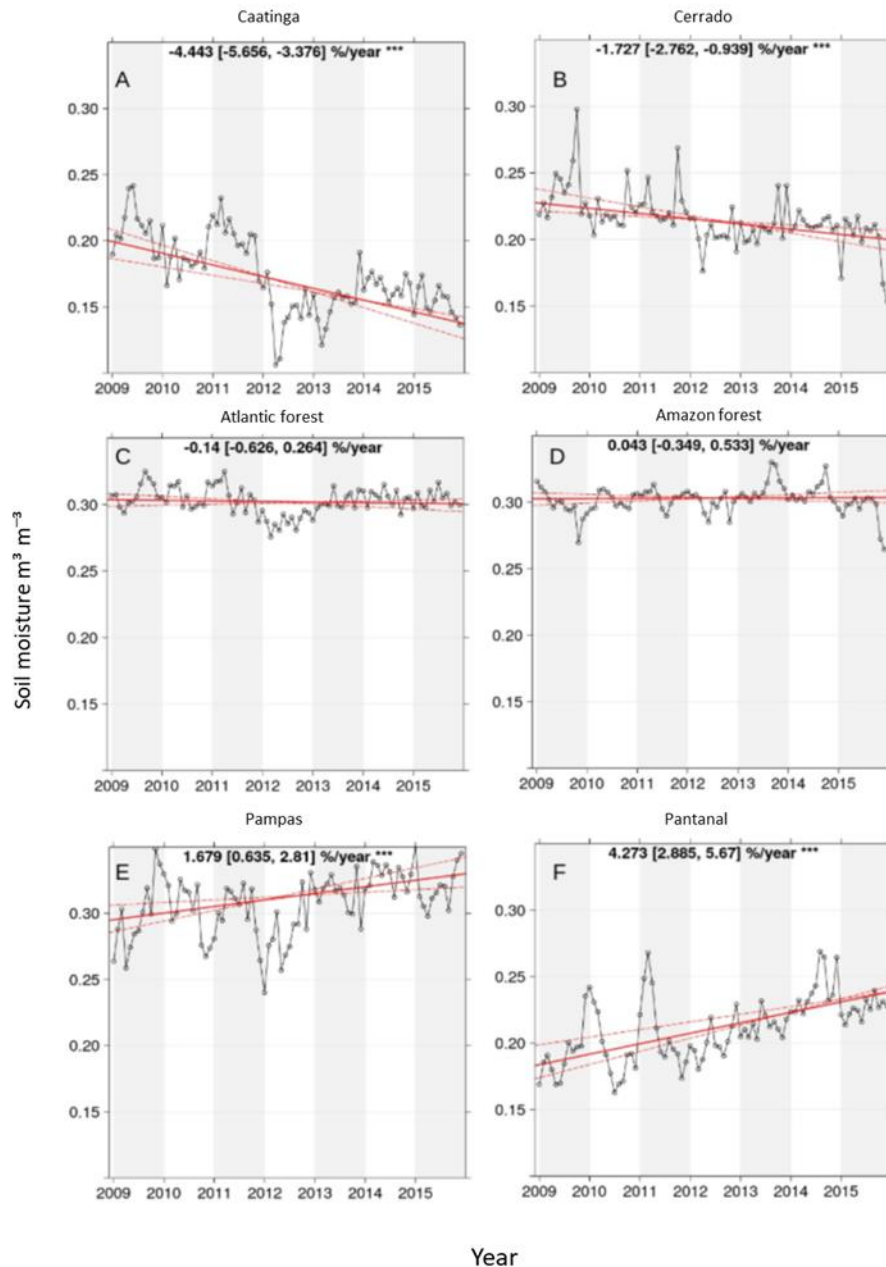
298

299

300

301

302



303

304

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

309

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

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

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

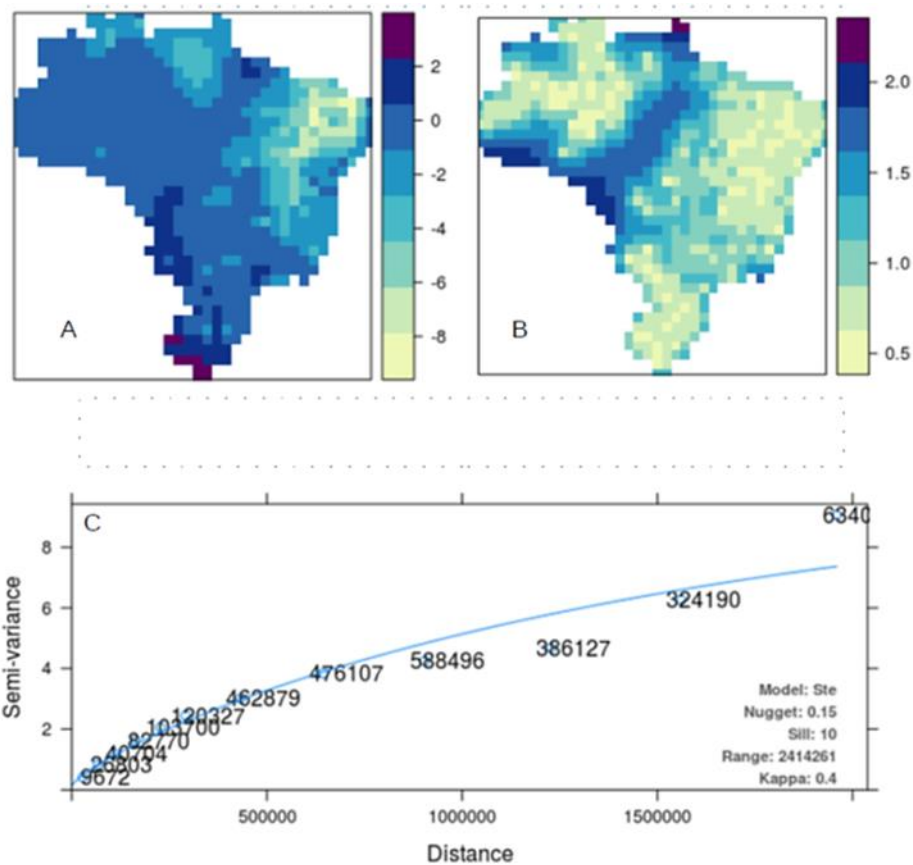
329 Persistent and prolonged soil moisture decline could also negatively affect Caatinga's biodiversity, one of the  
330 world's plant biodiversity centers (Leal et al. 2005). The vegetation and soils of the Caatinga are exposed to 8-10  
331 dry months per year (Santos et al. 2014), and more than 90% of the Caatinga biome is non-forest vegetation. Just  
332 ~20% of the biome has native vegetation, which is better adapted to support drought events and store higher  
333 amounts of water (Santos et al. 2014; Overbeck et al. 2015). Tomasella et al. (2018) using NDVI values for high  
334 density vegetation and bare soil showed that recurrent droughts are accelerating the degradation and desertification  
335 processes in the Caatinga.

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

340 Therefore, we highlight the need to include urgent actions such as reforestation and efficient use of underground  
341 water into drought mitigation plans for this biome to reduce future soil moisture decline. It is noteworthy that  
342 this biome is already presenting agricultural deficits and desertification areas due to natural and anthropogenic  
343 phenomena (Nascimento and Alves 2008; Sheffield and Wood 2008; Medeiros, 2012; Travassos and De Souza  
344 2014). As an example, while studying the desertification process in part of the Caatinga biome, D' Souza,  
345 Fernandes and Barbosa (2008) found high levels of social, economic, and technological vulnerabilities which  
346 could be directly associated with removal of the natural vegetation covering and forest fires for subsistence  
347 agriculture. These human induced changes on soil moisture in the Caatinga are also related with the occurrence  
348 of soil erosion and local desertification processes that influence low agricultural productivity due to diminish soil  
349 moisture and quality of the soil (Nascimento and Alves 2008).

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

355 The Amazon biome showed no significant trend of satellite soil moisture data during the analyzed period (Fig.  
 356 4d), probably due to data limitations (i.e., data gaps) associated with lack of satellite-derived information (see  
 357 Methods section). Field-based evidence collected by Anderson et al. (2018) showed a wide range of impacts of  
 358 drought on the Amazon forest structure and functioning (e.g.: widespread tree mortality and increased  
 359 susceptibility to wildfires) in 2016 after the 2015 drought, which affected approximately 46% of the Brazilian  
 360 Amazon biome. However, considering the size and differences in topography in the Amazon biome, the eastern  
 361 and western areas of the Amazon rainforest may respond differently to drought due to differences in climate  
 362 conditions and therefore, different sensibility to soil moisture decline. The western portion of the Amazon biome  
 363 shows higher soil moisture values (and potentially positive soil moisture trends) than the eastern region (Fig. 6a  
 364 and b). This result is consistent with previous findings describing differences in drought response from east and  
 365 west portions of this biome (Duffy et al. 2015), suggesting that soil moisture conservation plans and drought  
 366 mitigation strategies in the Amazon biome should consider the heterogeneity of the region and the different soil  
 367 moisture feedback from the east and west portions of this biome.  
 368



369  
 370 **Figure 6: Geostatistical analysis (Ordinary-Kriging with automatic variogram fitting) of satellite soil**  
 371 **moisture across Brazil from 2009 to 2015. (a) The trend prediction of soil moisture 2009-2015. (b) The**  
 372 **kriging variance (error map), (c) Variogram fitting parameters and spatial autocorrelation model (blue**  
 373 **line) supporting the soil moisture prediction. The numbers around the blue line are the pairs of points**  
 374 **available for the interpolation at a specific distance (x-axis)**

375

376 The Pampas biome showed a positive trend of ~1.6% per year ( $p < 0.001$ ) during the analyzed period (Fig. 5e), but  
377 with three distinct periods. The year 2009 registered a recovery period of positive soil moisture trend followed by  
378 a steady soil moisture decline until its lowest point in the beginning of 2012. Then, this biome started a consistent  
379 recovery process surpassing previous values of soil moisture trend registered before 2013, showing great capacity  
380 to recover soil moisture after periods of drought. Cunha et al. (2019) showed that in 2012 most of the south region  
381 of Brazil presented drought conditions over an extensive area, with the highest intensity recorded in August 2012.  
382 This intense drought affected the water supply in the rural properties and the agricultural and livestock production.  
383 Even though the Pampas has more than 60% of its biome degraded, especially for cattle raising (Santos and Silva  
384 2012), our data shows that it is gradually increasing soil moisture even during a period of successive droughts  
385 across Brazil. Literature on soil moisture of the Pampas biome characterize this biome as highly vulnerable to  
386 water and wind erosion (Roesch et al. 2009), making it susceptible to soil moisture decline (Duffy et al. 2015).  
387 On the other hand, extended flat landscapes, like the Pampas, show low lateral water transport as a result of low  
388 surface runoff and slow groundwater fluxes, making this biome more suitable to accumulate surface water for  
389 long periods of time (Kuppel et al. 2015).

390 The Pantanal biome also showed a positive soil moisture trend of 4.3% per year ( $p < 0.001$ ) from 2009 to 2015, the  
391 highest positive trend among all biomes. From 2009 to 2011, there were two extreme events characterized by  
392 sudden soil moisture increase immediately followed by abrupt soil moisture declines. After these two extreme  
393 events, a more stable and consistent positive soil moisture trend was registered from 2011 to 2014. Even though  
394 there was a subtle decline in the soil moisture by the end of 2014, this biome kept an overall positive trend during  
395 2015.

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

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

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

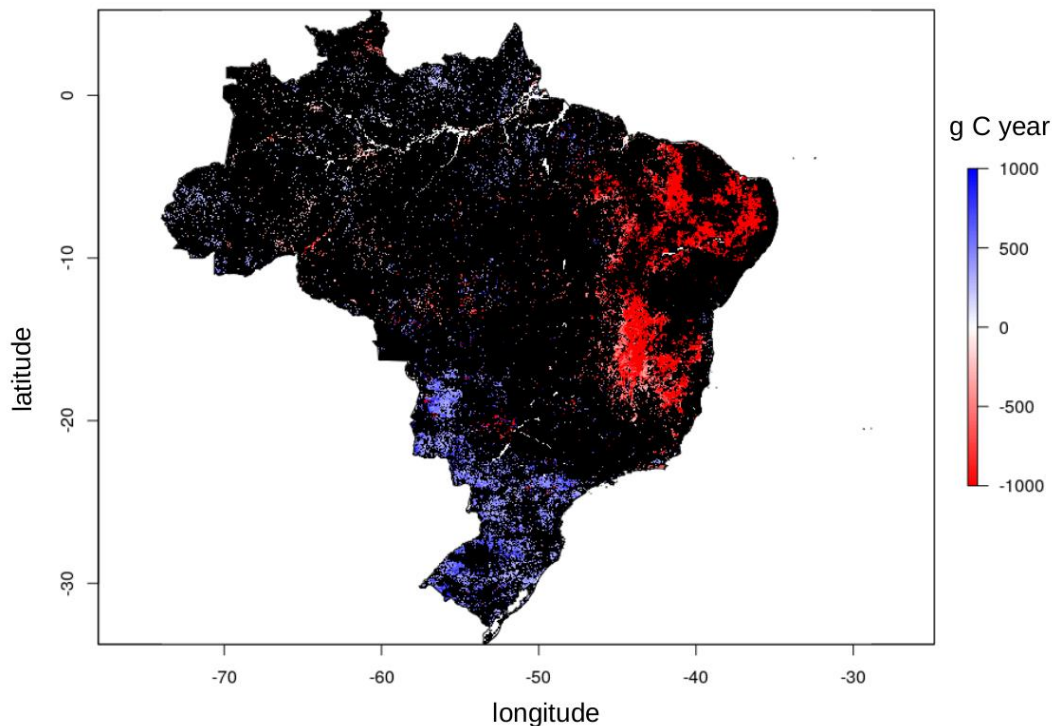
416 among and within each biome of Brazil and concentrate efforts and resources to preserve or recover the regions  
417 with greater susceptibility to lose soil moisture during periods of drought. Confirming the value of satellite soil  
418 moisture signals monitoring drought related patterns, we observe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

420

### 421 **3.4. Primary productivity trends across Brazil**

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

428



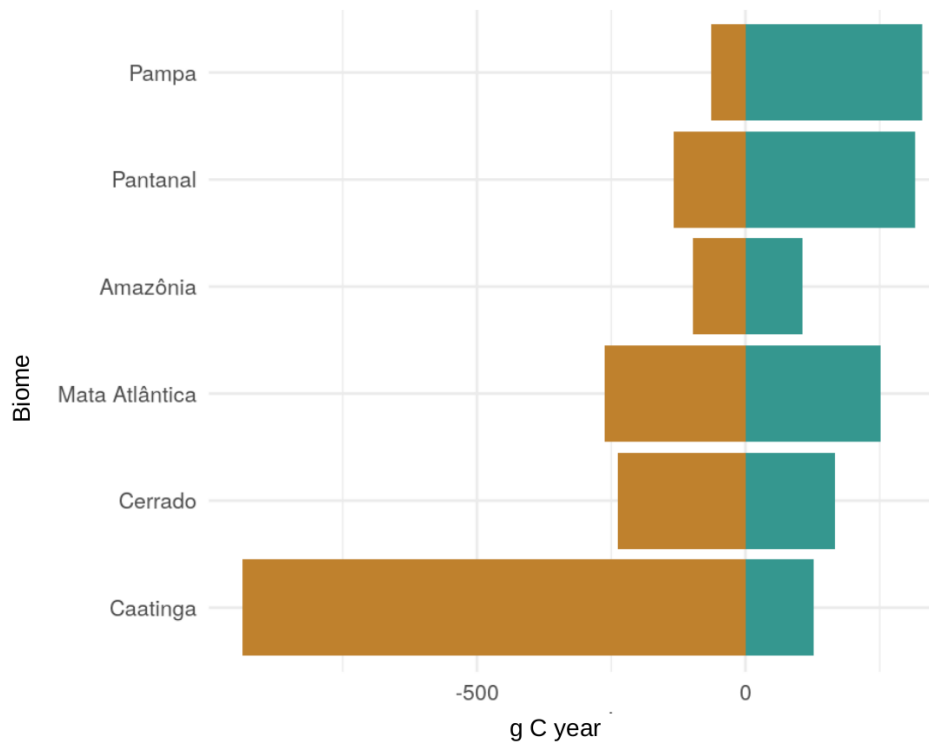
429

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

432

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





440

441

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

444

445 **4. Conclusion**

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

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

461

462

463

464 Acknowledgments

465 FR acknowledges individual scholarship support from CNPq, Science without Borders program, Brazilian  
466 Federal Government. MG and AVL acknowledge individual fellowship support from CONACyT. RV  
467 acknowledges support from the National Science Foundation CIF21 DIBBs (Grant #1724843).

468

469 References

470 Al-Kaisi, M., Rattan, L.: Conservation Agriculture Systems to Mitigate Climate Variability Effects on Soil Health,  
471 in: Al-Kaisi, M. Lowery, B. (Eds). Soil Health and Intensification of Agroecosystems. Academic Press, 79-107,  
472 doi.org/10.1016/B978-0-12-805317-1.00004-X, 2017.

473 Anderson, L. O., Ribeiro Neto, G., Cunha, A. P., Fonseca, M. G., Mendes de Moura, Y., Dalagnol, R., et al.  
474 Vulnerability of Amazonian forests to repeated droughts. *Philos. Trans. R. Soc. B.* 373:20170411. doi:  
475 10.1098/rstb.2017.0411, 2018

476 Assine, M.L., Soares, P.C.: Quaternary of the Pantanal, west-central Brazil. *Quatern Int* 114: 23–34, 2004.

477 Behling, H., Jeske-Pieruschka V., Schüler, L., Pillar, V.: Dinâmica dos campos no sul do Brasil durante o  
478 Quaternário Tardio. In Pillar VD, Müller SC, Castilhos ZMS Jacques AVA (eds). Campos Sulinos: Conservação  
479 e Uso Sustentável da Biodiversidade. Brasília: Ministério do Meio Ambiente, p. 13-25, 2009.

480 Bossio, D.: Soil Management – A Foundational Strategy for Conservation. The Nature Conservancy. Retrieved  
481 from [https://global.nature.org/content/soil-management-a-foundational-strategy-for-](https://global.nature.org/content/soil-management-a-foundational-strategy-for-conservation?src=social.nature.facebook.main)  
482 [conservation?src=social.nature.facebook.main](https://global.nature.org/content/soil-management-a-foundational-strategy-for-conservation?src=social.nature.facebook.main), 2017.

483 Bot, A., Benites, J.: The importance of soil organic matter: key to drought-resistant soil and sustained food  
484 production. Rome: Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, 2005.

485 Campos, J.N.: A gestão das águas e o desenvolvimento do Estado do Ceará: uma perspectiva histórica. T&C  
486 Amazônia, Ano IV, Num. 9, 2006.

487 CENAD - Centro Nacional de Gerenciamento de Desastres: Anuário Brasileiro de Desastres Naturais. Brasília,  
488 DF: Ministério da Integração Nacional and Secretaria Nacional de Proteção e Defesa Civil, 2014.

489 CEPED - Centro Universitário de Estudos e Pesquisas sobre Desastres: Atlas Brasileiro de Desastres Naturais  
490 1991 a 2010: volume Brasil. Universidade Federal de Santa Catarina. Florianópolis, Brazil, 2012.

491 Cirilo, J. A.: Public Water Resources Policy for the semi-arid Region. *Estudos Avançados*, 22 (63), Revista USP,  
492 Universidade de São Paulo, SP, 2008.

493 Cunha, A.P.M.A.; Zeri, M.; Deusdará Leal, K.; Costa, L.; Cuartas, L.A.; Marengo, J.A.; Tomasella, J.; Vieira,  
494 R.M.; Barbosa, A.A.; Cunningham, C.; Cal Garcia, J.V.; Broedel, E.; Alvalá, R.; Ribeiro-Neto, G.: Extreme  
495 Drought Events over Brazil from 2011 to 2019. *Atmosphere*, 10, 642, 2019.

496 Cunha, A. P. M. A., Alvalá, Regina C. S., Nobre, C. A., Carvalho, M. A.: Monitoring vegetative drought dynamics  
497 in the Brazilian Semiarid Region. *Agricultural and Forest Meteorology*. Vol 214-215, 494-505 p. 2015.

498 Cunha, A. P. M. A. ; Alvalá, R. C. dos S. ; Cuartas, L. A. ; Marengo, J. A. ; Marchezini, V. ; Leal, K. R. D. ;  
499 Tomasella, J. ; Saito, S. M. ; Zeri, M. ; Munoz, V. A. ; Ribeiro-Neto, G. ; Seluchi, M. E. ; Cunningham, C. ; Costa,  
500 L. C. O. ; Zhang, R. ; Moraes, O. L. L. . Brazilian Experience on the Development of Drought monitoring and  
501 Impact Assessment Systems. United Nations Office for Disaster Risk Reduction - UNDRR, 2019 (Contributing  
502 paper to Global Assessment Report on Disaster Risk Reduction - GAR 2019).

503 D' Souza, R., Fernandes, M.F., Barbosa, M.: Vulnerabilidades, semi-aridez e desertificação: cenários de riscos no  
504 Cariri Paraibano. *OKARA: Geografia em debate*, v.2, n.2, p. 190-202, 2008.

505 Duffy, P. B., Brando, P., Asner, G. P., and Field, C. B.: Projections of future meteorological drought and wet  
506 periods in the Amazon. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, 112(43), 13172–13177.  
507 <https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1421010112>, 2015

508 EM-DAT: The Emergency Events Database Université Catholique de Louvain (UCL) - CRED, D. Guha-Sapir.  
509 Retrieved from: [www.emdat.be](http://www.emdat.be), Brussels, Belgium, 2018.

510 Florinsky, I.V. and Pankratov, A. N.: A universal spectral analytical method for digital terrain modeling, *Int J*  
511 *Geogr Inf Sci*, 30:12, 2506-2528, Doi: 10.1080/13658816.2016.1188932, 2016.

512 Guevara, M., Olmedo, G. F., Stell, E., Yigini, Y., Aguilar Duarte, Y., Arellano Hernández, C., Arévalo, G. E.,  
513 Arroyo-Cruz, C. E., Bolivar, A., Bunning, S., Bustamante Cañas, N., Cruz-Gaistardo, C. O., Davila, F., Dell  
514 Acqua, M., Encina, A., Figueredo Tacona, H., Fontes, F., Hernández Herrera, J. A., Ibelle Navarro, A. R.,  
515 Loayza, V., Manueles, A. M., Mendoza Jara, F., Olivera, C., Osorio Hermosilla, R., Pereira, G., Prieto, P., Alexis  
516 Ramos, I., Rey Brina, J. C., Rivera, R., Rodríguez-Rodríguez, J., Roopnarine, R., Rosales Ibarra, A., Rosales  
517 Riveiro, K. A., Schulz, G. A., Spence, A., Vasques, G. M., Vargas, R. R., and Vargas, R.: No Silver Bullet for  
518 Digital Soil Mapping: Country-specific Soil Organic Carbon Estimates across Latin America, *Soil Discuss.*,  
519 <https://doi.org/10.5194/soil-2017-40>, in review, 2018.

520 Guevara, M. and Vargas, R. Downscaling satellite soil moisture using geomorphometry and machine learning.  
521 *PloS one*, 14(9), 2019.

522 Hiemstra, P. H., Pebesma, E. J., Twenhöfel, C. J. W. and Heuvelink, G. B. M.: Real-time automatic interpolation  
523 of ambient gamma dose rates from the Dutch radioactivity monitoring network. *Comput. Geosci.*, 35(8), 1711–  
524 1721, doi:10.1016/j.cageo.2008.10.011, 2009.

525 Holden, J.: *Water Resources: An Integral Approach*. Routledge. New York, NY, 2014.

526 IBGE - Instituto Brasileiro de Geografia e Estatística: Mapa de Biomas e de Vegetação. Retrieved from  
527 <https://ww2.ibge.gov.br/home/presidencia/noticias/21052004biomashtml.shtm> (Accessed August 20, 2018),  
528 2004.

529 IBGE - Instituto Brasileiro de Geografia e Estatística: Pesquisas. Retrieved from  
530 <https://cidades.ibge.gov.br/pesquisas>, 2017.

531 IBGE - Instituto Brasileiro de Geografia e Estatística: Biomas e sistema costeiro-marinho do Brasil. Rio de Janeiro,  
532 2019.

533 INPE – National Institute of Spatial Research: INPE Nordeste mapeia desmatamento da Caatinga. Retrieved from  
534 [http://www.inpe.br/noticias/noticia.php?Cod\\_Noticia=3895](http://www.inpe.br/noticias/noticia.php?Cod_Noticia=3895) (Accessed April 17, 2018), 2018.

535 Ioris, A. A. R., Irigaray, C. T., and Girard, P.: Institutional responses to climate change: opportunities and barriers  
536 for adaptation in the Pantanal and the Upper Paraguay River Basin. *Climatic Change*, 127(1), 139–151.  
537 <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10584-014-1134-z>, 2014.

538 Kouadio, Y. K., Servain, J., Machado, L. A. T., Lentini, C. A. D.: Heavy rainfall episodes in the eastern northeast  
539 Brazil linked to large-scale ocean-atmosphere conditions in the tropical Atlantic. *Adv Meteorol*,  
540 doi:<http://dx.doi.org/10.1155/2012/369567>, 2012.

541 Kuppel, S., Houspanossian, J., Noretto, M. D., Jobbágy, E. G.: What does it take to flood the Pampas?: Lessons  
542 from a decade of strong hydrological fluctuations: Floods and the water cycle in the Pampas. *Water Resour Res*,  
543 51(4), 2937–2950. <https://doi.org/10.1002/2015WR016966>, 2015.

544 Leal, I. R., Da Silva, J. M. C., Tabarelli, M., Lacher, T. E. (2005) Changing the Course of Biodiversity  
545 Conservation in the Caatinga of Northeastern Brazil. *Conserv Biol*, 19(3), 701–706.  
546 <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1523-1739.2005.00703.x>

547 Legates, D. R., Mahmood, R., Levina, D. F., DeLiberty, T. L., Quiring, S. M., Houser, C., and Nelson, F. E.: Soil  
548 moisture: A central and unifying theme in physical geography. *Prog Phys Geog*, 35(1), 65–86.  
549 <https://doi.org/10.1177/0309133310386514>, 2011.

550 Liu, Y. Y., Parinussa, R. M., Dorigo, W. A., De Jeu, R. A. M., Wagner, W., van Dijk, A. I. J. M., McCabe, M. F.  
551 and Evans, J. P.: Developing an improved soil moisture dataset by blending passive and active microwave  
552 satellite-based retrievals. *Hydrol. Earth Syst. Sci.*, 15(2), 425–436, doi:10.5194/hess-15-425-2011, 2011.

- 553 Llamas, R.M., Guevara, M., Rorabaugh, D., Taufer, M. and Vargas, R. Spatial Gap-Filling of ESA CCI Satellite-  
554 Derived Soil Moisture Based on Geostatistical Techniques and Multiple Regression. *Remote Sensing*, 12(4),  
555 p.665, 2020.
- 556 Loon, A. F. V., Gleeson, T., Clark, J., Baldassarre, G. D., Teuling, A. J., Tallaksen, L. M., ... Wanders, N.:  
557 Drought in the Anthropocene. *Nat Geosci*, 9, 3, 2016.
- 558 Magalhães, A.: Life and drought in Brazil. Drought in Brazil - Proactive Management and Policy, in: Wilhite, D.  
559 (Ed.). *Drought and Water Crisis*. CRC Press. Boca Raton, FL, pp. 1- 19, 2016.
- 560 Marengo, J., Alves, L., Alvala, R., Cunha, A., Brito, S., Moraes, O.: Climatic characteristics of the 2010-2016  
561 drought in the semiarid Northeast Brazil region. *Anais da Academia Brasileira de Ciências (Annals of the*  
562 *Brazilian Academy of Sciences)*, doi:10.1590/0001-3765201720170206, 2017.
- 563 Marengo, J., Tomasella, J., Alves, L., Soares, W., Rodriguez, D.: The drought of 2010 in the context of historical  
564 droughts in the Amazon region. *Geophys Res Lett*, Vol. 38, L12703, doi:10.1029/2011GL047436, 2010.
- 565 McColl, K. A., Alemohammad, S. H., Akbar, R., Konings, A. G., Yueh, S. and Entekhabi, D.: The global  
566 distribution and dynamics of surface soil moisture. *Nat. Geosci.*, 10(2), 100–104, doi:10.1038/ngeo2868, 2017.
- 567 Medeiros, R. M.: Análise Hidroclimático do Município de Cabaceiras, PB. *Revista Brasileira de Geografia Física*,  
568 17, 2012.
- 569 Ministry of National Integration of Brazil: Reconhecimentos Realizados e Reconhecimentos Vigentes. Retrieved  
570 from: <http://www.mi.gov.br/web/guest/reconhecimentos-realizados> (Accessed 24 March 2018), 2018.
- 571 Mishra, A. K., Singh, V. P.: A review of drought concepts. *J Hydrol*, 391(1- 2), 202-216.  
572 doi:10.1016/j.jhydrol.2010.07.012, 2010.
- 573 Moraes, C., Pereira, G., Cardozo, F.: Avaliação da precipitação e sua influência sobre as áreas inundadas no  
574 Pantanal. *Anais XVI Simpósio Brasileiro de Sensoriamento Remoto - SBSR, INPE, Foz do Iguaçu, PR, Brasil*,  
575 2013.
- 576 Morim, R. L., Kolker, E., Liu, G., Liu, X., Cheng, S.: In praise of open research measures. *Nature* (498) 170,  
577 <https://doi.org/10.1038/498170b>, 2013.
- 578 Nascimento, S., Alves, J.: Ecoclimatologia do Cariri Paraibano. *Revista Geográfica Acadêmica*, v.2, vol.3, 28-41,  
579 2008.
- 580 National Secretary of Civil Defense and Protection of Brazil: Relatório de Gestão: Exercício 2016. Ministério da  
581 Integração Nacional. Brasília-DF, Brazil, 2017.
- 582 Novick, K. A., Ficklin, D. L., Stoy, P. C., Williams, C. A., Bohrer, G., Oishi, A. C., Phillips, R. P.: The increasing  
583 importance of atmospheric demand for ecosystem water and carbon fluxes. *Nat Clim Change*, 6(11), 1023–1027.  
584 <https://doi.org/10.1038/nclimate3114>, 2016
- 585 NWS - National Weather Service: Drought: Public Fact Sheet. National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration,  
586 2008.
- 587 Overbeck, G. E., Vélez-Martin, E., Scarano, F. R., Lewinsohn, T. M., Fonseca, C. R., Meyer, S. T., Pillar, V. D.:  
588 Conservation in Brazil needs to include non-forest ecosystems. *Diversity Distrib*, 21(12), 1455–1460.  
589 <https://doi.org/10.1111/ddi.12380>, 2015.
- 590 Pontes, A. The Caatinga Biome. Percentual de água por Bacia Hidrográfica varia de 18.6% a 96.7%. Das 15 bacias  
591 apenas quatro estão em situação de segurança hídrica. Blog do Jose Carneiro,  
592 <http://joseliocarneiro.blogspot.com/2012/11/percentual-de-agua-por-bacia.html>, 2012.
- 593 Reuter, H.I. & Hengl, T.: Global Soil Information Facilities-Component Worldgrids.org. EGU General Assembly  
594 Conference Abstracts. Retrieved 9 September, 2018 from  
595 [https://www.researchgate.net/publication/233540147\\_Global\\_Soil\\_Information\\_Facilities-](https://www.researchgate.net/publication/233540147_Global_Soil_Information_Facilities-Component_Worldgrids_org)  
596 [Component\\_Worldgrids\\_org](https://www.researchgate.net/publication/233540147_Global_Soil_Information_Facilities-Component_Worldgrids_org), 2012.

- 597 Roesch, L. F., Vieira, F., Pereira, V., Schünemann, A. L., Teixeira, I., Senna, A. J., and Stefenon, V. M.: The  
598 Brazilian Pampa: A Fragile Biome. *Diversity*, 1(2), 182–198. <https://doi.org/10.3390/d1020182>, 2009.
- 599 Rossato, L., Marengo, J. A., Angelis, C. F. de, Pires, L. B. M., Mendiondo, E. M.: Impact of soil moisture over  
600 Palmer Drought Severity Index and its future projections in Brazil. *RBRH*, 22(0). <https://doi.org/10.1590/2318-0331.0117160045>, 2017.
- 602 Santos, M. G., Oliveira, M. T., Figueiredo, K. V., Falcão, H. M., Arruda, E. C. P., Almeida-Cortez, J., ...  
603 Antonino, A. C. D.: Caatinga, the Brazilian dry tropical forest: can it tolerate climate changes? *Theor Exp Plant*  
604 *Phys*, 26(1), 83–99. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s40626-014-0008-0>, 2014.
- 605 Santos, S., Silva, L. G.: Mapeamento por imagens de sensoriamento remoto evidencia o bioma Pampa brasileiro  
606 sob ameaça. *Boletim de Geografia*, 29(2). <https://doi.org/10.4025/bolgeogr.v29i2.12366>, 2012.
- 607 SECOM- The Secretariat for Social Communication of the Presidency of Brazil: Biodiversity in Brazil. Secretariat  
608 for Social Communication of the Presidency of the Federative Republic of Brazil. United Nations Conference on  
609 Biological Diversity (COP11). Hyderabad, India, 2012.
- 610 Sen, P. K.: Estimates of the Regression Coefficient Based on Kendall's Tau. *J. Am. Stat. Assoc.*, 63(324), 1379,  
611 [doi:10.2307/2285891](https://doi.org/10.2307/2285891), 1968
- 612 Sheffield, J., Wood, E. F.: Global Trends and Variability in Soil Moisture and Drought Characteristics, 1950–  
613 2000, from Observation-Driven Simulations of the Terrestrial Hydrologic Cycle. *J Climate*, 21(3), 432–458, 2008.
- 614 Siegel, A. F.: Robust Regression Using Repeated Medians. *Biometrika*, 69(1), 242, [doi:10.2307/2335877](https://doi.org/10.2307/2335877), 1982.
- 615 Smith, K.: Hydrological Hazards. *Environmental Hazards - Assessing Risk and Reducing Disaster*, Routledge,  
616 337-370. New York: NY, 2013.
- 617 The Nature Conservancy: The Atlantic Forest harbors a range of biological diversity similar to that of the Amazon.  
618 The Nature Conservancy. Retrieved from:  
619 <https://www.nature.org/ourinitiatives/regions/latinamerica/brazil/placesweprotect/atlantic-forest.xml>, 2015.
- 620 Theil, H.: A Rank-Invariant Method of Linear and Polynomial Regression Analysis, in Henri Theil's  
621 *Contributions to Economics and Econometrics*, in: Raj, B. and Koert, J. (Eds) vol. 23, pp. 345–381, Springer  
622 Netherlands, Dordrecht. Retrieved from: [http://www.springerlink.com/index/10.1007/978-94-011-2546-8\\_20](http://www.springerlink.com/index/10.1007/978-94-011-2546-8_20),  
623 1992.
- 624 Tomasella J, et al. (2018) Desertification trends in the Northeast of Brazil over the period 2000–2016, *Int J Appl*  
625 *Earth Obs Geoinformation*, 73. 197–206.
- 626 Travassos, I. S., De Souza, B. I.: Os negócios da lenha: indústria, desmatamento e desertificação no Cariri  
627 paraibano. *GEOUSP: Espaço e Tempo (Online)*, 18(2), 329. <https://doi.org/10.11606/issn.2179-0892.geousp.2014.84536>, 2014
- 629 Vargas, R. How a hurricane disturbance influences extreme CO<sub>2</sub> fluxes and variance in a tropical forest.  
630 *Environmental Research Letters*, 7(3), p.035704, 2012.
- 631 Vargas, R.; Collins, S.L.; Thomey, M.L.; Johnson, J.E.; Brown, R.F.; Natvig, D.O.; Friggens, M.T.: Precipitation  
632 variability and fire influence the temporal dynamics of soil CO<sub>2</sub> efflux in an arid grassland. *Global Change Biol*,  
633 18, 1401–1411, 2012.
- 634 Vargas, R., Sánchez-Cañete, P., Serrano-Ortiz, P., Curiel Yuste, J., Domingo, F., López-Ballesteros, A. and  
635 Oyonarte, C., 2018. Hot-moments of soil CO<sub>2</sub> efflux in a water-limited grassland. *Soil Systems*, 2(3), p.47, 2018.
- 636 Villarreal, S., Vargas, R., Yepez, E.A., Acosta, J.S., Castro, A., Escoto-Rodriguez, M., Lopez, E., Martínez-  
637 Osuna, J., Rodriguez, J.C., Smith, S.V. and Vivoni, E.R. Contrasting precipitation seasonality influences  
638 evapotranspiration dynamics in water-limited shrublands. *Journal of Geophysical Research: Biogeosciences*,  
639 121(2), pp.494-508, 2016.

640 Zeri, M., S. Alvalá, R., Carneiro, R., Cunha-Zeri, G., Costa, J., Rossato Spatafora, L., ... Marengo, J.: Tools for  
641 Communicating Agricultural Drought over the Brazilian Semiarid Using the Soil Moisture Index. *Water*, 10(10),  
642 1421. <https://doi.org/10.3390/w10101421>, 2018.

643

644