

1 **The Atlantic Forest of South America: spatiotemporal dynamics of the vegetation and**
2 **implications for conservation**

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27 **Highlights**

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- 29 ● There is 23% forest and 36% natural vegetation cover in the Atlantic Forest.
- 30 ● Between 1986 and 2020, native forest cover decreased by 2.4% and natural
31 vegetation by 3.6%.
- 32 ● Since 2005, there has been a 1 Mha increase in forest area by small fragments (1
33 ha).
- 34 ● Roads and railways subdivide the largest vegetation fragments (>500,000 ha),
35 reducing their size by 56%–94%.
- 36 ● Alarmingly, 97% of fragments are small (<50 ha) and 50–60% of the vegetation is
37 <90 m from its edges.

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40

41 **Abstract**

42

43 The Atlantic Forest in South America (AF) is one of the world's most diverse and threatened
44 biodiversity hotspots. We present a comprehensive spatiotemporal analysis of 34 years of
45 AF landscape change between 1986 and 2020. We analyzed landscape metrics of forest
46 vegetation only (FV), forest plus other natural vegetation (NV), and the sensitivity of metrics
47 to linear infrastructure. Currently, the AF remnants comprise 22.9% of FV and 36.3% of NV,
48 an extent that has decreased by 2.4% and 3.6% since 1986, respectively. Linear
49 infrastructure affected mainly the largest fragments (>500,000 ha), reducing their size by
50 56%–94%. The period before 2005 was characterized by loss of FV and NV (3% and 3.43%)
51 and decrease in the number of FV and NV fragments (8.6% and 8.1%). In contrast, after
52 2005 the vegetation stabilized, with a recovery of 1 Mha of FV (0.6%) and an increase in the
53 number of fragments, due in part to environmental policies. However, the AF is still a highly
54 fragmented domain: 97% of the vegetation fragments are small (<50 ha), with an average
55 fragment size between 16.3 and 25.5 ha; 50–60% of the vegetation is <90 m from its edges,
56 and the isolation between fragments is high (250–830 m). Protected areas and indigenous
57 territories cover only 10% of the AF vegetation, and most vegetation lies are >10 km in these
58 areas. Our work highlights the importance of legislation and analysis of landscape dynamics
59 to help future conservation and restoration programs for biodiversity in the Atlantic Forest.

60

61 **Keywords:** Landscape structure; Habitat loss; Habitat fragmentation; Edge effect; Isolation;
62 Connectivity.

63

64 **1 Introduction**

65

66 Habitat loss, fragmentation, and degradation caused by human-induced changes are
67 identified as the main drivers of biodiversity loss worldwide (Chase et al., 2020). The
68 accelerated land use conversion resulting from these changes has affected especially forest
69 ecosystems, causing a decrease in fragment size and an increase in edge effects (Fischer et
70 al., 2021; Hansen et al., 2020). In recent decades, tropical and subtropical regions have lost
71 >100 million hectares (Mha) of natural forests due to anthropogenic activities (Zalles et al.,
72 2021). Despite the large impacts, few studies presented a spatiotemporal panorama long
73 enough to describe and analyze changes in the landscape structure dynamics, especially in
74 the Americas, where one of the most diverse and threatened biodiversity hotspot in the world
75 is located: the Atlantic Forest in South America (AF) (Sloan et al., 2014).

76

77 The AF covers almost all the coast of Brazil and portions of Paraguay and Argentina,
78 the three countries with the largest deforestation areas in the world between 1982 and 2016
79 (Song et al., 2018). Before European colonization, its vegetation covered over 1.6 million
80 km² (Marques et al., 2021). Due to its high environmental heterogeneity, topographic
81 variability, and pre-historic process of formation, the AF has high species diversity and
endemism (Peres et al., 2020). With >18,000 species of plants (Flora e Funga do Brasil,

82 2023) and 3,500 species of vertebrates (Figueiredo et al., 2021; Reis et al., 2016), >65% of
83 all (and 82% of the endemic) tree species are classified as threatened (de Lima et al., 2024).
84 Additionally, the AF provides ecosystem services for >150 million people, such as water
85 provisioning, hydroelectric energy generation, food production, pollination, soil protection,
86 climate regulation, carbon storage, air quality, and cultural services (Joly et al., 2014).

87 An intensified degradation of the AF arises with the Portuguese colonization and the
88 establishment of agricultural processes such as large plantation systems (sugarcane and
89 coffee), extensive cattle production, energy demand (charcoal), fires, mining, and urban and
90 industrial growth (Solórzano et al., 2021). These landscape modifications have affected the
91 biodiversity in the AF for different taxonomic groups (Püttker et al., 2020) and ecological
92 processes, such as seed dispersal (Marjakangas et al., 2020), carbon storage (de Lima et
93 al., 2020), pollination (Varassin et al., 2021), and top-down regulation through top predators
94 (Paviolo et al., 2016). Furthermore, other processes pose risks to the landscapes within the
95 AF, such as defaunation (Galetti et al., 2021) and climate change (Vale et al., 2021). More
96 recently, however, conservation actions have reduced deforestation rates and increased
97 natural regeneration, especially the Brazilian legislation (Federal Decree No. 750/93 and
98 Atlantic Forest Law No. 11,428/2006) (Piffer et al., 2022b).

99 Despite the recent changes on the AF, few studies have analyzed the landscape
100 structure in a space-time context on large time scales. In the most comprehensive study to
101 our knowledge, Ribeiro et al. (2009) showed that only 11–16% of the forest cover remained
102 in 2005, 83% of which was concentrated on isolated fragments smaller than 50 ha, and half
103 of all forests were <100 m from their edges. Additionally, Tabarelli et al. (2010) and Ribeiro
104 et al. (2011) showed a large proportion of forests remained in high elevations (>1600 m).
105 Based on finer scale satellite data (5 m-spatial resolution), Rezende et al. (2018) estimated
106 28% of AF vegetation. In more recent studies, using data from MapBiomas (Souza et al.,
107 2020), Bicudo da Silva et al. (2020) showed that landscape composition did not change
108 substantially between 1985 and 2018, and that the loss in areas of montane vegetation was
109 smaller than at lower elevations. In addition, Rosa et al. (2021) showed that the relative
110 temporal stability of AF native forest cover (28 Mha) in recent years, was in fact due to the
111 replacement of old-growth native forests in flatter terrains by young forests in marginal
112 agricultural areas, resulting in increased isolation between forest fragments.

113 Even with these studies, there is a demand for a refined understanding of how
114 landscape structure varied over time in the AF. Currently, Brazilian initiatives such as
115 MapBiomas have been mapping land use and land cover change with wide thematic
116 coverage, high spatiotemporal resolution, and standardized classification (Souza et al.,
117 2020). This allows for the calculation and comparison of landscape metrics for large
118 territorial extensions and time periods to understand the landscape dynamics of entire

119 domains (Bicudo da Silva et al., 2020; Rosa et al., 2021). Moreover, the AF has a high
120 density of linear infrastructure (e.g. roads, railways, power transmission lines and oil and gas
121 pipelines) because of its high (and increasing) human population and industrial
122 development, and the main large-scale effect on landscape configuration is related to roads
123 and railways. These linear infrastructures severely impact natural vegetation connectivity
124 and biodiversity (e.g. through deforestation, noise disturbance, pollution, and animal roadkill)
125 (Cassimiro et al., 2023; Martinez Pardo et al., 2023), but have never been analyzed in the
126 context of the landscape structure.

127 Here, we analyzed the spatiotemporal dynamics of the landscape structure of
128 vegetation in the Atlantic Forest every five years from 1986 to 2020. To accomplish this
129 large-scale evaluation, we used a wide delimitation of the Atlantic Forest, including Brazil,
130 Argentina, and Paraguay. We accounted for forest vegetation types only (FV) and forest plus
131 other natural vegetation types (NV) and quantified, in addition, the effect of linear
132 infrastructure on the AF landscape metrics. To understand the spatiotemporal landscape
133 structure vegetation dynamics, we calculated the following landscape metrics for all FV and
134 NV fragments in the AF domain: habitat amount, fragment size, number of fragments,
135 fragment temporal dynamic, edge area, functional connectivity, isolation between fragments
136 and distance from protected areas (PA) and indigenous territories (IT). These metrics were
137 generated through an approach that allows for ecological interpretation of the influence of
138 the landscape structure on organisms by accounting for species mobility, gap-crossing
139 abilities, and sensitivity to edge effects (Riva and Nielsen, 2020).

140

141 **2 Methods**

142

143 *2.1 Study region*

144

145 AF extends from 3°S to 33°S, and from 35°W to 58°W with about 163 Mha, covering
146 large coastal and inland portions of Brazil, Argentina, and Paraguay (Marques et al., 2021)
147 (Fig. S1a). Due to its wide extent, the AF boundaries create important ecotones with other
148 vegetation domains such as Cerrado, Caatinga, Chaco and Pampa (Marques et al., 2021).
149 The vegetation from AF is a complex mosaic, mainly composed of five forest vegetation
150 types—Dense Ombrophilous, Open Ombrophilous, Mixed Ombrophilous, Semideciduous
151 Seasonal, and Deciduous Seasonal (Joly et al., 2014). Additionally, the AF also includes
152 mangroves and coastal scrub vegetation (Marques et al., 2021). There are also many
153 marginal habitats such as altitude grasslands (*campos rupestres* and *campos de altitude*),
154 oceanic islands, beaches, rocky shores, dunes, marshes, inland swamps, and mountain
155 forest (*brejos de altitude*) in the Northeast region (Scarano, 2002). To provide a broad

156 picture in ecological and evolutionary terms, we used an integrative delimitation adapted
157 from Muylaert et al. (2018), which encompasses the main proposed delimitations across
158 several associated ecosystems. This delimitation was produced by overlapping available AF
159 delimitations (Fig. S1[b-e] and Table S1) and adjusting the delimitation in the Eastern coastal
160 areas using the Brazilian territorial delimitation from IBGE (<https://www.ibge.gov.br>) for 2021
161 (IBGE, 2021). This step ensures that areas of coastal vegetation such as mangroves, dunes,
162 and wooded sandbank/sandy coastal plain vegetation (hereafter *restinga*) (Scarano, 2002)
163 are better represented. The final delimitation has a total area of 162,742,129 ha, distributed
164 within 3653 municipalities from 18 Brazilian states (93.1%), 70 municipalities of one province
165 in Argentina (1.6%), and 127 municipalities from 11 departments in Paraguay (5.3%) (Fig.
166 S1a, Fig. 3).

167 168 2.2 Mapping

169
170 We compiled land use and land cover maps for Brazil, Argentina, and Paraguay from
171 MapBiomias Brazil collection 7 (<https://mapbiomas.org>) and MapBiomias Bosque Atlántico
172 collection 2 (<https://bosqueatlantico.mapbiomas.org>) (Souza et al., 2020). These datasets
173 reconstruct annual land use and land cover information at 30-m spatial resolution from 1985
174 to 2021, based on a pixel-based random forest classifier of Landsat satellite images using
175 Google Earth Engine, with AF general accuracy of 89.8% (Souza et al., 2020). We used data
176 for every fifth year between 1986 and 2020. We excluded the years 1985 and 2021 because
177 there was no validation for the previous and subsequent year, respectively. We defined two
178 groups of vegetation classes to convert the maps into non-vegetation/vegetation (0/1) binary
179 rasters for landscape analyses. The first comprises only forest vegetation types (“Forest
180 Vegetation”, FV), which included the classes Forest Formation, Mangrove and Wooded
181 Sandbank Vegetation (*restinga*). The second group of vegetation classes considered both
182 forests and other natural vegetation types (“Natural Vegetation”, NV), including Forest
183 Formation, Mangrove, Wooded Sandbank Vegetation (*restinga*), Savanna Formation,
184 Wetland, Grassland, Salt Flat, Herbaceous Sandbank Vegetation and Other Non-Forest
185 Formations (Fig. S2a-h and Table S2).

186 We used roads and railways (for the year 2021 in Brazil and Argentina, and for 2012
187 in Paraguay) to trim their overlapping FV and NV fragments (henceforth called “trimmed” and
188 “not trimmed” scenarios) (Fig. S11). This procedure enabled us to avoid overestimating the
189 size of large fragments of vegetation and check the metrics’ sensitivity to linear infrastructure
190 (following Antongiovanni et al., 2018), since these structures might subdivide entire
191 fragments, decrease landscape connectivity, and threaten multiple taxonomic groups
192 (Cassimiro et al., 2023). Therefore, we analyzed four vegetation maps: “FV not trimmed”,

193 “FV trimmed”, “NV not trimmed”, and “NV trimmed”. Further, we analyzed the overlap
194 between FV and NV fragments with Protected Areas (PA; for the year 2022) and Indigenous
195 Territories (IT; for the year 2021) (Fig. S12). Details of road, railway, PA, and IT maps are
196 presented in the Data section in the Supplementary Material (Fig. S11 and Fig. S12). All
197 geospatial datasets were rasterized and warped to 30 m-spatial resolution (112663 × 83307
198 ≈ 9.4 billion cells and ca. 1.8 billion cells with values) using the Albers Conical Equal Area
199 Brazil (SIRGAS 2000) projection ([https://spatialreference.org/ref/sr-org/albers-conical-equal-](https://spatialreference.org/ref/sr-org/albers-conical-equal-area-brazil-sirgas-2000)
200 [area-brazil-sirgas-2000](https://spatialreference.org/ref/sr-org/albers-conical-equal-area-brazil-sirgas-2000)). International map displays were generated using Natural Earth
201 (1:10,000,000) data and QGIS 3.22 LTR (QGIS Development Team, 2023).

202

203 *2.3 Landscape metrics*

204

205 All landscape metrics were processed in GRASS GIS 8.2.1 (Neteler et al., 2012)
206 through the R 4.3.0 (R Core Team, 2023), using the *rgrass* package (Bivand, 2022),
207 implemented on the LSMetrics package (Niebuhr et al. *in prep.*). We calculated six
208 landscape metrics: number of fragments, fragment size, edge area, isolation, functional
209 connectivity, and distance from PA and IT (Figure S13 and Table S3). The number of
210 fragments and fragment size allowed us to account for the number and area of vegetation
211 fragments for different size classes (Table S3). Fragments were defined using the eight-
212 neighbor rule (Queen's case), which defines areas connected to pixels in eight directions
213 (Turner and Gardner, 2015). We also examined the area and number of fragments that
214 appeared and disappeared throughout time, and the areas of increase, reduction, and
215 stability of fragments that remained in the landscape (Table S3) (Rosa et al., 2021). Edge
216 area was calculated for different edge depths (distance from the edge of the fragment)
217 (Table S3), allowing us to assess the amount and percentage of forest area subjected to
218 edge effects (Harper and Macdonald, 2011).

219 Two metrics of functional connectivity were computed for different gap-crossing
220 distances (species' capacities to cross non-habitat) (Table S3). First, we calculated the sum
221 of the areas of all fragments closer than the gap-crossing distance, which can be interpreted
222 as the functional available area of each clump of fragments (Awade and Metzger, 2008) or
223 the amount of functional (i.e. suitable and well-connected) habitat (van Moorter et al., 2023).
224 Second, we computed the expected cluster size as the mean fragment clump size, and then
225 compared it with the highest cluster size in the entire study region. Isolation was calculated
226 using an index adapted from the “*Empty Space Function*” (Dale and Fortin, 2014), similar to
227 Ribeiro et al. (2009): we computed a Euclidean distance map from all the fragments,
228 extracted its values and calculated the mean. We repeated this process by removing
229 different-sized fragments in several steps (see Table S3 for classes of distance), and then

230 created new Euclidean distance maps to recompute the mean distance values. These
231 values represented the isolation of fragments while also providing insights about the
232 importance of the smaller fragments (*stepping stones*) (Diniz et al., 2021). We calculated the
233 amount of FV, NV, and vegetation classes (see Table S2) covered by PA and IT, and the
234 shortest Euclidean distance from each FV and NV pixel to these areas (see Table S3 for
235 classes of distance).

236

237 **3 Results**

238

239 *3.1 Forest and natural vegetation cover*

240

241 The proportion of the Atlantic Forest domain covered by forests and natural
242 vegetation decreased in the past 34 years, from 25.26% (41.1 Mha) to 22.86% (37.2 Mha)
243 for FV and from 39.86% (64.8 Mha) to 36.27% (59 Mha) for NV (Fig. 1 and Table S4). For
244 the entire period, in Brazil the percentages decreased from 22.85% (34.6 Mha) to 22.27%
245 (33.7 Mha) for FV and from 37.34% (56.5 Mha) to 35.25% (53.4 Mha) for NV, with an
246 increase in the proportion since 2005 (Fig. S3). NV was mainly composed of savannas,
247 grasslands, and wetlands, besides the forest formations. In Argentina, the loss of vegetation
248 cover was proportionately larger, from 67.36% (1.8 Mha) to 56.89% (1.52 Mha) for FV, and
249 67.96% (1.81 Mha) to 57.33% (1.53 Mha) for NV, showing an increase in the rate of
250 deforestation in the last five years (Fig. S3). In Paraguay, the loss of vegetation cover was
251 higher than in the other countries, dropping from 54.57% (4.7 Mha) to 22.85% (2 Mha) for
252 FV, and 75.26% (6.5 Mha) to 47.74% (4.1 Mha) for NV (Fig. S3), but it has remained
253 relatively stable since 2005.

254 Beyond presenting the percentages for the integrative delimitation (Fig. S1a), we also
255 present results for five other delimitations (Table S5). The results for 2020 (Fig. S1[b-f])
256 varied for FV from 23.15% (31.6 Mha) for the delimitation of Da Silva and Casteleti (2003) to
257 26.47% (29.3 Mha) for the delimitation of IBGE (2019), all trimmed by roads and railways.
258 For NV, the results ranging from 31.45% (34.8 Mha) for the IBGE (2019) trimmed to 37.04%
259 (40.9 Mha) for the delimitation of the Dinerstein et al. (2017) not trimmed (Table S5).

260

261 *3.2 Number of fragments and fragment size distribution*

262

263 Roads and railways greatly impacted the large-sized fragments, depending on the
264 year and the scenario considered. These effects were mainly reflected in vegetation
265 fragments larger than 500,000 ha, which reduced the maximum fragment size by 56%–94%
266 (Fig. 2, Fig. S4, and Table S4). By accounting for linear infrastructure, the fragment size

267 classes >500,000 ha ceased to exist for FV for all years and were heavily reduced for NV,
268 and the total area and number of fragments increased for fragments of all size classes
269 <500,000 ha for FV and NV (Fig. 2, Fig. 3, and Fig. S4). Despite this effect for large
270 fragments, our results showed no difference between the scenarios “trimmed” and “not
271 trimmed” for other landscape metrics. Therefore, we henceforth chose to demonstrate the
272 results with the linear infrastructure effect (trimmed scenario) in the main text and present
273 the additional results in the Supplementary Material.

274 For the trimmed scenario, about 97% of the fragments have an area of <50 ha, with
275 0.4% of variation over the years. However, between 1986 and 2020 the total area covered
276 by these small fragments increased from 18.8% to 22.2% for FV and from 11.7% to 13.5%
277 for NV (Fig. 2 and Fig. S4). For fragments between 50 ha and 25,000 ha, the proportion of
278 the total number of fragments is low (2.5%), varying non-linearly for FV from 2.44% in 1986
279 to 2.61% in 2020; and for NV with 2.34% in 1986 to 2.61% in 2020. However, total area
280 covered by fragments of this size class increased from 1986 to 2020, going from 40% to
281 46.1% for FV, and from 29.8% to 35.1% for NV (Fig. 2 and Fig. S4). For the last set of
282 categories of fragment area, above 25,000 ha, we found a very small proportion of number
283 of fragments (0.001%), with values falling from 0.0082% to 0.0061% for FV, and from
284 0.0127% to 0.0118% for NV, between 1986 and 2020. Total area values for FV fragments in
285 these categories fell from 41.1% to 31.9% and for NV from 58.6% to 51.3%, between 1986
286 and 2020 (Fig. 2 and Fig. S4).

287 In 1986, the largest FV fragments were located in the coast of Bahia (*South of Bahia*
288 —*cabruca region*), São Paulo, Paraná, and Santa Catarina (*Serra do Mar region*), and
289 inland areas of Paraná, Santa Catarina and Rio Grande do Sul in Brazil. For the same
290 period, there were large FV fragments in Misiones in Argentina and the eastern portion of
291 Paraguay (Fig. 3a). We observed the same for NV, with additions of huge fragments in
292 portions of Bahia, Minas Gerais, and Piauí in Brazil, mainly in the regions named *São*
293 *Francisco* and *Brejos Nordestinos* (see these region concepts in Ribeiro et al., 2009) (Fig.
294 3c). In 2020, these same regions concentrated the largest fragments of FV and NV, but with
295 a decrease in their area (Fig. 3[b-d]). The exception was Paraguay, where there was a vast
296 deforestation process, mainly for FV (Fig. 3[c-d]). Our results also show a large effect of
297 roads and railways on maximum fragment size, for the same regions (compare Fig. 3[a-d]
298 with Fig. S5[a-d]).

299 The spatial-temporal analysis revealed a turning point for the AF landscape structure
300 in 2005. For the first period (1986–2005), the number of fragments decreased by 8.6% for
301 FV and 8.1% for NV; for the second one (2005–2020), it increased to 12.2% for FV and
302 9.3% for NV (Fig. 4a). From 2010 onwards, the number of FV and NV fragments tended to
303 become more like each other (Fig. 4a). The average fragment size in the first period for FV

304 dropped by 3.6% (18.4 to 17.8 ha) and remained stable for NV, dropping 0.5% (28.2 to 28
305 ha). In the second period, the FV had a larger drop of 8.5% for FV (17.8 to 16.3 ha) and
306 8.9% for NV (28 to 25.5 ha) (Fig. 4b).

307 The temporal dynamics of the landscape from 1986 to 2005 revealed a reduction in
308 the total area of 4.87 Mha of FV (3%) and 5.56 Mha of NV (3.4%) (Table S6). However,
309 between 2005 and 2020, there was an increase of 990,000 ha of FV (0.6%) and a small
310 decrease of 240,000 ha of NV (0.15%). Considering the balance of fragments gained and
311 lost, in the first period there was a sharp drop in the number of fragments for FV (242,000)
312 and NV (227,000), but in the second period there was an increase for FV (385,000) and NV
313 (314,000). Between 1986 and 2005, the average size of lost FV and NV fragments (1.2 to
314 1.35 ha) was greater than the size of restored fragments (1.08 to 1.14 ha); between 2005
315 and 2020, this pattern reversed, with the average size of fragments lost being smaller (0.94
316 to 0.97 ha) than that of fragments gained (1.03 to 1.08 ha).

317

318 *3.3 Core and edge area*

319

320 The percentage of FV and NV located <90 m from the edge increased over time,
321 going from 51.9% to 58.8% for FV and 42.2% to 48.3% for NV, as well as the percentage
322 <240 m, from 76% to 81.7% for FV and 66.2% to 72.2% for NV (Fig. 5[a-b]). Conversely, the
323 amount of FV and NV located >500 m from any edge (“core areas”) decreased, from 12.4%
324 to 8.9% and from 19.5% to 15%, respectively. The maximum distances from fragment edges
325 for FV and NV were substantially different—around 11 km for FV and 32 km for NV—
326 showing that NV fragments have larger core areas (Fig. 5[a-b]). From 90 m onwards, there is
327 an inversion in the edge percentage over time: between 1986 and 2020, there is a gradual
328 increase in the percentage of vegetation <90 m; and a decrease in the percentage of
329 vegetation >90 m from edges, showing a threshold for central areas of fragments into edge
330 areas (Fig. 5[c-d]).

331

332 *3.4 Functional connectivity*

333

334 The average functionally connected vegetation area—i.e. the vegetation area
335 available and reachable for species—decreased for species with low-mobility in non-
336 vegetation matrices (up to 60 m of gap-crossing) for both types of vegetation (decreasing
337 9.4% for FV and 6.5% for NV between 1986 and 2020, Fig. 6[a-b]). However, for species
338 with high-mobility (gap-crossing above 120 m), the functional connectivity decreased until
339 2005 and then increased afterwards. The functional connectivity of the NV was always

340 higher in numerical terms for the same years, but they followed the same patterns of annual
341 trends and gap-crossing as the FV.

342 When we analyzed the largest functionally connected vegetation cluster, we noticed
343 that species restricted to vegetation areas (gap-crossing = 0) have relatively small
344 vegetation area available (the largest fragments correspond to 1% of FV and 4% of NV
345 cover, for all years, Fig. 6[c-d]). However, the area of the largest functionally connected
346 cluster increases rapidly as species become more mobile, with the rate of increase varying
347 largely between years and for species with different mobility. For high-mobility species (gap-
348 crossing >600 m) the curve presenting the largest functionally connected cluster reaches an
349 asymptote (representing 85% for FV and 72% for NV), and there is no increase in the largest
350 functional patches even if species can move further into non-vegetation matrices. These
351 patterns are similar for FV and NV.

352

353 3.5 Mean isolation

354

355 Small fragments were key to reducing isolation between fragments in all analyzed
356 scenarios. For example, when we disregard fragments <50 ha, the mean isolation increases
357 by 370–495% for FV and 351–444% NV (Fig. 7[a-b]). As we increase the size of fragments
358 removed, there is a gradual increase in isolation, varying to 4–22 km for FV and 1–12 km for
359 NV. Importantly, the mean isolation was reduced by 65–70% when considering that NV also
360 connects forests and other NV fragments (Fig. 7[a-b], Fig. S8[a-b]). Considering the
361 temporal trends, in 1986, the mean isolation for the entire AF region was 773 m for FV and
362 273 m for NV. The isolation reached its maximum values in 1995, after which, it slowly
363 decreased until 2015, and more recently it fell to 832 m for FV and 253 m for NV in 2020
364 (Fig. 7[a-b]).

365

366 3.6 Protected areas and indigenous territories

367

368 Protected areas (PA) covered 4.6 Mha (2.84%) and indigenous territories (IT)
369 covered 1.3 Mha (0.81%) of the AF limit. These values represent 12.4% and 7.8% of the
370 total FV and NV area for PA, and 3.6% and 2.2% of the total FV and NV area for IT in 2020.
371 However, only 3.1 Mha (8.4%) of FV and 4.1 Mha (7%) of NV cover overlaps with PA (Fig.
372 8[a-b]), and only 560,000 ha (1.5%) of FV and 760,000 ha (1.3%) of NV overlaps with IT
373 (Fig. 8[c-d]), since other types of land cover occur within PA and IT. Only 2.7% of FV and
374 2.2% of NV are within 1 km of PA and 0.8% of FV and 0.7% of NV to IT. For vegetation
375 within 10 km, there are 23.4% of FV and 19.2% of NV of PA, and 9.5% of FV and 8.7% of
376 NV of IT (Fig. 8). On the other hand, 68.2% of the FV and 73.9% of NV are over 10 km away

377 from PA, and 89% of the FV and 90.2% of NV are over 10 km away from IT, demonstrating
378 the lack of protection for these fragments of vegetation (Fig. 8).

379 The vegetation class with the largest area overlap is the Forest formation, with 3 Mha
380 (8.2%) for PA and 536,000 ha (1.5%) for IT (Fig. S10). The classes with the largest
381 proportional cover under protection are *restinga* with 133,000 ha (21.6%), Mangrove with
382 23,000 ha (11.9%), and Herbaceous sandbank vegetation with 31,000 ha (9.6%) (Fig.
383 S10b). For IT, the class with the most cover proportion is the Other non-forest formations
384 1,400 ha (8.6%), followed by *restinga* with 22,000 ha (3.6%), and Mangrove with 4,600 ha
385 (2.4%) (Fig. S10d). The Savanna formation class is the smallest cover protection with only
386 507,000 ha (3.8%) in PA (Fig. S10b) and 120,000 ha (0.9%) in IT (Fig. S10d), whose total
387 area is second in terms of total area, 13 Mha (22.5%).

388

389 **4 Discussion**

390

391 *4.1 Main results*

392

393 We present here a new panorama on the Atlantic Forest vegetation dynamics, by
394 providing a comprehensive spatial and temporal analysis, integrating different types of
395 vegetation, and considering for the first time the whole distribution of the AF, including Brazil,
396 Argentina, and Paraguay. In the 34-year period analyzed, there was a substantial decrease
397 in the vegetation cover in the AF, especially in Paraguay and Argentina and in Brazil until
398 2005. Within Brazil, and to a lesser extent in Argentina and Paraguay, we found a turning
399 point for the Atlantic Forest around 2005. The period before 2005 was characterized by
400 deforestation and decrease in the number of forest fragments; the period after 2005 was
401 instead characterized by a larger stability in vegetation cover and an increase in the number
402 of fragments. This result is linked, at least in part, to the environmental legislation in these
403 countries (see Fig. 4 and next section for legislation details). Yet, there were marked
404 changes in the spatiotemporal dynamics of the landscape structure for the entire AF, with an
405 overall replacement of larger forest and vegetation areas by smaller fragments and
406 vegetation areas increasingly subject to edge effects. Even with local and temporal changes,
407 and although legislation, natural regeneration and small restoration actions appear to have
408 positively affected them, the overall picture is still of a highly fragmented domain: a few
409 vegetation fragments are very large, but >97% of the fragments are smaller than 50 ha, the
410 mean fragment size decreased for both FV and NV, and more than half of the vegetation is
411 closer than 90 m to edges with other land cover types.

412 Even though forest fragment sizes have decreased, we showed that the small
413 fragments might still be very important for decreasing the isolation between forests and

414 increasing the functional connectivity for medium- to high-mobile organisms. In this regard,
415 we showed that non-forest natural vegetation is very important to increase connectivity
416 between forests and between other non-forest natural vegetation fragments for organisms
417 that can use them as suitable habitat or to move and reach suitable habitats. In contrast,
418 species with low-mobility which are limited to forest fragments have seen a decrease in the
419 available habitat area over time. We also showed that linear infrastructure such as roads and
420 railways have a critical effect in fragmenting forests and natural vegetation, especially in the
421 larger fragments. Importantly, there is only a small amount of forest and natural vegetation
422 within the protected areas and indigenous territories, and most of the vegetation (70% for FV
423 and 90% for NV) lies beyond 10 km from these areas. Below, we revisit these results to put
424 them into context, and we explore key implications of our findings.

425

426 *4.2 Forest and natural vegetation cover*

427

428 Determining how much of the AF vegetation cover is left has always been a complex
429 task. While we found 22.86% for FV and 36.27% for NV using an integrative AF delimitation
430 in 2020, for the same year, the vegetation cover values varied from 23.15% to 37.04% for
431 different delimitations and vegetation types. These values are smaller than the vegetation
432 cover estimated in the Caatinga (50% in 2009; Antongiovanni et al., 2018), the Cerrado
433 (54% in 2019; Pompeu et al., 2024) and the Brazilian Amazon (80% in 2021; Guedes Pinto
434 et al., 2023). However, over the years, several studies have shown values ranging from 8%
435 to 28% for different years for the AF (e.g. Bicudo da Silva et al., 2020; Da Silva and
436 Casteleti, 2003; Rezende et al., 2018; Ribeiro et al., 2009). These estimates vary according
437 to mapping resolution, size of vegetation fragments, types of vegetation (forest or non-
438 forest), vegetation quality (primary or secondary forest), and AF delimitation (Ribeiro et al.,
439 2009). We highlight that the use of MapBiomas mapping version 7, with image standards
440 and classification methods, made the comparison of annual maps possible due to the
441 decrease in random error between them (Souza et al., 2020). However, there are limitations
442 associated with the methods used for mapping that are intrinsic from the database that we
443 used. As an example, despite having a precise scale, MapBiomas does not clearly define
444 vegetation successional stages and the quality of the forest remnants.

445 The vegetation cover showed a considerable decrease over time for Paraguay and
446 Argentina, and a less pronounced decrease for Brazil, between 1986 and 2005. After 2005,
447 the percentage of vegetation stabilized or increased, mainly in Brazil and for FV. These
448 effects can at least partially be related to nature conservation laws (see Fig. 4 for some
449 examples), which were initiated almost in the same period in Brazil (Atlantic Forest Law in
450 2006, and Native Vegetation Protection Law in 2012), Argentina (Forest Law in 2007), and

451 Paraguay (The Zero Deforestation Law in 2004) (Silva et al., 2017; Dam et al., 2019). In
452 Brazil, the AF Law has a clear effect on forest regeneration, as it reduces deforestation in
453 advanced successional stages and requires that, when it occurs, it must be compensated,
454 causing forests to emerge in secondary stages of regeneration (Piffer et al., 2022b).
455 Besides, in Brazil, other specific conservation laws were established from 1998 on (Fauna
456 Protection in 1988, and National System of Conservation Units in 2000), and more recently,
457 the 2012 legislation Natural Vegetation Protection National Law (Law 12.651/2012 – known
458 as Forest Code – FC) created the Rural Environmental Registry [Cadastro Ambiental Rural
459 (CAR)], which requires environmental information from private rural properties. CAR can be
460 a fundamental tool to stimulate and regulate natural regeneration and direct vegetation
461 restoration efforts through legal reserves (LR; in the Atlantic Forest it represents 20% of
462 private land) and permanent preservation areas (PPA; riparian vegetation along stream and
463 springs) (Brock et al., 2021; da Silva et al., 2023). Furthermore, since 2009, the Pact for the
464 Restoration of the Atlantic Forest (AFPR; <https://pactomataatlantica.org.br>) has been
465 encouraging restoration with the goal to restore 15 Mha by 2050 (Melo et al., 2013), with
466 about 700,000 ha forest restored between 2011 and 2015 (Crouzeilles et al., 2019). Yet,
467 Bicudo da Silva et al. (2023) showed that between 2001 and 2015 there was a process of
468 forest transition in the AF, from forest cover loss to forest recovery (Rudel et al., 2005), due
469 to the stagnation of agricultural activities and subsequent migration of small farmers to urban
470 areas, the emergence of non-agricultural rural activities and the decrease in precipitation,
471 which, together, led to the abandonment of land and favored natural regeneration.

472 In Argentina, the percentage of forest has been reduced linearly since the 1990s,
473 with the combined effect of the advance of small-scale agriculture associated with population
474 growth and road construction in some areas, and the increase of monospecific forest
475 plantations incentivized by government subsidies and the participation of large timber
476 companies (Izquierdo et al., 2008). The forest loss rate was lower during 2005–2015,
477 potentially because of the effect of the certified wood market in this region and the approval
478 of the National Forest Law and the implementation of the National Fund for the Enrichment
479 and Conservation of Native Forests (Fundación Vida Silvestre Argentina & WWF, 2017).
480 However, forest loss increased in the last period (2015–2020) most likely due to higher
481 levels of economic growth and the impact of long-term policies on the expansion of
482 agriculture and cattle raising in Misiones (Mohebalian et al., 2022). Paraguay showed the
483 highest rates of deforestation of the entire Atlantic Forest between 1986 and 2005 due to the
484 massive expansion of agriculture. However, since the creation of the Zero Deforestation Law
485 and the implementation of associated mechanisms, there has been a relative stabilization of
486 vegetation loss (Da Ponte et al., 2017; Fundación Vida Silvestre Argentina & WWF, 2017).

487 While legislation and conservation instruments to protect forests and natural
488 vegetation are essential to reduce habitat destruction, stimulate restoration and natural
489 regeneration, they come with heavy social consequences, entering in conflicts with the rural
490 life and work of peasants and traditional and indigenous groups that depend directly on the
491 forests (Sparovek et al., 2012; Gerhardt, 2016). Furthermore, a large part of the land in the
492 AF is currently private or public land already subject to protection, which poses yet another
493 challenge for future protection (Sparovek et al., 2019). Future research should investigate
494 how spatiotemporal changes in landscape structure are linked to land tenure distribution,
495 population migration to cities, and the social and cultural consequences of these processes.
496 Melo et al. (2023) showed that restoration opportunities in the Caatinga should account for
497 land concentration and socioeconomic contexts if one wants to avoid reproducing
498 inequalities, what is also critical in the AF and should be a priority for future research and
499 policies.

500

501 *4.3 Number of fragments and fragment size distribution*

502

503 Our analyses demonstrated that between 2005 and 2020 there was an increase in
504 the amount, number of fragments, and higher mean fragment gain for forest vegetation, with
505 new fragments appearing in previously deforested areas. This change illustrates in time a
506 large-scale process which includes both natural forest regeneration (Crouzeilles et al., 2020)
507 and forest transitions (Bicudo da Silva et al., 2023) related to other processes, and confirms
508 the results found by Rosa et al. (2021), Piffer et al. (2022b) and Dias et al. (2023), who
509 highlighted the replacement of older vegetation by younger vegetation in the AF. This
510 replacement can lead to the loss of habitat quality in vegetation fragments, altering
511 landscape features and affecting vital ecological processes and ecosystem functioning, such
512 as carbon cycling (Piffer et al., 2022a) and vegetation structure (Faria et al., 2023).

513 We also found a large effect of roads and railways on fragment size, more
514 pronounced in FV than in NV due to greater density of these linear infrastructures in large
515 forest fragments located in Serra do Mar and southern Bahia in Brazil, and in the region of
516 Misiones in Argentina. Roads and railways have a large impact on biodiversity, for example
517 by modifying animal movement patterns, reducing connectivity between populations, and
518 causing roadkills, which might lead to population declines and local extinctions (Cassimiro et
519 al., 2023; Martinez Pardo et al., 2023). For example, almost 38 thousand mammal roadkills
520 were estimated in 10 years in the state of São Paulo (which is covered almost entirely by
521 Atlantic Forest vegetation), and an extrapolation of the analysis predicted 40 thousand
522 roadkills per year only in the state of São Paulo (Abra et al., 2021).

523 When analyzing the distribution of fragment sizes, we noticed a reduction in the
524 number and area of the fragments >500,000 ha of FV and NV between 1986 and 2020 and
525 a clear increase in small fragments <50 ha. These results show a worrying pattern, much
526 worse than Ribeiro et al. (2009), and can be explained by the increase in mapping quality,
527 with MapBiomass standardized approaches for mapping in detail vegetation fragments
528 (including fragments <3 ha) that are considered secondary vegetation (Rosa et al., 2021).
529 The increase in the proportion of smaller fragments has a direct impact on the maintenance
530 of species diversity and population size of multiple taxonomic groups. Several studies have
531 estimated fragment size and habitat amount thresholds for assemblage diversity in the AF,
532 such as terrestrial mammals (Magioli et al., 2015), bats (Muylaert et al., 2016), birds
533 (Barbosa et al., 2017), and multiple other groups (Banks-Leite et al., 2014).

534 However, since 97% of the fragments are <50 ha in the AF, the overall scenario is
535 already well under the thresholds that are known to affect biodiversity persistence and
536 composition (Banks-Leite et al., 2014; Magioli et al., 2015). In this context, approaches for
537 conservation could be focused on single large *and* several small (SLASS) fragments
538 (Szangolies et al., 2022). The SLASS approach can be more beneficial for conserving the
539 AF biodiversity than choosing a unique type of conservation approach (SLOSS debate -
540 single large or several small, see Fahrig et al. 2022). The current scenario is composed by a
541 continuum of forest fragments within protected areas in the mountain range (Serra do Mar
542 and Serra da Mantiqueira regions) and small remnants in the countryside mostly composed
543 by riparian forest and legal reserves protected by law, added to hundreds of Private
544 Reserves of Natural Heritage (RPPNs) to locally protecting endangered species (Rambaldi
545 et al., 2005). Drastically changes in the vegetation configuration of the AF nowadays are
546 highly unlikely since agricultural land, pasture and urban areas are already established in
547 flatter terrains (Rosa et al., 2021). Therefore, the SLASS strategy could help to ensure that
548 the vegetation in steeper terrain remains protected and increase the protection of riparian
549 forests in flatter terrain.

550

551 *4.4 Core and edge area*

552

553 Our results showed that around 50% of the vegetation is up to 90 m, 75% of the
554 vegetation is up to 240 m, and almost 90% of the vegetation is up to 500 m from the nearest
555 edge (similar to Haddad et al. 2015), and may therefore be subjected to edge effects (de la
556 Sancha et al., 2023; Parra-Sanchez and Banks-Leite, 2020; but see Harper et al., 2023).
557 Over time, there was an increase in vegetation located closer than 90 m from the edges,
558 revealing a possible edge effect threshold in the AF. Below this value, there is an
559 intensification of edge effects, and above it, there is a decrease in the amount of vegetation

560 core. This threshold is probably associated with the massive number and small average size
561 of fragments we detected. Importantly, small fragments are more subject to edge effects due
562 to their size and shape (Fahrig, 2003). The edge effect changes the AF landscape features
563 such as microclimate and carbon cycle (Magnago et al., 2015, 2017) depending on the
564 fragment shape (Banks-Leite et al., 2013) and the matrix effect (Adorno et al., 2021). In that
565 regard, numerous studies have demonstrated the negative effects of edge changes for
566 epiphyte plants, small mammalian, and birds in the AF (de la Sancha et al., 2023; Morante-
567 Filho et al., 2018; Parra-Sanchez and Banks-Leite, 2020). Despite this, Harper et al. (2023)
568 showed that the edge effect for plant species did not exceed 20 m but recognizes its
569 importance for conservation planning. Added to that, Pivello et al. (2021) and dos Santos et
570 al. (2019) identified that AF is highly fire-sensitive, which changes the conditions of the
571 edges and hinder natural regeneration. Some measures such as forested or agroforestry
572 matrices and strips of trees being planted, forming a buffer around the existing fragments,
573 can reduce the edge effect (Gama-Rodrigues et al., 2021; Tavares et al., 2019).

574

575 *4.5 Functional connectivity and mean isolation*

576

577 Functional connectivity and isolation had co-varying response patterns over time,
578 with the lowest functional connectivity and highest isolation among fragments between 1990
579 and 2000, and from 2005 onwards there were clear signs of improvement, with increase of
580 functional and decrease of isolation between vegetation fragments. The vegetation amount
581 has not changed noticeably since 2005, and this improvement was due to the appearance of
582 new fragments that increased the connectivity of the landscape, serving as stepping stones
583 for mobile species. In this way, small fragments (<50 ha, which represents 97% of AF
584 remnants) play a fundamental role in keeping large fragments connected, mainly for species
585 that can cross non-vegetation matrices (Hatfield et al., 2018b; Diniz et al., 2021).

586 Additionally, we have shown here that non-forest natural vegetation plays a key role in
587 decreasing the isolation between forest fragments. Although there may be fewer forest-
588 specialist species that use other types of vegetation, other natural vegetation types can be
589 critical to maintaining AF connectivity for multiple species groups and ecological processes
590 (Lyra-Jorge et al., 2010).

591 Our approach to evaluate connectivity and isolation focus on landscape structure,
592 and when applied should be complemented by assessments of the permeability of the matrix
593 between vegetation fragments (Hatfield et al., 2018a). Practices such as agroecology and
594 forestry can increase the connectivity by increasing the permeability of the matrix for some
595 groups of organisms (Tubenclak et al., 2021). Furthermore, the AFPR and the CAR might
596 be a great opportunity for land use planning to create and improve ecological corridors (da

597 Silva et al., 2023; Melo et al., 2013; Pinto et al., 2014). Finally, although connectivity and
598 isolation were not sensitive to roads and railways, this lack of sensitivity appear due to short-
599 distance divisions into FV or NV fragments, and to the fact that the additional cost that these
600 linear infrastructures pose to animal movement and survival (Martinez Pardo et al., 2023)
601 was not considered. Thus, management measures such as fauna passages might be
602 fundamental for improving landscape permeability to maintain wildlife gene flow and reduce
603 roadkill in landscapes highly fragmented by linear infrastructure such as the AF (Cassimiro
604 et al., 2023; Teixeira et al., 2017, 2022).

605

606 *4.6 Protected areas and indigenous territories*

607

608 Alarmingly, we show that the proportion of total vegetation area formally protected by
609 PAs (9.9% for FV and 8.3% for NV) is far below the targets of the post-2020 Global
610 Biodiversity Framework (30% land surface by 2030, Jung et al., 2021). We highlight that
611 indigenous territories, despite not being PA, have proven to be fundamental for forest
612 restoration in the AF (Benzeev et al., 2023), but they only comprise 1.5% of FV and 1.3% of
613 NV total area. Moreover, we found that most of the vegetation is located >10 km distant from
614 PA and IT (70% for FV and 90% for NV). Our findings are consistent but more alarming than
615 those found by Ribeiro et al. (2009) and Rezende et al. (2018). The Forest Formation class
616 has the greatest overlap with PAs (8.2%) and IT (1.5%), given that forests are the main
617 target for the creation of PAs and IT, and is the main class in the composition of the AF
618 (62.1%). In addition, *restinga* and mangroves had a high overlap with PA and TI (40%), due
619 to the high density of these protective measures on the Brazilian coast, especially in Serra
620 do Mar. However, despite this high proportion of protection, these ecosystems have faced
621 many threats in recent decades, which can affect several functions of ecosystems and local
622 populations (Diniz et al., 2019). Savanna formation was critical to ensuring overall
623 connectivity in the AF, but this class has the lowest proportion in PA and TI (4.7%) despite
624 representing 23% of the amount of vegetation, possibly because this vegetation formation is
625 not formally protected by specific AF protection laws. Since deforestation outside PA and IT
626 has been lower than in private rural areas (da Silva et al., 2023), these areas are essential to
627 ensure and promote biodiversity conservation (Avigliano et al., 2019; Benzeev et al., 2023).
628 Therefore, it is necessary to create new protection instruments that focus on multiple types
629 of natural vegetation, as well as strengthen the connection network between existing ones,
630 and that account for the surroundings of forested areas to promote the regeneration and
631 restoration of vegetation.

632

633 4.7 Conservation implications and applications

634

635 The Atlantic Forest presented a panorama of greater effect of vegetation loss and
636 fragmentation than other biomes such as the Caatinga (Antongiovanni et al., 2018), the
637 Cerrado (Pompeu et al., 2024) and the Amazon (Lapola et al., 2023). Despite this, due to
638 their long history of occupation and degradation, valuable conservation lessons can be
639 applied to these biomes, mainly in relation to the abundance of restoration studies carried
640 out in the Atlantic Forest (Guerra et al., 2020). Guedes Pinto et al. (2023) highlight
641 governance lessons from the Atlantic Forest that can be applied in the Brazilian Amazon: (i)
642 to create large protected areas for conserved areas in public lands, (ii) to create protected
643 areas in the hotspots of deforestation in private lands [Reserves of Natural Heritage
644 (RPPN)], (iii) to create a specific legislation for the biome (such as AF Law) in addition to the
645 FC, (iv) forest restoration of LR and PPA in accordance with the FC, and (v) ensure natural
646 regeneration and stimulate it through mechanisms such as payment for ecosystem services.
647 The authors also point out that the main lesson is regarding the urgency of these measures,
648 given the context of climate crisis and ecosystem services, the formulation and
649 implementation of these measures must be adopted urgently in the Amazon, unlike the
650 Atlantic Forest. Similar measures can be adapted and applied to other biomes, such as
651 Cerrado and Caatinga, which despite having less vegetation remnants than Amazon, can
652 benefit from conservation lessons learned and implemented in the Atlantic Forest.

653 Complementary studies to this one should focus on prioritizing the restoration of the
654 Atlantic Forest, such as that developed by Tambosi et al. (2014) in the Atlantic Forest and by
655 Antongiovanni et al. (2022) in the Caatinga, for long-term planning of restoration and
656 regeneration programs, while also accounting for land and social inequality (Melo et al.
657 2023). Additionally, studies must still focus on how compliance with the FC (restoration of RL
658 and APP in private lands) can be beneficial for the structure of the landscape, such as that
659 carried out by De Marco et al. (2023) in the Cerrado. Finally, there is an urgent need for
660 studies to evaluate the quality of fragments in terms of successional stages, such as that
661 carried out by Dias et al. (2023). Piffer et al. (2022b) point out that fragments regenerated
662 <10 years ago are in the initial stages of regeneration and have limited protection from the
663 AF Law and are mostly deforested, preventing the regeneration process and its benefits for
664 biodiversity. Thus, Guedes Pinto et al. (2023) propose a review of the Atlantic Forest Law to
665 become a Zero deforestation to prevent loss of forest in initial successional stages.
666 Moreover, expansion of payment programs for ecosystem services (e.g. Conexão Mata
667 Atlântica; <https://conexaomataatlantica.mctic.gov.br/cma/portal>), can be favorable for forest
668 recovery (Ruggiero et al., 2019).

669

670 **5 Conclusion**

671

672 To our knowledge, this is the first study that analyzed the spatiotemporal dynamics of
673 the entire Atlantic Forest landscape structure through multiple landscape metrics,
674 considering a broad tri-national delimitation, not only for forest vegetation but also for other
675 natural vegetation types, and including the effect of linear structure. This study adds to other
676 work carried out in the Caatinga (Antongiovanni et al., 2018), the Cerrado (Pompeu et al.,
677 2024) and the Brazilian Amazon (Guedes Pinto et al., 2023) to understand the dynamics of
678 the landscape structure of these biomes through landscape metrics and propose
679 governance lessons for conservation. Our findings allow a detailed understanding of the
680 habitat fragmentation process in the AF in the last three and a half decades. The number of
681 forest fragments has increased, which comes accompanied by a modest but essential
682 increment of vegetation, mainly from natural regeneration. Besides that, natural vegetation
683 fragments—fundamental to promoting connectivity—are far from being under sufficient
684 protection. Overall, the fragmentation scenarios in Argentina, Brazil, and Paraguay are
685 equally worrying (97% of fragments are very small and highly isolated, and more than half
686 may be under edge effect). We highlight the substantial effect of roads and railways on
687 breaking large FV fragments apart, likely disrupting the functional connectivity of several
688 ecological processes. These findings reinforce the need for conservation and restoration
689 actions considering linear infrastructure, and investing in implementing conservation plans
690 for large fragments. Beyond that, promoting the connectivity of small fragments, managing
691 the matrix to minimize edge effects and improve connectivity, and leading restoration actions
692 in key areas, such as large and isolated fragments, are all measures of great importance.
693 Added to potential coordinated actions, we highlight the importance of planning and building
694 fauna passages to improve landscape connectivity and reduce wildlife roadkill. Finally, the
695 recent increase in vegetation observed in the Atlantic Forest after 2005 appears to be
696 related to two concomitant processes: mostly due to natural regeneration linked to the 2005
697 protection legislation (AF Law) and a long process of forest transition (abandonment of
698 agricultural land), and to a lesser extent due to restoration associated with local initiatives
699 such as the Pact for the Restoration of the Atlantic Forest started in 2009 and the
700 implementation of the CAR began in 2012 by the FC. The continuity and expansion of these
701 measures are essential to guarantee the continuity of this vegetation increase process in the
702 future, given the intensified effects of climate change taking place and the further expansion
703 of urban and agricultural areas.

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722

723 **CRedit authorship contribution statement**

724

725 **Maurício Humberto Vancine**: Conceptualization, Data curation, Formal analysis,
726 Investigation, Methodology, Software, Visualization, Writing – original draft, Writing – review
727 & editing, Funding acquisition, Project administration, Validation. **Renata L. Muylaert**:
728 Conceptualization, Writing – review & editing, Supervision. **Bernardo Brandão Niebuhr**:
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732 & editing. **Carlos De Angelo**: Writing – review & editing. Marcos Reis Rosa: Writing – review
733 & editing. **Carlos Henrique Grohmann**: Methodology, Software, Writing – review & editing.
734 **Milton Cezar Ribeiro**: Conceptualization, Funding acquisition, Investigation, Methodology,
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752

753 **Data availability**

754

755 Code for reproducing the analysis is provided in GitHub ([https://github.com/LEEClab/ms-](https://github.com/LEEClab/ms-atlantic-forest-spatiotemporal-dynamics)
756 [atlantic-forest-spatiotemporal-dynamics](https://github.com/LEEClab/ms-atlantic-forest-spatiotemporal-dynamics)). Input data and code are provided in Open Science
757 Files (OSF) (<https://doi.org/10.17605/OSF.IO/RFWBZ>). A comprehensive set of maps
758 presenting the detailed methods and maps for the landscape metrics presented here is
759 found in Vancine et al. (2023) and in Open Science Files (OSF)
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761

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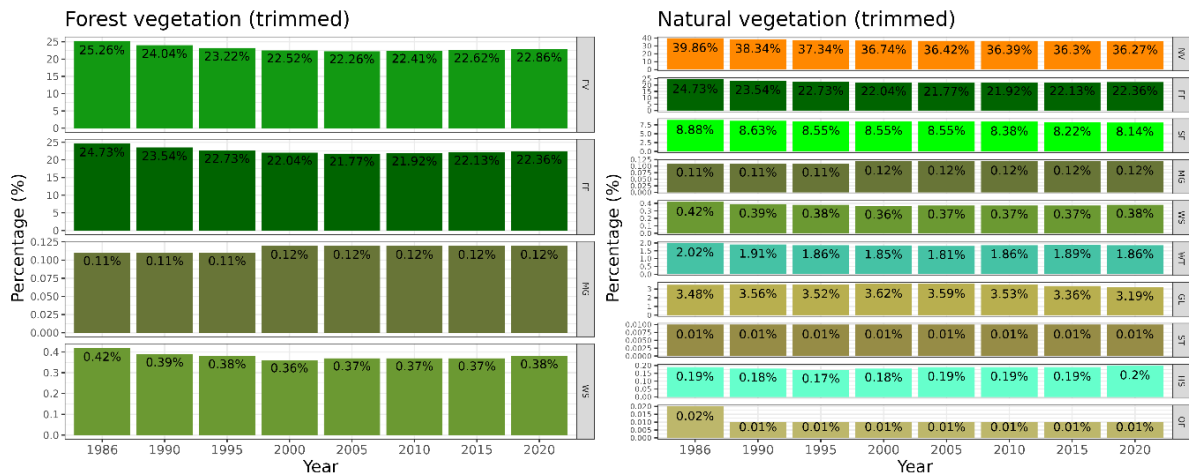
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1182 **Figures**

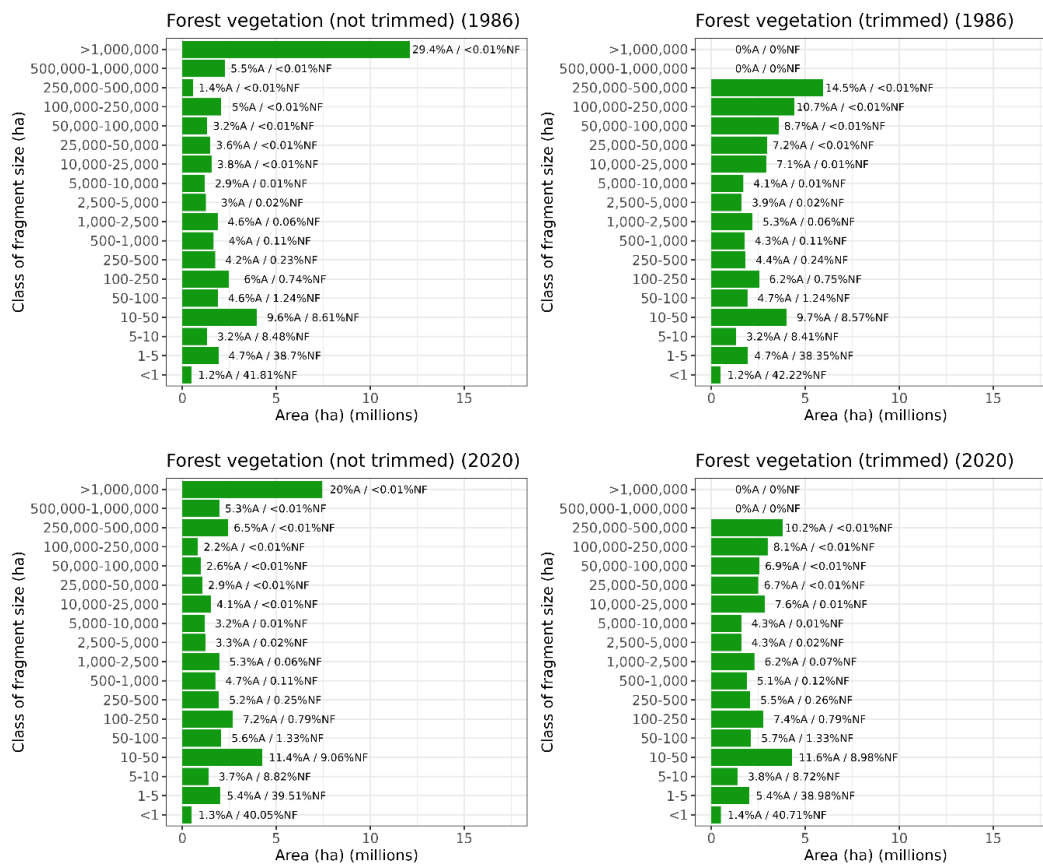
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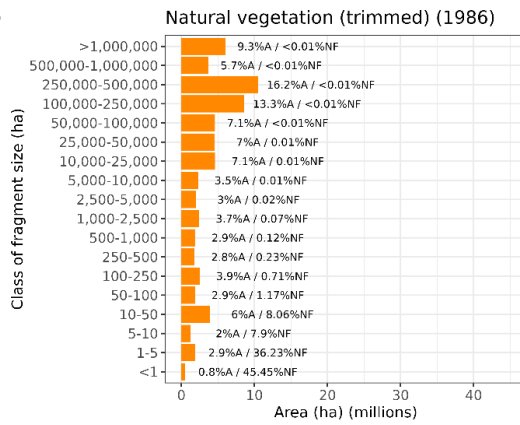
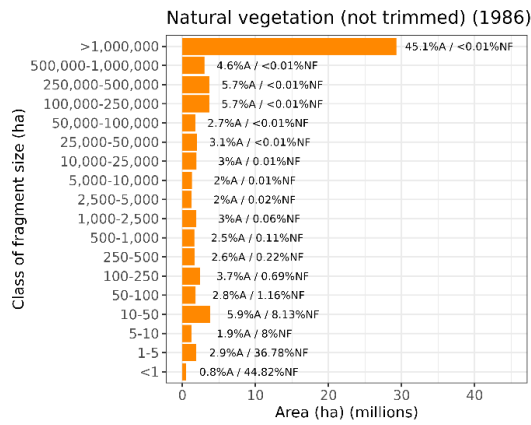
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1185 **Figure 1.** Vegetation cover for Forest Vegetation (FV) and Natural Vegetation (NV) through
 1186 the years for the whole Atlantic Forest limit, trimmed by roads and railways. Abbreviations:
 1187 Forest Formation (FF), Mangrove (MG), Wooded Sandbank Vegetation (*restinga*) (WS),
 1188 Savanna Formation (SF), Wetland (WT), Grassland (GL), Salt Flat (ST), Herbaceous
 1189 Sandbank Vegetation (HS), Other Non-Forest Formations (OF).

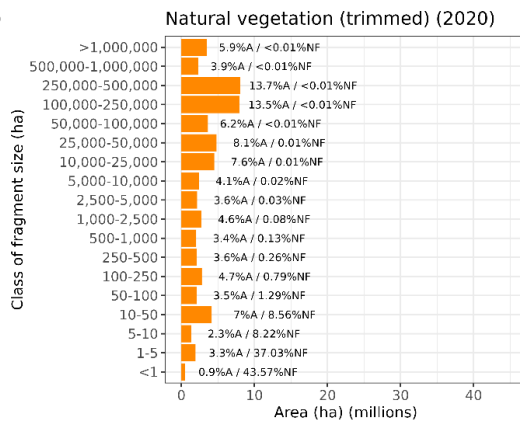
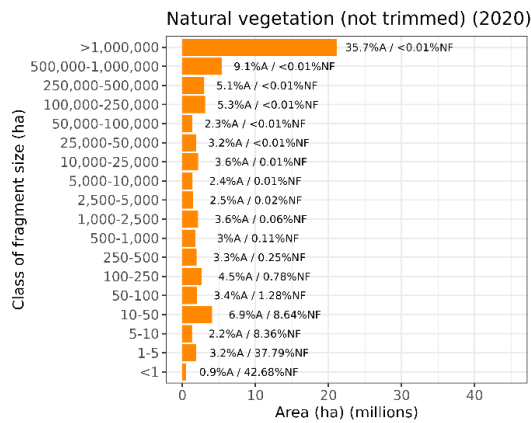
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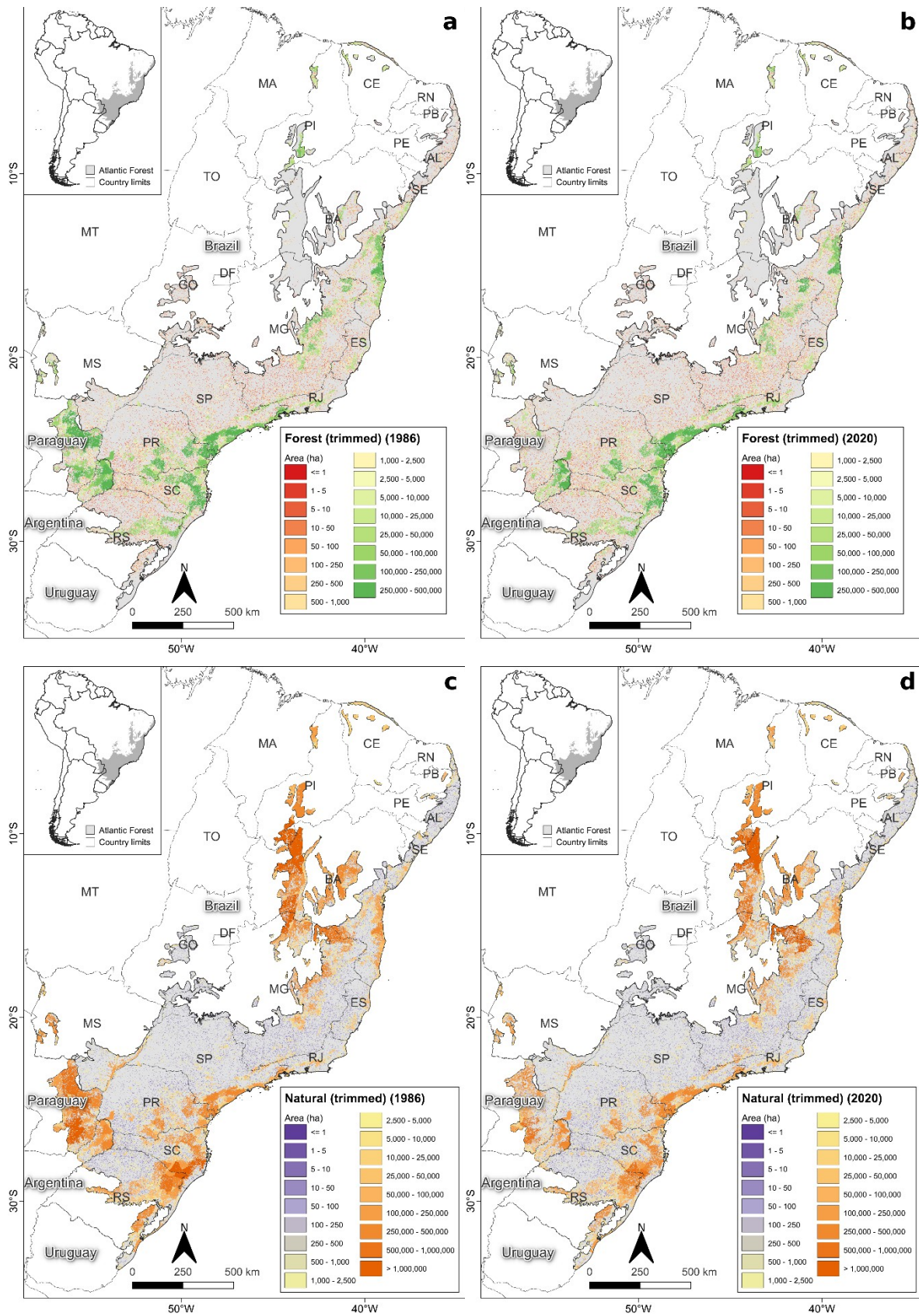
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1195 **Figure 2.** Distribution of Forest Vegetation (FV) and Natural Vegetation (NV) fragment sizes
 1196 across the AF (1986 and 2020), trimmed and not trimmed by linear infrastructure. %A:
 1197 percentage of the total area; %NF: percentage of the number of fragments. See Fig. 3S for
 1198 other years (1990–2015). Please note the difference scales in the x-axis between the FV
 1199 and NV plots.

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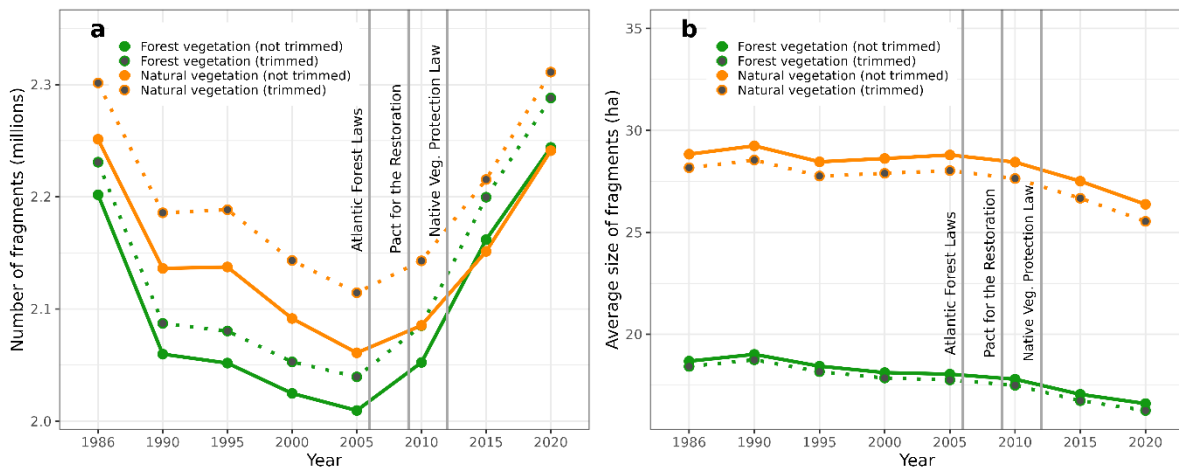
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Figure 3. Fragment area for Forest Vegetation (FV) in 1986 (a) and 2020 (b), and for Natural Vegetation (NV) in 1986 (c) and 2020 (d), trimmed by roads and railways for the entire AF.

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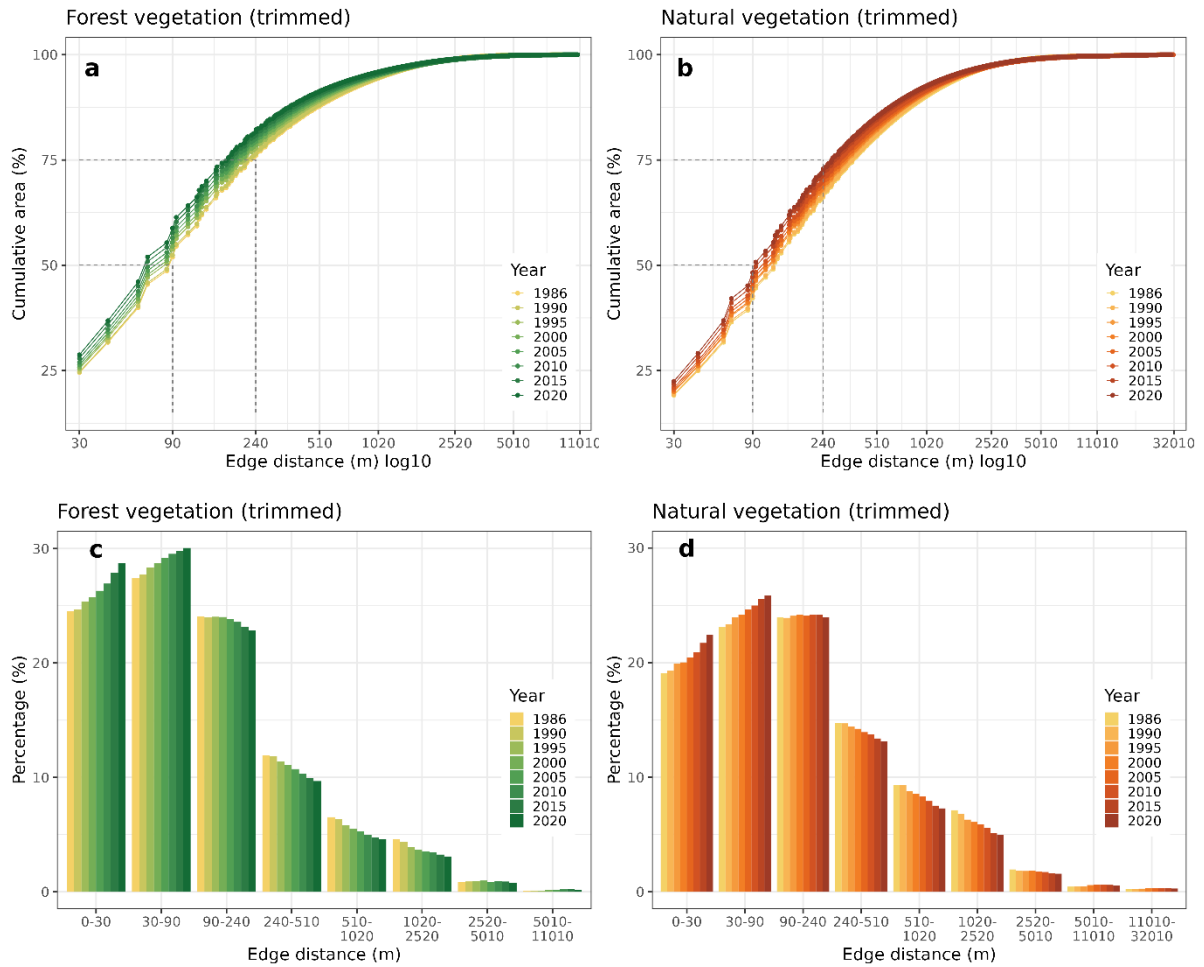
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1210 **Figure 4.** Distribution of (a) number of fragments and (b) average fragment sizes of Forest
1211 Vegetation (FV) and Natural Vegetation (NV) across the AF from 1986 to 2020, trimmed and
1212 not trimmed by roads and railways. The gray lines represent reference years when important
1213 legislation and restoration programs were created in Brazil (See Discussion for details).

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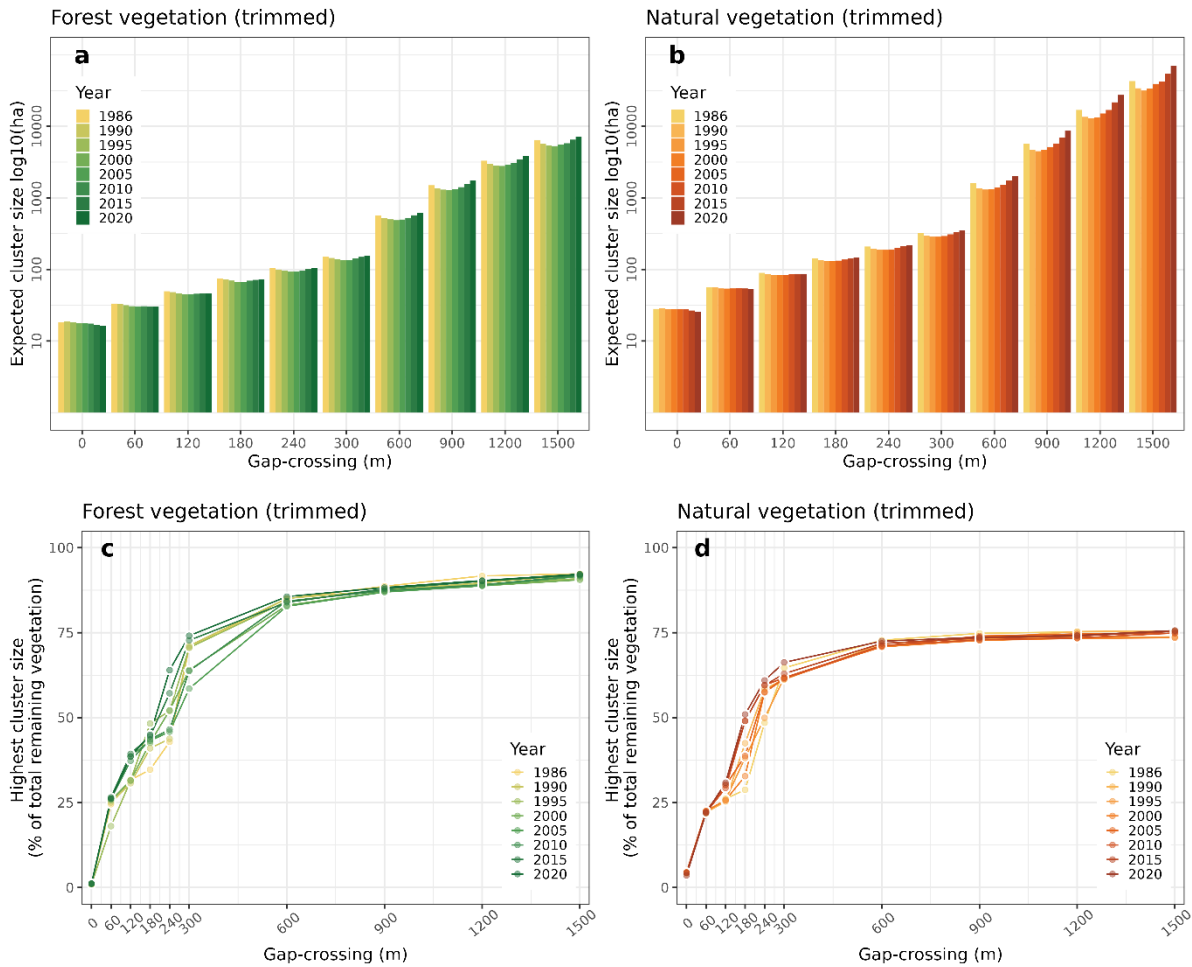
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1219 **Figure 5.** Cumulative (a and b) and per class (c and d) area under edge effect at different
 1220 depths for the Forest Vegetation (FV) and Natural Vegetation (NV) in the AF trimmed by
 1221 roads and railways. See Fig. S6 for not trimmed scenario.

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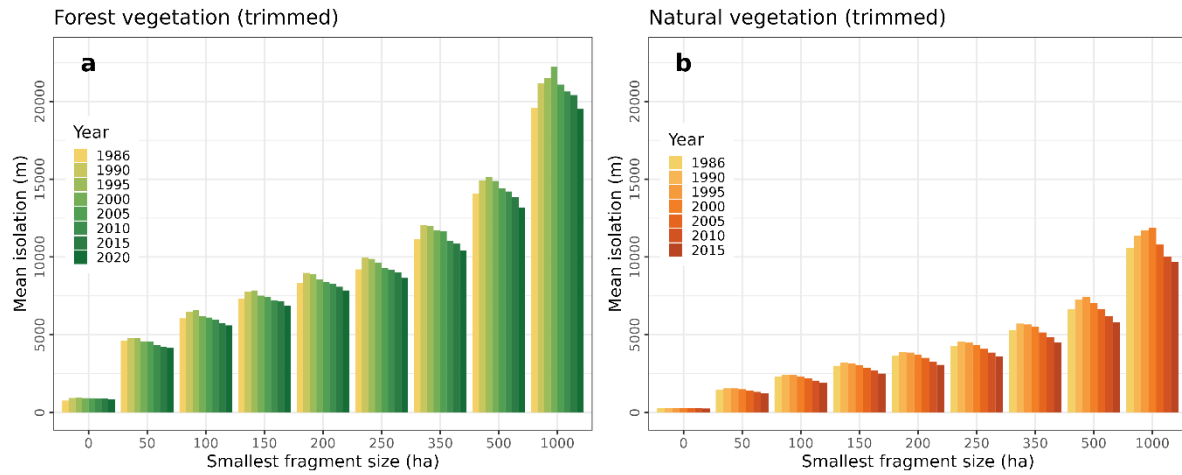
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1226 **Figure 6.** Expected cluster size (a-b) (average functional size; ha) of functionally connected
 1227 fragments of Forest Vegetation (FV) and Natural Vegetation (NV) for different functional
 1228 distance values (meters) for the AF trimmed by roads and railways. Highest functionally
 1229 connected vegetation cluster (c-d) (% of total cover of FV and NV) estimated across varying
 1230 functional distances (meters) for the AF. See Fig. S7 for not trimmed scenario.

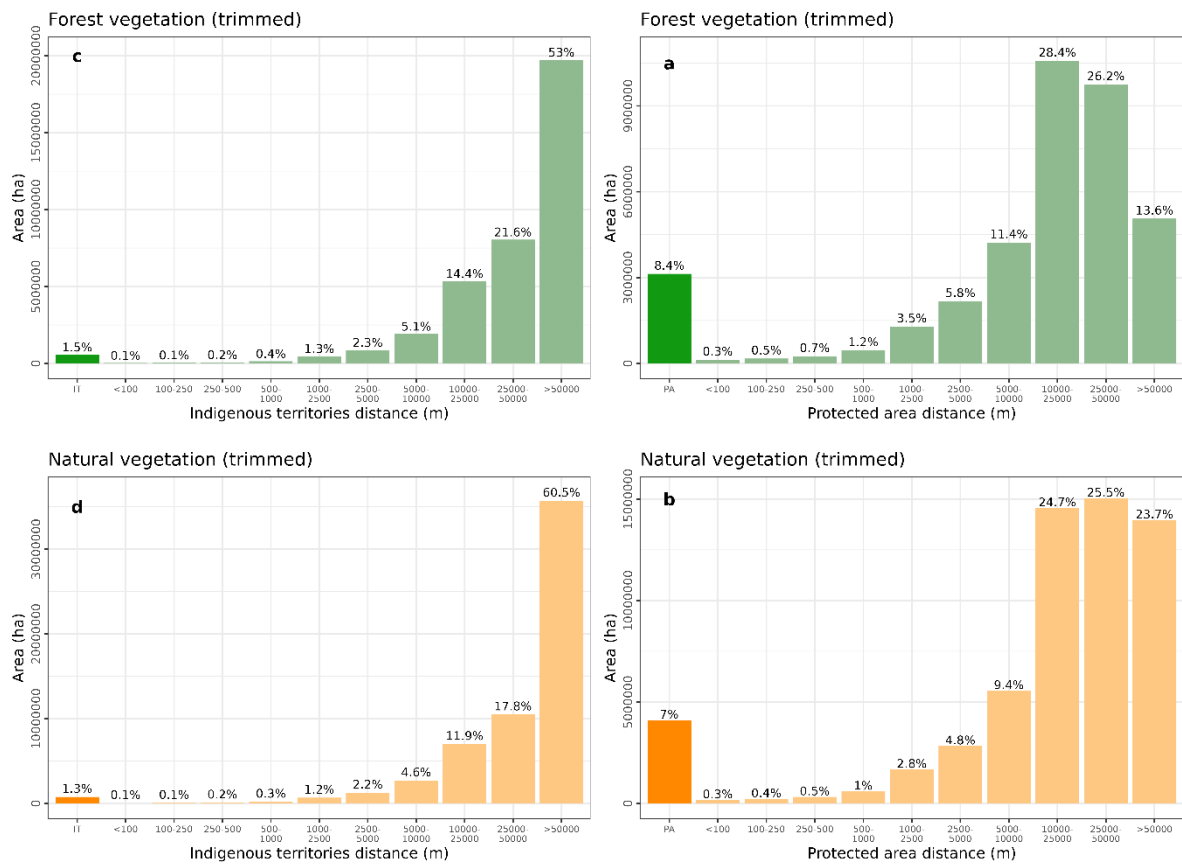
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 1235 **Figure 7.** Mean isolation between fragments of Forest Vegetation (FV) and Natural
 1236 Vegetation (NV) trimmed for the AF trimmed by roads and railways. Smallest fragments size:
 1237 0 ha (all fragments), 50 ha, 100 ha, 150 ha, 200 ha, 250 ha, 350 ha, 500 ha, and 1000 ha.
 1238 See Fig. S8 for not trimmed scenario.
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 1242 **Figure 8.** Amount of AF vegetation trimmed by roads and railways (area and percentage)
 1243 and their distance (meters) from protected areas (PA; a – FV and b – NV) and indigenous
 1244 territories (IT; c – FV and d – NV) per class. See Fig. S9 for not trimmed scenario.
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